UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EXAMINING RESPONSIVENESS OF GHANA'S LOCAL GOVERNMENT

SYSTEM TO DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF CITIZENS IN THE

CENTRAL REGION

BY

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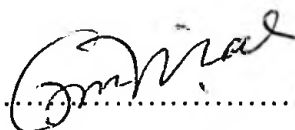SEPTEMBER 2016

DECLARATION

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

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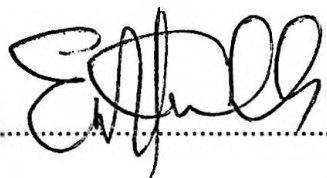
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We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

The study examined Ghana's Local Government System's responsiveness to the needs of communities in the Central Region. Specifically, the needs of households and communities, the extent of peoples' participation in development activities, citizens' perceptions of responsiveness of Cape Coast Metropolitan, Mfantseman Municipal and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District Assemblies to community's needs, were assessed. Mixed methods approach, a cross sectional and descriptive study design were used. The study adopted multi-stage sampling procedures to sample 1,143 household heads and 79 key informants. Interview schedule, interview guide and focus group discussion guides were used for data collection. The quantitative data were analysed using Statistical Product and Service Solutions software version 21 while qualitative data used content analysis, transcription and interpretation respectively. Sanitation and roads were among the three priority needs in each district, while the need for market, jobs and water were peculiar to CCMA, MMA and TAMDA respectively. Although most of the community needs of each Assembly were congruent with the respective MTDP priorities, they were hardly implemented. A few people and groups participated in needs identification through consultation and information sharing. Most (70%) respondents perceived the Assemblies as generally not very sensitive to local needs while 51 percent were dissatisfied with the speed of response. Access and utilisation of accountability mechanisms were low. Strengthening, the capacity of CCMA, MMA and TAMDA, public sensitisation to raise awareness, and attitudinal change were recommended for promoting responsiveness. These must be done by each assembly with the support of the Local Government Service Secretariat and National Council for Civic Education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

To my parents Samuel Kwaku Bamfo and Adobea Bamfo, both of blessed memory, my wife Dorothy and our children: Charles, Andrew and Zoe.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AP	Assembly Person
CCM	Cape Coast Metropolis
CCMA	Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly
CF	Conceptual Framework
CHPS	Community Health Planning System
CRCC	Central Regional Coordinating Council
DA	District Assembly
DACF	District Assembly Common Fund
DCE	District Chief Executive
DDF	District Development Fund
DPCU	District Planning Coordination Unit
FES	Fredriech Edbert Stichtfung (Foundation)
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HOD	Head of Department
HRBA	Human Rights Based Approach
IDS	Institute for Development Studies
IGF	Internally Generated Fund
ILGS	Institute for Local Government Studies
ILO	International Labour Organisation
JHS	Junior High School
KEEA	Komenda Edina Eguafo Abirem
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty

LGA	Local Government Area
LGSS	Local Government Service Secretariat
LI	Legislative Instrument
LOGRAF	Local Government Responsiveness and Accountable Framework
MDCE	Municipal/District Chief Executive
MCE	Metropolitan Chief Executive
MMDA	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assembly
MM	Mfantseman Municipality
MMA	Mfantseman Municipal Assembly
MMDCE	Metropolitan, Municipal, District Chief Executive
MLGRD	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
MPCU	Metropolitan/Municipal Planning Coordination Unit
MPHIL	Master of Philosophy
MTDP	Medium Term Development Plan
NCCE	National Council for Civic Education
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
PRCC	Public Relations Complaints Committee
PWD	Persons with Disability
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
SHS	Senior High School
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions

STMA	Sekondi Takoradi Metropolitan Assembly
TAMD	Twifo Ati-Mokwa District
TAMDA	Twifo Ati-Mokwa District Assembly
THLDD	Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District
THLDDA	Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District Assembly
UC	Unit Committee
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Globalisation and democratisation are motivating many countries to re-examine central-local governments' relationships, and enhance responsiveness to peoples' needs (Andrews & Shah, 2007). Development at the global, national and sub-national levels is guided by peoples' aspirations for improved well-being and better life (Agagu, 2004). Ghose, Mukherjee, Nag and Raj (2006) have also indicated that, the fundamental aspirations of people is to live in peace, liberty, dignity, equity, and to participate in the economic, social, cultural, political and human development processes in order to improve their well-being. These aspirations form the core development agenda of every responsive and accountable government. Consequently, Andrews and Shah (2007) contend that development ought to be conceived and measured systematically in terms of how responsive it is to peoples' liberties and needs.

The United Nations (UN, 2007a) Millennium Declaration, therefore, urges the global community, governments, and civil society to promote peace, freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature and uphold human rights in their development efforts and be more responsive to the needs and desires of citizens. However, Todaro and Smith (2011) assert that countries around the globe have adopted different strategies to respond to people's needs, expectations, and entitlements in order to promote sustained development.

Development is perceived as a continuous, complex, and multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary process of improvement and transformation of individuals, institutions, societies, economies, as well as changes in social structures, attitudes, behaviours, preferences and expectations (Ghose et al., 2006; Khan, 2006). On the other hand, Chambers (2005), Myrdal (1989) and Rondinelli and Heffron (2009) see the outcome of development as a sustained elevation of an entire society and social system from poverty and conditions of life considered as unacceptable towards a more humane, acceptable and better life.

Sen's (1999) capability approach also affirms development as a process which builds a person's capacity to function in order to be and achieve the d esired end, and live a more fulfilled life. Similarly, Todaro and Smith (2011) emphasise that development aims to achieve sustenance, which implies meeting basic needs and necessities of life such as food, water, sanitation, health, education and protection. They note that, true development occurs when the self-esteem and the rights of people are respected, while greater freedoms are enjoyed by them and their range of options expanded, in order to improve their well-being.

Following Sen's (1999) capability argument, and Todaro and Smith's (2011) core development goals, developmental needs correspond to the gap between where people and society are and what they require, in order to be, and function effectively to achieve their full potentials and live a happy life. Ahwoi (2010) and Kumi-Kyereme, Yankson and Thomi (2006) have observed that, the developmental needs of people may differ from person to person and geographically. They also emphasise that, development responds to needs and

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goals of people and communities such as being educated, healthy, and able to work and engage in cultural activities. Nevertheless, the United Nations (2007b) believe that development is a shared responsibility among government, private sector, civil society and development partners, and responsive to the diverse needs people have.

Rondinelli (2007) and Shah (2006) observe that the capacity of central and local governments to match citizens' needs and expectations to policy, interventions and outcomes play a critical role in development. Both advocate that the centre-local relationship play complementary roles to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability. In this respect, the principal agent theory expounded by Alderman (2007) underscores the nature and importance of this relationship, and spells out the mandates and responsibilities that the agents perform on behalf of the principals and for which they receive incentives and are held accountable. Yet, in most developing countries, the centre wields too much power and resources and tends to dominate the local level. Redistribution of power and resources in favour of local areas is expected to lead to more responsive development outcomes (Kundishora, 2009).

Responsiveness implies that, local governments must use their knowledge of local circumstances, organisational capacity and resources to match their response to local needs, irrespective of whatever operational challenges they may face at any point in time (Korten, 1984). Similarly, Crook and Sverrisson (1999) also emphasised that responsiveness implies congruence between government policies and citizens' needs and preferences. Vigoda (2002a) also emphasises the importance of speed with which officials respond to citizens' needs and rights, and advocates for its inclusion in responsiveness

evaluations. Supporting the above claim, Ghose et al. (2006) observed that responsiveness of the local government system is important for the developmental needs of citizens because these are immediate and directly linked to people's sustenance, self-esteem, freedom and well-being.

In this regard, Andrews and Shah (2007), and Kumi-Kyereme et al., (2006) assert that responsive local governments dialogue and listen to citizens' voice, even if they contradict and are incongruent to governments' policies and programmes, because government's mandate is to serve the people, and not its own parochial interest. Similarly, Olaniyan and Okemankinde (2008) claim that responsiveness require local governments to invest adequate resources in human capital and basic needs in order to free people from ignorance, disease, joblessness, social exclusion, and secure a more productive society that stimulate development. In addition, Todaro and Smith (2011) advocate for joint investment in education and health because they reinforce each other and maximise the gains from development.

Education affects all types of human development outcomes (UNDP, 2006). Green (2008) also opines that, it promotes better hygiene, safe use of water and sanitation, healthy lifestyles and determines better health outcomes. Duncan (2008) adds that responsiveness of local governments' to the education, health, water and sanitation needs of citizens is crucial for increasing investment in human capital. Similarly, Slits (2008) also corroborates the human capital theory propounded by Schultz (1961) and contests that although, these provisions are enshrined in the Constitution of developing countries as rights, it cannot be guaranteed that governments' would provide them readily (UN, 2008). Citizens' have to demand their rights and hold policy makers and

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service providers responsive to their needs and accountable for their deeds. However, this depends on access to and utilisation of mechanism for both.

Andrews and Shah (2007) use three basic arguments, being responsive, being responsible and being accountable, to explain the rationale for improving government responsiveness to local needs. First, being responsive guarantees that government does things right, by involving people in the decision making processes and matching its policies and services to local needs. Koethenbuerger (2007) endorses Shah's (2006) view that secondly, responsiveness ensures allocative efficiency that is, government acts responsibly, manages its resources prudently and provides services that are desired by its constituents, benchmarked with best practices, but costs less. Thirdly, responsiveness ensures that local government is accountable to its constituents (Hyden, 2010). Faguet (2014) corroborates the above views as consistent with the theoretical argument that decentralisation can make government more responsive and accountable to the governed.

The aforementioned issues represent the ideal situation. However, according to the political agency theory, local governments make policies and take decisions that sometimes conflict with the public interests. They also behave in a rent seeking and opportunistic ways to divert public resources for private and partisan interest (Besley, 2007). In this respect, Brinkerhoff and McNulty (2007) underscore the principal-agent theory in advocating for responsiveness. Responsiveness implies that, local government, which is the agent", acts in the best interest of citizens and state, "the principals", to ensure successful outcomes and mutual benefits. Ahwoi (2010) and As-Saber and Rabbi (2009) opine that, responsiveness of local government brings its public

institutions and officials' under close scrutiny, thereby, building trusts and reversing the growing trend of dissatisfaction about government performance.

Likewise, Khan (2012) and Scott (2012) observe that, responsiveness of the local government system is interconnected with participation and accountability, and advocate for a systems perspective to responsive studies. Systems theory propounded by Von Bertalanffy (1968) and structural functionalist theories advanced by Mooney, Knox and Schacht, (2002) emphasise the inter-relationships and interdependence among organisational sub-structures and advocate for a holistic approach in responding to developmental issues. However, Rodden and Wibbels (2012) indicate that information plays an important role in empowering citizens to exercise voice, hold local government accountable and responsive to community needs.

The theoretical arguments in favour of decentralisation, suggest that it increases responsiveness of local government over centralisation (Oates, 1972a). Likewise, Tiebout (1956) Wallis and Oates (1993) add that the central government is unresponsive to preference heterogeneity and thereby, is only able to implement uniform policies. However, Andrews and Shah (2007) observe that decentralisation is closely linked to the subsidiarity and proximity principles of making decisions at the lowest and closest level to people and emphasise that citizen's participation and accountability of decision-makers are interrelated. Ahwoi (2010) justifies the essence of local governments based on their inherent attribute to work closely with their constituents to prioritise needs, match them to policies and interventions and improve accountability.

Many developing countries have therefore decentralised and reformed their local government structures to better respond to local needs and demands

(Mitlin, 2000). Consequently, Andrews and Shah (2007) observe that local governments have been established to play greater roles in providing public services and facilitating development as well as accountability at that level. Muriisa (2008) and Robino (2009) also observed that, at the same time, many scholars and practitioners have proposed decentralisation reforms as a response to the failures of highly centralised states and as an effective strategy for responding to the developmental needs and improving the living conditions and well-being of people.

Decentralisation and local government have long been practiced in Africa. However, Ribot (2002) recounts that they became more visible in the 1980s and 1990s when they featured prominently, as one of the World Bank's criteria for structural adjustment, political and administrative reforms. According to Crook (2003), the widespread adoption of decentralisation in Africa is also as a result of popular perception that, it is an effective strategy for promoting responsive and accountable local governments. Consequently, decentralisation programmes in Africa followed the recommendations of the World Bank for developing countries to devolve power and resources to local and autonomous levels to better respond to developmental needs and aspirations, and uphold accountability (World Bank, 2004).

The aforementioned arguments underlie Ghana's system of local government and reforms that have been instituted (Crawford, 2004). In Ghana, the 1992 Constitution and the Local Government System Act (Act 462) of 1993, (Republic of Ghana, 1992;1993a) identify local government as a development authority with the main objective of reducing poverty, inequality and disparities in development across the 10 regions, and 216 MMDAs, comprising 6

metropolises, 54 municipalities and 156 districts (ILGS & FES, 2011). The aim is to ensure the responsive and effective delivery of public services (Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD, 2012).

Local governments in Ghana have the mandate to perform a wide range of functions that have been devolved from the centre. These include, regulating and maintaining peace, law and order, planning local level development, mobilising resources and revenue, rating and taxing, and providing public services like water, sanitation, health and education (Nkrumah, 2000). Local governments are also expected to provide the right public services in response to citizens needs, in the right way and with the highest degree of accountability (Shah, 2007; Smoke, 2003). However, local government institutions need adequate resources to perform their assigned duties and roles efficiently. Therefore, Geol (2010) emphasises that financial resources and prudent fiscal management are core components of Ghana's decentralisation system.

In Ghana, under the system of local government, metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies (MMDAs) have been mandated to respond to local needs by collaborating with local communities, civil society groups, private sector and development partners (ILGS & FES, 2011). Ahwoi (2010) indicates that in order to meet the developmental needs of people, MMDAs consult the citizens directly or through their elected representatives to identify their pressing developmental needs, and integrate them into their four-year Medium Term Development Plan (MTDP's) in accordance with the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) framework and provisions in Acts 462, 479 and 480 (NDPC, 2009).

Finances for responding to local needs are constitutionalised in the District Assembly's Common Fund (DACF), Act 455, which is a resource package transferred from central government to augment internally generated funds (IGF) from the District Assemblies. In addition, MMDAs raise revenue, mobilise and allocate resources for development (Ayee, 2003). They also provide and maintain public services such as education, health, sanitation, water, markets and roads (CRCC, 2009). Ahwoi (2010) corroborates that MMDAs are executive, legislative, deliberative, development planning and rating authorities. In the above respect, local governments ensure that people living within their jurisdiction have access to basic needs, such as water, sanitation and health, and also enjoy a better standard of living and well-being.

The Central Region has 20 MMDAs comprising one metropolis, six municipalities and 13 districts (MLGRD, 2012). The Cape Coast Metropolis is the only kind in the region (GSS, 2012). It was first established as a municipality by LI 1373 in 1988 and upgraded to a metropolis by LI, 1927 in 2007. The other LGAs selected for the study, Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District (TAMD) were also established in 1988 and re-demarcated in 2012. LI, 1862 upgraded Mfantseman District to a municipality status in 2007 and maintained same in 2012. However, the municipality's boundaries were re-demarcated and a new district, Ekumfi District was carved out by LI, 2028. Likewise, Twifo-Herman Lower Denkyira District was established by LI, 1377 in 1988, and split into Twifo Ati-Mokwa District by LI 2023 and Twifo Herman Lower Denkyira District by LI 2022 in 2012. Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District are considered by the MLGRD as deprived districts in the Central Region (CRCC, 2012: GSS, 2012).

A major objective of central government for creating new local government areas' is to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability in administration, improve public services and local level development (MLGRD, 2012). It is anticipated that the legal and administrative changes in the status of the above MMDAs and the expected resource inflows, would enhance greater participation, responsiveness and accountability, reduce poverty and sustain local level development. However, ascertaining these benefits are matters for empirical study.

Problem Statement

Decentralisation advocates have argued that, local governments being at the lowest tier and closest to people, are more responsive to the needs of local people and accountable to them, than central governments due to information advantage that the former have over the national ones (Shah, 2003:2006). Crook (2003) found that decentralisation in Africa does not improve local government responsiveness to the needs of people and contends that closer decision making process to citizens, neither automatically increases citizens' involvement in the process of resource allocation, nor accountability of it. Decentralisation is also linked to speedier and better public services delivery, and increased participation, more accountability and responsiveness of government to demands and preferences of local people (Faguet, 2014).

However, the promises of decentralisation have not always been fulfilled. Lockwood (2006) observes that decentralisation has failed to ensure that the most vulnerable populations have access to basic services, and their needs adequately met. Collier (2008) also argues further that, available evidence

that decentralisation is believed to improve service delivery, and allow citizens greater participation in decision-making and hold officials and service providers to account is inconclusive. Likewise, Faguet (2008) thinks that empirical literature on the benefits of decentralization as reported in different studies failed to establish responsiveness in their conclusions. Akramov and Asante (2009) also indicate that several studies on decentralisation have been conducted worldwide, mostly in the developed and developing countries of Asia, and to some extent in Africa.

Moreover, Robinson (2009) observes that in sub-Saharan African countries, responsiveness is rarely studied, although most countries are pursuing decentralisation programmes and reforms. Empirical results reported from these limited studies on local government responsiveness evaluations indicate a mixture of confirmations, contradictions and inconclusive results (Cho, 2010). The reality is that, not all local governments are responsive to their constituent's demands due to agency problems and conflict of interest from principal agent relationships (Andrews & Shah, 2007; World Bank, 2010). This exacerbates the needs-response gaps in development.

Supporting this proposition, Khan (2012) and Scott (2012) argue that low participation and weak accountability at all levels of government, hinder local government responsiveness to citizens needs. In addition, they observed that traditionally, efforts to promote participation, accountability and responsiveness, have been taken independently, although the issues are interrelated. Faguet (2014) also observes that, although, most of the studies by World Bank, UNDP and other bodies that sponsor research in decentralisation are more interested in the effects on service outputs than quality governance

outcomes, a few have focused on responsiveness. Yet, the theoretical and empirical debate seems unresolved and inconclusive, thus, leaving gaps in knowledge and government's responsiveness evaluation.

In order to understand the causes and effects of low responsiveness of the local government system to community needs and evolve effective strategies to address any gaps, the problem tree analytical framework was applied to the research problem (see Figure 1). Collier (2008) postulates that low responsiveness of local governments to citizens' needs may be caused by several contextual factors, citing poor needs analysis, low participation in planning and resource allocations, and low demand for accountability as the common ones. Cho (2010) also attributes low responsiveness to citizens' low awareness of their entitlements, low access to information and mechanisms for participation and accountability on the demand side, while Ahwoi (2010) posits weak institutional capacity on the supply side. Rodden and Wibbels (2012) claim that, low responsiveness results in poor service delivery. Furthermore, Adeyemi (2012) posits that government's inability to satisfy the needs of the citizens' make them dissatisfied with government performance.

As indicated in the problem tree analysis, Figure 1, the starter problem of low responsiveness of local government to citizens' developmental needs in the Central Region could be caused by:

- Poor examination of priority needs,

- Poor participation in needs determination,

- Inadequate resource flow to the sub national levels,

- Weak organisational capacity, and

- Weak accountability of local government institutions.
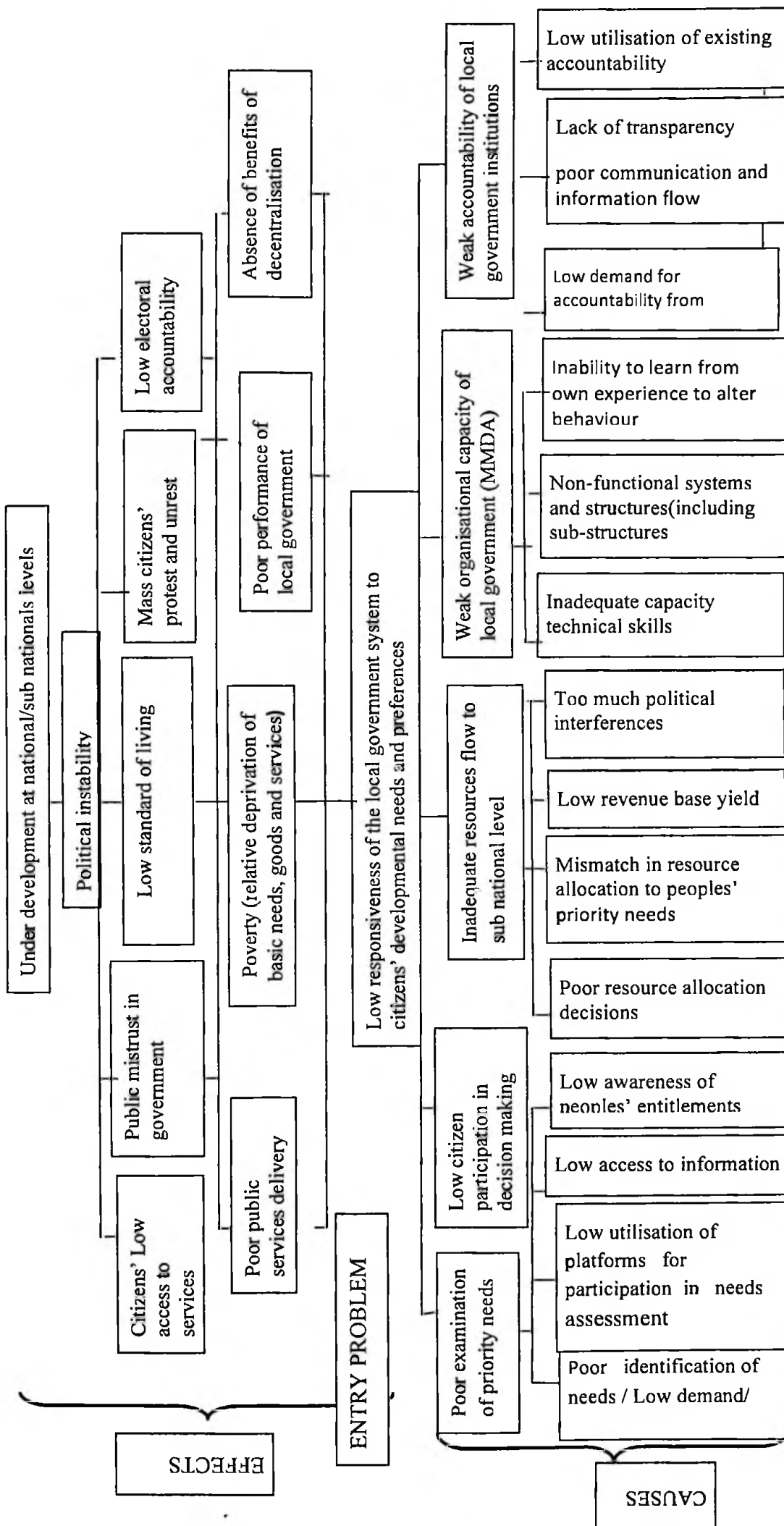
Figure 1: Problem tree analysis of low responsiveness of Local Government System to community developmental needs

Sources: Andrew & Shah (2007), Faguet (2014) and Bamfo (2013).

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Resource constraints to foster fully fledged decentralisation, and support local government to perform their mandated functions well has been identified as one of the key challenges to responsiveness (Akramov & Asante, 2009). Consequently, Gyimah-Boadi (2009) identifies diversion of resources, rent seeking behaviours and political agency problems between principals and agents as affecting responsiveness. In the above respect, Ahwoi (2010) criticised the decentralised local government system in Ghana on the grounds of poor participation, weak capacity, and inadequate resources, and reports that the 86 statutory functions assigned them mismatch with their financial resources. The inability of most MMDAs to generate adequate internal revenue to finance their own development leaves them heavily dependent on the centre for transfers that are inadequate, released late, and thus widen the resource gap in development.

Despite the perceived advantages of responsive local governments, literature suggests that, Ghana's experience in particular, has been little researched. Few surveys have been done in Ghana over the last two decades from 1992 to 2012 to assess the responsiveness of the local government system to the developmental needs of households and communities (Akramov & Asante, 2009). Notable exceptions are Acheampong (1995), Ahmad, Brosio and Tanzi (2008), Crook and Manor (1998), Kessey (1995), Korbo and Devas (2000) and Kumi-Kyereme et al. (2006). All these studies found mixed and inconclusive results on local government responsiveness to local needs.

Furthermore, studies on responsiveness in Ghana have not been approached from systems perspective. The practice so far has been to look at participation, accountability and responsiveness from their individual positions and not holistically. Similarly, there have been fewer responsiveness studies in

the Central Region (CRCC, 2009). A notable exception is a study by Kumi-Kyereme et al. (2006) in which the then Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District was studied alongside seven other districts in the national context. Literature points to gaps in responsiveness studies in the Cape Coast Metropolis Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District. These raise evidence gaps worthy of study in the selected districts.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study was to examine the responsiveness of Ghana's local government system to the developmental needs of citizens in the Central Region. The general objective was linked to the entry problem of low responsiveness while the specific objectives were linked to the root causes as indicated in the problem tree analysis (Figure 1). The specific objectives were to:

1. Examine the priority developmental needs of households and communities;

2. Assess the extent to which people's participation in the determination of developmental needs influences responsiveness;

3. Examine peoples' perceptions of responsiveness of the District Assembly system to households and community developmental needs;

4. Analyse the effective utilisation of accountability mechanisms in the MMDAs;

5. Examine the operational challenges to Assemblies' responsiveness and accountability; and

6. Make recommendations to enhance responsiveness of the local government system to the developmental needs of households and communities.

Objective one was linked to poor examination of priority needs, while objective two was linked to poor participation in development activities at the local level. The third objective was directly linked to low responsiveness to public needs and services delivery. Similarly, the fourth objective, weak accountability is both a cause and an effect of low responsiveness, while the fifth objective, fuses inadequate resources and weak organisational capacity into operational challenges for further examination.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the priority developmental needs of households and communities?

2. To what extent does people's participation in the determination of community developmental needs influence responsiveness?

3. How do people perceive the responsiveness of the District Assembly to the developmental needs of households and communities?

4. How effective are the accountability mechanisms at the District Assembly level utilised?

5. What are the operational challenges to the Assemblies' responsiveness and accountability?

Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study covers the Central Region of Ghana, and focuses on the Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly, Mfantseman Municipal Assembly and Ati-Mokwa District. Institutionally, the study covered all the three categories in the Local Government System in Ghana, namely the

metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies in the Central Region. The study covered nine Town and Area Councils and 27 communities with urban and rural characteristics.

Thematically, the study focuses on four interrelated issues, the developmental needs of households and communities, participation in needs identification and decision making, responsiveness to household needs and accountability to citizens at the local level. The problem tree analysis informed the research objectives and questions, which in turn informed the scope of the study. The scope of the study informed the theoretical and empirical literature review and the conceptual framework, the design of the data collection instruments and data analysis.

Development impacts are felt at the household level more than the community. A facility can be available in a community but inaccessible to poor and deprived households. The focus of development has shifted to the household and micro level. In Ghana, recent attempts to address local needs and poverty, target interventions to households. For example, the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme targets vulnerable households for support. Ghana Statistical Service also uses household level data to measure core welfare of people, which is a measure of development. Furthermore, the Local Government Act, 462, mandates local governments to address the needs of all residents and implicitly households. In the above respect, household level is more intriguing for responsiveness study.

The functional roles, the operations and performance of the local government system in the context of participatory, accountability and responsive processes and their outcomes, which constitute the supply-side are

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examined. The mechanisms available to citizens to actively participate in the decision-making, development planning, budgeting and implementation processes, the demand side, which are prerequisites for accountability and responsiveness, were interrogated. In addition, citizens' perception of satisfaction with public service delivery, local government performance, and ability to hold them accountable, representing the demand side is expounded in the study. Furthermore, congruence between peoples' preferences and district assembly's development priorities, resource allocations and investments, and citizens' perceptions of improved public services were examined.

Finally, the flow of information between citizens and local government; the challenges encountered in responding to the needs of their constituents and the factors influencing local government responsiveness are discussed. The study draws on data from the 4 year MTDP implemented from 2010-2013. Data collection started in April 2013 but the field work was conducted in October, November and December, 2013 and January 2014.

Significance of the Study

First, the research intended to make contributions to the on-going debate on reforming democratic decentralised local government system to enhance development outcomes in the region and Ghana. The study was motivated by the importance that national government, development partners and citizenry have attached to decentralisation and local government as a strategy that could effectively respond to the developmental needs and improve well-being of people. It would also serve as a reminder to local government actors and other stakeholders in the region to be more responsive to the developmental needs of

people. Invariably, it provided another platform for citizens in the Central Region to voice their concerns and frustrations.

Secondly, it would make policy makers and implementers' aware of the nature of local government system's responsiveness and challenges to participation and accountability. Results of the study would further draw their attention to the need to perceive participation, accountability and responsiveness of the decentralised local government from systems perspectives to increase development outcomes. It would help among others to elucidate demands of people and raise policy makers and development practitioners' awareness on areas for reforming local government system in the region and country.

Thirdly, the findings of the study can serve as a reference point for researchers, academicians, and institutions to evaluate local government responsiveness and services delivery. The lessons could serve as important considerations when new districts are being created, as well as, inform re-thinking of governance and development at the local level.

Operational Definitions of Key Variables

Developmental needs, participation, responsiveness and accountability, the key concepts and their variables used in the study are explained below:

1. Developmental needs: Development is that which responds to the felt needs of people. The felt needs of people constitute a gap between the current undesirable conditions and the desired conditions that they prefer and want to enjoy. Thus, developmental needs measure the gap between the current situation and the desired preferences, on the assumption that citizens have coherent and identifiable preferences and these may vary from person and locality over time.

Developmental needs could be classified into types, ranked or prioritised in order of importance.

2. Responsiveness: This measures the degree of congruence between government policies, and popular community needs and preferences, while institutional responsiveness measures people's satisfaction with performance, outputs and outcomes. Congruence implies perfect match between policies and programmes of local government and community needs while incongruence indicates the contrary. In operationalising responsiveness, this study draws on congruence, accuracy, satisfaction, participation and access to government structures, information and key officials as applied in similar studies by Crook and Manor (1998) and Kumi-Kyereme et al. (2006) in Ghana, and Schou (2000) in Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Accuracy measures people's level of satisfaction with local government performance, service outputs and outcomes. Satisfaction with services, measures the availability, accessibility and extent of utilisation, while operation measure transparency, access to information, openness of systems, processes and procedures (Thomas & Palfrey, 1996). Vigoda (2002b) added speed which refers to prompt attention and measures the time interval that citizens have to wait before their needs and requests are addressed by relevant local government institutions and officials.

3. Participation: Is operationalised in this study as, households and community members directly taking part in local government decision-making in the political, economic, social and cultural life of the community or indirectly through their representatives (Andrews & Shah, 2007). Political participation examines people's involvement in election of local representatives, while development participation measures people's involvement in decision making,

implementation and enjoyment of the benefits.

4. Accountability: Is also operationalised as answerability, that is, the obligation of local government to inform their constituents about their activities and to justify them, as well as, ability to contact key officials and representatives (James & Rose, 2011). It is also operationalised as the ability of the electorate to demand accountability, reward their elected representatives for good performance by retaining them in office, or punish unresponsive and bad performance by voting them out when their mandate ends. Citizens' perceptions on all of the above variables serve as proxy to evaluate responsiveness and accountability.

Organisation of the Study

The thesis is organised into seven chapters. Chapter One covers the background to the study, problem statement, objectives and research questions, scope and the significance of the study. Chapter Two reviews literature on the theoretical and conceptual issues related to the research. It examines theories of development, human capital, basic needs, decentralisation, principal-agent, Needs, local government, participation, responsiveness and accountability have been reviewed to provide conceptual basis for the study. Chapter Three reviews Ghana's local government system's responsiveness empirically and evidence from other countries. Chapter Four discusses how the study was designed, carried out, and data was analysed. Chapters Five and Six analyse evidence from the field based on the research objectives. Chapter Seven presents summary, conclusions, recommendations, limitations of the study and areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED THEORETICAL AND

CONCEPTUAL LITERATURE

Introduction

Literature review helps researchers to sharpen and refine the problem to be investigated and provide an explanation of the current state of knowledge in a chosen research area as found in academic books and journal articles (Kumekpor, 2003). Creswell (2003) adds that review of related literature provides a starting point for researchers to identify gaps, compare, contrast, critique, connect, summarise and evaluate information in the chosen field of study. Furthermore, it provides information on theories, concepts and empirical evidence for a critical analysis of the methodologies and approaches other researchers have used in solving similar problems (Babbie, 2005). Bryman and Bell (2007) also add that it highlights the strengths, weaknesses, contestations, inconsistencies and contradictions in the existing literature and draws lessons to inform the design and conduct of the new study.

This chapter reviews literature on theories, principles, and conceptual issues related to development and developmental needs, decentralisation and local government, responsiveness, participation and accountability, and how they all inform local level development. The theories and concepts are synergized and presented in a conceptual framework to guide the study.

The chapter is organised as follows:

- Theoretical Framework

- Theories informing development and developmental needs

- Theories and principles underpinning responsiveness and accountability;

- Theory and principles of participation,

- Conceptual issues

- Conceptual framework.

Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework has become a universal phenomenon in social sciences for facts to be investigated precisely within a framework rather than in an individual and isolated manner. Goode and Hart (1952) emphasise that social science research is theory based, operated and guided by relevant concepts and principles of human behaviour. Several theories have been propounded to explain the fundamental relationships between development, decentralisation of local government systems, responsiveness to local needs and accountability to the citizens (Oates, 1972b; Rondinelli et al., 1983; Andrews & Shah, 2007).

Theories Informing Development and Developmental Needs

This study was guided by the theory of human capital (Schultz, 1961), motivational needs (Maslow, 1965) basic needs and rights-based approach (ILO, 1976) all of which underpin development and developmental needs. The human capital theory was propounded by Schultz (1961) and developed extensively by Becker (1964). The theory indicates that the development of a particular, society depends on its physical and human capital stock.

Fagerlind and Saha (1997) added that, human capital theory provides a basic justification for large public expenditure on education, health, water and sanitation in many countries. Similarly, Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008) assert that the human capital theory is premised on the belief that investment in human capital is an engine of growth and that expanding the quality and

quantity of education, healthcare, water and sanitation in any country promotes economic development. Faguet (2004) also maintains that investment in these aforementioned areas lead to complimentary investments in other social services. Furthermore, Todaro and Smith (2011) argue that people must stay healthy to function at their peak. Consequently, the provision of education, health, water and sanitation to communities is seen as investments in human capital, which is equally worthwhile as the physical capital.

Proponents of the human capital theory, therefore, believe that investment in human capital such as education and health improves the conditions of life of people (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008). It also increases the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability, which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings. Likewise, Green (2008) theoretically assumes that investment in human capital such as education, health, water and sanitation is highly instrumental and necessary to improve the living conditions and well-being of people. Todaro and Smith (2011) also advocate for joint investment in education and healthcare on the grounds that they reinforce each other in maximising returns and are mutually supportive of development outcomes.

In the theory of motivational needs, Maslow (1965) identified physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love, esteem and self actualisation as the most critical human needs. However, physiological needs which include food, shelter, water, sanitation and participation in decisions that affect one's life are considered the most basic. Similarly, Todaro and Smith (2011) also identified sustenance, self-esteem and freedom to choose from a wider range of options, as the most pressing needs. Although, Maslow's, and

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Todaro and Smith's classification of needs differ, yet, in reality the elements of the categorisations are similar and emphasise common areas of need and concern. According to Todaro and Smith (2011) the basic elements of sustenance needs which include food, clothing, shelter, water, participation and protection are similar to Maslow's (1965) physiological and safety needs.

In the same vein, Maslow's (1965) security and safety needs are considered as protection and survival needs by Todaro and Smith (2011). On one hand, Maslow's (1965) belongingness needs refer to being accepted and loved by others, as well as, having strong ties with ones' family. Furthermore, Todaro and Smith's (2011) freedom from servitude, implies ability to live in freedom from intimidation, fear and suppression and exercise choices from wider options, points to higher order needs fulfilment. Although, Maslow (1965) sees needs as hierarchical, Todaro and Smith (2011) maintain that needs are a continuum, thus, needs at one level should not be fully satisfied before moving to the next one. However, they agree with Kumi-Kyereme et al. (2006) that, to be responsive, local governments must address the diverse needs.

Similarly, proponents of the basic needs approach to development, ILO (1976) argues that provision of education, healthcare, water and sanitation facilities are basic requirements of life upon which other forms of developmental needs can be met. Even though, the basic needs approach emerged on the development landscape in the late 1970s, and became a major development strategy for the World Bank and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1997), its relevance still holds. The basic needs concept postulates that, to exist, human beings require not only physical and tangible items, such as food, shelter, clothing, water and health for survival, but other

requirements such as employment, education, transportation, and participation in the social and political life (ILO, 1976).

According to Ogwang and Abdou (2003), architects of the basic needs theory have identified the ten most basic needs as nutrition, clothing, shelter, education, health, water and sanitation, transportation, participation, employment and productivity. The satisfaction of basic needs means meeting the minimum requirements of a household for personal consumption including food and access to essential services, such as safe water, sanitation, health and education (ILO, 1976). Sarker (2003) adds that unmet human needs lead to poverty, hence, national and local governments must be responsive to household and community needs. However, UNDP (2006) articulates Sarker's view and reports that the majority of households and people living in the developing countries, lack these basic necessities of life even though they are entitled to them as basic rights.

Furthermore, Andrews and Shah (2007) observe that in most developing countries where these basic necessities are available, the quantity and quality of services remain unsatisfactory as access to adequate and sustained supply of quality services are a major developmental gap at the national and sub-national levels. Although the rights-based approach has been implemented by various developing countries, yet, United Nations (UNDP, 2008) and World Bank . (World Bank, 2008) share Andrews and Shah's (2007) view that the results so far are unsatisfactory. Consequently, the situation has attracted the attention of governments and development institutions like the UN and World Bank (UNDP, 2008; World Bank, 2008). All of them agree that, in order to address

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these gaps, the rights based approach was adopted by the international agencies and development partners, as well as, national and sub-national governments.

On the contrary, Frankovits (2002) suggests that the rights-based approach to development is situated on the notion of justice, empowerment and equity. Kumi-Kyereme, Yankson and Thomi (2006) recognise that people have material and non material needs that have to be satisfied in order to optimise their well-being. Yet, according to ILO (1976) in spite of the recognition that awareness to satisfy both material and non-material needs of households and communities is critical to development, they are often overlooked and neglected in developmental efforts, thus leaving gaps in development at all levels. Todaro and Smith (2009) endorse ILO (1976) and Kumi-Kyereme et al.'s (2006) view that developmental needs are often overlooked or poorly captured by policy makers and interventions, thereby, undermining people's rights and freedoms.

Although, Chapman, Azumah, Otto, Uprety and Pereira, (2004) see development as an inalienable human right, by virtue of which every human being is entitled to participate in, contribute, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development outcomes, yet, in reality not all human development needs and fundamental freedoms can be fully realised. In their argument, they contend that resources to meet human needs are limited, hence the need to prioritise them. Consequently, United Nations (2008) has indicated that a rights-based approach to development unites economic and social rights with political and civil rights in order to build a comprehensive vision of a new, just and visible social contract between the state and citizens.

Reinforcing this notion of rights, Green (2008) also contends that a rights-based approach to development ensures that all right holders can exercise

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their human rights freely and demand accountability from duty bearers. Green (2008) has also criticised needs on the grounds that they are not common to all and differ by locality thereby aggregating them may create entropy. On the contrary, Slits (2008) believes that rights are universal and always imply correlative duties. Rights-based approach describes situations not in simple terms of human needs but in terms of societies' obligations to respond to the inalienable rights of individuals and empowers people to demand justice as a right not as charity.

Similarly, Green (2008) emphasises that having rights alone are not enough, but rather, the ability to exercise those rights and demand accountability from duty bearers, hence, the need for citizens to be empowered to participate in the decision making process. Hyden (2010) adds that participation in decision-making ensures that the needs of the people are known by their governments and representatives. In addition, UNDP (2009a; 2009b) observes that human rights act as a compelling tool to mobilise and empower people, particularly the poor, marginalised groups and those excluded from decision- making in society. Slits (2008) also corroborates this argument and advocates that needs would first have to be translated to rightful claims for local government to appropriately respond.

Green (2008) asserts that a rights-based approach, therefore, upholds the belief that people and societies are the active subjects of their own development as they seek to realise their rights and reject the notion that societies are people who cannot meet their basic needs as passive recipients of charity. UNDP (2009) recognises that people must have work, food to eat, easy access to quality education and health services, safe water and sanitation on a daily basis, and to

live in safe communities, and participate in governance and development processes and demand accountability, for sustainable human development. Corroborating the above views, the Department for International Development (2009) notes that, development actors seek to build peoples' capabilities, guarantee their rights to the essentials of decent life which includes education, healthcare, water, sanitation, and protection against violence or disaster.

The foregoing exposition of the key issues in the needs based theories suggest that the human capital, basic needs, motivational needs and rights based approaches to development appear to be different and distinct. Yet, they are interdependent, complementary and reinforce each other in advocating for common areas of investment in human development. Generally, the four theories reviewed so far seem to be in agreement that government should invest more resources in all of the aforementioned areas in order to stimulate development at all levels. They all seem to point out that although several efforts have been made by governments of various countries to focus development interventions to respond to developmental needs of people, some gaps still exist in developing countries, especially in Africa (Shah, 2006).

Similarly, Muriisa (2008) emphasises that governments of developing countries, especially in Africa and Asia, have failed in their development quest to make human capital, basic needs and rights issues top priority in responding to developmental needs of their citizens. From literature reviewed, it seems to suggest that the governance forms and development administration systems that have been adopted in the past, failed to deliver and respond to citizens' needs and expectations especially at the local level. In this respect, Andrews and Shah (2007) assert that, there seems to be needs - response gap, as well as theory -

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practice gap in development. In order to, address these gaps, several theories and principles underpinning responsiveness of the decentralised local government system to citizens needs were introduced.

Theories and Principles Underpinning Responsiveness and Accountability

Several theories and principles provide rationale for decentralisation and a strong role for local government to invest in the aforementioned areas of need on the basis of efficiency, accountability, manageability, autonomy and responsiveness (Shah, 2005). Stigler's (1957) menu, principle of subsidiarity, correspondence principle, decentralisation theorem by Oates (1972a), principal-agent, political agency, and elite theory, underpin responsiveness of local government to local needs and preferences, and accountability.

According to Stigler (1957) and Andrews and Shah (2007) and corroborated by Ahwoi (2010), the closer a representative government is to the people, the better it tends to work, and the more responsive it is to citizen's needs and demands. This view is based on the assumption that decision made at the local level, better reflects the needs of local people. The subsidiarity principle complements Stigler's menu, and advocates that the provision of development services, taxing, spending and regulatory functions should be exercised by lower levels of government, unless a convincing case can be made for assigning them to higher levels of government (Oates,1972a). Building on Stigler's menu, Oates (1972a) Andrews and Shah (2007) also advanced the correspondence principle as a related concept to the principle of subsidiarity.

The correspondence principle complements the jurisdictional design by Stigler and states that the jurisdiction that determines the level of provision of

each public good should include precisely the set of individuals who consume the good (Oates,1972a). In this respect, participation and responsiveness would be enhanced. However, due to the small sizes of metropolis, municipalities, districts and communities in developing countries, the correspondence principle requires a large number of overlapping jurisdictions to be effective. Consequently, Oates (1993) in Andrews and Shah (2007) suggest a system where some of the functions of the central government that could be performed best by local institutions are transferred to the sub-national level and proposed the decentralisation theorem.

The theorem suggests that efforts to decentralise the provision of basic services and facilities to the sub-national level is the most efficient, effective and responsive way to meet the developmental needs at the local level (Shah, 2003: 2006). It also indicates that each public service should be provided by the jurisdiction having control over the minimum geographic area that would internalise benefits and costs of such provision. In this respect, the theorem advocates for people living closer to and enjoying service provision from a geographical area to participate in the decision-making process. This implies that the closer the government is to the people, the more knowledge and information it has concerning local needs and the better it works to tailor interventions to respond accurately to local needs.

Reinforcing this argument Greco (2003) and Crawford (2004) stress that in the presence of diverse preferences and needs, the provision of services from a decentralised government will lead to increased welfare of citizens and society as a whole. According to Crook (2003), local governments are likely to be more knowledgeable about citizens' needs than central governments due to the

proximity principle. They are also more likely to involve the local people who are the beneficiaries in the provision of facilities and services in the decision-making process. Thus, greater participation by the local people would enable local governments to better respond to the needs and expectations of households including the poor, marginalised and vulnerable in society (Koethenbuerger, 2007). The search for a strategy to enable participation, responsiveness and accountability in government led to the emergence of decentralisation.

Rondinelli et al. (1983) asserts that decentralisation is essentially about the distribution of power and resources, both amongst different levels and territories of state and among different interests in relationship to the ruling elite, both locally and nationally. A key argument used by proponents of decentralisation is that, it makes governments responsive to local needs and demands by tailoring consumption to the preferences of smaller homogenous groups (Wallis & Oates, 1993; World Bank, 2004). On the other hand, opponents (Crook & Sverrisson, 1999; Smith, 1985) dispute and counter, this position arguing that local governments are prone to elite capture. They argue that lack of financial, human and technical resources will prevent them from providing appropriate public services under decentralisation. But neither side is able to substantiate its argument convincingly with empirical evidence.

Although these claims have to a little extent been empirically tested, evidence available is at best anecdotal and inconclusive (Ribot, 2002). Tiebout (1956) indicates that for decentralisation to work, inter-jurisdictional competition for attracting mobile citizens should result in higher responsiveness to local needs. However, Bardhan (2002) contends that mobility in developing countries may not be high for this effect to dominate and that administrative,

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political and economic reasons influence mobility.

The above views are consistent with Rondinelli et al., (1983) arguments for decentralisation which essentially fall into three overlapping themes, administrative, political and economic. Administratively, it is impossible to make decisions about every part of the country from the centre because the centre lacks detailed knowledge about local needs and conditions, thus the larger and diverse the country is, the greater is the administrative need to decentralise. On the political side, democratic governance implies citizens exercising choice about how resources are used and services are delivered in their communities. Local self government increases opportunities for participation and accountability, thereby deepening democracy and increasing democratic legitimacy.

Haque (1997) posits that it is at the local level that citizens have direct encounters with and can exercise control over government organisations. The more authority and responsibilities are decentralised to the local institutions, the more the need for holding these local institutions' accountable (Anwar & Shah, 2007). However, this requires empowering local people who can influence the policies and programmes of these local institutions and demand accountability.

The theoretical arguments advanced in favour of decentralisation and the formation of local government identifies responsiveness as one of the potential gains of decentralisation (Oates, 1972b; Tiebout, 1956). Inman (1979) cited in Shah (2007) adds that, decentralisation in a democratic context should lead to greater responsiveness to constituents' demands and have positive impact on improved local access to resources. Crook and Sverrisson (2001) also note that the degree of responsiveness to the developmental needs of the poor and other

vulnerable groups, and the extent to which there is an impact on development are determined primarily by the politics of local-central relations and commitment of political authorities to development.

Crook (2003) observed that even when the interest of the poor have achieved some representation through democratic decentralisation, accountability mechanisms have not been strong enough to ensure that these interests are effectively represented in policy making. Nevertheless, accountability at the national level without local level accountability remains ineffective because central government is too distant from the people (Crawford, 2004). In addition, it is more likely that local authorities are responsive to local concerns rather than to the dictates of central government, because they are accountable to the local electorate rather than central government ministries, departments and agencies.

Theoretically, decentralisation should improve public sector outputs by improving accountability and responsiveness of government thereby; enhance governance and development at the local level (Oates, 1993). Andrews and Shah (2007) identified accountability gains as a central theme because decentralisation shifts government authority closer to the local people and accountability to the governed acts as a binding constraint on public servants behaviour. Building on the above assertions, Faguet (2014) argues that decentralisation can improve the accountability and responsiveness of government by altering its structure so as to increase citizens' voice and change the incentives that public officials face. The theory assumes that local representatives have the ability to call the representatives to account for their actions and performance and to discipline or reward representatives accordingly.

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On the other hand, Gaventa (2007) believes that citizens are able to exercise the above mandate only where political representation is highly localised, and citizens have information about government performance and unimpeded access to accountability mechanisms. In this respect, the principle of transparency plays a key role in ensuring that voice and exit mechanisms facilitate accountability. Likewise, Andrews and Shah (2007) argue that citizens' need mechanisms through which they can mount such challenges and respond to information they receive and hold public officials accountable. Yet, this is not the case in many local governments due to citizens' lack of information about performance and mechanisms for response. In this respect, Andrews and Shah (2007) think that responsiveness and accountability of local government are poorly evaluated in terms of process and outcomes.

Corroborating the above views, Eaton, Kaiser and Smoke (2011) argue that accountability gains are not always evident in local government assessment. In this respect, they argued for a systemic approach to evaluate participation, responsiveness and accountability. Supporting this view, Khan (2012) and Scott (2012) also suggest that achieving accountability alone may not inure to the benefits of decentralisation, because they are interlinked and interconnected to participation and responsiveness outcomes. However they did not offer suggestions on how to operationalise the systems approach to responsiveness evaluation, thereby, leaving a gap in knowledge. The overall functioning of the decentralised system depends on the functions, systems, and structures in place, the interconnectedness among them and is best explained by the systems and structural functionalism theories.

Despite the aforementioned arguments in favour of accountability of local institutions depending on their modes and structures of governance, local accountability remains critical. At the national level, public accountability is extremely essential for maintaining public confidence in governance, justifying government activities, and ensuring the overall legitimacy of the state. However, Boven (2007) maintains that, the mode and means of accountability may vary among different societies, depending on their socio historical backgrounds and political culture

The goal of political decentralisation is to involve more people in the decision making and planning processes to respond to local needs whiles the goal of financial decentralisation is to facilitate the transfer of resources to local government to transfer authority for collecting and allocating taxes, grants and resources to local government (Rondinelli et al., 1983). Both political and financial goals of decentralisation are intended to improve service delivery (Shah, 2006). In the above regard, the provision, management and maintenance of health facilities, basic and secondary education, roads, basic services, are decentralised to lower levels to promote development at that level (ILGS & FES, 2011).

Decentralisation aims at addressing people's needs at the grassroots level and promoting efficient allocation of resources. According to Lockwood and Hindricks (2006), the case for decentralisation is fundamentally based on accountability and allocative efficiency. Furthermore, Muriisa (2008) contends that allocative efficiency, which considers a match between public service and local needs on one hand, and productive efficiency on the other, which considers a match between provision of public service and its costs, as well as

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improved accountability and reduced levels of red tape bureaucracy are important for local government responsiveness to community needs.

Many arguments have been advanced for the application of decentralisation theorem in governance and development (Faguet, 2004; Oates, 1972b; Rondinelli et al., 1983; Smoke, 1999). Yet, Blair (2000) asserts that proponents of decentralisation base their arguments on improvements in allocative efficiency, welfare and equity on one hand, and increased participation, accountability and responsiveness on the part of local authorities on the other hand. Robinson (2007) also argues that the former are usually employed by economist and are framed in terms of costs and benefits of decentralisation, while the latter are favoured by socio-political scientist and practitioners concerned with democratic aspects of the process.

The basic economic theory of responsiveness falls into the realm of welfare economics and public choice theory (Helm & Smith, 1987). It builds on the proposition that individual preferences may vary by locality, and their information constraints inhibit the effective operation of central authorities. The public choice theory stipulates that self-interest guides all individual behaviour and that people use government to pursue their own agenda to achieve what they want (Todaro & Smith, 2009). Government must therefore act in the best interest of the public at all times and not just the elite and influential in society. The reality is that governments in most developing countries face a lot of challenges in meeting the peoples' preferences. Thus, the basic economic rationale for decentralisation rests largely on a negative perception that central government is unable to deliver many public services efficiently.

Oluwu (1989) has suggested that the most efficient allocation of public resources is attained if such services are provided by government closer and responsible to those mostly affected. Local governments are the institutions created to opreationalise decentralisation. It is assumed that, they would provide services at lower costs than central government and in a competitive way due to the presence of alternative service providers, including other local governments (Tiebout, 1956). This assumption is based on the argument that citizens can voice their disapproval with inefficient service provision through voice mechanisms and exit inefficient jurisdictions in favour of other jurisdictions and non-governmental producers in their own jurisdiction (Andrews & Shah, 2007). In addition, unresponsive local governments' risk losing business to more competitive districts, those that are able to provide services efficiently and less costly (UN, 2007a).

Furthermore, sub-national governments have access to better information about local circumstances than central authorities, and therefore can use this information to tailor services and spending patterns to citizen's needs (Greco, 2003). In contrast, centralised government structures face significant informational and political constraints that are likely to prevent them from providing efficient local public goods and services (Gaventa, 2007). In order to understand, appreciate and forge the centre-local and citizens relationship, the principal agent and the political agency theories were propounded.

Principal – Agent and Political Agency Theories

Principal - Agent theory explains the relationship between the state and the citizens known as the principals and local government known as the agents.

In the relationship, the principal hires the agent to work on his behalf (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Andersson (2002) adds that, the principals delegate because they want to achieve results which cannot be done in isolation due to lack of information, knowledge, time and other resources. In this respect, principals, identify agents who are most likely to have the knowledge information and skills needed to achieve their goals. The theory postulates that decentralised local government known as the "agent", has been assigned responsibility for performing specific functions and duties for which it is held accountable by the state and citizens. Ackerman (2004) adds that, the theory illuminates the relationship between responsive local government and the constituents.

The principal-agent theory provides avenue for assessing local government performance and responsiveness to citizens' needs and preferences (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). In addition to its own internally generated funds some resources in the form of intergovernmental transfers are provided by the central government (Ackerman, 2004). These resources are to enable the agents to perform those assigned tasks on behalf of the citizens and state, and respond to community developmental needs in exchange for certain incentives such as votes and re-election chances (Brinkerhoff & McNulty, 2007). On the other hand, the users of public services, voters and the state are referred to as "the principals" (Besley, 2007). Responsiveness implies that the 'agents' respond to the needs of their principals, and accountability of agents to principals is an obligation to ensure successful outcomes (Brinkerhoff & McNulty, 2007).

In addition, the policies and actions of the agents must match the needs and expectations of the principals (Besley, 2007). Therefore, the theory, envisages that the agents must be held responsible, responsive to the needs and

aspirations and as well as accountable to the principals (Knott & Hammond, 2007). However, the principals are normally handicapped in their ability to ascertain if the agents work as expected of them in order to achieve their goals (Besley, 2007). The principal-agency relationship is plagued with uncertainties regarding agents' knowledge, skills and abilities to act in the best interest of their principals, while, the principals also lack the ability and mechanisms to participate in the decision-making process and demand accountability (Soudry, 2006; McCue & Prier, 2007).

Contrary to the tenets of the principal-agents theory, the political agency theory posits that politicians, including local government officials and representatives take policy decisions that sometimes conflict with the interests and preferences of the majority of citizens and electorates (Besley, 2007). The theory also postulates that politicians behave in rent seeking and opportunistic ways to divert public resources and funds for personal and political party use, contrary to public opinion and interest. It advocates that an effective system of accountability is critical for local government to be responsive to public service delivery (Andrews & Shah, 2007).

From the literature reviewed above, it can be inferred that, the principal-agents and political-agency theories underscore the need for active citizen participation. In this respect, non - participation of principals and failure to assert their rights make political agency thrive as politicians and bureaucrats pursue private interests and opportunistic agenda. The theory, principles and the ladder of participation evolved to bridge the need gap in participation in the agency theories and to check the excesses of politicians and bureaucrats as well as to check elite dominance.

Theory and Principles of Participation

Peoples' participation is seen as a prerequisite for responsiveness and accountability. However, Schou (2000) points out that the existing mechanisms for participation in developing countries, especially, Africa are few and weak. Similarly, Ribot (2002) adds that local government responsiveness, can be realised if there are enough and attractive mechanisms for participation. In this respect, Walker (2002) contends that as participation broadens, the demand for improved services increases, and institutions at the sub-national level come under pressure to meet the increasing local demand. Consequently, Shah (2003) and Walker (2002) suggest that participation requires that local government structures are empowered to deliver services in response to citizen's needs.

Kearns (2003) believes that citizen's participation ensures that public goods provisions are consistent with voter preferences and public sector accountability. Likewise, Papadopoulos (2003) contends that the decision-making, planning, budgeting, resource allocation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions, have brought officials more closely to local people needs and priorities. European Commission (2004) therefore, sums up the above views, and argues that one of the surest ways to respond to the needs of the people is through their direct and active participation in decisions-making and implementation. Crawford (2004) endorses the view that participation may lead to greater accountability and responsiveness, but Shah (2006) thinks otherwise, and argues that with weak mechanisms for participation in most developing countries, responsiveness will remain rhetoric.

Participation underpins local government responsiveness to developmental needs of the people. Chambers (1983; 2005) argues that

participation plays a critical role in democratic decentralisation, and local level development by determining community needs and preferences. It also facilitates mobilising people, resources and other forms of support for grassroots and local level development. However, different views and approaches to participation have been adopted by academicians, researchers and development practitioners (Arnstein, 1969; Chambers, 2005; Pretty, 1995; Shah, 2006; Todaro & Smith, 2011).

Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizens' participation and Pretty's (1995) typology of participation provide an analytical framework for understanding and enhancing participation in the decentralised local government system to achieve responsiveness. The ladder of citizens' participation was propounded by Arnstein (1969) to examine the extent of people participation. It is premised on the explicit recognition that there are different forms and levels of participation that people engage in during decision-making. The ladder (Figure 2) identifies eight levels of participation with each rung corresponding to the extent of citizens' power and influence in determining the end product. The use of a ladder also implies that more control is always better than less control (Arnstein, 1969).
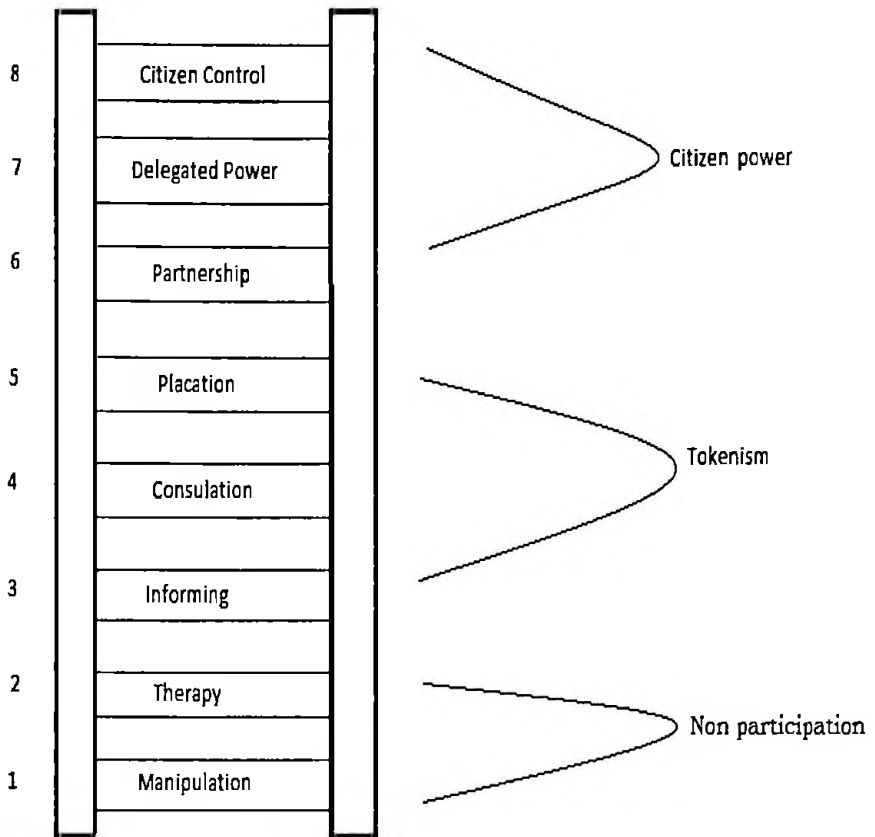
Figure 2: The ladder of citizens' participation

Source: Arnstein, 1969.

The bottom rungs of the ladder are manipulation and therapy which describe levels of "non-participation" that have been contrived by some to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or programmes, but to enable power holders to educate the participants (Arnstein, 1969). Informing and consultation progress to levels of "tokenism" that allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice. Information sharing is the minimal level of participation (European Commission, 2004). At this level, citizens may indeed hear and be heard but, they lack the power to insure that their views will be heeded to by the powerful.

Arnstein (1969) indicates that placation is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advice, but retain for the power holders the continued right to decide. Further up the ladder are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Citizens can enter into a partnership that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. At the topmost rungs are delegated power and citizen control.

The limitations of Arnstein's framework reflect in the arguments of Chambers (2005), and Bells and Morse (2007) that each of the steps represents a very broad category, within which there are likely to be a wide range of experiences. Building on the tenets of the ladder of participation Pretty (1995) developed the seven level typology of participation as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1
Pretty's Typology of Participation

Types of participation	Characteristics
Manipulative	Participation is pretence with people's representatives appointed to serve on committees with no real power.
Passive	People are told what is going to happen or has already happened. Feedback and responses are not required.
Consultation	People are consulted and their views listened to by external agents. It involves answering questions but officials are under no obligation to take on board peoples' views.
Participation Incentives	People participate by providing resources, cash or material incentives, and have no stake when the incentives end.
Functional	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Such involvement happens after major decisions have been made.
Interactive	People participate in analysis and development of action plans. It involves interdisciplinary methodologies, multiple

Table 1 Continued

Types of participation	Characteristics
	perspectives and utilises systems, structures and practices.
Self - mobilisation	People mobilise themselves and take initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. The latter can help with resources and technical advice.

Source: Pretty, 1995

All the frameworks of participation that have been reviewed complement each other to provide a solid framework for evaluating participation in the context of responsiveness and accountability of local government. However, Andrews and Shah (2007) contends that participation must be defined and broken down into sub types before any judgement can be made about the success of decentralisation and by extension responsiveness, while Cornwall (2008) admits that both typologies are normative moving from what is perceived as "bad to good" forms.

Agrawal and Ribot (2001) assert that participation is closely linked with empowerment. Shah (2003) affirms that empowering local people represents advancement in local governance and development. According to the EC (2004) participation entails people's involvement in the entire project cycle, from programme and project conception through mobilisation, implementation to evaluation and enjoying the benefits. However, Offei-Aboagye (2008)argues that citizens' capacity to demand what would be in their best interests depends on their ability to participate in the governance process and access they have to resources for participation, In this respect, when citizens have access to these resources they are considered as empowered. Corroborating Offei-Aboagye's (2009) view in relation to empowerment, Agyemang-Duah (2008) argues that

local government authority and the citizens must be empowered.

The theory of empowerment explains the process by which people gain power to influence decision-making (Freire, 1973). Contextually, empowerment theory draws inspiration from interdisciplinary and multi-dimensional theories at the micro and macro levels as a process of increasing control, and transition from the state of powerlessness (Agrawal & Ribot, 2001). Community empowerment, at the macro level, is a collective social process of creating a community by achieving better control over the environment and decision-making in which groups and organisations participate. The theory indicates that disempowering social processes are responsible for creating a sense of powerlessness among people who belong to groups that suffer from stigma and discrimination (Zimmerman, 1995).

A sense of powerlessness leads to a lack of self-worth, to self-blame, to indifference towards and alienation from the environment, beside inability to act for oneself and growing dependence on social services and specialists for the solution of problems in one's life (Zimmerman, 1995). As a result, Zimmermann (1995) recommends that any process for community empowerment should involve the full participation of people in the selection of projects, implementation, and management. This will enable policy makers to effectively respond to the needs of the local people as well as motivate local people to take active involvement in policy making. In Hur's (2006) view community empowerment processes enable local people to participate and demand accountability from the power holders. Ahwoi (2010) also urges communities to gain some level of control over the pace of their own development.

Conceptual Issues

This section reviews concepts of development and developmental needs, decentralisation and local government, responsiveness, participation, accountability and local level development to provide a solid conceptual foundation for the study.

Development and Developmental Needs

Development is a complex, multifaceted, multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary concept. It is a continuous process of improvement of individuals and societies, leading to the sustained elevation of an entire society and social systems towards achievement of moral and material well-being (Myrdal, 1989; UNDP, 2000; World Bank, 2003). Green (2008), Nickson (2006), Rondinelli & Heffron (2009) also regard development as a continuous process of transformation of people, institutions, societies, economies, attitudes and behaviours, with the ultimate aim of improving lives, preferences and expectations of people for a more humane and a better life.

According to Chambers (2005), people are at the centre of development and their well-being is the main focus. Therefore, the ultimate purpose of development is to provide people with equal access to opportunities for transforming their lives, and creating an enabling environment for needs satisfaction. It also entails making informed choices and enjoying sustained improvement in living conditions and well-being towards a better life. Todaro and Smith (2009) outlined three critical issues that development addresses as; meeting the basic needs, ensuring the self-esteem and upholding rights of people, and expanding the range of choices so that both society and people can

function well and enjoy life.

Development, therefore, is issue based and responsive to the changing needs of people and society. Nikkhah and Redzuan (2009) have observed that development has two primary goals. The first is to improve the quality of life of people while the second is to involve all members in the development process. Ghai (1977) and Green (2008) have noted that any process of development that does not lead to the fulfilment of basic needs such as water, sanitation, education and healthcare, self- esteem and rights of people and widen the range of options is a travesty of development. Todaro and Smith (2011) add that, the fundamental aspirations of people is to have access to the basic necessities that sustain life and to live in freedom, dignity, equity, as well as participate in the development processes and improve the well-being of people.

Green (2008) emphasises that education, health, water and sanitation are important developmental needs that have to be addressed by every government. They are fundamental to development and as a result, investments in these sectors are seen as productive investments. These investments contribute to economic growth and enhanced human development (World Bank, 2008). Moreover, each of them complements the other, with investments in any one contributing to better outcomes in the others. Policy-makers thus need to recognize the synergies among the many aspects of human development as central to reducing illiteracy, ill-health, squalor, poverty and to advance human capabilities (Goullet, 1972 cited in Todaro & Smith, 2011).

According to the United Nations (UNDP, 2008), education is a powerful "equalizer" that empowers people, strengthens nations, and opens doors to all to lift people out of poverty. The widespread recognition that education is a major

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driver of economic competitiveness in an increasingly knowledge-driven global economy has made high-quality education more important than ever before in both industrialised and developing countries. A study by World Bank (2008) indicates that education holds substantial, proven benefits for people-in terms of higher earnings, better health, and greater resilience to shocks, and urges that governments are to create opportunities for improved efficiency, equity, and quality of education. It is also intended to promote effective education reform processes to help improve, among stakeholders, knowledge of what drives education outcomes and results.

In addition, better health is central to human happiness and well-being. It also makes an important contribution to economic progress, as healthy populations live longer, are more productive, and save more (World Health Organisation [WHO] (2008). Any attempt to improve access to health care is a major boost for development (Green, 2008). The World Health Organisation (2008) recommends that governments should ensure that health care is adequate, effective and targeted at priority health problems of the people.

United Nations (2006) has argued that a Human Rights-based Approach (HRBA) acts as a forceful tool for addressing gaps in water and sanitation delivery. Focusing on the human right to water and sanitation provides communities and development organisations with a valuable advocacy tool for strengthening the accountability of state authorities for their commitments. It places a greater emphasis on the need to strengthen democratic institutions and to address the underlying structural causes for lack of access. Equally, abiding by human rights principles ensures that the needs of the poor and marginalised are not subverted in economic and political decisions over water and sanitation.

The effects of the lack of access to water and sanitation on human development are enormous. Almost half of all people living in the developing world suffer from a health problem related to deficits in water supply and sanitation (Green, 2008). It is estimated that 443 million school days are lost each year and millions of women spend several hours per day collecting water time that they cannot use for any productive activity (Green, 2008). Overcoming the water and sanitation crisis would thus not only have direct benefits, but would also act as a catalyst for progress in public health, education and poverty reduction (UN, 2006). Access to and use of safe water as well as adequate sanitation, have direct effects on health status (WHO, 2008).

Developmental needs of people and communities are dynamic and may differ from place to place and from time to time. Sen's (1999) capability approach emphasise that development entails a person's ability to achieve functioning and function, that is, the capabilities that allow people to do the things they value. This implies that what a person can do and or be, and well-being are the ultimate goals of development. In this regard, what restrains people from functioning and achieving function constitutes a development gap. Crawford (2004) also notes that the identification of the developmental needs of people is an important step towards a more responsive development.

According to Kumi-Kyereme et al., (2006) developmental needs may be visible, that is openly expressed by the citizens or hidden and not as explicitly expressed. Nevertheless, all of them agree that local governments must give priority attention and respond to both cases and not wait for the citizens to openly express their developmental needs and demands before responding to them. They argued that citizens are entitled to them by virtue of the fact that

they are inextricably linked to their fundamental development rights (UN, 2000). Developmental needs provision is, therefore, a non-negotiable issue. Governments at national and sub-national levels owe it a constitutional duty and responsibility to respond to local needs, as well as uphold international conventions and universal rights (UN, 2007b).

National and sub-national governments have a responsibility to establish systems and provide mechanisms for citizens to directly participate or participate through their elected representatives in the development process (Republic of Ghana, 1992). This is intended to enable people to participate in the activities, make their views and concerns known and be factored into the development planning and resource allocation processes (Chambers, 2005). Consequently, decentralisation as a governance and development strategy provides avenues for enhancing participation, improving public service delivery, accountability and sub-national governments' responsiveness to local development needs (Andrews & Shah, 2007). Measuring developmental needs is the starting point of responsive, responsible and accountable development.

Measuring development needs

Following the minimum basic needs approach, Capuano (2009) suggests that developmental needs can be categorised into three, that is, survival, security, and enabling needs. The first category refers to survival needs which include the most basic of development needs, such as food and nutrition, clothing, sanitation and health while security needs include shelter, peace, public safety, income and livelihoods. The third category refers to enabling needs and includes education and peoples' participation in development.

The level of and change in local level development needs may be measured either subjectively or objectively. Subjective assessments include satisfaction ratings and perceptions of respondents to survey issues such as responsiveness of the local government system in meeting the local needs. Subjective evaluation however, induces serious statistical biases due to difficulty faced in evaluating the factual bases of the responses due to lack of information or the respondents' cognitive concerns. However, these biases can be minimised when citizen satisfaction surveys are carefully planned and properly undertaken or a more objective measure of accomplishing international development targets are used. Examples of objective measures are human development indicators, minimum basic needs and poverty measures.

According to literature equally important and contested questions asked are, what are the developmental needs of people, who determines them, and how are they determined. Smoke (2015) suggests three things for ensuring responsiveness to local needs. First there must be a viable political system and mechanisms at the local level that must help to determine local needs and preferences, and also make local governments accountable to their constituents. Secondly, sub-national governments should have institutional, technical and managerial capacity in order to serve the needs of their constituents. Thirdly, local government must have the resources they require to respond to needs. The aforementioned arguments support decentralised local government systems.

Decentralisation and Local Government

Decentralisation means different things to different people at different times and in different places (Ribot, 2002). Therefore, the motivation for

adopting decentralisation are multiple and differs from country to country and region to region. Rondinelli et al., (1983) agree that decentralisation involves the transfer of power, responsibilities and resources from central to autonomous local government institutions. In this regard, the emphasis is on decentralisation as a system of autonomous local governments. Ribot (2002) also defines decentralisation as any act in which a central government formally cedes administrative, political and fiscal powers to actors and institutions at lower levels in a political-administrative and territorial hierarchy, while Walker (2002) sees it as the transfer of political power, decision-making and resources from central to sub-national levels of government for effective governance.

According to Andrews and Shah (2007), decentralisation refers to restructuring of authority so that there is a system of co-responsibility between the institutions of governance at the central, regional and local levels in tandem with the principle of subsidiarity. Furthermore, Kendie and Mensah (2008) corroborate that common characteristics of decentralisation include, sharing power and responsibility between different levels of government, and giving local government financial, legal, institutional and managerial resources to fulfil those responsibilities. UNDP (2008) asserts that increasing the overall quality and effectiveness of the system, while increasing the authority and capacities of sub-national levels could contribute to increasing people's opportunities for participation in economic, social and political decisions.

Smoke (2015) sums up decentralisation as the assignment of public functions to sub-national governments along with supporting structures, systems and resources, and has spatial, administrative, fiscal and political dimensions.

All aforementioned definitions and views consistently acknowledge decentralisation as transferring political power, authority and resources from the national to the sub-national level.

Ribot (2002) also suggests that proponents of decentralisation base their arguments on differing criteria including expected improvements in allocative efficiency, welfare and equity. In addition, Blair (2000) adds that increased participation and accountability influence responsiveness of local authorities to local needs. However, there is no systematic evidence that increased participation in decentralised government generates better outputs in terms of service provision and material well-being. The debate is inconclusive and unresolved as the available evidence is anecdotal. Shah (2006) criticises that the effects of decentralisation on public service delivery are theoretically ambiguous. Muriisa (2008) also argues that decentralisation comes as a response to the demand for equity in development, speedier and more responsive service delivery attuned to local needs.

Rondinelli, Cheema and Nellis (1983) in advocating for decentralisation, submit that it enhances development at the community and village levels of society, as well as matching local needs to government expenditure and priorities. Although, Crawford (2004) believes that the objectives for decentralisation vary from one country to the other, there are common objectives such as improving efficiency, manageability, responsiveness, and accountability in public sector management. Proteete (2004) adds that searching for an efficient and leaner public sector, disenchantment with the performance of centralised planning and policies, as well as grassroots demands to achieve democratic ideals provide motivation for countries to adopt decentralisation.

Similarly, Shah (2006) endorses all the above views and submits that the benefits of decentralisation are enormous. In this respect, decentralisation is seen as a mechanism for aligning public expenditures to local priorities, for improving accountability to users and being more responsive to citizens needs. However, Ahwoi (2010) notes that decentralisation improves citizens' access to administrative agencies and governance institutions, as well as reduces unnecessary bureaucracies and congestions at the centre, thereby, providing for speed in decision-making. Both of them suggest that the above objectives be promoted in decentralisation policy and programmes.

Decentralisation has been classified into four dimensions. These are de-concentration, devolution, delegation and privatisation (Rondinelli et al., 1983). Building on this view, the World Bank (2000) has indicated that due to complexity and scope of decentralisation, it is necessary to make a distinction among the four standard types. De-concentration, involves transferring administrative authority, while retaining control at the centre. On the other hand, delegation refers to transferring certain managerial responsibilities for specifically defined functions to organisations that are outside the regular bureaucratic structure (Litvack & Seddon, 2002). Devolution, the creation and strengthening of sub-national units of government with legal, administrative, political and financial powers enable them to act autonomously from the centre.

Consequently, Crawford (2004) argues that privatisation, which is a situation where government divests itself from the responsibility for certain functions and transfers them to the private sector are the other forms of decentralisation. Shah (2006) adds that these variations in the form and content of decentralisation have an important bearing on service delivery outcomes, and

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on processes of participation, accountability and responsiveness. However, Agyemang-Duah (2008) and Offei-Aboagye (2008) admit that each type has different implications for responsiveness and accountability, and provides basis for appreciating and ensuring responsiveness to developmental needs of people.

Even though decentralisation has different motivations, improving service delivery is often stated as a key motive (Ahmed, 2005). Nevertheless, Shah (2006) maintains that local authorities need a supportive environment that should enable them to deliver effective and efficient performance, without being restrained by unnecessary regulations and inflexibility. On the other hand Kendie and Mensah (2008) posit that decentralisation is anticipated to result in better service delivery, increased participation in policy, planning and development processes, thereby, improving accountability and democratic practices, which will eventually lead to good local governance. Agyemang-Duah (2008) adds that one rationale for decentralisation is that it can generate financial efficiency by devolving resources and decision–making powers to local governments for the efficient delivery of services.

The efficiency argument is that productivity of health, education and other services will be maximised by allowing local governments to take decisions on the allocation of resources since they have a better sense of local priorities (Shah, 2006). In addition, Offei-Aboagye (2008) maintains that in the process, decentralised units of government can become more responsive and accountable in resource allocation and developmental decisions. Furthermore, Dick-Sagoe (2012) argued that the quality of service provision can also be enhanced by decentralisation since local government will be more sensitive to variations in local requirements and open to feedback from users of service.

On the contrary, Tanzi (1995) points out that the decentralisation benefits may not be that obvious and should not be over-generalised. Similarly, Prud'homme (1995) contends that decentralisation could yield negative outcomes while Tanzi (1995) notes that the dangers of decentralisation include a lack of capacity. Decentralisation in developing countries can bring disadvantages when the mechanisms of local accountability are relatively weak, and local elites can capture the process of public service delivery and disfavour the poor and vulnerable (Bardhan & Mookherjee, 2006). As-Saber and Rabbi (2009) agree that, this may perpetuate the control of local elites over local resources at the expense of the majority who are poor and vulnerable.

Decentralisation has led to misaligned responsibilities in many cases because the process is incomplete, perhaps due to political reasons (Rondinelli et al., 1983). Problems notwithstanding, decentralisation must be made to work because it satisfies the principle of good governance, equity and popular participation in greater national development (Shah, 2006). Ahwoi (2010) also affirms that by addressing the challenges of decentralisation, local government institutions that have primarily been set up close to the people to operationalise decentralisation could become more responsive to the developmental needs at the local level. From the views expressed above, decentralisation is therefore not an alternative to centralisation. Indeed, the two concepts are not mutually exclusive, but complementary and should be combined and pursued to strengthen central–local relationship.

Local Government is defined as government by the popularly elected bodies charged with administrative and executive duties in matters concerning inhabitants of a particular district (Appadorai, 1975). According to Agagu

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(2004), local government, is a government at the grassroots level of administration "meant for meeting peculiar needs of the people. Lawal (2000:60) also defines local government as "the tier of government closest to the people and vested with certain powers to exercise control over the affairs of people in its constituent". From the definitions above, local government implies legal and administrative decentralisation of authority, power and personnel by a higher level of government to a community with a will of its own, performing specific functions within the wider national framework (Shah, 2006; UNDP, 2009).

Kendie and Martens (2008) also posit that local government is expected to mobilise and harness the local resources and with the support of the centre to ensure development. Although, its proximity to the local people enhances its ability to easily articulate and aggregate the demands of the people, and respond to their needs, the reality on the ground is different. Shah (2007) also observes that the closeness of local administration to the people affords them the opportunity to meet with their local representatives, one-on-one and present their problems for possible and immediate solution. Kendie and Martens (2008) endorse Shah's submission that local government is the lowest tier of government closest to citizens and the community and, therefore, has an important role to play in society as an agent of development and advocate for their strengthening to ensure responsiveness to local needs.

However, Agyemang-Duah (2008) in endorsing the above views emphasise that the key functions of local government are policy formulation, service delivery, resource management and local development. Yet, in assessing the performance of local government, these dimensions are sometimes down

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played.   According to Ahwoi (2010) it is believed that benefits in socio-economic development will accrue through local government being more open to participation, being more responsive to citizens' needs and desires, and more accountable.   Local governments have been designated as executive, deliberative, legislative and planning authorities and tasked with the overall responsibility of facilitating balanced local level development and poverty reduction (ILGS & FES, 2011).

Distributional Equity and Development

Equity refers to how well public organisations are able to tailor services to the needs of diverse groups of citizens that they serve (Rondinelli, 1981). Similarly, Conyers (2000) believes that decentralisation leads to distributional equity, inter-jurisdictional equity, and equity of local government decisions. In the same vein, Ribot (2002) agrees that decentralisation provides more equitable distribution in local districts and greater opportunity for the poorest people, while Ayee (2003) adds that, decentralisation ensures equity in the distribution of public services such as education, healthcare, water and sanitation across space.   However, Chen and Ravillion (2004) note that equity is critical to development and assert that public services should be distributed evenly across space and hold the state responsible for how public resources and services are distributed in society.

Building on the above perspectives, Jones (2009) views equity from three perspectives.   Equity is seen as equal life chances, equal concern for peoples' needs and meritocracy.   Furthermore, Ahwoi (2010) posits that equity requires creating more equal opportunities and reducing differences between

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groups of people to the barest minimum. Jones (2009) and Ahwoi (2010) underscore the importance of equity to development and argue for adopting any development strategy at the local level that aims at achieving equity. In furtherance, they argue that, the criteria for distributing public services such as healthcare, education, and water should be distributed proportionally according to people's level of needs and to ensure fairness. Yet, in most local governments, inequity in the distribution is observed.

Local Level Development

According to Cornwall (2008), development impacts are best observed and understood more at the local level based on the assumption that knowledge is embedded "on the ground" and that the local scale is more responsive to specific local needs. Slits (2008) adds that individuals and households are able to strengthen their livelihoods, improve quality of life and reduce their vulnerability to shocks and stresses as a result of policy and programme interventions implemented at that level. In this respect, Kendie (2011) asserts that the local space is the best place to initiate development interventions that meet the daily needs and concerns of people. Benit-Gbaffou (2011) endorses Kendie's view that, focusing on the local level allows development practitioners to understand the actual impact of development decisions taken at other higher levels and outcomes they deliver to people.

Many governance and development scholars and practitioners allude to decentralisation as an effective strategy for promoting local level development (Rondinelli, Cheema & Nellis, 1983; Smith, 1985). However, there is no agreement on what the term local signifies. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) as cited

in Kendie and Martens (2008) suggest that the meaning of local level development is better appreciated when viewed against the definition of the terms "local" and "development". Uphoff (1992) also submits that "local" is where people have some possibility of personal acquaintance and experience of living and working and identifies the term local level with "a geographic area.

Supporting the above argument, Fekade (1994) expanded on Cohen and Uphoff's (1992) meaning by contending that local refers to "a spatial delineation of a limited size in which its inhabitants share similar opportunities, problems, threats, constraints, and resources and are routinely interlinked by common identity such as language, culture, service centres, commonly felt needs and resources. However, Kendie and Mensah (2008) submit that local space refers to the sub-national geographic scale and specific area and place. All of them acknowledge that the term "local" is used to delineate an area or institution

Ayee (2008) also suggests local is the scale of administration closest to the people and their everyday activities. By this definition, in Ghana, the districts and sub structures, namely, the area, urban and zonal councils, and unit committees, the lowest decision making authorities for development are considered as "local level space". This characterisation is premised on the observations that people in a district have some acquaintance with each other through interactions and participation in activities (Kendie & Mensah, 2008).

Similarly, Agyemang-Duah (2008) notes that "local level development" is meant the provision of the economic and social infrastructure and other facilities that inure to the public good. However, Offei-Aboagye (2008) observes that local level development is difficult without the requisite resources,

yet, it has been impeded by inadequate resources, and much control at the centre has constrained the effectiveness of the assemblies. Local administrative entities manage the resources and affairs of people living in a defined unit area through their own local government and other configurations residing in these areas, and affected by local government decisions (Agyemang-Duah, 2008).

Development therefore requires the use of social, economic, technological and institutional processes to build in the people confidence, skills, assets and freedoms necessary to achieve their development aspirations (Todaro & Smith, 2009). Furthermore, Ahwoi (2010) points out that, there are many actors at the local level, and who must work together in order to, respond to local needs and promote development, but this depends on the dimensions and mechanisms available for participation.

Participation and Responsiveness

The concept of participation with particular focus on what kinds of participation, who participates, how and to what extent, are discussed. It also explains the linkage between participation and responsiveness. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) indicates that the term participation is used in four different contexts; decision- making, implementation, sharing in the benefits and evaluation, but it is often qualified with adjectives such as community, citizens, peoples and public, and its usage depends on the context in which it occurs

According to Brager, Specthct and Torczyner (1987), participation is defined as a means to educate citizens and to increase their competence, while Armitage (1988) defined citizens' participation as an act in response to public concerns, voice and opinions about decisions that affect them. On the other

hand, the World Bank Learning Group on Participatory Development (1994) described participation as a process through which stakeholders' influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them (World Bank, 1995). In the same vein, Pretty (1995) refers to participation as the active engagement of citizens with public institutions, an activity which falls in three well defined modes voting, election campaigning and contracting through individual or through group activity including non violent protests.

Furthermore, Westgaard and Alam (1996) also defines participation as collective efforts to increase and exercise control over resources and institutions by individuals and groups hitherto excluded from control. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) also observed that participation entails enabling communities to work together for the common good, while Ribot (2002) sees participation as a medium for influencing decisions that affect the lives of citizens and serve as an avenue for transferring political power to the local level. From all the definitions discussed above, participation implies having a share in or taking part in, as well as, the involvement of a significant number of people in situations or actions that enhance their well being. The definitions all point towards actors and mechanism for ensuring participation and emphasise the rights of individuals and the choices they make in order to participate.

Dimensions of participation

Evens (1994) in assessing the extent of participation, identified three issues, who participates, what activities do people participate in and why do people participate as the key issues to explore. Furthering this argument, Braun and Grote (2000) argued that participatory local governments are likely to be

more responsive to local needs, because elected officials are more accountable and responsive to people than officials of central government. Corroborating, the above view, Offei-Aboagye (2008) suggests that effective participation occurs when individuals and group members have adequate and equal opportunity to place questions on the agenda and to express their preferences as to the final outcome during the decision making process.

Crook and Sverrisson (2001) also admit that participation differs according to the three broad settings in which it may occur. These are representative government, direct participation either at community, programme and project level and mobilisation from above. Chambers (2005) contends that development could be equitable and effective if the beneficiaries controlled the process themselves rather than government and experts. Radical advocates argue that direct participation is an end in itself whose ultimate aim is to create solidarity and self-confidence amongst the poor and to dissolve the distinction between outsiders and insiders in the development process (Crawford, 2004).

Participation is a basic operational principle of development programmes and projects as well as fundamental human right which provides for all persons to be given an equal opportunity to influence and enhance policy formulation policy formulation and implementation (Jones, 2009). Leaving the affected groups out of decision making and planning brings the risk that when services are provided, they do not match the needs and priorities of the people are technically inappropriate, too costly, cost recovery and payment options are unrealistic (UNDP, 2008). Participation is thus, not only a human right principle and a goal, but supports development interventions as well.

In order to, allow for effective participation, people must be provided with correct, timely and transparent information on policies, programmes, regulations and legislations. In this respect, it is important that people and community organisation are involved early in the process instead of simply being informed at too late a stage to influence any position already adopted (Pretty, 1995). Participation is, therefore, both an input to the building of accountability and an outcome of improved responsiveness and sense of empowerment, There is a feedback mechanism at work which once effectiveness of participation is established produces good results. This is a self-reinforcing process once started leads to further increases in the level and scope of participation. Thus, it is easier to measure participation as an output than as a contributor to the effectiveness of accountability processes.

Crook and Sverrisson (1999) have argued that measuring the quality, quantity and scope of participation as outcome of decentralisation provides an imperfect indication of the degree of responsiveness. Braun and Grote (2000) and Mitlin (2000) view that citizen's participation in decentralised local government is a catalyst for responsiveness and emphasise that participatory local government tends to be responsive governments because it involves more people in decision-making. In furtherance, elected officers are more responsive to local needs and more accountable to the people than officials of central government. In addition, Blair (2000) claims that citizens' see government as taking care of their preferences whether manifest or hidden. Participation is therefore, both an input to the building of accountability, and outcome of improved responsiveness and a sense of empowerment.

Participatory development must begin at the very lowest level, and there must be real opportunities for target group participation and decisions must relate to needs and future. This argument is consistent with the decentralisation theorem and principle of subsidiarity (Oates, 1993). Proponents of decentralisation have argued that, in a democratic context, it leads to greater responsiveness to constituent demands with local candidates pleasing voters if they want to be re-elected (Inman, 1979). Similarly, Oates (1993) builds the case for decentralised finance on the presumed responsiveness of local government to the constituents' welfare. Crook (2003) observes that the virtues of decentralisation such as popular participation, and empowerment have led to the belief that decentralisation leads to greater responsiveness to the needs of people.

Similarly, Crawford (2004) emphasises that participation through decentralisation empowers local people to take charge of their own development. These perspectives underlie a large portion of the theoretical arguments in favour of decentralisation that local governments are more likely to provide the right services than are higher-level governments (Anwar & Shah, 2007). In addition, they offer a practical appeal in developing countries where local governments are often created in reaction to low levels of responsiveness by central government (Shah, 2007).

Literature and empirical evidence suggests that not all local governments are responsive to their constituents (Oates, 1993). In this respect, Bird and Rodriguez (1999) argue that decentralisation is likely to result in increased administrative costs, lessened efficiency in service delivery and greater inequity. Similarly, Proteete (2004) reports that decentralisation is likely

to reinforce local asymmetries through the seizure of power and authority by local elites. From the literature, two aspects of the local government service provision process require specific attention in any given evaluation of responsiveness, the level of local political influence on allocations decisions and the level of civic participation in the decision making process. Such participation may force councillors to follow the electorates' priorities rather than their own (Shah, 2003).

The assertion that decentralisation will be more responsive to the needs of ordinary citizens and by extension, to "the poor and vulnerable" is derived from the notion that local, more participatory forms of government and development activity will offer more than just greater effectiveness in promoting economic development (Kendie & Mensah, 2008). However, the literature on democratic decentralisation and services delivery falls into two distinct categories: opportunities for enhanced popular participation and increased accountability of local authorities and new forms of service delivery involving plurality of actors (Shah, 2007).

Robinson (2007) suggests that there is no systematic evidence that increased participation in decentralised local government generates better outputs in terms of improvements in the provision of health, education, water, sanitation services for the poor and marginalised people. Shah (2006) endorse s that the available evidence from single countries and sectors is anecdotal, temporarily specific and highly localised, making generalisations impossible Todaro and Smith (2009) admit that peoples' participation as a strategy of development is considered an integral part of development process and outcomes, and reflects the basic aspirations of the people as well as an ideal and

practice of democracy. UN (2008b) endorses people's participation in the development process, and links the concept to democratic decentralisation, local government responsiveness and accountability.

Development practitioners distinguish different levels of participation (Arnstein, 1969; Brett, 2003; Pretty, 1995). The typology of participation by Arnstein (1969) which positions participation as eight step ladder is useful in analysing these degrees. Citizen's control appears at the apex of the ladder with delegation and partnership, with a category of non-participation at the bottom, in which therapy and manipulation are placed. The middle level is Tokenism, with informing, consulting, and placation as the variants in participation. However, the problem with levels of participation is that, they do not imply a step by step process, so most people applying the principle operate simultaneously on multiple levels (Oakley, 1991). Thus, Wilcox (1994) cautions that informing and consultations are often misrepresented as participation leading to disillusionment among diverse community interests.

From the discussion on participation two key lessons emerged. First, it is clear that, there are different dimensions and degrees of participation. This requires that greater care must be taken when applying the term. In addition, participation should always be qualified by the context, type and quality. Secondly, development practitioners seem to agree that the application of participation approaches further calls for an appreciation of the social dynamics and differences such as age, gender, social status, power and disability. Schou (2000) views participation as citizens' involvement and influence over governance and development processes. It is both a means and an end.

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Ahwoi (2010) also indicates that participation is believed to have certain advantages such as improvement in project design, having felt needs most likely to be better served. Since an objective of decentralisation is development, it is important to examine whether the mode of participation encourages the participation of more people, results in more realistic planning of projects, allows for more mobilisation of resources and responds to balance development (ILGS & FES, 2011). Likewise, Khan (2012) and Scott (2012) observe that participation, responsiveness and accountability are interrelated and interconnected. These theoretical underpinnings of the study have been explained in the proceeding section, while the concepts and variables used in measuring them in the study and in the analysis are presented in the next section.

Conceptualisation of Responsiveness

Responsiveness of the local government system to citizens' developmental needs have been defined in different ways by different authors. Inman (1979), Fried & Rabinovitz (1980), Wolman (1990), Crook and Manor (1998), Schou (2000), Andrews and Shah (2007) all defined responsiveness of the local government system as the degree of congruence between community needs and preferences and policy choices of government. Congruence implies that policies and policy actions of government that are implemented at sub-national level reflects community priorities and needs, as well as, the will of the people at the local level (Crook, 2003). Congruence indicates a high level of responsiveness while "incongruence" indicates a low level of responsiveness to community needs and preferences (Shah, 2003; 2006).

Chambers (2005) affirms that community developmental needs and preferences can either be openly stated and made known to local government or latent and not voiced and made known and visible to local government. Kumi-Kyereme et al. (2006) adds that responsiveness signifies that citizens, the ultimate beneficiaries of development, will expect government policies to reflect both cases. In this regard, people perceive government as taking care of their needs and preferences whether manifest or hidden and not explicitly expressed. Consequently, Shah (2006) argues that local governments must be proactive and not wait for the citizens to voice their needs and demands, before responding to them, but must respond to citizens' needs by virtue of the rights they hold as citizens' and as defined by national constitutions and international conventions.

Institutional responsiveness connotes the achievement of congruence between community preferences and public policies, such that the activities of the institutions are valued by the public (Fried & Rabinovitz, 1980). People and institutions make rational choices and decisions. Ostrom (2005) endorses Fried and Rabinovitz (1980) view that institutions are valued by the public and emphasises three main assumptions on actor behaviour in classic rational choice models. The first assumption is that actors have perfect cognitive abilities to receive, process, and retain information. Secondly it also assumes that actors value actions and outcomes and thirdly, select options through maximization of benefits and minimisation of costs and risks. Schou (2000) also suggests that, institutional responsiveness implies that local government processes, outputs and outcomes yield desirable and satisfactory results and benefits to the citizens.

Morris (1991) also defines local government's responsiveness as the "learning capacity" of an organisation to respond to the needs and preferences

of people. Likewise, Crook and Sverrisson (1999) have observed that institutional responsiveness depends on the capacity of an organisation to perform its functions, as well as, its ability to listen to its own staff and internal clients, as well as the public and alter their behaviour. In addition, Andrews and Shah (2007) corroborates that responsive organisations learn from their experiences, strengths, weaknesses, and interact with their environments, and alter behaviour accordingly and become more responsive and accountable to their constituents. Institutional responsiveness envisages that where the organisational learning capacity of local government is high, all things being equal, it will invariably lead to a higher level of responsiveness (Korten, 1984).

Additionally, institutional responsiveness provides an opportunity to people, service users, and beneficiary communities to express their level of satisfaction with local government institutions performance and services delivered (Korten, 1984). In this view, it assumes that existing structures, systems and sub-systems, procedures and mechanisms for participation, communication and information flow remain open and accessible to citizens (Andrews & Shah, 2007). However, in reality institutions have operational challenges which hinder the effectiveness of achieving responsiveness (Ahwoi, 2010).

Vigoda (2002a) adds that responsiveness encapsulates the urgency and accuracy with which local government institutions and public service providers respond to citizens' requests for action and information. On the other hand, Shah (2006) suggests that public service accuracy must take into account social welfare, equity, equality and fair distribution of public goods to all citizens in addition to the efficiency and effectiveness that characterise market driven

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processes. Yet, Shah (2006) finds that criteria for evaluating local government responsiveness are poorly formed in Africa and sub Saharan Africa.

Responsiveness raises three key issues from systems and structural functionalist perspectives. First, it examines the local government's relationship with the external actors. This concerns the relationship between the local government system and its external environment and the actors to whom it responds. It also answers the issue of who the participants are, what their needs are, and how they participate (Kumi-Kyereme et al., 2006). Secondly, local government's capacity for being responsive depends on its internal capacity as well as its ability to learn from its own experiences, evaluate its methods of policy implementation and listen to the members at all levels (Andrew & Shah, 2007). Thirdly, it examines the mechanisms of accountability that links internal and external responsiveness (Kumi-Kyereme et al., 2006).

According to Smith (1985), democratic systems are particularly responsive, because development priorities are identified by decision-makers who have intimate knowledge of local affairs, because they consult and are engaged in open-minded, two-way communication with their electorate. Shah (2007) believes that, this would enable the electorate to ensure that development priorities of their elected councils reflect their preferences. Consequently, decentralised local governments consult their constituents on their developmental needs and priorities and input them into their policies, plans and programmes to ensure congruence (Offei-Aboagye, 2009). However, this is usually not the practice in most developing countries, and therefore government policies and community needs do not always match each other, leaving gaps at the local level and unsatisfied citizens (Andrews & Shah, 2007).

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Responsiveness is dependent upon the overall structure of the local government systems in question. The level and form of decentralisation together with financial and political autonomy will indirectly have a bearing on the level of responsiveness (Shah, 2006). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect a lower potential for responsiveness in the case of councils, which are responsible for few community services, and collect limited local revenues (Schou, 2000). In addition, those heavily dependent upon the financial resources from the central government, as well as those politically controlled by it are less likely to be responsive to citizens' needs (Agyemang-Duah, 2008).

From literature review, several factors influence local government responsiveness. Schou (2000) noted that knowledge about local affairs is seen as a prerequisite for responsive policies and programmes. Information flow between local government and their constituents determines the extent of responsiveness, as well as enhance participation and accountability (Shah, 2003). Crawford (2004) has stated that one of the main arguments for decentralisation is its ability to ensure that local government becomes responsive to constituents needs and preferences.

Likewise, Litvack and Seddon (2002) argue that any evaluation of responsiveness of local government system must consider peoples' participation, the policy environment, the resources available, capacity and organisational structure. In addition, transparency and mechanism for accountability should be considered. Responsiveness requires an organisational and policy environment that encourages collaborations, and facilitates learning for the benefit of all stakeholders (Ribot, 2002). Besley and Coate (2003) add that, government responsiveness to its citizens is considered important in

developing countries where vulnerable populations rely on state action for survival. In addition, they suggest that a more informed and politically active electorate strengthens incentives for government to be more responsive in ensuring that the preferences of the people are reflected in policy.

Measurement of responsiveness

Literature that have been reviewed in this chapter, suggests that, responsiveness can be measured either subjectively or objectively. Subjective assessment includes satisfaction ratings and perceptions of the respondents regarding the performance of the local government system in meeting development needs. However, each method has its own advantages and disadvantages. Subjective evaluations induce serious statistical biases and are very hard to evaluate the factual basis of the responses due to lack of information or the respondents' cognitive concerns. Such biases are minimized when citizen satisfaction surveys are properly undertaken or when a more objective measure of accomplishments of local development targets are used. Good examples of objective measures are the Human Development Index, Minimum Basic Needs indices, and some other poverty measures.

Different ways of measuring responsiveness exist and three of them are discussed in this section. Schick (1990) observes that output measures such as expenditures, numbers of schools, clinics and kilometres of road tarred tell very little about the impact of these outputs on peoples' lives as well as how their value and quality is perceived. Schick posits that it is through survey that the real outcomes of institutional actions can be truly measured. However, very few such surveys have produced evidence of citizens' perceptions. Consequently, Crook and Manor (1991) suggested that the degree of responsiveness is best

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measured by conducting a direct citizen's assessment gathered through representative survey, case studies or large scale studies using quantitative and mix methods approach.

According to Crook and Sverrisson (1999), in the absence of survey, it is possible to make quick judgement about the responsiveness of a decentralised institution by assessing the level and quality of citizens' participation. This is measured by the number of people who participate in an election, public meeting and the scope of that participation. Measuring the quantity and scope of participation as outcomes of decentralisation provides a somewhat imperfect indication of the degree of responsiveness (Schou, 2000).

Participation itself must be defined and broken down into a number of sub-types before any judgements are made of the success of decentralisation in enhancing participation and responsiveness. In other words, citizens' voices must be 'heard' by those who hold governmental power. Tracking the impact of participation involves assessing the operation of accountability mechanisms, both internally within local institutions and externally in relations between local institutions and the public (Gaventa, 2007).

Citizen's access to basic services provides a third measure of responsiveness to developmental needs (Schou, 2000). Local governments strive to improve the quantity and quality of access to public services to the poor and marginalised (Kishor, 2000). Therefore, responsiveness could be also assessed from the pro-poor perspectives. Mitlin (2000) observes that all municipalities in the developing world play a major role in providing services "that are critical" for the poor. The literature also emphasizes evaluating responsiveness in terms of the pro-poor perspective evident in budget

allocations. Responsiveness to local needs necessarily implies responsiveness to poverty-related issues in such settings (Shah, 2006).

From the discussion, a responsive local government is defined as a 'local government committed to working with, collaborating with citizens, individuals and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and developmental needs and rights, and to improve the quality of their lives. Local governments (metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies) have been given the responsibility of protecting the human rights enshrined in the Constitution that ensure access to housing, healthcare, education, food, water and social security by meeting basic needs and 'improving the quality of life' (Shah, 2003). In addition to being responsive and responsible, local governments must be transparent and accountable to the people and the electorate (Gaventa & McGee, 2013).

Gaventa (2007) suggests that local government institutions are well performing, transparent, and accountable to their constituents. Responsiveness requires that local governments act proactively and wait for the citizens to voice out their needs and demands before responding to them, but must respond to citizens' needs as of rights defined by constitutional and international conventions (Slits, 2008). In essence, responsiveness of local government concerns the way their development plans, resources and implementation of activities and outputs as well as outcomes correspond to the perceived interests of their public. Other methods for making local government more responsive include better and more accessible information about services and public guaranteed standards, either through citizen's charters or even legally enforceable constitutional or statutory rights to certain level of service.

In order to test the responsiveness of local government and district administration, several methods may be applied. These include, examining citizen's attitudes and feelings when consuming public services using satisfaction measures that indicate the outcomes of the acceptance of local government actions as fruitful and responding well to public needs. It considers the attitudes and perceptions of those who participate in decision making, planning process and activities, and evaluating public outcomes. It also includes comparing objective public outcomes with absolute criteria for speed, quality and accuracy distribution of goods and services with moral and ethical values set forth by academics and professionals. Responsiveness has a potentially positive effect on social welfare and it improves the process of modernisation.

Inman (1979) argues that decentralisation in a democratic context leads to greater responsiveness to constituents' demands but this is dependent upon the overall structure of local government system in question. Building on this, Oluwu (1989) contends that the most efficient allocation of public resources is attained if such services are provided by governments responsible to those most directly affected. However, literature and practical experience indicates that not all local governments are responsive to their constituents, even if they conform to legislation and maintain high levels of fiscal health (Conyers, 2007).

Literature also suggests that local level responsiveness is eroded by a high level of central government political influence on decisions of local government service provision. Benjamin (2000) finds that higher level government political and administrative appointments created a hierarchical structure in Bangalore that made local governments more responsive to central

and regional government demands than they were to the needs of the local constituents.

Responsiveness and Accountability

The decentralization theory postulates that local-level representatives are meant to be more accountable to their constituents because they have the ability to call their representatives to account for their actions and for their performance, and to discipline or reward them accordingly. Building on this, Ribot (2002) contends that having a more informed and politically active electorate strengthens incentives for governments to be responsive particularly in developing countries where, in the absence of market opportunities, vulnerable populations rely in large measure on state action for their survival.

Information flow from the centre to the sub national level enhances responsiveness and accountability (Shah, 2006). This is possible where political representation is highly localized, and citizens have the relevant information about government policies, performance and voice and exit channels that can be utilised to ensure accountability of their representatives (Scott, 2012). This is usually not the case in many governments, where citizens lack information about policies, performance and the mechanisms necessary for voicing a response (Khan, 2012).

Responsiveness of the local government systems' to the needs of people enhances electoral accountability and fortunes (Inman, 1979). Inman contended that "candidates must please voters if they hope to be re-elected". Elected local government system tends to be more responsive to the needs of the people because of accountability. Wolman (1990) asserts that the question of whether responsiveness and accountability increase with decentralisation is an empirical

one because decentralisation permits decision makers to be directly held accountable to the local citizenry through local electorate. Therefore, improvements in electoral accountability are considered an important prerequisite for efficient provision of local public goods (Seabright, 1996).

UN (2000) disagrees with the above assertions and indicates that local government institutions, despite their closeness to the citizenry, are not automatically open and responsive. Schou (2000) observes that democratic procedures enable the electorate, to make sure that development policy of their elected local council is maximally attuned to their own preferences. It is also assumed that democracy will be deepened by the extension of political representation to the local level, with democratic processes strengthened through enhanced political participation by the local civil society actors (Crawford, 2004).

Gaventa and McGee (2010) emphasise that responsiveness creates appropriate channels for stakeholder participation in discussions of their developmental needs, and allows taking part in the decisions that affect their lives. However, Bratton (2010) contends that responsiveness is the first step towards accountability. This implies that the citizens will see the government as taking care of their interests and needs, even if their interests are not explicitly specified. Responsiveness also implies that local governments' and all stakeholders act within acceptable timeframes to acknowledge and negotiate the processes and time for addressing the developmental needs. In addition, Ahwoi (2010) believes that a responsive and accountable government must think of the needs of future generations as well as the present and ensure that future needs are not compromised.

From the discussion so far it is clear that responsiveness has ethical and moral connotations. Therefore, local governments must be responsive to people, and pay attention to accountability. Accountability helps people to see the results of their participation. Once they see that their views have an impact on government, they are likely to continue to enhance their participation. Sharing information with relevant key stakeholders will also enhance transparency, and build trust and confidence (Gaventa, 2007).

Accountability mechanisms can address double barrel issues of who holds office and the nature of the decisions those in office make. Accountability requires freedom of information, stakeholders who are able to organise, and the rule of law (UNDP, 1997). Mechanisms for holding officials accountable can be inter-organisational, as between branches of government; intra-organisational as between supervisors and subordinates; and/or extra-organisational, as when an organisation and its functionaries answer directly to customers-stakeholders-members-those governed (Gaventa & McGee, 2010).

According to UNDP (1997), responsiveness deepens democratic practices and reinforces democratic culture of the people. Likewise, Crook (2003) acknowledges that a high degree of accountability may foster responsiveness in democratic local government because elections, rule making, political participation, publicity and political debate may help to close the gap between citizens and their local government. In addition, it provides opportunities for grievances to be aired and wrongs remedied. Bovens (2010) corroborates that because decentralised government has distinct advantages of getting closer to people, receiving information and acting upon it, a

democratically elected local government effectively transforms the long channel of hierarchical accountability to direct accountability to the people.

Furthermore, Faguet (2004) adds that, decentralisation is unlikely to lead to more pro-poor outcomes without a serious effort to strengthen and broaden accountability mechanisms at both local and national levels. Scott (2012) observes that the empowerment and accountability agenda have emerged as the academic and development community's response to the increasing recognition that traditional approaches to promoting voice and accountability have failed to bring about sustained policy change and improved development outcomes.

Criticism against responsiveness

A major criticism of responsiveness is that short term needs are addressed to the neglect of long term needs because citizens may express interest in their immediate needs which may be short term and not long term future needs. Vigoda (2002b) argues that responsiveness damages professionalism since it forces public servants to satisfy citizens' demands even when such actions contradict the collective public interest. In order to satisfy the public will, short term consideration and popular decisions are overemphasised while other long-term issues receive little or no attention at all. Conversely, other studies suggest that democracy require administrators who are responsive to the popular will and directly accountable to the people, or at least through legislature and politicians, (Stivers, 1994).

The aforementioned theoretical and conceptual issues informed the conceptual framework. The dimensions of low responsiveness as indicated in the problem tree analysis and the research objectives and corresponding

questions all informed the conceptual framework adapted for the study.

Conceptual Framework for Local Government Responsiveness and Accountability

The Local Government Responsiveness and Accountability Framework (LOGRAF) Figure 3 is premised on the tenets of decentralisation theorem and good governance principles of participation, accountability, responsiveness and equity. The principal-agent relationship, political-agency theory, systems theory, and local level development underlie the framework. The conceptual framework depicts the local government system as an open system which constantly interacts with both the internal and external environments in order to provide goods and services and to adapt to changes. The local and community levels, receive inputs and resources, and transform them into goods and services.

As portrayed in the conceptual framework, decentralisation transfers powers and resources and responsibilities from the national level to sub-national level to stimulate sustainable local level development. In addition the conceptual framework (CF) recognises the interrelationships among participation, accountability and responsiveness to local needs and is consistent with the scope of the study. The CF acknowledges local government as the key institution recipient of the devolved powers, responsibilities and resources transferred from the centre to the local level for effective governance and development.

Global

Feedback

External Environment

Feedback

(NATIONAL-LEVEL) Policies, Resources, Powers,

LOCAL GOVERNMENT (OPEN SYSTEM) As Agents Supply Side

ACCOUNTABILITY

Responsible- doing the right things using right methods
Service delivery -types, quantity, quality
Accountability Political, administrative, fiscal and
Answerability, Rewards & Sanctions.
Transparency-Information & access to institutions

SUPPLY

RESPONSE
Channels/ mechanism
Receptivity

LOCAL LEVEL DESIRED DEVELOPMENT OUTCOMES
- well-being
- equitable development
- safety and security
- improved services & infrastructure
- satisfied citizens

Internal factors influencing local government responsiveness

Demand – supply response gap

Resource gap
Planning gap

PROCESS

RESPONSIVENESS
- Congruence- (General responsiveness)
- Accuracy- satisfaction with performance and outputs (Institutional Responsiveness)
- Service delivery consistent with users needs
- Timeliness–response given within reasonable time
- Organisational learning capacity

DECENTRALISATION THEOREM – proximity, equity & subsidiarity

RELATED THEORIES Principal-Agent Political-Agency
Elite theory
Public choice

Accountability
Transparency/ Information gap

Participation gap

PARTICIPATION
Participatory planning, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation
Utilisation of participation and accountability mechanisms
Citizen access to information /feedback (transparency)
Access to services

CITIZENS' DEMAND
Channels/mechanisms
Access / utilisation
Voice /empowerment

COMMUNITY LEVEL (Principals) Demand side

Community Developmental needs/gap.

Current situation

Desired Situation

NEEDS BASED THEORIES

Human capital, basic needs, & rights based, hierarchy of needs:
physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteemed and self
actualisation, survival, sustenance and enabling needs

Feedback Linkages

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Figure 3: Conceptual Framework of Local Government Responsiveness and Accountability
Sources: Adapted from the World Bank (Shah, 2007) and Yilmaz et al., (2010)

Responsiveness implies that citizens know their pressing needs and get the opportunity to discuss pertinent issues and needs at the household and community levels and prioritise them. This enables them to voice their needs and concerns before placing a demand to the local government directly or indirectly through their representatives. Local government on the other hand, is presumed to be receptive. This implies that it listens to the people's voice and delivers public services efficiently and effectively to the satisfaction of all, and be held accountable.

The conceptual framework acknowledges that the flow from needs identification, prioritisation and implementation and utilisation of services is sometimes broken due to gaps such as inadequate resources, few mechanisms for participation, accountability and responsiveness. As participation and accountability increase, responsiveness to community needs and preferences will be greater because of the inter linkages and the interconnectedness among the concepts. As illustrated in the conceptual framework, responsiveness and accountability the intermediate outcomes to local level development, are eluded

Chapter Summary

The chapter reviews need based theories, the ladder and typology of participation, and the decentralisation theorem and the related conceptual issues. The chapter shows the inter-linkages among the different concepts, and identifies some gaps in the literature as the basis for this study. The review of related literature has emphasised need assessment as an integral part of responsiveness evaluation. The next chapter presents an overview of Ghana's decentralisation and local government system and a review of related empirical literature on responsiveness studies in Ghana and other countries. The preceding

chapters have reviewed theoretically and conceptually, needs, participation, responsiveness and accountability, while the proceeding chapter reviews empirically two cases of responsiveness from Ghana and six other developing countries.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

Introduction

Decentralisation has been considered by successive national governments and development partners as one of the strategies in public sector reforms that will bring service delivery closer to consumers while ensuring responsiveness and accountability (Offei-Aboagye, 2008). This chapter looks at an overview of Ghana's decentralisation and local government system. The chapter reviews empirical literature on local needs, participation, responsiveness and accountability, and it is organised as follows:

- A historical overview of local government in Ghana;

- Structure of the current local government system in Ghana;

- The organisational structure of Ghana's local government system

- Decentralised Participatory Planning System in Ghana

- Challenges in the implementation of Ghana's decentralisation policy;

- Empirical review of Ghana's local government system's responsiveness and accountability and experiences of other countries:

- Summary

A Historical Review of Local Government in Ghana

The history of local government in Ghana is discussed in this section under three eras, namely pre-independence, post independence and the current democratic decentralised local government era to help the reader understand the evolution of local government in Ghana. The prospects and challenges of decentralisation, participation, responsiveness and accountability are also

discussed. The pre-independence era encapsulates the history from 1859-1956, while the independence era covers the period from 1957 up to the collapse of the Third Republic in 1981. The current decentralisation system was introduced in 1988 and reformed under the 1992 Constitution (Crawford, 2004; Nkrumah, 2000). In this respect, local government in Ghana is not entirely new, but it has evolved from one era to another (Mensah & Kendie, 2008).

Pre -Independence Local Government Era in Ghana (1851-1956)

According to Ayee (2000), the history of local government in Ghana dates back to the introduction of indirect rule by the British colonial authorities in 1878, lasting until 1951. This assertion has been contested by historians who argue that, before the advent of the British in Ghana some form of local government existed with the Chiefs in charge (Nkrumah, 2000). Ayee (2000) contends that the earliest organised form of local government in the then Gold Coast was "indirect rule" featuring native authority and local royalty which were corrupt and inefficient and which sustained undesirable people in power.

Ahwoi (2010) also argues that, local government in the Gold Coast developed along a series of Municipal Council Ordinances and Native Authorities system. The units of local government were called Native Authorities which were undemocratic (ILGS & FES, 2011). In 1894, Town Councils were established for Cape Coast and Sekondi-Takoradi. Each Council consisted of eight members, who were nominated by the government. This seems to imply that the people had no direct representation until 1943, when a new ordinance set up the elected town councils for Accra, Kumasi, Sekondi - Takoradi and Cape Coast. Nkrumah (2000) indicates that following the Coussey Committee's Report, in 1953, the Municipal Councils Ordinance was passed.

The municipal councils duly established under the ordinance had five-sixth of members elected by the electorate and one-sixth nominated by the State.

The British governed the Gold Coast colony through local authorities, a system they called indirect rule (Crawford 2004, Guri 2006). The colonial government determined and approved of the paramount and divisional chiefs and rewarded those most loyal to the crown with leadership positions on municipal and native councils (Nkrumah, 2000). Therefore, the British thus, initiated a pattern of local governance that has continued through today but with a lot of reforms. According to Ahwoi (2010), the decade leading up to Ghana's independence in 1957 was filled with tension and conflict over British rule in the colony. The unrest during 1948 focused on poor living conditions and a lack of representation in the civil service. This seems to suggest that the colonial government was not responsive to the needs of the poor.

The British realized that they were losing control over the colony and commissioned Aiken Watson to investigate the causes of the '1948 Disturbances.' As a result of the recommendations of both the Watson and Coussey commissions, the British in 1950 and 1951 made important changes in governance of the colony and granted internal self-government, representation, and greater participation in local government (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010). Ahwoi (2010) adds that political events after the Second World War led to the establishment of the Watson Commission and the Coussey Committee.

The Local Government Ordinance of 1951 implemented the Watson and Coussey recommendations to a large extent, with two-thirds of the members of the local authorities being elected by adult suffrage and one–third chosen by traditional authorities (Nkrumah, 2000). The new system provided for the

establishment of District, Urban, and Local Councils. As many as 252 Local and Urban and 26 District councils were created with populations varying from 10,000 to 71,447 for the Local Urban Councils and from 26,026 to 388,753 for the District Council (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010). Ahwoi (2010) maintains that under the Municipal Ordinance 1953, four Municipal Councils Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast and Sekondi-Takoradi were established.

Ayee (2008) noted that the 1951 model of local government failed because, local government was very much centralised and remote from the people. Although, participation and representation were restored to local government, accountability was still missing in local governance.

Post -Independence Era Local Government in Ghana: 1957-1981

Ghana has long been in search of an efficient and effective local government system throughout its chequered political history of civilian and military rule from pre independence to post independence era. A remarkable feature of the 1957 Local Government was the establishment of Regional Assembly, based on the recommendations of Greenwood Commission. According to Nkrumah, (2000) the 1957 Constitution divided Ghana into five regions namely, Eastern, Western, Ashanti, Northern and Trans-Volta Togoland and established them by an act of parliament.

The 1960 constitution provided in article six, for Ghana to be divided into eight regions namely; Ashanti, Brong-Ahafo, Central, Eastern, Northern, Upper, Volta and Western. There were no other provisions on local government, presumably because the Greenwood Commission was still at work and the expectation was to use its report to fashion out a local government system by legislation (Ayee, 2004). Indeed this was what happened with the

promulgation of the Local Government Act, 1961. Following the submission of the Greenwood report, two main recommendations were made: Local government should continue to be democratic in form and should perform as wide a range of functions as lies within its capacity; Local government must finance its services as far as possible out of resources at its disposal and that the undue dependence on central government should be avoided (Ahwoi, 2010).

Antwi-Bosiako (2010) recounts that the 1961 Local Government Act, was repealed following the coup d'état of 1966, that overthrew the Government of the First Republic. After the 1966 coup d'état that over threw the Convention Peoples Party Government, three Commissions were set up namely Siriboe, Mills Odoi, and Akuffo-Addo, all of them made detailed recommendations on local government reforms. The Third Republican Constitution of 1979 provided for an Act of Parliament to establish District Councils, Village, Town and Area development committees (Ahwoi, 2010). Two thirds of the membership of the district Councils were to be elected on the basis of universal adult suffrage and one–third were to be appointed by the traditional authorities (ILGS & FES, 2011).

In March 1982, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) dissolved and abolished the district councils elected in the period of the third republic on the basis of their inability to deliver on the revolutionary aspirations of the time (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010). In their stead, Interim Management Committees for all the 65 district councils were in operation by May 1982. The problems that developed as result of this dual central and local administration included the encroachment on the rights and responsibilities of the weaker local government bodies. Hence, resources were duplicated by local government

agencies and central government bodies because areas and limits of responsibility between the two were not clearly demarcated. Against this background of duplication and ineffectiveness and slow development at the local level, a new structure of local government was introduced in 1988.

Structure of the Current Local Government System in Ghana

The Local Government Law 1988 (PNDCL 207) was the landmark legislation that provided the legal framework for District Assemblies and the beginning of decentralised local government system (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). Upon coming into force of the 1992 Constitution, PNDC Law 207 was repealed and replaced with the Local Government Act, Act 462 and Article 240 (Ahwoi, 2010). The 1992 Constitution marked the transition from military rule to multi-party democracy at the national level and consolidated the aim of decentralisation within the overall context of a liberal democratic Constitution. Yet, the essential democratic elements such as electing the leaders remained compromised, especially through the retention of presidential appointments, and non partisan local elections powers (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010).

The broad legal framework for decentralisation is provided in Article 240 of the Constitution which states that local government and administration shall be decentralised. The constitution also states that functions, powers, responsibilities and resources should be transferred from the centre to local government units (Adusei-Asante, 2012; Ahwoi, 2010). Parliament has also been mandated by the Constitution to enhance the capacity of local government authorities. The principles of participation in local government and downward accountability to the populace was emphasised by the statement that:" To ensure

accountability of local government authorities, people in particular local government areas shall as far as possible and practicable be afforded the opportunity to participate effectively in their governance" (Article 240 (2) e).

Indeed the democratic intention in the decentralisation provision was made explicit in another section of the Constitution which states that: "The State shall take appropriate measures to make democracy a reality by decentralising the administrative and financial machinery of government to the regions and districts and by affording all possible opportunities to the people to participate in decision–making at every level of national life and in government" (Article 35 (6) d). Yet, after two decades of implementation these remain illusory. Two contradictory issues emerge from this provision. MMDAs are composed of 70 percent elected members with candidates contesting as individuals and political parties banned, and 30 percent of members appointed by the President in consultation with traditional authorities and other interest groups in the district. Additionally, the appointment of the MMDCE by the President was retained, though with the approval needed of two-thirds of District Assembly members. These provisions tend to make the MMDCE accountable to the President and the executive and not the ordinary citizens. Decentralisation was introduced in Ghana to ensure maximum participation of local people, in the governance and development processes and therefore people are at the centre of development (Geol, 2010).

The structure of the local government system in Ghana comprises the national and the local level because Ghana is a unitary state. Indeed the centre has transferred power and the means to the local level for autonomy but some power still remains at the national level for unity, cohesion and harmony. The

structure of local government system in the fourth republic is made up of a regional coordinating council and four-tier metropolitan and three-tier municipal and district assembly system as shown in Figure 4.

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        │ Metropolitan(6)│ │ Municipal (56) │ │ District (154) │
        └────────────────┘ └────────────────┘ └────────────────┘
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                   ▼              │                    │
        ┌────────────────┐        │                    │
        │ Sub-metro   district│   │                    │
        │ council (35)   │        │                    │
        └────────────────┘        │                    │
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        ┌────────────────┐ ┌────────────────┐ ┌────────────────┐
        │     Town       │ │ Zonal council  │ │ Urban/town area│
        │                │ │                │ │ council        │
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              │            Unit committees                │
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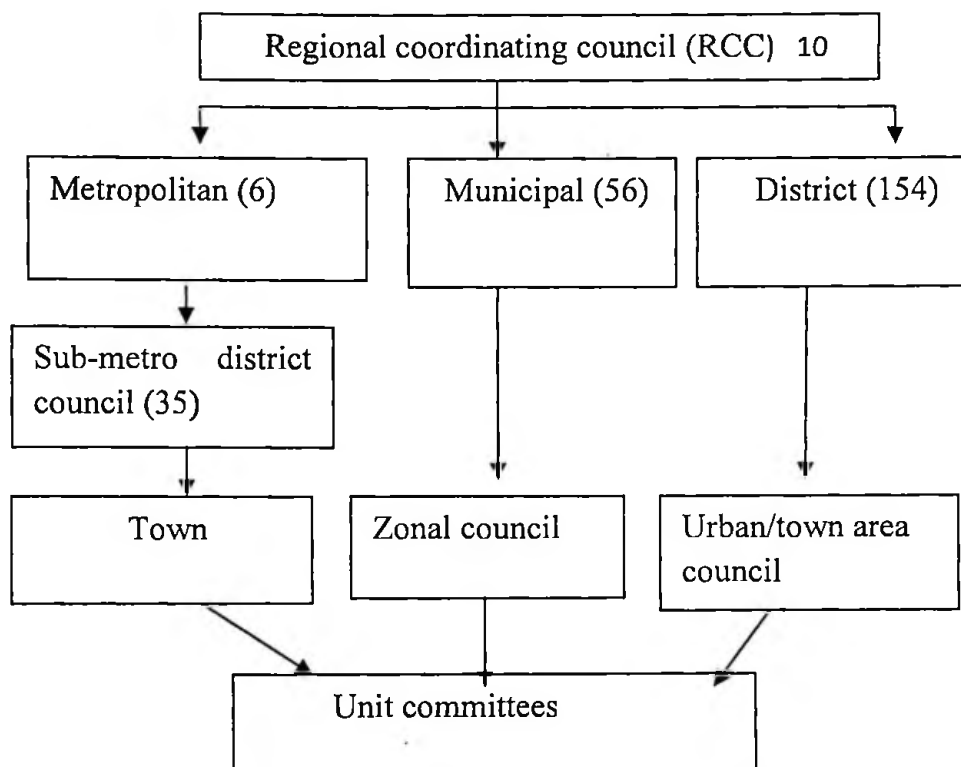
Figure 4: Structure of the Local Government System in Ghana

Source: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (1996).

The MLGRD is not part of the local government structure but has oversight responsibility of all MMDAs. At the regional level, the Regional Coordinating Councils (RCC) are established to play a coordinating role not in a regulatory manner but to ensure consistency, compatibility and coherence of district level development (Agyemang-Duah, 2008). Table 2 presents the population thresholds for the MMDA structures and their functions.

Table 2

Population Thresholds and Functions of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies and Sub-Structures in Ghana

Population	Local government Structure	Delineation	Functions
500 -2000	Unit Committees	Parts of towns, zones or whole villages	Enforcement and Mobilisation
2000-5000	Area Councils	Groups of village/ smaller towns	Administrative, enforcement/mobilization
Above 5000-15000	Town Councils / Zonal council	Settlement with population threshold	Administrative enforcement/mobilization
15,000	Urban Councils	Settlement with population over	Administrative enforcement/mobilization
75,000	District Assembly	Contains town / urban/area council	Administrative, Legislative, Executive, planning/rating
95,000	Municipal Assembly	One-town assembly	Administrative, Legislative, Executive
250,000+	Metropolitan Assembly	One- town city	Administrative, Legislative, Executive, planning/rating
	Sub- Metro District	Larger parts of the Metropolis	Administrative, revenue collection and retention

Source: MLGRD (1996)

Metropolitan, Municipal and District assemblies and their sub structures constitute the local government structure and are primarily responsible for implementation of development policies and programmes that are coordinated by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC). Ghana's local government system is premised on the assumptions that development is that which responds to peoples' problems and represents their goals, objectives and priorities. It is a shared responsibility among central government, local government, parastatals, non- state and governmental organisations and the

people (MLGRD, 1988). Local government institutions are necessary to provide focal points of local energies, enthusiasm, initiative and organisation (MLGRD, 1996). In this respect, participation and accountability are key requirements for their effective functioning (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009).

The creation of new MMDAs is a political decision taken at the highest level of government to achieve the objectives of the decentralisation policy (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). The President of Ghana has the sole prerogative to create new metropolis, municipalities and districts to enhance responsiveness of local government to community needs (Republic of Ghana, Constitution, 1992). In the above respect, from 1992 successive administrations have utilised this provision and created more MMDAs. As indicated in Table 3, from 1988 to 2012, the total number of metropolitan, municipal and districts in Ghana increased from 110 to 216. The number of municipalities increased over five fold, from 10 to 56 while over the same period, the number of districts increased from 103 to 154. The growth and expansion of the number of MMDA is a reflection of commitment to further decentralisation by successive governments.

Powers and functions of MMDAs as laid out in the 1992 constitution and local government Act, Act 462 of 1993 are explicit and accorded wide ranging responsibilities to designated geographical areas. These include the highest political and administrative authority, planning and development as well as budgeting and rating authority.

Table 3

Number of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies in Ghana and in the Central Region

Structures/ Sub-structures MMDAs	Number and Period							
	1988		2004		2008		2012	
	Ghana	Central	Ghana	Central	Ghana	Central	Ghana	Central
Metropolitan	3	0	4	0	6	1	6	1
Municipal	4	1	10	3	40	6	56	7
District	103	11	124	12	124	10	154	12
MMDA	110	12	138	15	170	17	216	20
Sub-Metro	13	0	30	0	35	2	*	2

Note: Central means Central Region

Source: MLGRD (1996: 2007; 2012)

Antwi-Bosiako (2010) adds building, equipping and maintaining primary, middle, secondary and special schools and maintaining highway and trunk roads lying within the boundaries of their areas of authority are within the remit of MMDAs. In addition, they see to promoting and safeguarding public health and regular inspection of the metropolitan area for the detection of nuisance or any condition likely to be offensive or injurious to public health. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of MMDAs to establish, build, maintain and control public places of convenience, and disposal and management of waste. The extent to which local government formulates policies and programmes, mobilise and allocate resources among these competing needs and the extent to which they are able to provide these public services to meet the critical needs of its constituents is indicative of its responsiveness to community needs.

The decentralised local government system has many actors. Ahwoi (2010) indicates that the principal officers and personalities of MMDAs who act to ensure active participation, responsiveness and accountability to the citizens are the Chief Executive, the Presiding Member, Member(s) of Parliament in the district, Coordinating Director, staff of the Assembly and both the elected and appointed Assembly members. Table 4 presents the key actors and their roles and responsibilities in the local governance system to ensure good governance and development.

Local government Act 462 of 1993, section 10 (1), and section 2 of the National Development Planning System, Act 480 of 1994, specify the functions of MMDAs and the roles certain key individuals play to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability. Gaventa (2007) argues that citizens' access to and contact with key officials enhances participation, responsiveness and accountability. Shah (2007) endorses Gaventa's view but, argues that responsiveness is dependent upon the structures of local government, systems and access to resources.

Table 4

Responsibilities of Key Actors in Ghana's Local Government System

Actors	Roles and Responsibilities
Member of Parliament	• Link between MMDA and Parliament
	• Guides the Assembly to ensure that local bye laws are consistent with national legislations
	• Advocates for the constituency
	• Ensure parliaments oversight roles of accountability
Metropolitan Municipal District Chief Executive	• Chief representative of the central government
	• Chairs executive committee meetings
	• Chief implementer of the Assemblies decisions
	• Responsible for the day to day performance of the executive and administrative functions
	• Ensure participation, responsiveness of the MMDA to citizens' needs, service delivery and accountability
Presiding member	• Convenes and presides over of Assembly meetings
	• Chairs (PRCC) and promotes participation, accountability and responsiveness
Assembly persons	• Maintain close contact with the electorate
	• Consult people and present their concerns to MMDA
	• Representative of the people and their interests
	• Meets the electorate before every Assembly meeting to collate views and give feedback
Metropolitan, Municipal and District Coordinating Director	• Acts as secretary to the Assembly
	• Implementer of Assemblies decisions
	• Administrative head of district bureaucracy
Heads/staff of departments	• Technical inputs and advise
	• Implementer of Assemblies decisions

Sources: Ahwoi (2010) and ILGS & FES (2011)

The Organisational Structure of Ghana's Local Government System

The organisational structure of the local government, the systems and mechanisms for planning and budgeting, resources mobilisation and allocation decision making are all geared towards ensuring responsiveness and accountability. The structure of an Assembly is made up of the General Assembly, the Executive Committee and its sub-committees as well as the Coordinating Directorate and the Decentralised Departments of the Assembly (ILGS & FES, 2011).

The General Assembly is the highest decision–making body and performs deliberative, legislative, and executive functions under the leadership of the presiding member. In the performance of its mandate the MMDAs work through the executive committee and its subsidiary sub-committees of development planning, finance and administration, works, social services, and justice and security. The Local Government Act, 462 of 1993 establishes 16, 13 and 11 departments for metropolitan, municipal and districts Assemblies respectively.

The decentralised departments perform technical functions and provide technical expertise for local level development. Shah (2007) is of the view that in theory, decentralised structures by virtue of their closeness to the people, offers greater opportunity for participation and demand for accountability from public officials thereby, enhancing responsiveness and accountability (ILGS & FES, 2011). Metropolitan, Municipal and District assemblies and their sub structures constitute the local government structure and are primarily responsible for implementation of development policies and programmes that

are coordinated by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC).

Figure 5 illustrates the structure of MMDA's.
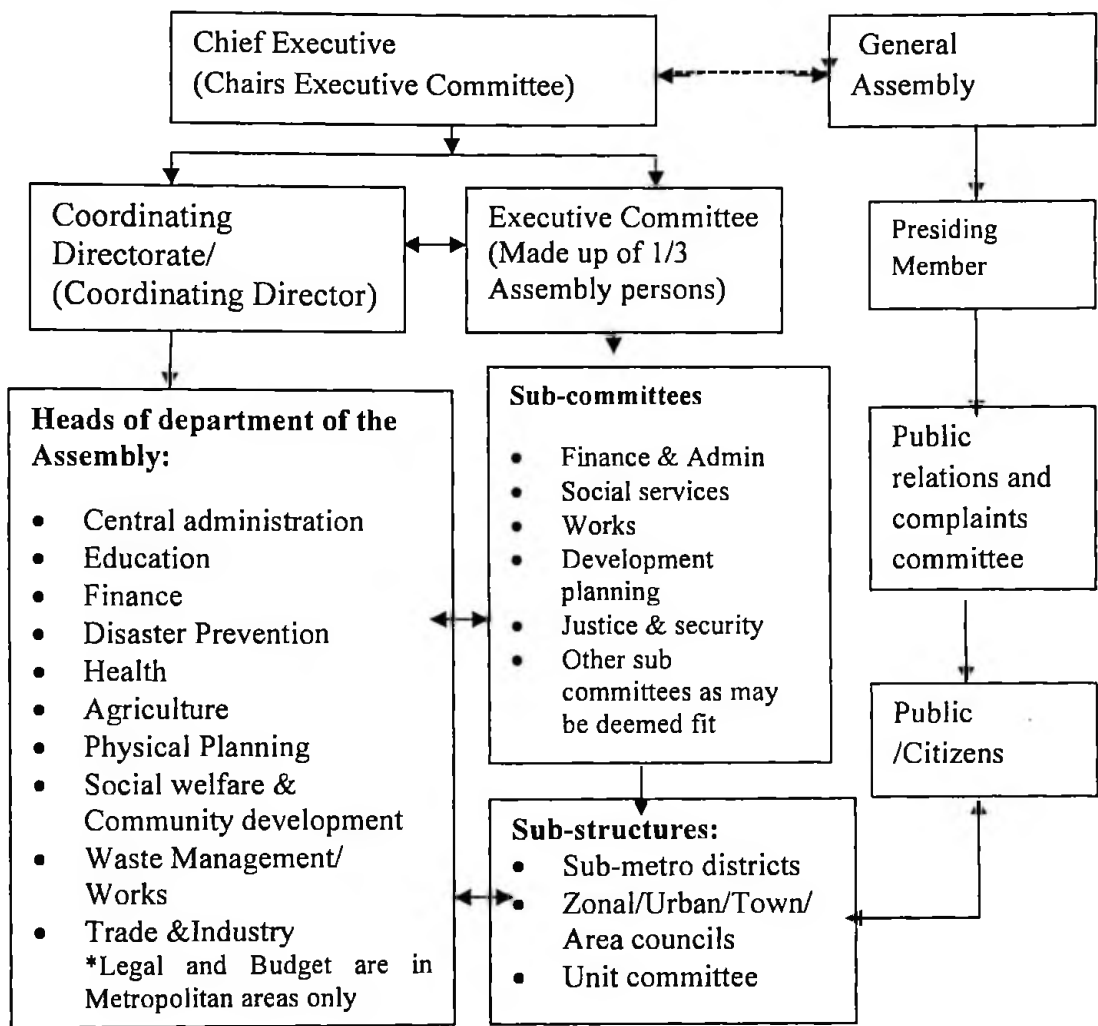
Figure 5: Organisational Structure of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies

Note: *Legal, waste management and transport departments are available in metropolitan & municipal assemblies.

Source: Institute of Local Government Studies ILGS & FES, 2011.

All Assemblies are required to have a public relations and complaints committee chaired by the Presiding Member and operates like an internal ombudsman to investigate complaints against members and staff of the Assemblies. From the Assemblies structure, it can be inferred that the structure

was designed to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability. Nevertheless, the reality on the ground is very different from the intended objectives.

The Decentralised Participatory Planning Process

In Ghana, the decentralised planning system is an integral part of the local government system. It was introduced alongside decentralisation of power and means to enhance citizens and community participation in the decision making process and to make development planning more responsive to needs at the local level. Act 480 provides that communities must be part of the decentralised planning formulation and ensure that development plans are prepared with the full participation of all communities and are responsive to community needs. Figure 6 illustrate the sequences of steps involved in the decentralised planning process. The planning process provides spaces for public participation in needs identification, through public hearing, and the public relations complaints committee of the Assembly with the Presiding Member as chair, to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability.
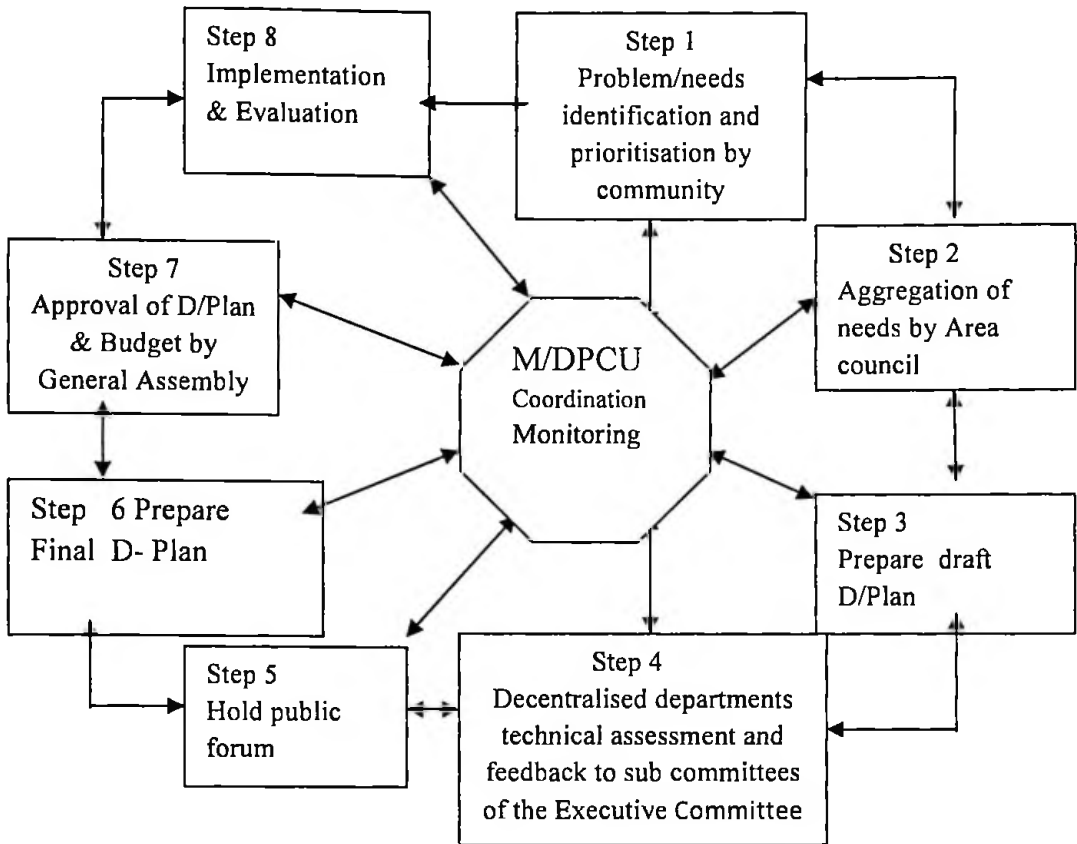
Figure 6: The Decentralised Participatory Development Planning Process
Source: Ahwoi, (2010)

Ahwoi, (2010) posits that democratic decentralisation is a more effective way of meeting local needs, particularly, the needs of the poor than central planning, thereby, producing differentiated patterns of demand. The decentralised development planning system is built on the principle that the development planning process is an integrative, comprehensive, participatory, decentralised, problem solving and continuous task (Ahwoi, 2010). As part of the decentralized development planning process, the metropolitan, municipal and districts assemblies prepare MTDP which are used as the basis for resource allocation and development management (Dick-Sagoe, 2012). This process provides opportunity for the local communities within the districts to participate effectively in the conception, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development programmes and projects (Ahwoi, 2010).

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In both respect, the decentralised development planning system establishes efficient political, planning and administrative mechanisms at the local level, which would enjoy popular support of communities and facilitate the mobilisation of support and resources for district development. This move was intended to give legitimacy to the decisions made at that level. With regard to planning at the DA level, one of the key elements in the decentralised development planning system is the participation of local communities in the making of decisions that affect their livelihoods. Consequently, the district development planning process is expected to commence with the participation of the local communities in the identification of problems and needs and determination of goals and objectives from the unit committee level through the town area/zonal councils to the MMDA.

The district planning coordinating unit then interprets and coordinates the district plan into the medium term development plan for consideration of the executive committee of the DA and debate by the general assembly. The approved district development plan is then forwarded to the regional co-ordinating councils for co-ordination and harmonisation. By NDPC Act 479 of 1994, NDPC is responsible for co-ordinating all national development plans and is mandated to provide the framework and direction for national development planning. With this mandate, it provides guidelines for the preparation of district medium term development plans to ensure that each district plan is consistent with the overall policies and strategies of national development plan.

In Ghana, different measures and interventions, including legislations, policies, programmes, plans and resource allocation have been pursued by both central and local governments to enhance responsiveness. MMDAs which are

perceived to be large and unresponsive to local needs have been re-demarcated into smaller and new districts to enhance efficiency in governance and stimulate development (MLGRD, 2012).

Ghana's adoption of the decentralisation programme was with the aim of promoting participation and empowering local communities to take charge of their development, as well as enhancing accountability, responsiveness and local level development (Ayee, 2003). Community participation in the development process was also believed to improve the responsiveness of sub national governments to the needs of the local people, and enhance ownership and sustainability of local level development (Crawford, 2004). Therefore, the Local Government Law, Act 462, 1993 was passed to promote popular and equal participation at all levels of local governance (Kendie & Mensah, 2008; Owusu, 2009). Similarly, Act 480 was passed to enhance community participation in development planning, and forms an integral part in decentralisation and local government accountability and responsiveness.

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, under the directive principles of state policy, also makes provision for responsiveness in development. Consequently, the MMDAs were tasked with the responsibility of formulating and executing programmes for the overall development of the districts. Hence, responsibility for the provision of education, health, water and sanitation facilities and services to transform the living conditions of the constituents was also given to the Assemblies. To ensure this, the central government established first, the District Assembly's Common Fund (DACF) in 1993 and subsequently the District Development Framework (DDF) in 2007, as resource envelopes for implementing local level development initiatives and

interventions in the MMDAs.

In addition, certain taxable elements were ceded to the DAs to complement the DACF and DDF in financing and providing development interventions. Another criticism levelled against Ghana's decentralisation policy is the transfer of inadequate financial resources to local governments to operate effectively and responsively. Resources to match these transferred powers and responsibilities continue to lag behind and remain a major challenge to successful implementation of Ghana's decentralisation and local government (Ahwoi, 2010). Central government provides the bulk of resources for local level development, and therefore, tends to interfere, dictate and control the assemblies, thereby compromising autonomy and discretionary powers. These mindsets, attitudes and behaviours continue to create gaping holes in Ghana's decentralisation and local government.

However, local governments require policies and programmes grounded in the local context because the needs and opportunities vary greatly within and between regions and districts. This, however, poses a big task for the government of Ghana in terms of providing an enabling environment, systems and structures to ensure responsiveness of MMDAs to the developmental needs of the people (MLGRD, 1996). In this regard, metropolitan, municipal and districts have been made consultative, deliberative, legislative and planning authorities. This requires that they consult and involve the citizens directly and or through their representatives in the decision making process. To facilitate this interaction the participatory decentralised planning process was introduced.

The Decentralised Development Planning Systems Act, Act 480 mandates all MMDAs to prepare medium term development plans every four

years and roll out annual operational plans which must be responsive to grassroots and local needs and priorities (MLGRD, 1996). The goal of political decentralisation is to promote people's participation in the democratic process and involve more people in the decision-making and planning process to respond to local needs. Therefore people's participation in the Medium Term Development Plan (2006-2009) and (2010-2013) provide entry points for examining responsiveness of development plans and resource allocations to the developmental needs of people.

Ahwoi (2010) notes that when local government is characterised by devolution, implying a considerable degree of local autonomy from the centre, the exercise of power by elected local councils, and effective people participation, it is more likely that local authorities are responsive to local needs rather than to the dictates of central government. They also tend to be more accountable to local electorates rather than government ministries, departments and agencies. What is most notable to observe about the structure of local government is the lack of accountability from MMDA employees to people's elected assembly persons and ultimately to the residents of the district. For example, MCEs and DCEs are executive appointments and thus are not accountable to MMDAs. Similarly, nearly all civil servants at the local level are more accountable to their line ministries, not the local government.

In order to enhance participation, responsiveness and accountability at the local level, the participatory decentralised planning process Act 462, and Act 480, of (1993) were introduced into the system to stimulate citizen's participation in governance and development process (Republic of Ghana, 1993b). Agyemang-Duah (2008) and Ahwoi (2010) argue that, the participatory

nature notwithstanding, sensitivity to public needs and downward accountability are far from being achieved.

Challenges in the Implementation of Ghana's Decentralisation Policy

The decentralisation policy in Ghana has a number of distinctive features (Ayee, 2004). It devolves administrative authority from the centre to the district. It fuses government agencies in any region, district or locality into one administrative unit through institutional integration, manpower absorption, composite budgeting, and provision of funds for decentralised services (Crawford, 2004). The policy assigns responsibilities to various levels of government (Ahwoi, 2010). The importance of institutional arrangements in a decentralised system is widely recognised. Ghana's decentralisation is identified as one that stresses institutional structures, processes or interactions and outcomes.

Decentralisation is a highly political process which involves strengthening the capacities of local government institutions to express and meet the needs of the local communities, to provide services and promote sustainable development (Crawford, 2004). The decentralisation programme in Ghana has several objectives (Ayee, 1996; Crook & Manor 1998). However, Offei-Aboagye (2008) contends that the basic goal is to promote development, reduce the disparities between urban and rural areas and reverse decades of relatively poor living standards of the majority of people. Local governments, namely metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies are the institutions that have been created and tasked with the overall responsibility of local development and poverty reduction (MLGRD, 1996, 2010).

The implementation of decentralisation policies has involved the transfer of power, responsibility and resources from the centre to the local level. Decentralisation has been pursued by all governments under military and civilian administrations but different degrees of participation, accountability and responsiveness have been emphasised (Nkrumah, 2000). Ghana's decentralisation has been driven by the changing role of the state to meet citizens' needs, as well as failure of centralised mechanisms of planning to deliver quality services to users and the desire to pursue democratic government at all levels (Crawford, 2004). Decentralisation has also placed increased responsibilities on local governments for the delivery of quality local public services (Ahwoi, 2010; Offei-Aboagye, 2008).

Theoretically, the transfer of authority and resources is believed to have a positive impact on the decentralisation process, in terms of improved local access to resources and enhanced positive perception of the programme by the people (Kissieh, 2007). In this respect, decentralisation in Ghana involves devolution of power and authority and territorial distribution from the central government to the local level (Crawford, 2004). Kendie and Mensah (2008) have argued that, decentralised structures provide avenues for popular participation in decision-making and consequently influence the direction of development by local people.

However, the reality on the ground suggests that the central government controls resource allocation and decision-making at the local level (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009; Offei-Aboagye, 2008). This practice undermines participation, accountability and responsiveness at the local level (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010). The post-independence history of decentralisation in Ghana has been characterised

as one of de-concentration as successive governments from President Nkrumah onwards, both civilian and military, sought to strengthen their control through the presence of central government ministries and officials at local level (Nkrumah, 2000). It is possible to argue that all three types of decentralisation, de-concentration, devolution and are evident in Ghana today.

Political decentralisation is intended to democratise the state's power as a means of sharing authority with sub-national governments in order to promote local community ownership, self organisation and self management for local level development (Ahwoi, 2010). Administrative decentralisation places personnel whose functions directly relate to local level development under the control of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDA), (Antwi-Bosiako, 2010). Fiscal decentralisation, on the other hand, entails division of fiscal responsibilities between the central and local governments and the transfer of such responsibilities and resources from the former to the latter (Republic of Ghana, 1992; Ahwoi, 2010).

MMDAs have been mandated to raise revenue locally and from other sources to finance their own development. As many as 86 functions have been delegated to MMDAs (MLGRD, 1996, 2003). However, the corresponding resources have not matched these delegated functions thereby, leaving gaps. MMDAs are therefore, challenged in finding innovative ways of responding to their constituents' developmental needs and preferences. Ghana has witnessed increasing transfer of financial and infrastructural resources as well as power and authority to the district level. According to GSS (2007), the decentralisation programme ensured investments in basic infrastructure of district capitals such as provision of potable water, electricity, health, efficient and accessible roads

network. The benefits notwithstanding, the implementation of decentralisation in Ghana has had some successes and challenges.

Empirical Review of Ghana's Local Government System's Participation, Responsiveness and Accountability

Eight empirical cases of local government responsiveness to citizens' needs were reviewed. Three cases were selected from Ghana (Crook & Manor, 1998, Crawford, 2004 and Kumi-Kyereme, Yankson & Thomi, 2006), and six other countries; Bolivia (Faguet, 2004), Pakistan (Khan, 2006), Israel (Vigoda, 2002a), Tanzania and Zimbabwe (Schou, 2000), Uganda, (URHB, 2013) and South Africa (Paradza, Mokwere & Richards, 2010).

Crook and Manor (1998) carried out a large scale survey of democratic decentralisation in Ghana. The objective was to assess participation, representation and responsiveness of the local government system to local needs. In this study, rankings of popular preferences were compared with the policy priorities and outputs of the local authorities. Interviews and focus group discussions were the data collection methods used and questionnaire, interview guide and focus group discussion guide were the instruments used. A cross sectional and descriptive study design and analytical procedures included rankings, descriptive and inferential statistics, while qualitative data were analysed using themes, transcriptions and interpretations.

The assessment indicated the lack of congruence between District Assembly funded outputs and popular preferences. MMDAs policies and programmes rather tended to reflect centrally determined programmes and priorities. It was also observed that decentralisation and local government had a positive effect on participation, in that a greater number of previously excluded

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groups now participated. On responsiveness dimension, it was found that the MMDAs were not responsive to community needs, as they tended to pursue central government agenda and programmes. Thus citizens' expressed dissatisfaction with performance and public services delivery. Crook and Manor did not report any finding on accountability. The study concluded that more time, resources and effort were needed for the implementation of decentralisation in Ghana, in order to achieve responsiveness.

Kumi-Kyereme, Yankson and Thomi (2006) conducted a household survey on the challenges of decentralisation in Ghana, with focus on responsiveness of the DA to community needs. The study examined the achievements of decentralisation and responsiveness of the district assembly's policies and strategies for development at the local level. It employed a multi-stage sampling technique to identify and select 3,500 households from eight districts and 42 communities. Data on their socio-economic characteristics and perceptions on responsiveness of decentralisation to community needs was collected. The data were mostly described using both descriptive and inferential (quantitative techniques) were used SPSS version. Chi square and the logistic regression were used to analyse the data.

According to the study, decentralisation in Ghana has achieved some progress of DAs in the areas of education, electricity, water and sanitation. Projects and programmes of the Assemblies were found to be responsive to the needs of communities. However, peace, security and order were not considered as priority needs in the study area. The study concluded that local governments were able and willing to engage community support and act more in accordance with the needs and priorities of the communities than higher authorities. In

addition, it tends to deliver responses to community needs with speed, quality and quantity.

Empirical Review of Participation Responsiveness and Accountability: Other Countries Experiences

Empirical cases from Bolivia Faguet (2008), Israel (Vigoda, 2002a), Pakistan (Khan, 2006), South Africa (Paradza, Mokwere & Richards, 2010), Tanzania and Zimbabwe (Schou, 2000), and Uganda (Reproductive Health Bureau, 2013) have been reviewed to provide empirical evidence of responsiveness and accountability.

Rondinelli et al. (1983), Manor (1999) and Blair (2000) admit that empirical studies show that decentralisation, has made local governments more participatory, accountable and responsive to the needs of local people on one hand. Schou (2000) on the other hand argues that in some instances evidence of negative impacts of decentralisation on participation, responsiveness and accountability were observed.

In a comparative study in Mayame Rural District Council in Zimbabwe and Kijoma Ujiji Town Council in Tanzania, Schou (2000) investigated the proposition that democratic local government is associated with high degree of responsiveness the study examines the level of popular participation in development, and investigates the proposition that responsiveness has an effect on accountability. In operationalising responsiveness, the study draws on some of the indicators applied by Crook and Manor (1998) and measured responsiveness as the congruence between actual and spending priorities and main popular preferences, perceptions of improvement in the quality and quantity of service delivery and responsiveness towards vulnerable groups in

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society.

The investigation focused on issues of the political behaviour of councillors, the quality of the mechanism of accountability, impact on the responsiveness on democratically elected councils, the level and form of participation were the variables used in determining the level of responsiveness. Other variables included the wider political context, democratic performance and organisational commitment. Methods for data collection included survey of adult respondents in various wards in the two councils, focus group discussion with women and men separately, interview with councillors and key officials of the councils. The fieldwork was conducted in Tanzania 1996 and Zimbabwe in 1997. Quantitative data were processed using descriptive statistics such as percentages and ranks. FGD were processed by editing the notes, coding and putting them according to themes, transcriptions and data interpretations.

The study found that none of the two councils studied was very responsive to citizens' developmental needs. It also found that the level of popular participation is a key factor in explaining responsiveness. The study concluded that the council's degree of financial autonomy from central government had more significant bearing on responsiveness.

Vigoda (2002b) conducted a study on residents of Haifa, an Israeli city, with a population of approximately 280,000. The study examines responsiveness of public administration to citizens' demands. It employed a multi-stage sampling technique to identify and select 330 households for interview. A total of 330 questionnaires were administered. Participants provided information concerning their attitudes towards public policy, interactions with public servants in different city departments, response of

public agencies, and citizens' satisfaction with the performance and services provided by the local municipality. Residents reported on how satisfied they were with the services that they received from the city department in education and health. The data were mostly described using frequencies and percentages to portray characteristics of the respondents, descriptive statistics, inter-correlation and chi-square were used for data analysis.

In order to test the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and public responsiveness the multiple hierarchical regression analysis was applied. The findings also show that each of the independent group of variables significantly contributes to the understanding of public administration responsiveness. In all three regression models used political and cultural factors were more important than human resource and quality of public servants. Satisfaction with services was positively related to ethics and entrepreneurship, while, operations was positively related to ethics, entrepreneurship, quality of leadership and organisational politics.

Faguet (2004) studied decentralisation in Bolivia using secondary data. The study examined whether decentralisation increases the responsiveness of local government investments in local needs, using a unique set of data in areas where there were greatest needs. Method used for secondary data, collection was document review and analysis of municipal development plans and budgets. Quantitative data from 311 municipalities were analysed using descriptive statistic, mean tests and f-static. The study found massive shift in resource inflows in favour of rural and deprived areas. Decentralisation led to higher investment in human capital and social services according to the needs of

the municipalities. In conclusion, decentralisation in Bolivia has significantly changed public investment pattern throughout the country.

Decentralisation significantly changed public investment patterns in Bolivia with related local needs like education, water and sanitation, agriculture and urban development being the focus of local government. In addition, local municipalities invested funds in highest decentralisation led to higher investment in human capital and social services as chose projects according to their greatest needs.

Khan (2006) assessed the responsiveness of local government to rural development needs in Kohat and Mansehra districts in Pakistan. A cross-sectional design and a multi-stage sampling procedure involving three stages were adopted in identifying and selecting two districts, eight councils and 16 villages. First Kohat and Mansehra districts were selected based on physical, socio-economic characteristics and identical system of local government. Secondly, four union councils in each district and 30 communities were selected randomly. Thirdly, a systematic sampling with random start aided the selection of 480 household heads and 120 councillors for the study.

Data were collected on the perceptions, and attitudes of councillors, outputs provided by a given level of expenditure, quality of organisation and the councils' performance. Data collection methods used was survey interview with households, key informants and focus group discussions. The instruments for gathering data were a structured questionnaire for households and councillors and focus group guide. Questionnaires were administered face to face with the help of university graduates and resident enumerators from the communities.

The data were mostly described using frequencies and percentages to

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portray characteristics of descriptive statistics inferential statistics of inter correlation and chi-square. To test the relationship between the dependent and independent variables and public responsiveness, the multiple hierarchical regression method was used. The findings of the study show that the business orientation of city's agencies had some negative effects on perceptions of general responsiveness. This finding indicated the importance of flexibility, creativity and acceptance of change on public.

In South Africa, Paradza, Mokwere and Richards (2010) conducted a study with the objective to assess the role of councillors in service delivery at the local government level. It examined the quality of interaction between citizens and their elected representatives. The study applied the qualitative design to explore the role of elected local government officials and representatives in service delivery in Randfontein in Gauteng Province, Khara Hais in Northern Cape Province, Phumelela in Free State Province and Madibeng in North Western Province. The research project was carried out between September and December 2010.

The primary data were obtained through one–on-one interview and focus group discussions with councillors and officials. In all, 43 councillors representing various political parties and 13 officials were interviewed as key informants. Councillors were selected in consultation with the speaker of each municipality. One focus group discussion was held in each municipality. Data analyses were qualitative using coding, transcriptions and interpretation and in some instances direct quotes.

The Reproductive Health Bureau (2013) assessed the responsiveness of the public health system to the needs of survivors of child sexual abuse in

Uganda. The study covered all levels of health delivery system, from health centres to national referral hospitals. Overall, the study covered 67 public health facilities across that country. Mixed methods were used in the study. The major sources of information include, child survivors, care givers, representatives of health facilities, others in the response system such as police and probation officers. Information from hospital facilities used checklist and interview guides to collect data from child survivors and analysed them quantitatively using transcriptions and interpretations.

Qualitative data from key informants were collected from public officials, the police, probation officers, and care givers, using semi-structured interview guides. Multi stage cluster sampling which involved initial sampling of groups of cases, followed by the selection of cases within each of the selected clusters were used (Creswell, 2007). Using simple random technique one district was chosen from the cluster. Primary data was supported with secondary data. An in-depth interview was also held with care givers, while the key informant were interviewed using the interview guide. FGD guide was used to facilitate the discussion. The study focused on the availability, accessibility and affordability of health services for child survivors of sexual abuse, and the capacity of the health system to respond to survivors and care givers needs.

Overall the study covered 67 public health facilities in 16 districts countrywide. The analysis involved the triangulation of data from qualitative sources to enrich the interpretation of the findings. Description was enhanced by use of simple statistical measures of proportions and percentages. The analysis was descriptive so as to provide compelling pictures about the prevailing situation and performance of health facilities in relation to interventions for

child survivors of sexual abuse. Statistical descriptions were augmented with verbatim statements and narrations from service users, services providers and key informants.

The study established that the availability of these services varied across regions and levels of service provision, depending on the age of survivor, the time when the case was reported, availability of staff. The study found that physical infrastructure was generally inadequate There were no rooms for counselling traumatised victim but, such cases had to be done in offices. The study concluded that the reproductive healthcare in Uganda was not very responsive to the needs and required a lot more to be done in order to improve the responsiveness of the reproductive healthcare to patients needs.

Lessons from Empirical Review

Important lessons can be drawn from the empirical review with respect to the main objectives, different approaches used as well as gaps for further studies. A common feature of the nine different empirical cases reviewed revealed similarity in their main objectives and in their measurement variables of responsiveness and accountability. The main objectives of the nine cases reviwed were to examine the degree of responsiveness of local government to citizens needs along certain functional areas, such as participation in planning, resource decision making, administration, resource generation and utilisation. Decentralisation is understood as assigning of public functions to the sub national level government along with supporting structures, systems and resources.

A study by Faguet (2004) used data from secondary sources to assess responsiveness while the remaining seven cases combined both primary and secondary data. Six out of the eight cases reviewed, used mixed methods which combined qualitative and quantitative methods while, one empirical study from South Africa Centre for Population Studies (2010) used qualitative design to examine the role and responsiveness of councilors.

From the cases reviewed, the sampling procedures used varied from case to case. The multi-stage sampling design was the most commonly used in responsiveness studies reviewed. Systematic sampling method was used alongside the multi-stage to identify and select the actual respondents for the interview. In order to examine responsiveness of the local government system to the developmental needs of communities, the multi-stage and systematic random sampling procedures were used to select households for the survey (Crook & Manor, 1998; Khan, 2006; Kumi-Kyereme et al., 2006; Schou, 2000; Ugandan Reproductive Health Bureau, 2013; Vigoda, 2002b).

Data measurement include prioritising or ranking of needs, perceptions of responsiveness to community needs, promptness, general responsiveness, satisfaction with organisational performance and satisfaction with outputs and services delivery and organisational learning. On the other hand, participation measured involvement in decision - making, and in local level political process to select local representatives. The extent of peoples' participation was not often measured using Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation, or Pretty's (1995) typology of participation. In addition, participation also measured what kinds of activities, who the participants are, how they participated. Responsiveness was measured by respondents' perceptions of congruence,

promptness of response, availability, access and utilisation of basic needs and services as well as overall satisfaction with local government performance and service delivery.

Data collection methods commonly used in responsiveness studies were, household surveys, key informant interviews, focus groups discussion and field observation. Questionnaire, interview schedule and interview guide, focus group discussion guide and observation checklist were the instruments used for primary data collection (Crook & Manor, 1998; Khan. 2006; Kumi-Kyereme et al., 2006; Schou 2000; Vigoda, 2002b). Regarding analytical procedures, needs were measured theoretically by categories such as basic needs, rights based and human capital. Data analysis employed descriptive statistics, ranks, chi-square, analysis of means, logistic and hierarchical regression models were applied to measure the nature of the relationships.

Studies by Schou (2000), Khan (2006) and Kumi-Kyereme et al., (2006) made constant reference to the needs of people and communities in assessing congruence, yet, none of them really analysed the type of needs of the community in detail. Needs of communities go beyond the physical needs to include non-physical needs as propounded by Maslow (1965). In addition, the studies presumed that mechanisms for participation and accountability would on their own, work to enhance responsiveness but empirical evidence does not support this assumption. Hence, citizens have a responsibility to place a demand and local governments have a responsibility to respond and hold themselves accountable.

The cases reviewed showed that responsiveness and accountability have been given less prominence in relation to participation while inter-linkages

among the concept of needs, responsiveness and accountability have not been explored much. These raise theoretical, conceptual and methodological problems in responsive and accountability evaluation. This study draws on the lessons from the empirical cases reviewed and the identified gaps in needs analysis, extent of participation, and non examination of inter-linkages among the theories, concepts and variables used.

Chapter Summary

The contents in this chapter suggest that from the pre-independence to post independence era and under the current democratic era, successive central and local governments have pursued various reforms that shaped the systems and structures for administration and representation (Ahwoi, 2010; Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). The current local government system and the organisational structure of the Assemblies and the specific roles assigned to key departments of the Assembly, the actors and agencies have been highlighted. The chapter also highlights the mechanisms for participation, accountability and responsiveness, and provides the context in which access, performance and satisfaction with services are examined. The next chapter discusses the methodology used to achieve the research objectives.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Research methodology provides the philosophical framework and the fundamental assumptions that relate to the entire process of research and equips the researcher with the necessary procedures and tools needed to evaluate theories, propositions and review work of others (Creswell, 2003). It also describes the gaps and how the entire research were conducted and then structure the most appropriate methodology for data collection, analysis and drawing logical and valid conclusions (Kumekpor, 2003; Panneerselvam, 2010).

This chapter describes the methodology used in conducting the study. It covers the study area, research design, target population, data sources and collection methods, sampling procedure, research instruments, and pre-testing of data collection instruments. It also outlines the ethical considerations, fieldwork and challenges encountered in the study and data analysis.

Study Area

The study area is the Central Region of Ghana. It occupies an area of 9,826 square kilometres which constitutes 4.19 percent of Ghana's land area. It shares boundaries with Western Region to the west, Ashanti and Eastern regions to the north, and Greater Accra Region to the east. On the south is the 168-kilometre length Atlantic Ocean Gulf of Guinea coastline (CRCC, 2009). The study region is shown in the national context in Figure 7.
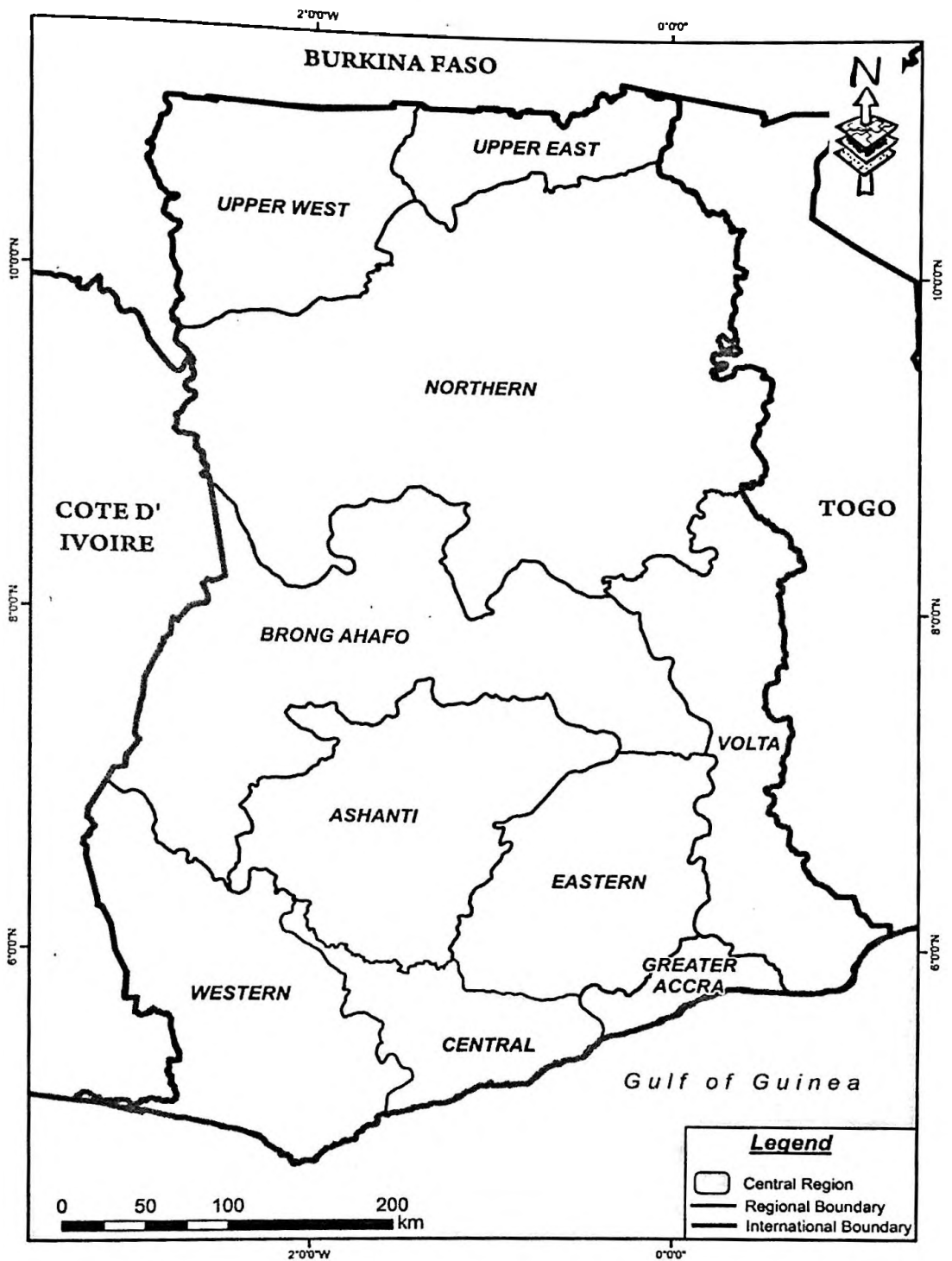
Figure 7: Map of the Central Region in the National Context

Source: UCC, Department of Geography and Regional Planning (2012)

The Central Region had 17 MMDAs, comprising one metropolitan, six municipal and 10 district assemblies (Ahwoi, 2010). However, in November, 2012, three additional districts were created in the region bringing the total local government areas to 20; comprising one metropolis, six municipalities and 13

districts (MLGRD, 2012). The Central Region was stratified into metropolis, municipalities and districts, and one from each stratum, was selected randomly. Cape Coast Metropolis, being the only one in that stratum was selected while Mfantseman Municipality was randomly selected out of the six municipalities, and Twifo Ati Mokwa was selected out of 13 districts.

The study was conducted in Cape Coast Metropolis, Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District as shown in Figure 8. The detailed characteristics of the study metropolis, municipality and district are discussed in the following three sub-sections.
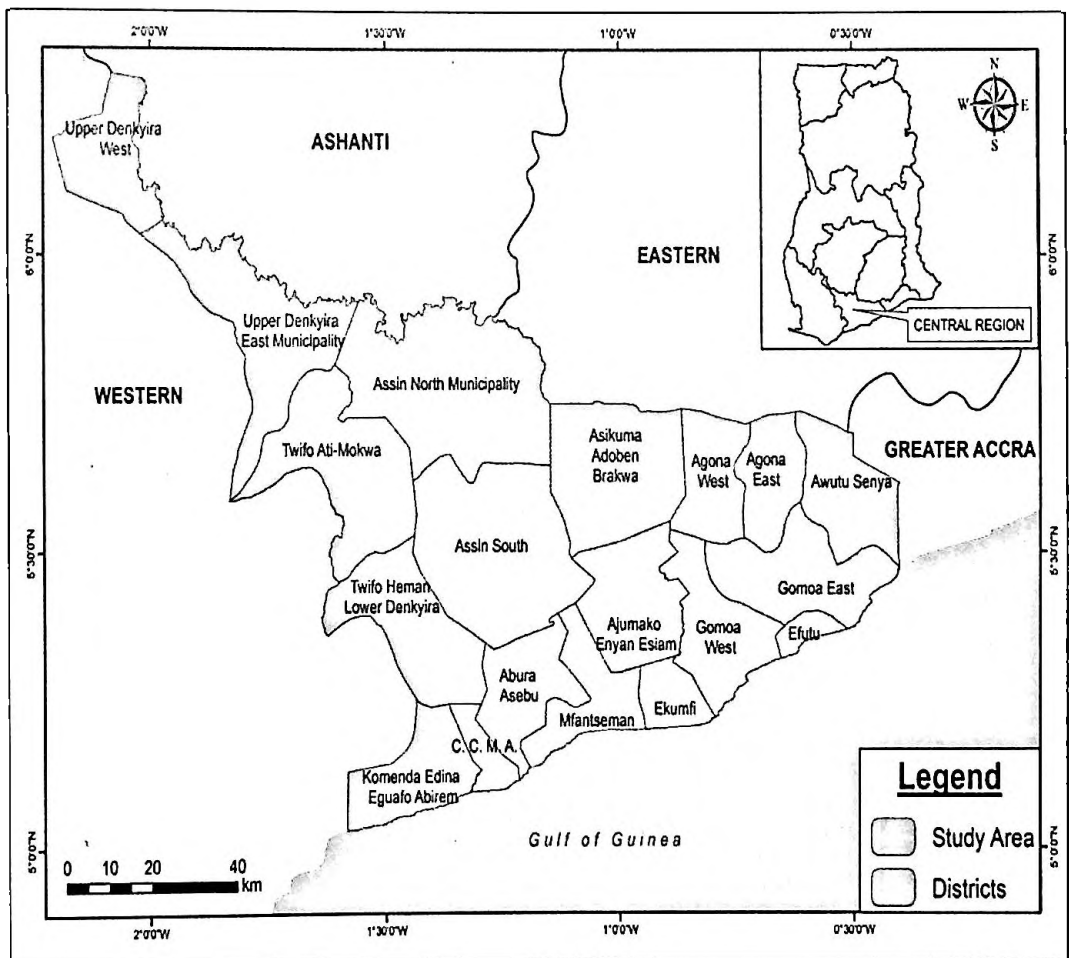
Figure 8: Map Showing Study Areas in the Central Region Context

Source: UCC, Department of Geography and Regional Planning (2012)

Cape Coast Metropolis

The Cape Coast Metropolis was established by Legislative Instrument LI. 1373 (1988) as Cape Coast Municipality and upgraded to a Metropolis by LI 1927 (2007). It is bounded on the south by the Gulf of Guinea, to the west by Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality, east by Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District and to the north by the Hemang-Lower Denkyira District. The metropolis occupies a land area of approximately 122 square kilometres and is the smallest metropolis in the country as well as the smallest local government area in the region in terms of its land size (CCMA, 2009). Cape Coast Metropolis is synonymous with a city district and has 71 settlements.

Cape Coast also serves as the regional capital and is noted for its historical sites and tourism attractions. Cape Coast Metropolis is endowed with many schools. It is the cradle of education in Ghana and has some of the best senior high schools in the country, a college of education, a polytechnic and a university. These institutions attract people from all over the country, to pursue various levels of academic and professional education. The Metropolis is endowed with a regional hospital which serves as a referral centre for the region, a district hospital and various clinics that provide healthcare to the population.

The population of Cape Coast Metropolis was 169,894 in 2010 consisting of 82,810 (48.7%) males and 87,084 (51.3%) females and representing 7.7 percent of the total population of the Central Region of 2.107 million people. The majority (89%) of the people live in urban areas (CCMA, 2012). The age structure of the population indicates that (0-14) group is 48,240 of which 23,872 (49.5%) were males and 24,368 (50.5%) were females. The age

group (15-64) years was 113,955 of which 55,873 (49%) were males and 58,082 (51%) females. The 65 and above age group was 7,699 with 3,065 (39%) male and 4,634 (61%) females. The study communities are shown in Figure 9.
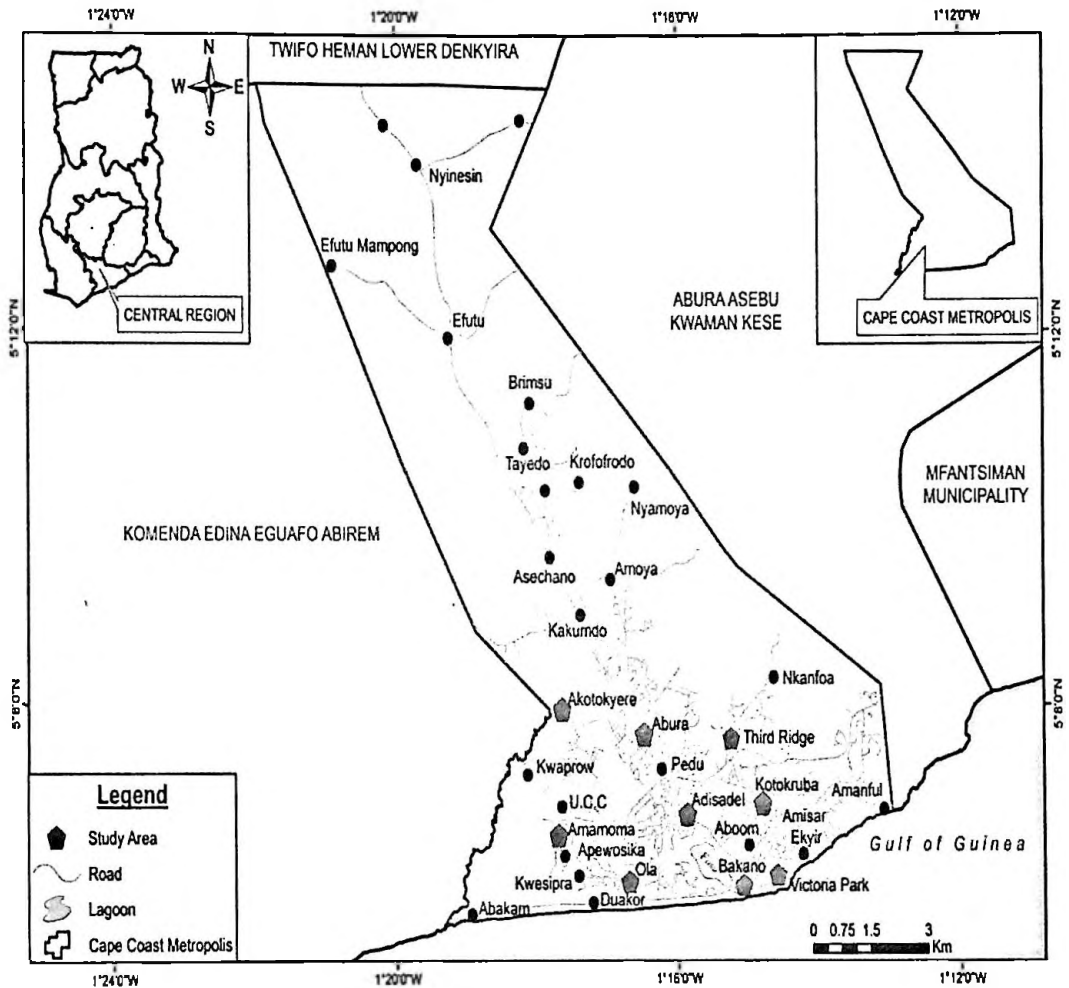
Figure 9: Map of Cape Coast Metropolis Showing the Study Communities

Source: UCC, Department of Geography and Regional Planning (2012)

The Cape Coast Metropolis has two constituencies, Cape Coast North and Cape Coast South. The Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly (CCMA) is the highest political and administrative authority in the metropolis. It has 62 members, made up of the two Members of Parliament who have no voting rights, 18 appointed members not exceeding one-third of the total membership and 42 elected representatives of the people. CCMA has a four-tier structure, the Metropolitan Assembly, two Sub-Metropolitan districts, seven Town

Councils and 87 Unit committees. It houses all the 16 decentralised departments of CCMA as well as the various departments of the RCC. These departments are supposed to play their roles to make the Assembly responsive to the needs of the constituents and be accountable to the people.

The highest level attained by most of those who attended school in the past, is middle/JSS/JHS 46 percent, whiles 16 percent attained secondary/SSS/SHS level. For those who have been to school in the past, slightly more females have had basic education than males. 11.7 percent of males who attended school in the past had primary level of education compared to 16.5 percent of females. Contrarily, 17.3 percent of males attained tertiary education compared to 10.5 percent of females.

According to Ghana Statistical Service (2014a), approximately 2.5 percent of the population of the Cape Coast Metropolis has one form of disability or the other. The most common disability among PWDs in the Metropolis is sight (46.2%) and physical (26.9%) disabilities. About two out of five (42.4%) of all PWDs 15 years and older in the Metropolis are employed whiles slightly more than half (53.1%) are economically not active. Among the economically active, 4.5 percent are unemployed. The main occupations of the population in the Cape Coast Metropolis shows that 32.5 percent of the employed 15 years and older are service and sales workers, 23.6 percent are craft and related trades workers, and 13.2 percent are professionals (GSS, 2014a). The wholesale and retail trade industry is the largest in the Metropolis, engaging a quarter (25.1%) of the employed population. More than two-thirds (68.4%) of the employed population work in the private informal sector whilst one-fifth (21.4%) are public sector workers.

Mfantseman Municipality

The Mfantseman Municipality was established by LI 1862 (2007). The Municipality is bounded to the west by Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District, to the north-east by Ajumako - Enyan - Essiam District and north-west by Assin South District. The Mfantseman Municipality is bounded to the east by Ekumfi District and to the south by the Gulf of Guinea (MMA, 2009). The municipality covers about 300.6 sq km and the proportion of land area to region is 3.1 percent. The study communities in the district context are shown in Figure 10.
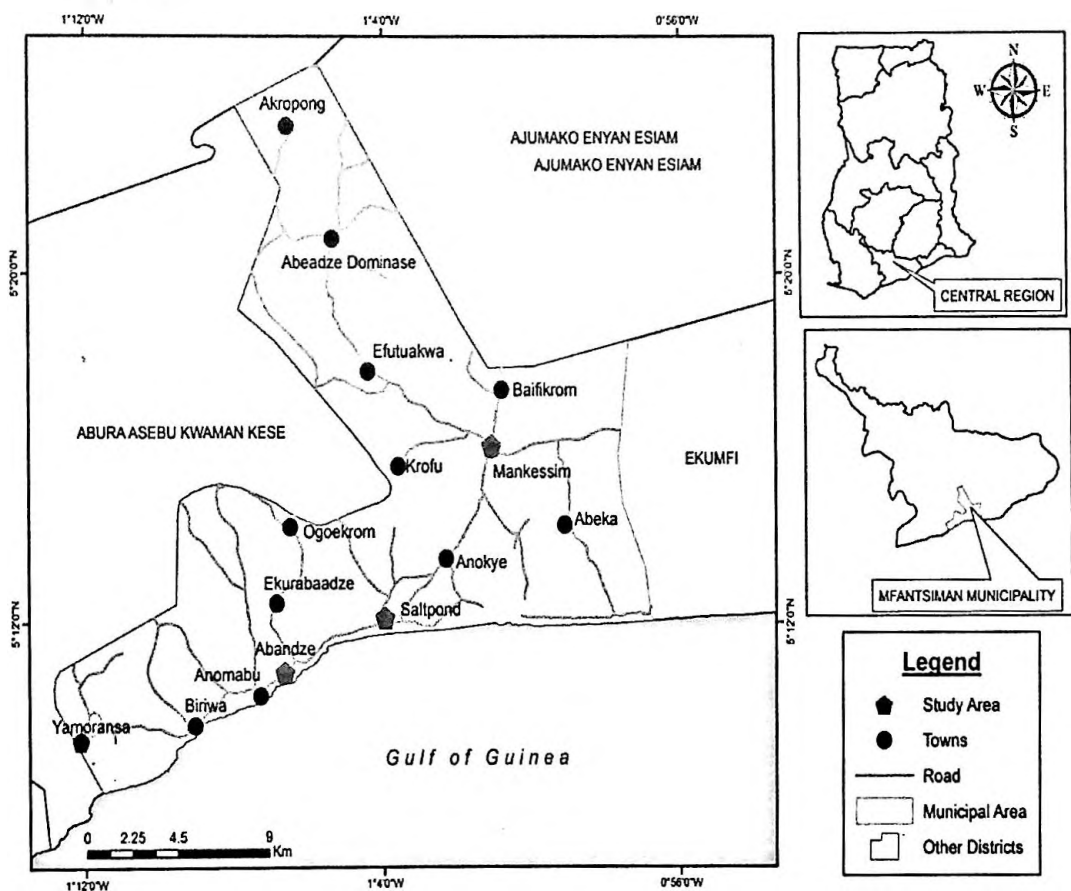
Figure 10: Map of Mfantseman Municipality Showing the Study Communities
Source: UCC, Department of Geography and Regional Planning (2012)

The population for 2010 was 144,332 i.e. 6.6 percent of the total population in the Central Region (GSS, 2014b). The percentage distribution of males and females was 45 and 55 respectively. The age-sex structure indicates

that the (0-14) age group was 56,373 of which 36,661 (65%) were males and 19,712 (35%) females. Similarly, 15-64 years group numbered 79,754 of which 51,923 (65%) were males and 27,831 (35%) were females, while those 65+ were 8,205 of which 5,057 (62%) were males and 3,148 (38% were females. Generally, population decreases with age for both sexes in the municipality,

A total of 47,510 persons in the Mfantseman Municipality have attended school in the past, with females (25,016) more than males (22,494). Most (32.0%) of them have attended JSS/JHS, with female proportion (34.9%) exceeding males' (28.8%). Those who have attended middle school (27.5%) are also high, with as much as more than 30 percent males having attained middle education in the past. Slightly more than 5 percent has attained tertiary education and nearly 4 percent Vocational/Technical/Commercial education. In all the educational categories, proportions of males are more than females.

There are 5,272 persons with disabilities (PWDs) representing 3.7 percent of the municipality's population (GSS, 2014b). The proportion of females with sight impairment was 58 percent while hearing (12.5%). The corresponding male proportions (49.4%) and (10.1%) respectively. In contrast, the percentages of male PWDs with speech, physical or intellectual disabilities (13.2%, 28.4% and 0.4%) are higher than those of corresponding females (7.8%, 27.0 and 0.3%). Furthermore, there are relatively more males (9.7%) with emotional disabilities than females (7.4%).

Out of 168 settlements, four are urban centres; Saltpond, Anomabo, Mankessim, and Yamoransa. About 64.9 percent of the population lives in areas classified as urban while (35.1%) live in rural areas. The municipality has 3 Town and Urban councils, 4 Town and Area councils and 36 Unit Committees.

Due to operational challenges, the sub-structures are not functioning effectively. The Mfantseman Municipal Assembly is the highest political, administrative authority and decision making body in the municipality. The Assembly made up of 54 members, is mandated to meet at least three times in a year to deliberate on issues. Saltpond is the municipal capital and home to the 13 decentralised departments that are supposed to provide technical direction to policy, services and assist in project implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The main economic activity is fishing. Important fishing towns are Biriwa, Anomabo, and Abandze. Mankessim is the commercial hub and generates most of the internally generated funds (MMA, 2009). Employed persons aged 15 years and older by occupation and sex, work in services and sales represent the main occupational group (27.3%). Workers in skilled agriculture, forestry, and fishing occupational group (26.6%) come next followed by those in craft and related trades (22.9%). In contrast, only a small proportion of employed persons are in the technical and associated professionals (1.4%) and managerial categories (2.4%) with the least proportion of occupation being clerical support workers (1.1%).

Twifo Ati-Mokwa District

Twifo Ati-Mokwa District (TAMD) was carved out of the then Twifo-Hemang Lower Denkyira District which was established in 1988 by LI 1327. However, in November 2012, TAMD was established by LI 2022. The re-demarcation was done to make the district more manageable and responsive to peoples' needs (MLGRD, 2012). It has a total land area of 625 square km and 1,510 settlements. The district is located between latitudes 5° 50'N and 5° 51'N and longitudes 1° 50'W and 1° 10'W. It is bounded to the north by the Upper

Denkyira East Municipality, to the south by the Twifo-Hemang Lower Denkyira District, to the west by the Mpohor-Wassa East District, and to the east by the Assin-North Municipality (THLDDA, 2009). The study communities in the district contexts are shown in Figure 11.

According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2014c) the district had a total population of 61,743 representing 2.9 percent of the population of Central Region in 2010. Females constituted 51 percent while males formed 49. The housing stock of the district was 8,664. The total number of households in these houses was 12,959 with population per house estimated to be (7.1) and an average household size of 4.8 and the rural and urban ratio is 86:14, implying that it is a rural district. It also has a youthful population structure (children under 15 years) (76.6%) depicting a broad base population with a small number of elderly persons (60+ years) constituting 6.8 percent.

Those who attended school in past constitute about 20,747, and is made up of females 9,721 and males 11,026. The distribution was as follows: Primary (17.8) Middle school (26.3%), JSS/JHS (38.3%), SSS/SHS (8.5%) and Tertiary (3.0%). The 2006 Medium-Term Development Plan (MTDP), of the Twifo-Hemang Lower Denkyira District Assembly (THLDDA, 2009) reports that there are 199 pre-schools (Nursery/Kindergarten), 135 primary schools and 85 JHS. The district also has one hospital, five health centres and twelve rural clinics. It is estimated that 41 percent of the people in the district depend on streams and rivers for their daily source of water, 17 percent use pipe borne water, 23 percent use boreholes and eight percent use water from protected wells whilst 11 percent use water from unsafe and unprotected source. The majority, 72

percent do not use safe toilets while 68 and 14 percent use open and crude dumping respectively (THLDDA, 2009).
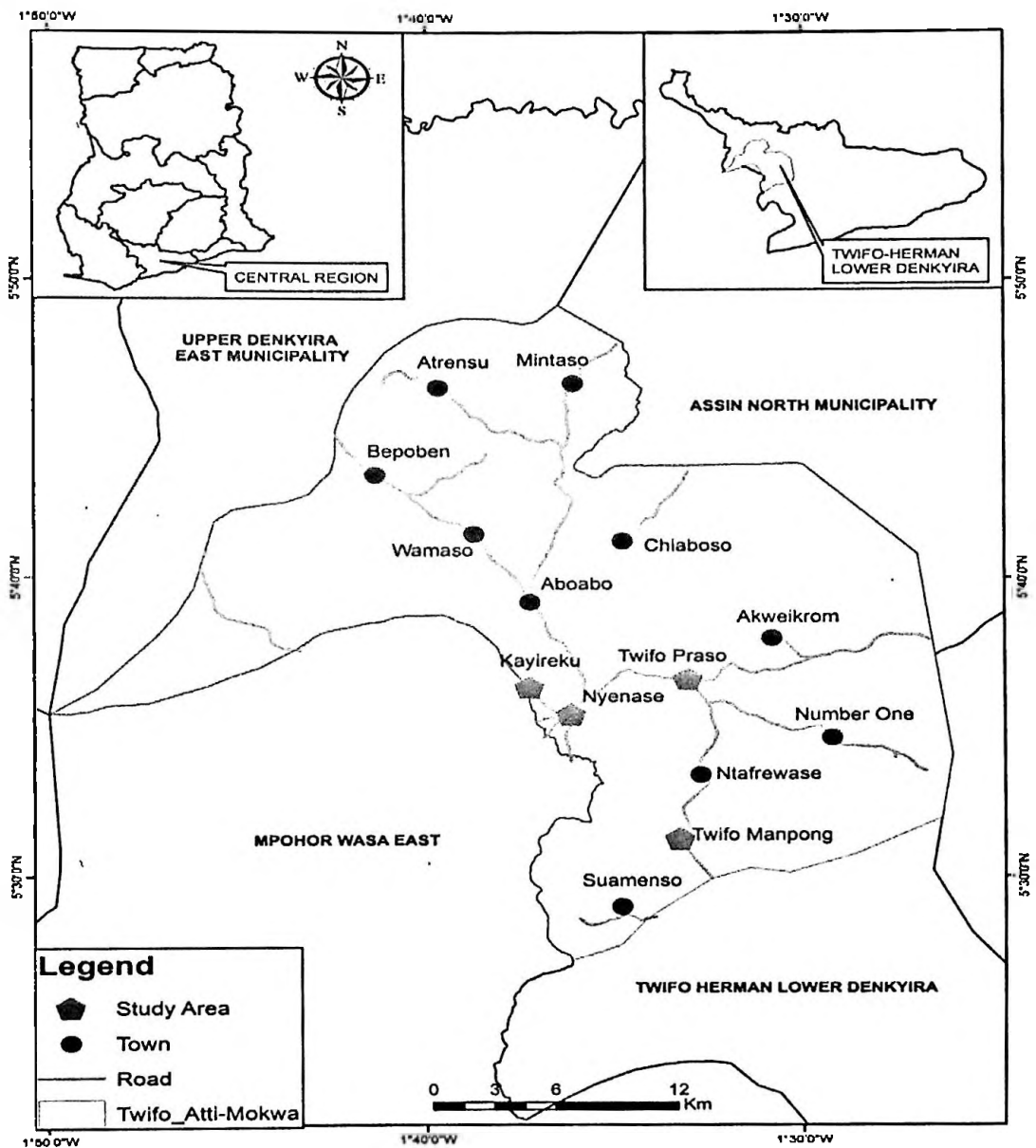
Figure 11: Map of Twifo Ati-Mokwa District Showing the Study Communities

Source: UCC, Department of Geography and Regional Planning (2012)

In the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District, 2.6 percent (1,590) of the total population of 61,743 have different forms of disability. The main types of disability in order of proportions are sight (40 %), physical disability (28.2%), emotional (18.3%), hearing (16.9%) and speech (15%). In the district, the males

stand out in all forms of disabilities (52.6%). The main type of disability in the urban areas is physical (58.7%) while speech (60.8%) is the main type of disability in the rural areas

The district has a 38 member Assembly comprising 28 elected members and 10 members appointed by the President. It has five Area Councils namely, Twifo Praso, Nyenase, Wawaso, Agona and Mampong, and 82 Unit Committees constitute the sub-structures. The District is headed by the District Chief Executive who exercises the Executive powers on behalf of the President. There is also an administrative wing of the District, headed by the Coordinating Director and heads of all decentralized departments.

Agriculture provides employment to 51 percent of the economically active people, while commerce, industry and services employs 16 percent, five percent and 28 percent respectively. The major economic crops are oil palm, cocoa, cassava and maize. Of the employed population, about 32.5 percent are engaged as service and sales workers, craft and related trades workers 23.6 percent, professionals 13.2 percent, skilled agricultural forestry and fishery workers 6.8 percent. Of the population 15 years and older 47.0 percent are self-employed without employees, 39.0 percent are employees, 5.5 percent are self-employed with employees, 2.6 percent are contributing family workers and 3.5 percent are apprentices. The private informal sector is the largest employer in the metropolis, employing 68.4 percent of the population followed by the public sector with 21.4 percent.

Research Design

Researchers are influenced by the epistemological position that they hold, which affects the way they examine issues and the methodologies they

adopt to tackle those issues (Babbie, 2005). This is because the underlying assumptions of each position have important implications for the way in which one attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the social world. Thus, different underlying assumptions are likely to incline researchers towards different methodologies (Crotty, 1998).

Research design is the plan of action that links the philosophical assumptions to specific methods (Creswell, 2003). Due to various research choices, the researcher must justify the approach chosen since each technique is associated with specific advantages and disadvantages as well as distinctive means of collecting and analysing data. The research design provides complete guidelines for data collection and enables a researcher to select the relevant research approach, design the sample plan, and the questionnaire (Sarantakos, 2005). Panneerselvam (2010) observes that each design is governed by specific paradigms and depending on the type of reality, the best fitted method should be selected. Kothari and Garg (2014) add that a research design combines relevance with economy in procedure.

Two major traditions of academic research, positivist and interpretivist paradigms can be distinguished. A positivist approach adopts the position that the world is external and objective to the researcher. This approach to research is mainly linked with quantitative research and as a result, researchers that utilise this approach focus on description, explanation and uncovering facts (Babbie, 2005). Interpretivist researchers, on the other hand, are primarily concerned with exploring multiple realities with meaning and interpretations (Creswell, 2003). They are linked with qualitative method of research and inductive approach.

There have been significant debates about the superiority of positivist and interpretivist research paradigms. Some authors have criticised positivist model because they can fail to identify complexities in the real world by reducing them to summary measures. Interpretive research has also been criticised as lacking rigour unless it is carefully and systematically planned (Babbie, 2005).

Qualitative Approach

The qualitative approach is grounded in the interpretive social sciences paradigm (Denzin, 1993). Primarily, qualitative research seeks to understand and interpret the meaning of situations and events from perspectives of the people involved and as understood by them, and not the researcher (Duffy, 1987). It is generally indicative rather than deductive in its approach, and generates theory from interpretation of evidence. Qualitative research, because of the in-depth nature of studies and of analysis of the data required, usually relates to small samples (Cormack, 1991). Creswell (2003) posits that qualitative research is also concerned with issues of measurement but with measures that are of a different order from numerical measures.

Qualitative research is a field of inquiry that crosscuts disciplines and subject matter. It involves an in-depth understanding of participants' behaviour and the reasons that govern participants' behaviour (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Qualitative researchers typically rely on four methods for gathering data: participation in the setting, direct observation, in-depth interviews and analysis of responses (Kumekpor, 2003). It also relies on reasons behind various aspects of participants' behaviour. In this respect, it investigates the why and how of policy-making, as compared to what, where and when of quantitative research.

Qualitative research is much more subjective and uses very different methods of collecting information mainly individual, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (Cormack, 1991). Furthermore, the researcher spends more time with the subject to build a relationship crucial for obtaining data and genuine understanding of the dilemmas (Babbie, 2007).

A weakness of qualitative methodology is the possible effect of the researchers' presence on the people they are studying as the relationship between the researcher and participants may distort the findings (Bryman, 2008). In addition, it relies on the texts and discussion of participants and involves small numbers of participants in the research process as a result of the process of gathering in-depth information (Gilbert, 1993).

Quantitative Approach

Researchers who adopt a more deductive approach use theory to guide the design of the study and the interpretation of results (Creswell, 2003). It is carried out in relation to hypotheses drawn from theory and places emphasis on measurement when collecting and analysing data. Quantitative research commences with theories, hypotheses or research questions about a particular phenomenon, gathers data from the real-world setting and then analyses the data statistically to support or reject the hypothesis (Bryman, 2008). The overall objective is to test or verify theory, rather than to develop one. A quantitative research approach is grounded in the positivist social science paradigm and adopts a deductive approach to the research (Creswell, 2003).

Methods of data collection in quantitative research include survey questionnaire administration, structured interviewing, structured objectives,

secondary analysis and official statements, and content analysis (Sarantakos, 2005). A quantitative methodology extracts data from the participants into statistical representations rather than textual pictures of the phenomenon. The entire research process is objectively constructed and the findings are usually representative of the studied population and can be objectively repeated by other researchers (Bryman, 2008). Quantitative research is described by the terms "empiricism" (Leach, 1990) and "positivism" (Duffy, 1987) and is derived from the scientific method used in the physical sciences. This research approach is an objective, formal, systematic process in which numerical data findings are obtained (Cormack, 1991).

Quantitative research demands random selection of the sample from the study population and the random assignment of the sample to the various study groups (Duffy, 1987). The advantage of results obtained from sampling is that the findings have the increased likelihood of being generaliseable (Creswell, 2003). The main strengths of the quantitative approach lie in precision and control achieved mainly through the sampling and design, and precise and reliable quantitative measurements (Sproull, 2003). In addition, hypotheses are tested through a deductive approach and the use of quantitative data permits statistical analyses (Sarantakos, 2005).

In terms of methodology, the research processes used in the quantitative approach include descriptive, correlational, quasi-experimental and experimental research (Cormack, 1991). The strength of such methods is that they provide sufficient information about the relationship between the variables under investigation to enable prediction and control over future outcomes. The method ensures that answers obtained have much firmer basis than a lay

person's intuition and opinion (Welman & Kruger, 2006).

Jick (1979) argued that quantitative research method is weak in understanding the context in which people talk. A weakness of the quantitative approach, is that random selection is time – consuming, with the result that many studies are more easily obtained through opportunistic sample (Duffy, 1987). If this is too small it inhibits the degree of generalisation. In quantitative research, the investigators maintain a detached, objective view in order to understand the facts. However, another criticism levelled against quantitative research method is that, the scientific approach denigrates human individuality and the ability to think (Massey, 2003). Babbie (2005) notes that the researcher spends considerable amount of time in the research setting in order to, collect data, aggregate, analyse and interpret activities of subjects.

Mixed Methods Approach to the Study

The study used the mixed method approach. Researchers have suggested that both qualitative and quantitative method should be adopted in research (Chapman, 2005). Therefore, in selecting an approach for the study, the benefits and shortcomings of the various methodologies were considered and an integrated approach has been adopted. It combines elements of both quantitative and qualitative data, thereby, making triangulation possible (Sarantakos, 2005). Triangulation is the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon, on the assumption that the weaknesses of each individual method will be balanced by the strengths of the other (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The mixed method research design which combines the quantitative and qualitative designs was adopted.

Mixed method is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and combines qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process (Decrop, 1999). Its central premise is that the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. Bowen (2010) emphasised that combining qualitative and quantitative methods provide strengths that offset the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative.

Researchers are given permission to use all the tools of data collection available rather than being restricted to the type of questions typically associated with quantitative or qualitative (Creswell, 2003). By combining quantitative and qualitative methods, the advantages of each methodology complement those of the other, leading to a stronger research design that yields more valid and reliable findings (Babbie, 2005). Mixed methods help to answer questions that quantitative or qualitative approaches cannot answer alone. Both qualitative and quantitative methods seek reliable and valid results and thus, informed the choice of mixed method for the research. In addition, the use of quantitative data permits statistical analysis (Welman & Kruger, 2006).

The objectives of the study informed the choice of mixed methods. The study seeks to examine the factors for low responsiveness and poor accountability of the local government system. Figure 12 gives an overview of the application of the mixed method chosen for the study.

Research problem
Low responsiveness to development needs

Objective 1
Examine household and community developmental needs

Question
What are the developmental needs of households and communities?

Objective 2
Assess the level of participation in the needs determination

Question
To what extent do people participate in needs identification?

Objective 3
Examine responsiveness of Ghana's local government system

Question
How responsive is the MMDA and its officials to community needs?

Objective 4
Analyse the utilisation of accountability mechanisms

Question
How effective is the utilisation of accountability mechanisms?

Objective 5
Examine the operational challenges

Question
What are the operational challenges to responsiveness and accountability?

Research Design   Mixed research methods

Qualitative   +   Quantitative
Mixed methods   Objectives 1, 2 3, 4 & 5

Data collection Primary

Interview / Discussion
Field observation

Data collection Secondary data
Interview Annual Financial Reports,
Documents (plans, budgets Discussion
Annual Financial Reports

Data Analysis-Qualitative and Quantitative
Data entry and processing, content analysis, Descriptive statistics, statistical inferences-Chi-square

Interpretation of Results/Discussion
Needs, participation, responsiveness and accountability

Conclusion and Recommendations
To improve local government responsiveness, accountability and participation

Figure 12: Application of Mixed Methods to Research
Source: Author's construct, Bamfo (2013)

The study requires both qualitative and quantitative methods. It also seeks to examine the relationship between needs, participation and responsiveness on one hand, and responsiveness and accountability of the decentralised local government system on the other. The research problem of

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low responsiveness of local government to household and community needs require both qualitative and quantitative data and analysis, because the issues go beyond numbers to include the reasons behind the observations. As illustrated in Figure 12, mix method was applied to each objective

Study Design

The study adopted descriptive and cross sectional study designs. Cross sectional design was adopted because the study collected data at a single point in time. According to Creswell (2007), cross sectional study design is appropriate in that it involves observations of a cross-section of population and phenomenon that are made at one point in time. The process involves the collection of data in order to answer questions concerning congruence of local government policies, plans, services and outputs to people and community preferences and needs as well as users perceptions of satisfaction with public services and performance to achieve the study's objectives.

Descriptive study design was also used because the researcher intends to obtain information concerning the current status of responsiveness of the local government to household and community needs, and to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation (Babbie, 2005) and use statistical methods to analyse information and make inferences about the research objectives. Sarantakos (2005) reports that methods involved in descriptive study design vary from the survey which describes the status quo, correlational studies which investigate the relationship between variables, to developmental studies which seek to determine changes over time.

The study design assesses peoples' perception of the level of responsiveness of the local government system to the development needs of

communities and peoples' satisfaction with performance of the MMDA, service provision, and overall development at the local level. Additionally, it provides answers from selected households and groups of people to a set of thoughtfully properly worded questions on the subject of interest and administered by the researcher and a team of trained research assistants. It helps in determining and revealing the way things are (Gay & Thuso, 1992). General responsiveness is the accuracy and speed with which local governments respond to citizens, needs and requests.

From literature and empirical evidence measurement of responsiveness of local government system uses a representative survey of adult population in communities to collect relevant data. Babbie (2005) argues that strengths of the survey method lie in its potential for quantification, replication and generalisation of findings to a larger population within known limits of error. In addition, it is practical and economical in terms of time, effort and resources. Furthermore, Kothari and Garg (2014) observed another advantage of sample survey as providing extensive quantitative data relatively cheaply. Broad generalisations can be made from relatively small number of observation as long as probability sampling methods are used. The survey method was used to collect data from household level for this study.

Study Population

Jennings (2001) defines population as all the study subjects that are the focus of the research project. In this study, the target population consisted of all the residents in the three study local government areas as well as the public organisations. The study population was 176,081 as presented in Table 5. The universe for the study comprised household heads, Assembly persons, Unit

Committee members, Heads of decentralised departments, core staff of the central administration of the MMDAs which included the Chief Executives and Coordinating Directors, Finance, Budget and Planning Officers of the three selected local government areas.

Table 5
Study Population of Household Heads and Key Informants

Key Informants	Cape Coast Metropolis	Mfantseman Municipality	Twifo Ati-Mokwa District	Total
Assembly persons	67	54	38	159
Unit committee members	87	36	82	205
*Core Staff of Central Admin	5	5	5	15
Heads of department	16	13	11	40
Sub-Total for KI	175	108	136	419
Household heads	92,035	58,527	25,458	176,020
Total	92,210	58,635	25, 594	176,439

Note: * Core staff of Central Administration includes the Chief Executive, Coordinating Director, Finance, Planning and Budget officers. Compiled by author using information from CCMA (2010), MMA (2010) and TAMDA

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

As indicted in Table 5, the study population of key informants was 419 and comprises 40 heads of department, 15 core staff of the metropolitan, municipal and district assembly central administration, 154 Assembly persons and 205 unit committee members. Thus, a full census was conducted for the 15 core staff, 16, 13 and 11 heads of department respondents from Cape Coast Metropolis, Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District

respectively. At each MMDA level, data were obtained from key informants, namely the Chief Executive, the Coordinating Director, heads of key decentralised department and finance, budget and planning officers. In addition, the Presiding Member for each district was purposively selected and interviewed. These respondents were all interviewed because they were considered as key people in the administration of the districts as well as having an in-depth knowledge of the needs of communities and also involved in the management development activities of the districts. See Table 6 for details

Table 6

Distribution of Key Informants

Sampling Unit	CCMA		MMA		TAMDA		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No	(%)
*Assembly core staff	5	100	5	100	5	100	15	100
Heads of department	16	100	13	100	11	100	40	100
Assembly persons	8	100	8	100	8	100	24	100
Total	29	100	26	100	24	100	79	100

*Assembly core staff (MDCE, MDCD, Planning, Budget, and Finance Officers). Compiled based on data from CCMA, MMA, TAMDA (2012)

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The main purpose of sampling is to achieve representativeness and the sample should be assembled in such a way as to be representative of the population from which it was taken (Jennings, 2001). To achieve this, the sampling units were randomly selected. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as cited in Sarantakos (2005) Table for sample size determination

(Appendix F), a population of 92,035 for the Cape Coast Metropolis requires a sample size of 384 to achieve representativeness. Similarly, Mfantseman Municipality with a population of 58,334 requires a sample of 381, while Twifo-Ati Mokwa District with a population of 25,293 requires 378. The sample sizes were calculated based on a significant level of five percent. The total sample size for the study was 1,143.

Multi - stage sampling approach was employed in the selection of the household respondents. This was done to ensure that units of the population were adequately represented in the final sample. The respondents from the various districts were first categorised under area councils. Selection of the area councils was based on the level of development. The level of development of the area councils was measured by access to secondary education, access to health facilities and improved water sources such as pipe-borne and borehole (Adarkwa, 2014). Area councils with all the three facilities were considered as developed, while those with the two facilities were considered as moderately developed, and area councils with one or none were considered as deprived. In each local government area, three area or town councils were selected from among the list. See Table 7 for more details.

First, the area councils hosting the district capitals, which in all cases were relatively the most developed, were purposively sampled for the study. Secondly, the most deprived area councils in the districts were also purposively selected. Thirdly, one moderately developed area council each was randomly sampled from each district. This classification and subsequent selection of the three area councils was to ensure that the sample was representative.

Table 7

Selection of Number of Area Councils, Communities and Households

Number	CCMA	MMA	TAMDA	Total
Town & Area councils	7	8	5	20
Area councils selected	3	3	3	9
Communities selected	9	9	9	27
Households selected	384	381	378	1,143

Source: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

The lottery method was used to sample the moderately developed area councils. The names of such area councils were written on equally sized pieces of papers and folded into a bowl. The papers were shuffled to make sure they were not in any pre-determined positions. The draw was made without replacement and the name of the area council was noted. The process was repeated for all the districts. Below the district structure are the sub - district level structures which comprise Town and Area Councils. The list and names of area councils in each district were obtained from the Office of the District Assembly. The Area Councils that hosted the district capital were purposively sampled, while two other area councils were randomly sampled for the study. The selected area councils were Twifo Praso, Twifo Mampong and Nyenase for TAMDA; Saltpond, Mankessim, and Abandze for Mfantseman Municipality; and Abakam-Ola, Abura-Adisadel and Anakyin-Bakaano for Cape Coast Metropolis.

Proportionate sampling was used to assign number of household heads to the various area councils. From the proportionate sampling 144, 111, 123 were respectively obtained for Twifo Praso, Twifo Mampong and Nyenase for

TAMDA (378); and 132, 167 and 82 were respectively obtained for Saltpond, Mankessim and Abandze for Mfantseman Municipality (381). Similarly, 112, 128 and 144 number of household heads was respectively assigned to Abakam-Ola, Abura-Adisadel and Anakyin Bakaano for Cape Coast Metropolis (384). Three communities were selected from each area council to ensure representativeness of the sample. The area council capital was purposively sampled, while two other communities in the area councils were randomly sampled using the lottery method. In all, 27 communities were selected from the three local government areas for the study.

Table 8 represents the communities and the number of household heads sampled from Abakam-Ola, Abura-Adisadel and Anakyin-Bakano Area councils in Cape Coast metropolis. It describes the population, the number of houses and households, and the sample selected from each community. Based on the number of households and using proportionate sample, the sample size for each community was determined.

Table 8

Communities and Household Sample Size Selected by Area Council in the Cape Coast Metropolis

Area Council	Community	Population	No of H/holds	Proportion	Sample Size	Sampling fraction
Abakam -Ola	Akotokyir	2,103	526	0.2	22	1:16
	Amamoma	1,399	333	0.1	13	1:16
	Ola	9633	1926	0.7	77	1:16
	Sub-total	*13,135*	*2,785*	*1.0*	*112*	
Abura- Adisadel	Ridge	2750	336	0.03	15	1:45
	Abura	14,702	5354	0.49	81	1:45
	Adisadel	6464	5338	0.48	32	1:45
	Sub-total	*23,916*	*11028*	*1.0*	*128*	
Anakyin Bakaano	Bakaano	2615	654	0.27	40	1:25
	Kotokuraba	4,670	1334	0.56	80	1:25
	Victoria Park	1,435	419	0.17	24	1:25
	Sub-total	*8720*	*2407*	*1.0*	*144*	
Total		45,771	16,220		384	

Sources: CCMA (2010), MM (2010), TAMDA (2010), GSS (2012)

Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

Similarly Table 9 presents the communities and number of household heads sampled from Saltpond, Mfansteman and Abandze area councils respectively. It describes the population, the number of houses and households, and the sample selected from each community in the Mfantseman municipality.

Table 9

Communities and Household Sample Size Selected by Area Council in the Mfantseman Municipality

Area Councils	Community	Population	No of HH	Proportion	Sample	Sampling fraction
Saltpond	Saltpond	23,214	5693	0.91	106	1:26
	Anokye	447	212	0.03	13	1:26
	Abonko	1,326	342	0.06	13	1:26
	Sub-total	*24,987*	*6247*	*1.0*	*132*	
Mankesim	Mankesim	36486	7,497	0.90	151	1: 46
	Eduafo	325	131	0.05	8	1:46
	Gyendu	357	139	0.05	8	1:46
	Sub-total	*37,168*	*7,767*	*1.0*	*167*	
Abandze	Abandze	3354	953	0.41	33	1:29
	Kromantse	6296	1302	0.57	41	1:29
	Otsir	195	45	0.02	8	1:29
	Sub-total	*9845*	*2300*	*1.0*	*82*	
TOTAL		72,000	16,314		381	

Source: CCMA (2010), MM (2010), TAMDA (2010), GSS (2012)
          Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

Table 10 presents the communities and the number of household heads sampled from Twifo Praso, Twifo Mampong and Nyenase Area councils respectively. It describes the population, the number of households and the sample selected from the nine communities in Twifo Ati-Mokwa district. Equal proportions were used to determine number of household heads for the various communities. This was used because issues about participation and

responsiveness of the MMDAs were at the community level, which do not require large population sizes.

Table 10

Communities and Household Sample Size Selected by Area Council in the Twifo Ati-Mokwa District

Area Council	Communities	Population	No of HH	Proportion	Sample	Sample fraction
TwifoPraso	Twifo Praso	13,090	2618	0.80	115	1:20
	Aboso	1750	350	0.11	16	1:20
	Darmang	1300	260	0.09	13	1:20
	Sub-total	16140	3228	1.0	144	
Nyenase	Nyenase	6,685	1,337	0.73	90	1:15
	Adugya	1200	240	0.13	16	1:15
	Kayeriku	1,250	250	0.14	17	1:15
	Sub-total	9135	1827	1.0	123	-
	Mampong	2,598	453	0.50	56	1:8
Twifo	Kwanyarko	1050	210	0.24	26	1: 8
Mampong	Eduabeng	1,185	237	0.26	29	1:8
	Subtotal	4833	900	1.0	111	-
Total		30,108	5955		378	

Source: CCMA (2010) MM (2010) TAMDA (2010) GSS (2012)

Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

A sampling frame was constructed for each of the selected communities. Using the suburbs of every community, physical landmarks like principal roads, and popular buildings, like churches, mosque, markets and schools, as applicable, each selected community was divided into four sections and the houses therein identified and given random numbers. In similar studies in Israel

and Pakistan systematic random sampling was used and the sampling fraction was one fifth and one tenth respectively (Vigoda, 2002a; Khan, 2006).

Systematic random sampling method was employed to select the actual houses for the study. The houses were assigned random numbers from 1 to 10 and one was randomly picked to indicate which house to start from. The fifth house was selected as the first to be interviewed and thereafter the second to the nth houses were selected based on the respective sampling interval used. The ratio of the number of houses to the sample size gives the sampling interval. The last column in Tables 8, 9 and 10 indicate the sampling fraction and the interval used in the selection of the actual houses and household heads interviewed.

In Cape Coast the sampling intervals used were Abura Adisadel 45, Anakyin-Bakaano 25, and Ola-Abakam 16. In MM the intervals were 26 in Saltpond, 46 in Mankessim and 25 in Abandze. In TAMD sampling intervals used were Twifo Praso 25, Nyenase 20 and Mampong 16. This implies that the fifth house in each community in the respective area council was the first house to be selected, while the subsequent ones, from the second house to the last house were based on the respective sampling interval. Using the respective sampling intervals, the 2nd to n^{th} houses were selected. According to Khan (2006), if there are more than one household in a house, the random method can be used to select one for interview. The systematic and simple random sampling techniques were combined to select household heads. If a selected house was empty at the time of study the next one was selected to replace it.

The main issues addressed by the research bothered on developmental needs and expectations, participation, responsiveness and citizen's perceptions

of satisfaction with local government services delivery, outputs and local level development. The total number of respondents is presented in Table 11

Table 11

Total Number of Respondents

Respondents	CCM	MM	TAMD	Total	Percent
*Assembly core staff	5	5	5	15	100
Heads of department	16	13	11	40	100
Assemblypersons	7	7	7	21	100
Presiding member	1	1	1	3	100
Household heads	384	381	378	1,143	100
Unit committee members	18	18	18	54	100
Persons with disability	11	9	6	26	100
Total	442	434	426	1,302	100

Note:*Assembly core staff (MDCE, MDCD, Planning, Budget, Finance officer). Compiled based on data from CCMA, MMA and TAMDA (2012)

Sources: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

Data Sources and Methods of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were used in the study. Primary data for the study were obtained through survey of household heads, interviews with key informants and focus group discussions with community members. Qualitative data was collected by using two types of qualitative research methods namely focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The focus group discussions were used to collect detailed information from community members on general assembly – community engagement issues and specifically matters of needs identification, participation, accountability and

perception of responsiveness. Nine focus group discussions were organized, 6one taking place in each area council capital. Each group consisted of 6 members. The participants were drawn from both the district capitals and the nearby localities.

Interview guide and focus group discussion guide were used to solicit the relevant information. Focus groups were constituted from the male and female members of the unit committee in the area council or district capital. First the chairperson of unit committee was identified with the help of Assembly persons and informed about the study, and asked to inform the other members for a discussion. At the initial meeting the place and time were mutually agreed upon.

Data for the study were collected at two levels, namely, district and community levels. In all, a total of 1,302 people comprising 26 PWDs and 54 members of unit committees as focus group discussants, 79 key informants and 1,143 household heads were interviewed at the district and community levels. The key informants were assembly persons and unit committee members of the selected communities, and presiding members and senior management staff of the three selected MMDAs for the study. Primary data were collected mainly through interviews and focus group discussions.

Data collected related to local government officials and representatives relationships, attitudes, and behaviours towards citizens' in the performance of their mandates and the challenges with operationalising multiple principal agent relationships. Data on household respondent's socio-economic characteristics, perceptions and opinions on developmental needs, problems and challenges were also collected. Participation in needs determination, decision making,

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planning and monitoring and evaluation, as well as access to public services like education, health, water, sanitation and general perceptions on satisfaction with local government services.

In addition, respondent's knowledge and perceptions of the way the local government system works and their levels of utilisation of mechanisms and spaces provided by local government for participation and accountability were gathered. Household heads access to MMDA staff, services and assembly persons and other accountability mechanisms at that level were probed. Satisfaction with official responses to requests, needs, complaints and demand for accountability was gathered through survey of household heads and their representative's survey.

Data from secondary sources included the Medium Term Development Plan, and annual budget statements of the selected local governments from 2006-2013. Access to services provided by local governments to their respective local government areas and communities, peoples' perceptions of local government administration's performance in responding to local needs and achieving local level development. Table 12 shows summaries of data type, information needs, sources, methods and the instruments' of data collection. . From the data needs it became evident from the early stages of this research that the survey technique would be the most appropriate for collecting well-defined quantitative data on people's need, and participation in development activities. Respondents' reasons for satisfaction required a qualitative approach. This underscores the need for a mixed method.

Table 12

Summary of Data Types, Data Needs, Sources, Methods and Instruments for Data Collection

Types of data / Data needs	Source	Data Collection Method	Instrument
Primary- household level (quantitative data)	• Household heads	Survey	Interview schedule
• Households /respondents profile, needs, problems and preferences	• Male and female household heads	Interview	
• Participation in needs determination, decision making, planning and M&E, other development activities			
• Households access to services e.g. education, health, water, sanitation			
• Perceptions of responsiveness, satisfaction with local government performance and services			
• Access to public officials, assembly persons, unit committee members			
• Utilisation of mechanisms/spaces for participation and accountability			
• Overall satisfaction with response to requests, needs , complains and demands for accountability.			

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Table 12 Continued

Types of data / Data needs	Source	Data Collection Method	Instrument
Community level representatives- Qualitative • Participation in needs determination and development process • Mobilisation of community resources for development • Responsiveness of the AP, unit committees to local needs • Improvement in service provision • Inclusiveness in decision making, voice, space/ needs of the vulnerable • Access to, utilisation and effectiveness of accountability mechanisms	• Assembly persons • Unit committee members • Identifiable Persons with disability	Interview Focus group discussion	Interview guide Focus group discussion guide
Primary-district-level (qualitative)Provision of services- types, level, • Perception of public's access to services e.g. education, health, water, sanitation, • Operational challenges and constraints • Current measure and interventions to address operational challenges • Opinions, perceptions, attitudes and behaviours of public servants when performing duties or contacted by citizens' • Information flow and mechanisms for participation and accountability	key informants • Chief Executives / Co-ord. Director • Key Management staff Central Administration, Department Heads	Interview	Interview guide
Secondary-district level (quantitative /qualitative) District profiles, maps, population • Policy statements and objectives • Development plans and budget statements. Trial balance, • Implementation status reports, M&E reports, minutes of meetings	• MMDAs registry and records. • Documents, • Budget statements,	Document review	Check list

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

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Data Collection Instruments

Interview schedules, interview guides and focus group discussion guides were the main instruments used to collect quantitative and qualitative data for the study (see Appendix A-E). Kerlinger (1973) contends that interview schedule is used in quantitative studies because it allows the respondent to share his/her personal experiences and views with the researcher instead of the closed and pre-coded items. Panneerselvam (2010) also contends that the success of survey methods depends on the strength of instrument used. Interview schedule was developed for household heads. The interview schedule was structured into four sections. The first section focused on the needs of the people and communities while the second focused on participation. The third and fourth sections focused on responsiveness and accountability respectively.

Citizens' perceptions of responsiveness of local government policies, programmes and priorities, expenditure, resource allocation and investments to peoples' needs and expectations require both qualitative and quantitative data. Information was gathered on the degree of responsiveness of local government to citizens' needs and demands. In addition, the interview schedule gathered perceptions on satisfaction with services rendered by local government to the public as well as local government operations in a variety of fields, education, health, water sanitation, markets and maintenance of roads.

One of the precursors for responsiveness is participation. Therefore, the research question "To what extent has public participation contributed to local government sensitivity to their needs was posed. This question sought to measure peoples' perception on participation and responsiveness. Matrix format offers a high reliability in responses. Matrix type of items were employed to

measure respondents satisfaction or otherwise with the services and operations of MMDAs as well as mechanisms for public participation and accountability. In some instances, the items required the same style of responses, like "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" or "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied". Items and issues which required Likert scale type responses were used along-side open ended items to capture the qualitative and quantitative data to meet the study's needs and objectives.

Interview guides

Interview guides were developed for two groups of key informants. The first set was developed for the core staff of the assembly i.e. chief executives, coordinating directors and heads of departments and key management staff of the assembly (See Appendix B). The main purpose of this instrument was to find out from both the political and administrative leadership of local government, how well they are serving the needs of citizens. The second set of interview guide (see Appendix C) was designed to elicit information from assembly persons and community's representatives themselves to establish how well or badly they think they are representing their constituents' interests-participation, responsiveness and holding themselves accountable. It was also intended to discuss the real challenges that they face and probe for suggestions for improvement.

Common themes explored include the following:

- Facilitation of community involvement in the determination of developmental needs;

- Responsiveness of the assembly, the APs and UC in terms of accuracy, congruence, improved services and timely response to citizens needs and requests; and

- Citizens' access to local government offices, officers and information, upward accountability and downward accountability to the people.

Focus group discussion guide

Two sets of focus group guides were developed and used in the study to obtain qualitative responses, information from male and female members of unit committees, while the second set elicited information from identifiable PWD in the selected communities for the study. The themes discussed were PWDs' access to district assembly offices and officials, resources, access to quality basic community services, challenges and perceptions on prompt response to requests and services from local government. Issues on institutional responsiveness, that is, satisfaction with local government operations and services rendered to the group as well as the effectiveness of public accountability mechanisms were discussed. Focus Group Discussions were held with two groups. Persons with disability constituted one group, while male and female members of unit committee in groups of six constituted the other.

Focus group discussion is an interview with a group instead of with individuals. The procedure in a focus group discussion is in violation of individual's privacy. FGD were held with UC and PWD separately in the selected communities which are also the centres/capitals for the area council. The unit committee represents the lowest structure of the local government system and at the same time represents the community's interest. Community

issues are more public than private and do not require privacy in that sense. Therefore, the FGD was relevant to the research objectives and interest.

Specific date, venue, place and time on which the focus group discussions were held in CCM, MM and TAMD as mutually agreed upon are presented in Appendix G, H and I respectively. The size of the Unit Committee is 10 people, so all the members were extended invitation to the FGD meeting. According to Kumekpor (2003), focus group should have a minimum of five people and a maximum of 12 to 15. A maximum of 6 members of committee responded to the invitation and took part in the discussions. The focus group discussion meetings were moderated and facilitated by research coordinators.

On the other hand, the second focus group discussants were persons with disability. The group included persons with physical disability and visual impairment such as blind persons but excluded persons with hearing and speaking disabilities. The latter group required a sign interpreter but the researcher could not mobilise one. PWDs were more organised at the district level and not so at the community level. Unlike the first FGD group formed out of UC members, the PWDS were not present in every community and had to be identified and constituted into a focus group for the study.

Using snow balling approach, persons with disability in the area council capital or nearer communities were identified with the help of the Assembly persons and unit committee members. At the appointed time the researcher provided transport to and from the venue of the meeting. The discussions were recorded by two of the research assistants by taking notes. Processing data from FGD involved coding, transcribing, looking for common themes and data recorded was systematised and organised by reducing the salient points.

Pre-testing of Instruments for Data Collection

The interview schedule for household heads, the interview guide for core Assembly staff and Assembly persons were pre-tested in the Sekondi - Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region, and the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality, and Gomoa West District in the Central Region from 14th to 17th October 2013. The pre-test sample was 120, comprising 85 household heads and 35 key informants. The details are presented in Table 13. The choice of one metropolis, municipality and district for the pre-test was informed by the fact that the actual study was to be conducted in similar local government areas.

Table 13

Pre-Test Sample Size by District

District/Dates	Communities	Household respondents	Key informants)	
			Assembly persons	Assembly Core staff
Sekondi Takoradi	Anaji	20	2	10
14th-15th October,	Esipon	10	1	
2013	Market square	20	2	
KEEA 16th	Elmina	15	3	8
Gomoa West 17th	Apam	20	2	7
Total	n=120	85	10	25

Note: Assembly core staff (M/DCE, MDCD, finance, budget, planning, environmental officers, and directors of education, agriculture and health)

* District refers to metropolis, municipality and district

Source: Field pre-test survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The purpose of the pre-testing of the interview schedule was to obtain information to improve the contents, format and the sequence and revise the items for final use in the survey. To enhance the reliability and validity of the research before the commencement of the study, the researcher pre-tested the interview schedule for the community respondents, and the interview guide for the core staff of the central administration, and heads of decentralised departments and assembly persons.

The pre-testing helped the researcher to reframe unclear, ambiguous and irrelevant items. It also enabled the researcher to estimate the time, 45 minutes to one hour, needed to conduct an interview. In addition, it served as training ground for the six research assistants who were trained in a two day workshop 14th and 15th October, 2013 before being sent out to pre-test the instruments. The pre-test also served as further training and the data generated was analysed to test the methods of analysis that had been chosen.

Ethical Considerations

The study was conducted in conformity to ethical codes in social science research. According to Babbie (2005) and Sarantakos (2005), the ethical considerations include ensuring voluntary participation, causing no harm, anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents' data.. An introductory letter from the Institute for Development Studies (IDS) of the University of Cape Coast was sent to CCMA, MMA and TAMDA to seek permission to carry out the research in their jurisdictions and to interview some of the key officials in the assembly. At the community level, the assembly persons were first approached and briefed, and in turn, led the research team to the Chief. A copy

of the introductory letter was handed over and the purpose of the interview was explained in order to secure informed consent to carry out the study in the community. Similar procedures were used at the household level to secure the heads informed consent.

The purpose of the research was explained to all respondents and respondents were interviewed based on their informed consent and voluntary participation. Anonymity and confidentiality were adhered to by assuring respondents that their identities in relation to their responses would not be disclosed unless with their expressed consent. The researcher began each interview with a brief introduction to make the participant feel free to discuss issues that the respondent felt was important. Respondents were assured of confidentiality and their rights in the interviewing process and encouraged to speak-out and share their views freely. The study also adhered to other codes of ethics regarding research design, data collection and information retrieval, as well as attributing secondary data to the valid sources.

Fieldwork Data Collection

The data collection instruments were approved by the thesis supervisors in the first week of October, 2013. Subsequently, six research assistants, made up of two females and four males were recruited and trained on 10th and 11th October in Abura-Cape Coast. Two of the field assistants were MPHIL student's at IDS while the other four were research assistants from the Geography Department of UCC. The pre-testing of the instruments also formed part of the training of the research team. Although they were all familiar with the conduct of research nevertheless, they were given refresher training in ethics in research,

community entry and interviewing and notes taking techniques before the pre-testing of the data collection instruments in STMA, KEEA and Gomoa District.

The fieldwork for primary data collection was conducted over a period of three and half months, from 18th October, 2013 to 31st January, 2014. The itinerary for the fieldwork in each of the three local government areas is presented in Appendix G, H and I respectively. The fieldwork commenced in Cape Coast Metropolis, from 18th October to 14th November, 2013, followed by Mfantseman Municipality from 15th November to 14th December, 2013, and Ati-Mokwa District from 15th December 2013 to 31st January, 2014. In CCM, the fieldwork commenced from Abura-Adisadel Area Council, followed by Anakyin-Bakaano and ended with Ola Area Council. The data collection instruments were applied in the following sequence; household surveys were conducted first, followed by focus group discussions with unit committees and PWDs. The key informant interviews went parallel with the household surveys.

In Mfantseman Municipal area, the fieldwork was conducted from Saltpond Area Council 15th to 22nd November, 2013, followed by Abandze Area Council from 23-30th November, 2013, and Mankessim Area Council, from 1st to 6th December, 2013. In Twifo Ati-Mokwa District fieldwork was conducted from 7th to 21st December, 2013 and from 7th to 21st January, 2014. The research team went on recess from 23rd December 2013 to 6th January 2014, for the Christmas and New Year holidays. In each district, household surveys were conducted first, followed by key informant interviews with Assembly persons and focus group discussions with unit committee members and PWDs. This arrangement enabled the researcher to constitute the PWDs into focus groups.

Interview with core staff of the Assembly was conducted during business working hours 9am.to 5pm.

The researcher used face-to-face interviews to administer the interview schedule to household heads in the three local government areas studied. Face to face interviews enabled the researcher to investigate, explain, to follow up important points that were raised by the members of the public as well as obtain detailed and richer information. Through using face to face interview the researcher ensured a clear understanding of the items and a high rate of response to the interview schedule.

The Assembly persons were contacted by telephone and appointment made, venues and the time for the interview were mutually agreed upon. This was later confirmed via same channel before the actual interview date and time. It took between 45 minutes and one hour to respond to an interview schedule while focus group discussions took an hour. During the course of the interview with household heads, the researcher paid attention not only to what was said, but how and where it was said. All information was relevant in establishing why things were said. Therefore, the researcher considered the context of the interview very critical in order to capture the mood and context and made notes in his diary. In the diary the researcher noted the place and time of the interview, the atmosphere, the tone of the interviewee's voice, body language and any other significant behaviour and features.

Three different instruments were administered in the study area. Interview schedule was administered to 1,143 household heads in three LGAs. Interview guide was administered to 55 core officials of the three Assemblies and 24 Assembly persons, while focus group discussion were held with nine

groups of 6 persons, i.e. three focus groups discussion were held in each district. The details are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Number of Assembly Persons Interviewed and Unit Committee Members who Participated in Focus Group Discussion

MMDA	Area council	Community	No. of participants		
			Assembly person interviewed	FGD Unit committee members	FGD Persons with disability
Cape Coast Metropolis	Abura- Adisadel	Abura	2	6	4
	Anakyin-Bakaano	Bakaano	3	6	4
	Ola	Amamoma	2	6	3
		Subtotal	*7*	*18*	*11*
Mfantseman Municipality	Saltpond	Saltpond	2	6	3
	Mankessim	Mankessim	2	6	4
	Abandze	Abandze	2	6	2
		Sub total	*6*	*18*	*9*
Twifo-Ati Mokwa district	Twifo Praso	Praso	3	6	3
	Mampong	Mampong	3	6	3
	Nyenase	Nyenase	2	6	0
		Subtotal	*8*	*18*	*6*
	Total		21	54	25

Note: The figure for Assembly persons excludes the Presiding Members interviewed in CCMA, MMA and TAMDA.

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

In all, 3 Presiding Members and 21 Assembly persons were interviewed and 54 unit committee members took part in the focus group discussions. In Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly a total of eight Assembly persons were contacted. Out of the 27 communities selected for the study, focus group discussions with female and male members of the unit committees, and group of persons with disability were held in nine of them. The unit committees have a total membership of 10 people, consisting of 5 males and 5 female representatives chosen by the community through a public election process.

Household interviews were conducted usually in the mornings and evenings on week days and throughout the day over the weekends when respondents were back from work and at home. Interviews with the public were held either in the morning before work or evening after work on week days or when they are free from working on weekends. This enabled them to relax and participate in the study. During the day the researcher had discussions with the officials of the Assembly. Key informants interview, with assembly officials and assembly persons were conducted during working hours 8 am to 5pm whiles, focus group discussions were conducted in the afternoons with either persons with disability on one hand, and unit committee members on the other. Six research assistants and the researcher conducted the interviews and recorded the respondents according to the agreed format.

Fieldwork Challenges

The absence of a sampling frame necessitated constructing one to serve the intended purpose. The existing suburbs of communities and important physical landmarks were used to identify and map out the houses to facilitate

easy identification. The houses were not numbered in a consistent way. To overcome these challenges the houses were assigned numbers and randomly selected. This may have produced some biases in the sample but the division of towns and communities were done in consultation with the respective planning officers and community development officers of the study districts and the local residents. The study sample was spread to all sections of the communities to ensure more representativeness and validity.

At the training for the research assistants the meaning of certain words as used in the study's context were identified and explained. Some of the respondents had to go to work, thus they were not at home during the day time. The research team had to stay in Twifo-Praso for three weeks to enable them conduct interviews in the morning, and late evenings and over the week-ends.

Data Processing and Analysis

Kumar (1996) suggests that data processing involves editing, coding, developing a frame of analysis and analysing the data. In addition, Panneerselvam (2010) suggests that once field work and data collection were completed, proper tools and techniques should be used for classification and analysis. The data gathered through household heads interviews were eventually edited to check spelling, grammatical errors, and consistency of responses as well as validity of answers before coding. The data were also sorted out according to the metropolis, municipality and district, and category of respondents. The classification was designed to allow identification of the extent of variations and isolation of the differences in perceptions of all the respondents in a local government area, community or among groups of respondents.

In order to, enhance treatment of the data, some information were organised in tabular forms. Tabulation implies recording, classification in a compact form into tables, columns and rows so as to facilitate comparison and relationships between and among data, thereby facilitating the statistical and mathematical operations. The quantitative data were analysed with the use of Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 21 and Microsoft Excel 2003 software.

The sets of interview schedules were counted to establish the response rate and numbered for identification purposes. They were edited to minimise coding mistakes and the responses to items guided the coding manually prepared to facilitate the analysis. The data analysis involved establishing the response rate for each item, content analysis for the qualitative data and document review. It also involved examining, categorising, tabulating, cross tabulating the quantitative data as well as using frequencies to present the quantitative data in accordance with the objectives of the study.

Units of analysis are those things examined in order to create summary picture or description of all such units and to explain differences among them (Mikellsen, 1993). Units of analysis could be individuals, groups, communities, time period, institutions, organisation and social interactions. In all, the study had six units of analysis, namely, household heads, core staff of the central administration and heads of department, assembly persons, unit committee members and PWDs. The data was grouped according to the units of analysis. Respondents' perceptions were examined in relation to community needs, and their involvement in needs identification. It also examined responsiveness of

local government structures and services to community needs and rights, and accountability mechanisms. The data were analysed for each instrument.

The interview schedule data,

In establishing the codes, all the open-ended items on the interview schedule and the main issues raised by the data were examined manually in order to identify patterns and themes emerging from each unit of analysis and level. Developmental needs of women and men in the various communities, and the extent of their involvement in needs determination, were analysed using the ladder of participation as the analytical frame. It also examined sensitivity of service delivery to community needs and rights, access to the sub-structures, political accountability and other accountability mechanisms at the different levels of the local government system. Association between gender and perceptions of responsiveness to community needs emerged as the analysis proceeded.

The quantitative data collected were coded initially into numerical representations so that a series of statistical analysis could be performed using the software package, Statistical Product and Service Solutions, version 21. According to Jennings (2001) software enables researchers to enter and store data, utilise and retrieve, engage in statistical analysis, generate graphs and reports. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics were used to describe characteristics of the sampled household respondents. It was analysed by using percentages, frequencies, cross tabulation, graphs, charts and other illustrations. T-test was applied to test the statistical significance of similarities and difference of means of two

communities in terms of perceptions of the degree of satisfaction, and usefulness of some of the variables.

Chi-square and statistical inferences were employed to test the associations and relationships among the variables used in the study. The relationships examined included perceptions of participation and responsiveness, accessibility to services to communities and satisfaction with performance. The quantitative data entries were made and processed, using SPSS version 21. An alpha value of 0.05 was used to draw statistic for all inferential analysis. The nature of the issues under examination required the use of mixed method, both qualitative and quantitative.

Thematic areas of the study were needs, participation, responsiveness of local government to the needs of people and communities, availability, accessibility to services and accountability mechanisms. The final stage in the data analysis was the interpretation of results. This entailed explaining the results, answers to the how and why items and attaching significance to particular results and linking them to theory, the conceptual framework and practice to make meaning (Sarantakos, 2005).

Interview guide data

The views and perspectives of the core assembly staff, heads of department, and the assembly persons were needed to corroborate or contrast that of household's respondents. The themes used in the analysis of interview schedules were initially adopted and others added as the analysis proceeded. Content analysis for the qualitative data followed similar themes used for the households, and linked findings to literature and theory.

Focus group data

The views and perspectives expressed by the focus group discussants were needed to corroborate or contrast that of household heads respondents in the study. Responsiveness focused on whether a policy, project or a plan matches with the local people's needs and expectations. It also examined the status of implementation, whether it has been implemented within the timeframe and the project benefits the whole community. Regarding accountability, by covering on roles and responsibilities of each structure, public's access to institutions and information, interactions, perceptions of usefulness of accountability mechanisms, satisfaction rates, and re-election chances of representatives and issues of accountability were adequately addressed.

Chapter Summary

The chapter highlights the design of the study, the methodology and the instruments used for data collection, and the analytical procedures used. The next chapter presents the field data descriptively, using percentages, tables, charts and statistical analysis. The first research objective needs has been analysed qualitatively and quantitatively using the rank weighted technique for prioritisation and other classifications of need. The second objective, participation has been analysed using Arnstein's ladder of participation, Pretty's typology and the UN framework for analysing community participation.

CHAPTER FIVE

DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS AND PARTICIPATION IN

NEEDS DETERMINATION

Introduction

The results are presented and discussed in chapters five and six of this thesis. After presenting the characteristics of respondents, the results and discussion of the study are organised under the research objectives and the corresponding questions they addressed. This chapter discusses and addresses the developmental needs of households and communities, and participation in needs determination. It has been categorised into background characteristics of respondents, developmental needs at different levels-district, sub district, community and household. It also discusses participation in needs identification, development decision making process, as well as actors, spaces and the levels of participation.

In discussing the results and their implications for decentralised governance and local level development, due reference has been made to the relevant literature reviewed in chapters two and three, and the conceptual framework (Figure 3) that guided the study. The first section of this chapter focuses on the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The importance of presenting the demographics of the population is in two folds. First, it establishes the context within which the responses were elicited, in terms of the differences in the respondents' sex, age, education and residential status. Secondly, it forms some basis for disaggregating the responses, since lumping the results together can lead to negligence of pertinent concerns that can be found within the different demographic groupings.

The subsequent sections of the chapter present the results on the developmental need of the districts, as well as the participation of the population therein in the development of their respective districts. In discussing the results, characteristics of the sample was used to show the linkage to the analysis in other areas. In analysing community developmental needs and the levels of participation, the sex of respondents was used to disaggregate the results to bring out differences and similarities in the perspectives of men and women. According to Boateng (2009), the needs of women differ from that of the men due to the roles assigned to them by society. In addition, men tend to dominate women in decision-making, therefore, it is imperative to analyse them separately in order to highlight any gender differentiation. Consequently, the needs and participation in needs determination have been disaggregated by sex and locality.

Characteristics of Household Respondents

In order to appreciate, understand and contextualise the respondents' perspectives regarding their developmental needs, their socio-economic characteristics such as sex, age, educational level, length of stay in the community and main occupation were analysed. From literature, these variables have been found to influence peoples' perspectives on needs, participation and responsiveness as well as, holding public officials' to account (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). In all, 1,143 household heads from 27 communities in nine area councils in three local government areas responded to the research questions. Specifically, Figure 13 presents the sex distribution of the household heads.
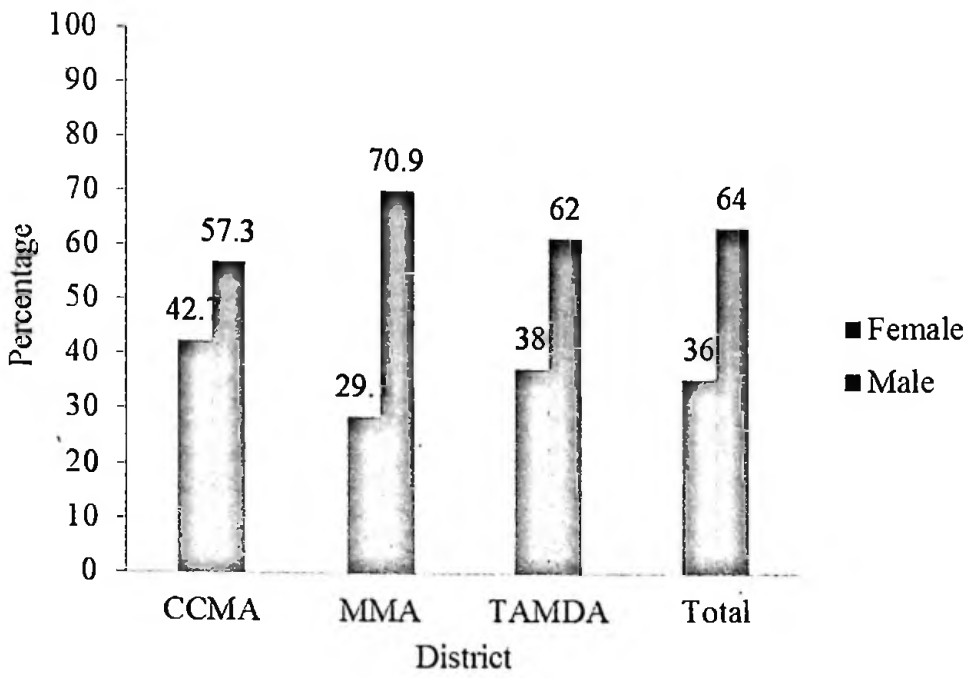
Figure 13: Sex Distribution of Respondents

Source:.Field survey data (2013)

The sex distribution of respondents indicates that more males (64 %) responded, as compared to their female counterparts (36%). This demographic observation reflects the structure of the Ghanaian society, where fewer women are in leadership positions at all levels, including the household, family and societal levels (Boateng, 2009). Sex and age have been found to influence peoples' priority needs.   Development practitioners seem to agree that the application of participatory approaches further calls for an appreciation of the social dynamics and differences such as age, gender, social status, power and disability.

The age distribution of the respondents is presented in Table 15. The minimum reported age was 19 years, whereas the maximum age was 83 years. The age range for CCMA was 63 years, but 64 years for the respondents from MMA and 60 years for those from TAMDA. The results, therefore, indicated

that the age spread of the respondents were fairly similar, and thus, the assessment of needs and participation of the respondents in the respective districts covered a fairly similar spread of ages. The wide spread of ages also depicts that contrary to the perception that the youth are often marginalised in consultations and decision-making, the preferences of all age groups, their views and needs were combined in the study to draw conclusions.

Table 15

Age Distribution of Respondents by District

District	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dv.	Skewness	
							Stat	Std Error
CCMA	20	83	46.86	46.36	38.00	13.31	0.534	0.125
MMA	19	83	41.75	38.00	43.00	14.79	0.778	0.125
TAMDA	23	82	44.90	42.00	36.00	12.48	0.711	0.125
Total	19	83	44.51	42.00	35.00	13.71	0.614	0.072

Source: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

In order to determine the measure of central tendency to report for the age distribution of the respondents, the ages of the respondents were subjected to a test of normality. This is important for the study because the needs of the general population and the different ages may differ according to the socio economic characteristics such as age, gender and occupation. According to Pallant (2005), a normal distribution is indicated by a skewness of 0.0, however other studies (Curran et al., 1996), establish that the values of ±0.5 are considered acceptable for a normal distribution. Based on these measures, the overall skewness statistic of 0.614 indicated that the ages of the respondents

were not normally distributed. The median ages were therefore reported as the averages of the distributions (Sirkin, 2006).

The median age of the respondents from MMA (38 years) was lowest, followed by that of TAMDA (42 years), and the highest median age was reported by the respondents from CCMA (46 years). On the average, therefore, the respondents in CCMA were fairly older than their counterparts in MMA and TAMDA. In addition to age, the educational level also influences the behaviour of people and their receptiveness to information, thus literacy plays an important role in accessing opportunities, information and understanding issues of governance and development (Shah, 2006). The educational level could influence understanding and appreciation of decentralised governance and development issues. As noted by Green (2008), a well educated and informed citizenry is more likely to participate in decision-making that could affect them, and demand accountability and responsiveness from public officials'.

Figure 14, presents the highest educational level attained by respondents. Overall, 15.2 percent of the respondents had dropped out of school at the basic level, which suggested that 84.8 percent of the respondents had attained some form of formal education. Thus, the literacy levels in the respective districts were high. The respondents who dropped-out of school were, however, higher in (18.8%) TAMD and (16.8%) MM as compared to that of (7%) CCM.

The higher drop-out rates in TAMD and MM could be explained by the predominantly rural nature of the two districts which result in early drop-out of school to take up economic activities to support family incomes (MMA, 2009; TAMDA, 2009). On the other hand, the lower drop-out rate in CCM could be underscored by the fact that Cape Coast is well noted for its pioneering role in

education at all levels and the presence of several educational facilities, at all levels, within the Metropolis, such as university, polytechnic, college of education, nursing training schools, and senior high schools of repute (Inkoom & Quagraine, 2013).
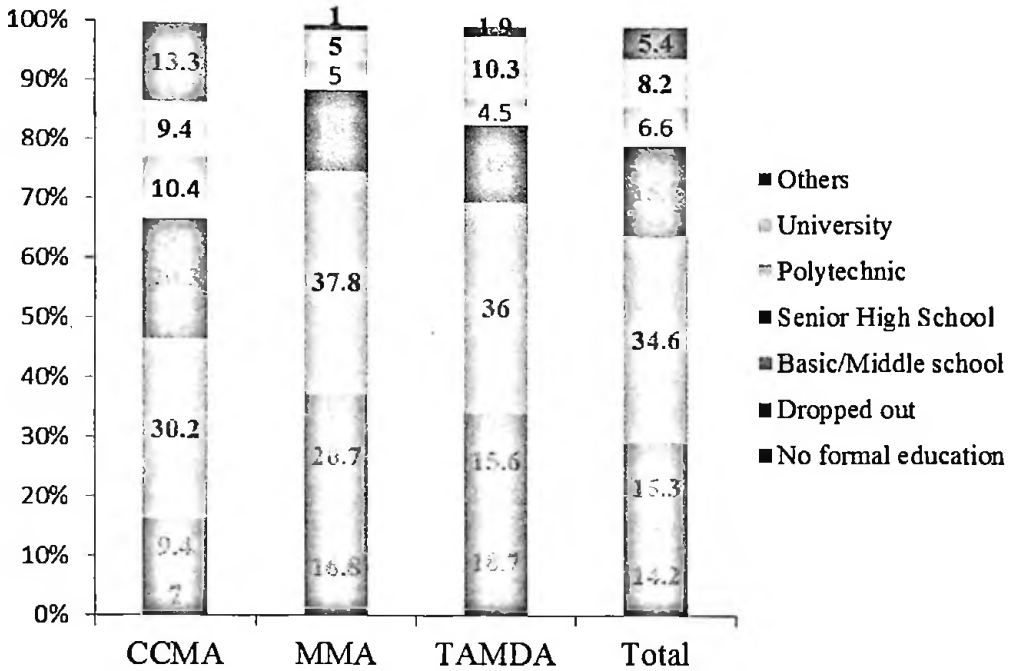
Figure 14: Educational Level of Household Heads by District
Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

The results also indicated that a higher percentage (34.6%) of the respondents had basic/middle school as their highest level of educational attainment, as compared to the respondents in the other categories of educational levels. A few of the respondents (8.2%) had attained university education. A slightly higher percentage of the respondents in MM (36.8%), as compared to those in TAMD (36%) and CCM (30.2%), had attained basic/ middle school education. On the other hand, a higher percentage of the respondents in TAMD (10.3%), as against respondents in CCM (9.4%) and MM (5.0%), had some form of university education.

Table 16 presents average length of stay of household respondents in the community. It was used as a surrogate to establish how long respondents have lived in the community and are familiar with the pressing needs. The result revealed that respondents had lived in the community from less than a year up to 82 years. Thus, the range covered for the length of stay of the respondents was 81 years, which meant that the study covered data that spread over respondents who had lived for both long and short periods in the respective communities.

Table 16

Length of Stay of Household Heads' in the Community

District	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dv.	Skewness	
							Stat	Std Error
CCM	1	77	25.60	20.50	20.00	18.84	0.857	0.125
MM	1	76	21.57	20.00	20.00	18.29	0.839	0.125
TAMD	1	82	26.77	25.00	20.00	12.48	0.619	0.125
Total	1	82	25.26	20.00	20.00	18.381	0.767	0.072

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Subjecting the data distribution to the test of normality, it was found that the distribution was not normally distributed as the overall skewness statistic (0.619) fell outside the range of ± 0.5 (Pallant, 2005). Thus, the median length of stay in the communities was reported as the applicable measure of central tendency. The overall median length of stay in the districts was 20 years. The disaggregated results, however, showed that the respondents in TAMD had a longer stay in their district than those found in CCM and MM. The importance of this distinction lies in the assertion that longer length of stay in a community

is often associated with a greater sense of familiarity with the community's current development issues (Addo-Deku, 2012).

The occupational distribution of household respondents is presented in Figure 15. An examination of the household heads' occupations indicates that more (18.9%) of the respondents are artisans. The artisans comprise, auto mechanics, electricians, welders, seamstresses, tailors, and hairdressers. A little less than seventeen (16.9) percent are engaged in farming and fishing and trading (16.8%). Civil servants constitute 1.5 percent.
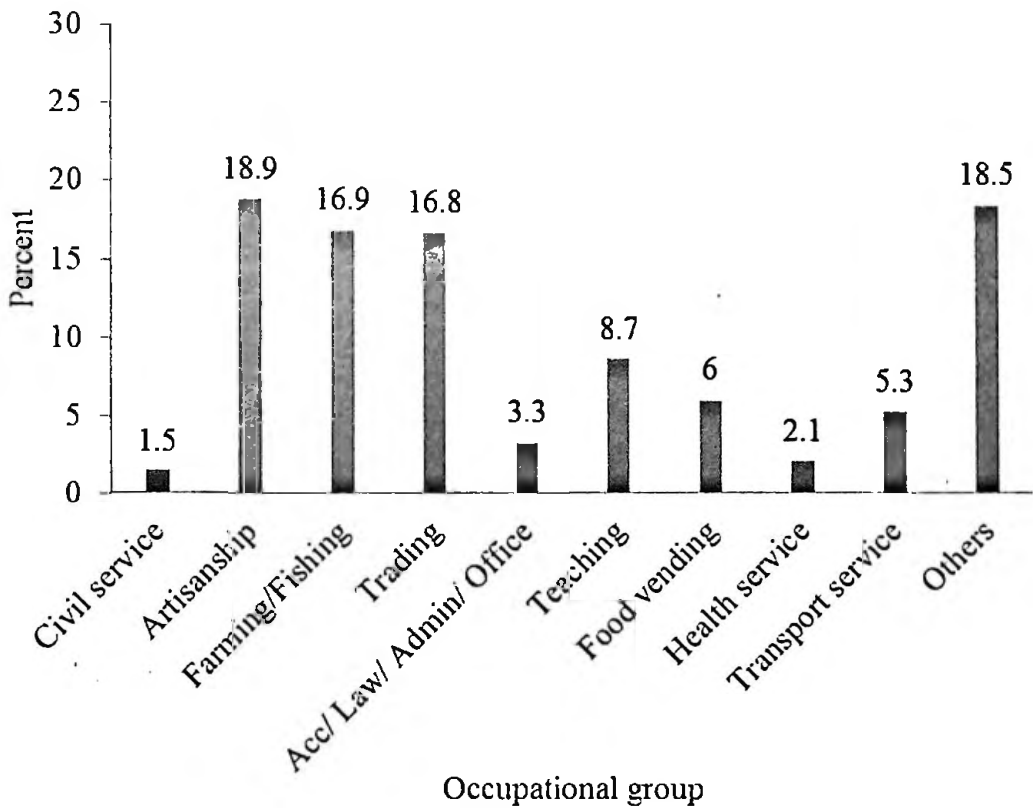
Figure 15: Occupational Group of Respondents

Source; Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Generally, most of the respondents are self employed, working in the informal as well as the private sector of the economy. The private sector depends on the public sector for basic services like schools, hospitals, water, security and protection, markets and roads. In this respect, both sectors are

required to work in tandem to guarantee responsiveness and accountability. Therefore, responsiveness of the public sector to the needs of the private sector is worthy of exploration and examination. Having analysed the socio-economic characteristics of the household heads, the research questions were examined in the sequence they occur. The results and the implications are discussed in the subsequent sections of the chapter.

Developmental Needs of Communities

This section discusses the first research objective, developmental needs. Specifically, the prioritised developmental needs of communities disaggregated by locality, sex and persons with disability are discussed. The analysis covers 1,143 households in 27 communities in nine area councils from three local government areas that were studied and 79 key informants selected by census. The findings cover the views of respondents for the interview schedules and collaborated with the views of core assembly staff, assembly persons and focus group discussants, unit committee members using the guides provided in the appendix. The quantitative data were analysed descriptively and statistically using percentage and the rank weighted technique for prioritisation (Triantaphyllou, 2000) while the qualitative data was based on content analysis (Creswell, 2007).

From literature reviewed and the conceptual framework (Figure 3), developmental needs are gaps that are informed by human capital, basic needs, rights based and motivational needs theories, all of which advocate for public investment in basic necessities of life to ensure minimum standard of living. Development is perceived to be a response to people's basic needs, preferences

and rights, and it is synonymous with the desired development outcomes at the local level, and any deviation from that preference, in contrast to the current situation, constitutes a development gap. These gaps may include sustenance, self-esteem, freedoms, rights and liberties, and respect for human dignity which have to be bridged to enhance peoples' quality of life and well being (Sen, 1999) cited in Todaro and Smith (2011). Thus, needs are seen in terms of capabilities to be and function, and achieve ones goals in life.

From the conceptual framework (Figure 3) developmental needs are gaps which must be bridged, in order to promote the well being of people. As indicated by Shah (2006) and the conceptual framework, households and society have certain needs which must be met. In order, to examine the responsiveness of the local government system to developmental needs, it was imperative to first establish what the needs and priorities of the households and communities in the study districts were. Crook and Manor (1998) and Schou (2000) measured developmental needs at household level by a survey of their popular needs and preferences. A similar approach was adopted for the study.

The study sought to identify the major developmental needs of the communities, and thus, the respondents were required to prioritise their top five developmental needs. The responses were disaggregated by locality and the result presented in Table 17. The disaggregated results indicate that the top three priority needs of households in CCM are sanitation, market and roads while that of MM are jobs, sanitation and roads. In TAMD the priority needs, in descending order, are sanitation, water, and roads and bridge.

Developmental Needs of Households and Communities in the Study Area

MMDA	CCMA			MMA			TAMDA			TOTAL		
NEEDS	f	(%)	R	f	(%)	R	f	(%)	f	Freq	Percent	R*
Sanitation, toilets/refuse	356	(27.4)	1	201	(19.5)	2	216	(18.2)	1	774	(22.0)	1
Road/bridge	152	(11.5)	3	116	(11.2)	3	162	(13.7)	3	430	(12.2)	2
Jobs	116	(8.9)	6	218	(21.1)	1	152	(12.8)	7	426	(12.1)	3
Market	162	(12.5)	2	56	(5.4)	9	92	(7.8)	4	370	(10.5)	4
Water	93	(7.2)	7	86	(8.3)	6	188	(15.9)	2	367	(10.4)	5
Drains/gutters	131	(10.1)	4	79	(7.7)	7	89	(7.5)	8	299	(8.5)	6
School	67	(5.2)	8	112	(10.9)	4	89	(7.5)	8	260	(7.6)	7
Clinic/hospital	60	(4.6)	9	89	(8.6)	5	106	(8.9)	5	255	(7.3)	8
Streetlights	131	(10.1)	4	19	(1.8)	10	48	(4.1)	10	198	(5.6)	9
Electricity	30	(2.3)	10	56	(5.4)	9	43	(3.6)	6	174	(3.7)	10
Total	1298	(100.0)		1032	(100.0)		1185	(100.0)		3515	(100.0)	

Note: R* Rank

Source: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

From the disaggregated results, sanitation and road are among the top three priorities in all three local government areas. In CCM, (27.4 %) and TAMD (18.2) percent of the household respondents respectively reported sanitation as a major developmental problem while in MM 19.5 percent reported sanitation as the second most important need after job (21.1). Sanitation is a major developmental problem according to the district profile of TAMD, the majority, 72 percent of the people, do not use safe toilets while 68 percent and 14 percent use open and crude dumping respectively (THLDDA, 2009). Market and water were the second priority need in CMM (12.5%) and TAMD (15.9%) respectively. The results further indicate that roads were the third developmental need in CCMA (11.5) and MM (11.2) while in TAMD (13.7) percent indicated road and a new bridge over the Pra River as the third priority need.

The aggregated result revealed that, 22 percent of the multiple responses indicated sanitation as the topmost need. This was followed by roads and bridge (12.2%), jobs (12.1%), market (10.5%) and water (10.4%) in that order to complete the list of the top five development priorities in the study area. According to Smith (1985), knowledge about local needs is seen as a prerequisite for responsiveness because development priorities are identified by decision-makers who are engaged in open-minded, two-way communication with their electorate.

Crawford (2004) contends that policy makers and development planners sometimes tend to ignore the needs of people and specific groups or lump the needs of communities, women and men together without a thorough analysis. However, Potter and Sweetman (2002) contend that development must be

informed by needs and gender analysis. Any analysis of needs must involve the needs holders, the service providers and the decision makers.

The core staff from the District Assemblies asserted that insanitary practices by households and communities, low investments in the sector, inadequate capacity, and poor supervision by the Assemblies have contributed to the poor sanitary conditions in the study area. The findings are consistent with the situation in many towns and cities especially in sub Saharan Africa. Mensah and Kendie (2008) indicate that many towns and cities are facing poor environmental sanitation, inadequate services and massive unemployment. The basic needs theory postulates that, the survival of human beings, not only require physical needs, but employment, education, and participation in the social and economic life through political involvement. All these call for effective governance and sustainable management of resources.

Roads and bridges (12.2%) is the second priority need. Specifically respondents mentioned the bad nature of roads and major bridges which affect mobility of people and goods leading to higher transport costs. Although the MMDAs have made some provision for these facilities and needs, they are presumed to be inadequate, poorly managed and unmaintained. On the other hand the continued absence of these needs and failure to respond promptly could exacerbate poverty.

The need for jobs (12.1%) was the third priority. In order to, survive and achieve functions, people need jobs and work to earn decent incomes and living (Todaro & Smith, 2009). Generally, people expect government policies to favour the private sector, which is the engine of growth to facilitate generation of jobs and employment so that people can find work to do. Although it is not

the direct responsibility of local government to provide jobs for the household heads, they see local government as an extension of central government and blamed them both for the lack of jobs, low incomes and economic hardships and attributed it to their policies not yielding the desired results. Local government has a responsibility for local economic development (ILGS & FES, 2011). From literature and conceptual framework, jobs are basic needs. However, the freeze on employment in the public sector leaves the private sector alone to create jobs.

In all, 31 different needs were found at the household and community levels in the study area (See Appendix K, L and M). In order to establish the community developmental needs equal weight of five was assigned to all first priority needs, followed by four to the second, three to the third, two to the fourth and one to the fifth priority. The frequencies were then multiplied by the respective weights to obtain the total weighted score index for each need. On the basis of the highest weighted score, the needs were ranked in descending order to determine the priority needs.

From the study results, in CCM (see Appendix K), sanitation is a priority need in specific communities namely, Abura, Kotokroba, Ola, Akotokyir, and Bakaano. In Adisadel and Amamoma communities, sanitation was a second priority need. In addition, cleaning and de-silting choked gutters was the top priority need in Adisadel and Amamoma, and the second priority in five others. Jobs, market and roads complete the list of the top priorities in CCM. In this respect, communities in CCM are deemed to have high access to facilities such as schools, hospitals and clinics, potable water and electricity supply and motorable roads. This is not surprising, because being a regional and a district capital CCM has made an appreciable investment in infrastructure and services.

The developmental needs of MM are presented in Appendix L. Jobs for the youth and credit for business start up and expansion and market emerged as the topmost needs in Saltpond, Kormantse and Mankessim which are all urban communities. The findings revealed that, most of the communities have economic needs such as jobs and income but the Assembly focuses mainly on providing social needs thus leaving gaps and deficits in meeting local needs. From the results, it can be inferred that economic development in the three local government areas is receiving very little attention from the Assemblies. Consequently, it seems that what the three MMDAs are doing to fight poverty is perceived as not meeting the needs and expectations of the communities.

According to Todaro and Smith, (2011) all people have certain basic needs and expectations and it is a basic function of all economic and social activity to provide as many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from lack of economic needs. They contend that failure to provide for economic needs such as job, sanitation, water, food and protection retard development. Economic development is a necessary condition for improvement in the quality of life; however, without sustained and continuous economic progress at the individual as well as the societal level, the realisation of the human potential would not be possible. In this respect, greater employment opportunities, raising incomes and the elimination of poverty, are necessary but insufficient conditions for development.

Similarly, the developmental needs in Twifo Ati-Mokwa District are presented in Appendix M. The results indicate that needs in TAMD are similar to that of CCM and MM. The developmental needs of the area councils are similar, in some case, and different in others. The three studied communities in

Praso Area Council in the Twifo Ati-Mokwa District, namely Praso, Aboso and Darmang have different priority needs. The results indicate that, the bridge over the Pra River and re-graveling of roads linking Praso are the topmost priority needs, while Aboso a small rural and farming community about two kilometres away from Praso has electricity as the priority need.

The results show that communities in the Twifo Praso Area council beyond the Pra River have the reconstruction of the bridge and road as the topmost priority. This was due to their physical location in relation to the rest of the district and the fact that they have to cross the deplorable bridge to the district capital on a regular basis to benefit from goods and services. This finding agrees with Ahwoi's (2010) assertion that developmental needs of communities are location specific and that the structure of government closest to these needs is the best placed body to address them. In the case of Aboso, a small farming community about 2km away from Twifo Praso the district capital, the need was electricity. This represents the voice of the minority, less influential and powerful in society, but it tended to be marginalised.

Similarly, Nyenase and Adugya all in the Nyenase Area Council and beyond the Pra River mentioned road and the bridge as the topmost priority, since that affects the free movement of goods and people from the hinterland to the district capital. This translates into high transport costs and long hours of travelling and high wear and tear for transport owners. According to Adarkwa (2014) central place theory, high order settlements provide a wide range of goods and services to its hinterland. An improved road transport system will therefore improve mobility of persons and goods and increase revenue. Poor transportation acts as a disincentive to free movement of people to access high

order services like hospitals, secondary education, and banking services. In addition, TAMDA derives most of its internal revenue from the major markets and road tolls.

From the results, the developmental needs in the study areas are consistent with the conceptual framework and the basic needs and rights based approach theories (ILO, 1976). The identified needs can be broadly classified as for sustenance and survival. They include infrastructure, economic and social services. Economic needs entail employment, job creation and access to markets and credits as well as increasing productivity and production, security and protection. The result is consistent with Ahwoi's (2010) view that the needs of communities are geographic and location specific. The mix of needs identified in the study area, reflect basic needs, human capital needs and rights based and people have rights to enjoy them under the Millennium Development Goals and the 1992 Constitution of Ghana.

The results also confirmed that developmental needs were mainly of the basic needs, social services, economic and infrastructure required for survival, sustenance, improved livelihoods and well being. Most of the needs identified in the study are physiological and occupy the lower rungs of Maslow's (1965) hierarchy of needs and is also consistent with the theory of needs which emphasises that people are motivated to meet their basic needs. The results further indicate that the developmental needs differ from district to district and from community to community. This also confirms Ahwoi's (2010) indication that preferences for public services produce spatially differentiated patterns of demand that is only effectively met by responsive local government. Decentralisation is, thus, designed to reflect unique local circumstances in

development plans and implementation (ILGS & FES, 2011).

Ghai (1977) noted that the ability to meet basic needs of all people is important without which life would be impossible. These lives sustaining basic human needs include, food, health, water, jobs, income, and protection. When any of these is absent or in critical short supply, a condition of absolute underdevelopment exists. Todaro and Smith (2009) suggest that a basic function of all economic activity, therefore, is to provide as many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from lack of basic needs. As indicated in the conceptual framework, local governments cannot respond to citizens' needs without resources.

The needs based theories examined in the literature and the conceptual framework indicates that the needs of groups differ. The gender perspective of the developmental needs of the community was examined, given that several studies indicate that the needs of men and women in society are often different (Boateng, 2009; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995; Offei-Aboagye, 2009). According to the Commonwealth Secretariat (2013), the differences in gender development needs can be conceptualised in terms of practical gender needs and strategic gender needs. The practical gender needs are those needs of men and women that are defined by their existing engendered roles in society, such as the provision of conveniently located stand-pipes, which will reduce their workload and training in traditional productive activities to increase the income of women as a support to the family.

The Commonwealth Secretariat (1995) also mentions that strategic needs are directly concerned with changing the status quo or challenging socially defined roles and tackling gender subordination in society. The strategic

needs may include the provision of training in non-traditional productive activities such as building. It also includes encouragement of female membership to vie for parliament, local committees, and other political bodies, in order to enhance women's participation in decision-making at all levels. Table 19, 20 and 21 show disparities in community needs according, to the sex of household heads. The frequencies represent multiple responses, given that any particular respondent could identify more than one need. The percentages also reflect the proportion of each group of response to the total number of multiple responses obtained under each column.

The household respondents' developmental needs by sex in the CCMA are presented in Table 18. In CCM, the most pertinent needs of the females in order of importance were sanitation, drains/gutters, market, roads/bridges and jobs. On the other hand, the males identified their needs as sanitation, infrastructure, market and jobs. This showed some level of similarity in the developmental needs of both males and females in the district. In this scenario, congruence in the needs of both males and females was witnessed, as opposed to the common indication in literature that the development needs of males and females are differentiated based on gender roles and societal transformation efforts (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995).

Table 18

Needs of Household Respondents by Sex in the Cape Coast Metropolis

Needs	Female		Male		Total	
	f(%)	Rank	f(%)	Rank	f(%)	Rank
Sanitation	134(22.6)	1	222(31.6)	1	356(27.6)	1
Roads /bridge	70(12.8)	4	82(11.6)	3	152(11.8)	3
Jobs	59(10.0)	5	57(8.1)	5	116 (9,0)	5
Market	77 (13.2)	3	85 (12.0)	2	162(12.6)	2
Water	44 (7.4)	8	49 (6.9)	6	93(7.2)	6
Drainage/gutters	78 (13.4)	2	53 (7.5)	8	131(10.2)	4
School	21(3.5)	9	46 (6.5)	10	67(5.2)	8
Clinic	48(8.2)	7	12 (1.7)	3	60(4.7)	9
Street light	39(8.7)	6	82 (11.6)	3	121(9.4)	4
Electricity	12(2.0)	10	18 (2.5)	9	30 (2.3)	10
Total n=384	582 (100)		706 (100)		1288(100)	

Note: Sanitation includes toilet/ refuse and waste disposal

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The household respondents' developmental needs by sex in the MM are presented in Table 19. In MM, the females identified jobs (18.3%) and sanitation (14.3%) as their most pertinent need, whereas the males were more concerned about jobs and sanitary issues (22.2%). Females prioritised water as 4th need but the males ranked it 7th. At the most pertinent level, the needs of the males and females in MM were different as indicated in literature (Boateng, 2009; Offei-Aboagye, 2008). Other subsidiary development needs identified by the females in order of decreasing importance were sanitation, road and bridges,

water and schools, whereas the males ordered their needs in terms of schools, roads/bridges and hospitals/clinics. Some common needs could therefore be identified among the males and females, although the order of importance was different for both groups of responses.

Table 19

Needs of Household Respondents by Sex in the Mfantseman Municipality

Needs	Female		Male		Total	
	f (%)	Rank	f (%)	Rank	f (%)	Rank
Sanitation	74(15.0)	2	127(22.2)	1	201(19.5)	2
Roads /bridge	55(11.1)	3	61(10.7)	4	116(11.2)	3
Jobs	91(18.3)	1	127(22.2)	1	218(21.2)	1
Market	31(6.3)	9	25(4.4)	8	56 (5.4)	9
Water	54(10.9)	4	32(5.6)	7	86 (8.3)	6
Drainage	33(6.6)	7	46(8.1)	6	79 (7.7)	7
School	47(9,5)	5	65(11.4)	3	112(10.9)	4
Clinic	76(15.3)	6	51(8.9)	5	89(8.6)	5
Street light	23(4.6)	10	13(2.3)	10	19(1.8)	10
Electricity	12(2.4)	8	24(4.2)	9	56(5.4)	9
Total	496 (100)		571(100)		1032 (100)	

n = 381

Source: Field survey data, (Bamfo, 2013)

Similarly, the developmental needs of women and men in Twifo Ati-Mokwa district are presented in Table 20. The responses obtained from TAMD revealed similar patterns in the needs identified by the sampled male and female household in the district. The major concern of the females was sanitation, but other subsidiary needs included market, water, clinic/hospital and road/bridges.

Similarly, the males were, primarily, particular about sanitation, whereas other subsidiary needs covered water provision, road/bridges, markets and jobs. Therefore, some similarities in the needs of the males and females based on their gender differentiated roles could be identified.

Table 20

Needs of Household Respondents by Sex in the Twifo Ati-Mokwa District

Needs	Female		Male		Total	
	f (%)	Rank	f (%)	Rank	f (%)	Rank
Sanitation	98(17.0)	1	118(19.4)	1	216 (18.2)	1
Roads /bridge	65(11.2)	5	97(16.0)	3	162 (13.7)	3
Jobs	38(6.6)	8	54(8.9)	5	92 (7.8)	6
Market	87(15.1)	2	65(10.7)	4	152(12.8)	4
Water	82(14.2)	3	106(17.5)	2	188(15.9)	2
Drainage	56(9.7)	6	33(5.4)	7	89(7.5)	7
School	41 (7,1)	7	48(7.9)	6	89 (7.5)	7
Clinic	76(13.1)	4	30(4.9)	9	106(9.0)	5
Street light	23(4.0)	9	25(4.1)	10	48(4.0)	9
Electricity	12(2.0)	10	31(5.1)	8	43(3.6)	10
Total	578(100)		607(100)		1185 (100)	

n = 378

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

The needs identified by the respondents were basically within the arena of strategic development needs, since sanitation, roads, schools, hospitals, and jobs are argued as modes of improving oneself to change socially defined roles of men and women (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995). They were also basic, such as sanitary and health issues, infrastructure, schools and water, which were

found within the lower rungs of life sustenance and development agenda (WHO, 2008).

The developmental needs of Persons with Disabilities were also assessed based on the notion that responsiveness to the needs of ordinary citizens, including the poor and vulnerable, will offer more than just greater effectiveness in promoting good governance and economic development (Crook & Manor, 1998; Schou, 2000). In this respect, focus groups, comprising PWDs were conducted to gather data on the needs and participation of the PWDs. In CCM, PWDs focus group discussions were conducted in Abura, Victoria Park and Akotokyir, whereas in MM, PWDs focus group discussions were held in Mfantseman, Saltpond and Kormantse. In TAMD, the PWDs focus group discussions were held in Twifo Mampong, Twifo Praso, and Nyenase.

The discussants indicated that they have special needs which must be met in order for them to function and exercise their constitutional rights. They complained that provisions in the Disability Act 767 are not being enforced by local governments. For example, sections of the Act, which mandate the inclusion of access of the disabled to public buildings like schools, hospitals, water stand points and markets, are overlooked in many public infrastructure provisions. They also said jobs which should be reserved for them according to the labour laws are not being respected. As a result they are poor. They believe that given equal opportunity they can live better. These sentiments were expressed by a male participant (Mankessim):

"The Assemblies even do not even have the accurate and right data on us to be able to consult and plan for us. The DACF's for the vulnerable including PWDs in not being managed transparently by the MMDAs.

Some of us received money once and nothing more has happened. We are not consulted to find out what we want and need before any intervention. People look at us with pity instead of helping us to tap and develop our potentials and contribute to development".

In one community the research team chanced on a physically challenged person selling mobile phone cards in a wheel chair and was interviewed. He said PWDS are people with ability and want to be treated with respect and dignity and not to be pitied. These assertions mirrors Sen's (1999) capabilities argument that, people want to be capacitated and empowered in order to be and achieve functions. This could imply given skills and capacity we can fend for ourselves and our dependents.

These findings raise issues of non-participation of PWDS and non consultation in development decision-making. This is contrary to the tenets of democratic decentralisation and the constitutional provision on principles of state policy, that every citizen will have a chance to participate in local governance and development. The views of the PWDs expressed above indicate that they want to be empowered economically and be involved in decision-making so that they can function and achieve functioning and realise their full potentials and improve their well being. According to Schou (2000) when disadvantaged groups hitherto excluded are given the chance to participate their needs and concerns are heard and articulated into local plans and decision-making thus increasing local government's responsiveness and their trust in them.

Participation in Needs Determination and Development Activities

The second research objective assessed the identity of the participants' how they participate and the extent of citizens' participation in the determination of developmental needs and how this in turn contributes to responsiveness to local needs and demand for accountability. As indicated in literature and illustrated in the conceptual framework, political and development participation of the respondents were analysed as a pre requisite for responsiveness and accountability (Andrews & Shah, 2007). This section focuses on development participation while the next chapter looks at political participation and links both to accountability and responsiveness. Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation (see Figure 2) and Pretty's (1995) typology of participation (See Table 1) provided the analytical framework. Key issues examined were, who participates in needs determination, how do they participate, and the extent of involvement of key respondents.

From these perspectives, it is important that all stakeholders participate in the decision making process at the grassroots level. This includes the need holders, private sector, the Assembly's professionals, elected representatives, Assembly persons and civil society for they also bear the brunt of those conditions on their lives. The study therefore analysed the respondents' perception of the participants in the needs determination at the community level. The analysis covered 1,143 respondents. The results are presented as multiple responses in Table 21.

The percentages reflect the proportion of the sampled household heads who agreed on any particular response. The results showed that 37.6 percent of the total sample of 1,143 household heads identified Assemblymen and

Assembly officials as key participants in the determination of community needs. Given that, Assemblymen and/or the Assembly Officials recorded the highest frequency of responses, it was deduced that Assemblymen and/or the Assembly Officials emerged on the top of the list of participants in the determination of community needs. However, the fact that only 37 percent of the responses mentioned Assemblymen and/or their officials indicated some low rate of participation of the Assemblymen in the needs identification of the community. This finding contradicts the argument that the level of popular participation is a key factor in explaining responsiveness.

Table 21

Perception of who Participates in Needs Determination at the Community Level

Participants	CCMA f (%)	MMA f(%)	TAMDA f(%)	Total f(%)
Assemblymen/ Officials	300(45.8)	241(34.1)	255(33.7)	796(37.6)
Chiefs	102(15.6)	142(20.1)	169(22.3)	413(19.5)
Unit committee	70(10.7)	61(8.6)	183(24.2)	314(14.8)
Elders	22(3.4)	98(13.9)	52(6.9)	172(8.1)
Youth leaders	32(4.9)	43(6.1)	28(3.7)	103(4.9)
Community members	31(4.7)	17(2.4)	27(3.6)	75(3.5)
MCEs/ DCEs	25(3.8)	16(2.3)	18(2.4)	59(2.8)
Everybody	0 (0.0)	43(6.1)	13(1.7)	56(2.6)
Members of Parliament	26(4.9)	20(2.8)	6(0.8)	52(2.5)
Party faithful			3(0.4)	3(0.1)
Don't know	47(7.2)	25(3.5)	3(0.4)	75(3.5)

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

The next most prominent participants in the needs identification process were the chiefs, as noted by 19.5 percent of the responses. The results showed a lower participation rate of the Chiefs in identifying the community needs, from the perspective of the household heads. However, the respondents identified them as the second most important participants after the Assemblymen and their officials. In order of participation rates, the respondents identified the other participants including Unit Committees (14.8%), community elders (8.1%), youth leaders (4.9%) and community members (3.5%). Political figures, such as the MCEs/DCEs (2.6%) were also mentioned but some of the respondents (3.5%) had no idea of which groups participated in the needs identification in their respective communities.

In CCM, the top three participants were the Assembly officials (45.8%), Chiefs (15.6%) and Unit Committees (10.7%). A similar situation was found in TAMD and MM where the top participants in the communities' needs identification in TAMD were the Assembly officials, Chiefs, and Unit Committees and community elders. In all cases, the direct involvement of the community members was very low in TAMD (3.6%), CCM (3.4%), and MM (2.4%). The conceptual framework (Figure 3), however, indicates that civic participation is a precursor and enabler to both responsiveness and accountability. It could, however, be assumed that the views of the community members were expressed through the traditional leaders and the unit committees, since these two groups were ideally supposed to represent the interest of the community at large.

The platforms available for the household heads to express their developmental needs were also analysed on the basis that the available avenues

directly determine how the developmental needs of the populace gain the attention of the District Assembly (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). The main channels and methods by which community members express their developmental needs are presented in Figure 16. The analysis covered 1,143 respondents.
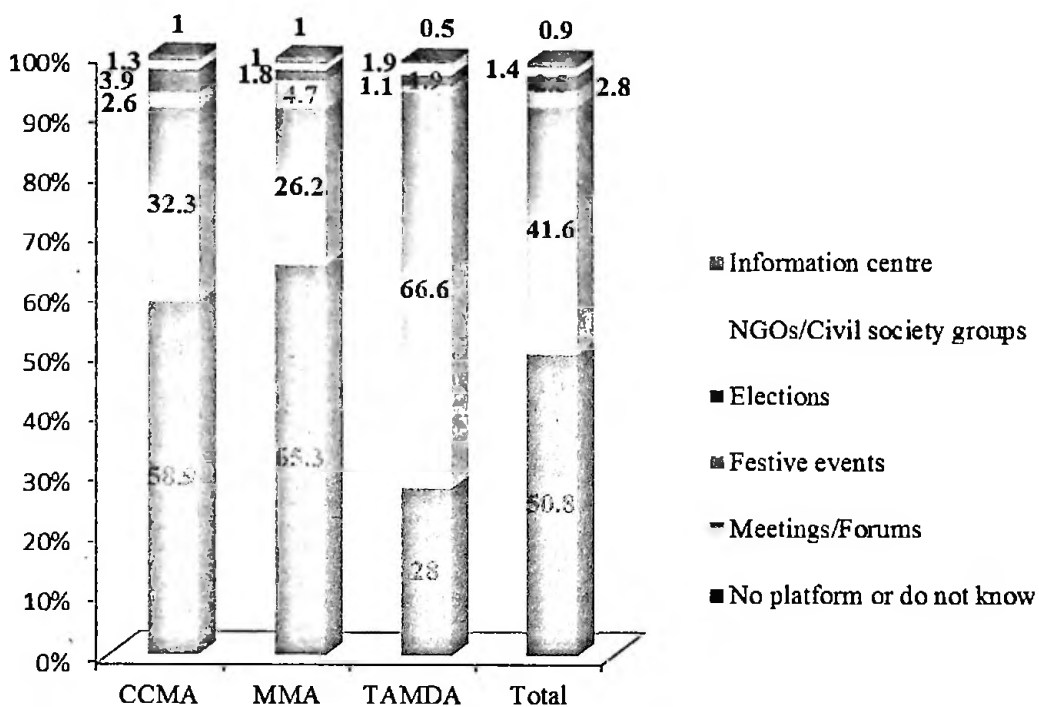
Chi-square = 205.632; Phi = 0.424; df = 17; p-value = 0.001

Figure 16: Platforms Available to Community Members to Express their Needs to the District Assembly

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The findings showed that a total of 44 percent of the respondents indicated that there were no platforms for expressing their development needs, whereas 41.6 percent noted that they expressed their needs through District Assembly meetings and forums. Some of the respondents (6.8%) also maintained that they had no idea of a single platform for expressing their developmental needs to the Assembly. The remaining respondents identified several avenues for expressing their development needs to the District

Assembly. The most mentioned avenue was through meetings and forums (41.6%). A few of the respondents indicated that their developmental needs are expressed through appeals at festive events, such as durbars, festivals, and events to commemorate religious and national holidays. The other platforms identified by the respondents included elections (2.5%), and NGOs (1.4%).

The fact that about half of the respondents indicated that there were no platforms or they did not know of any avenues indicated that most of the respondents were neither expressing their needs nor having their needs heard and addressed by the District Assembly. This indicated that, at the very fundamental level of needs identification, most of the respondents were not involved. In such a case, the likelihood that the community development plan would not reflect the needs of the community members is high. This contradicts the fundamental idea of decentralisation theorem, which is to bring the government closer to the populace for the local government to gain more knowledge and information concerning local needs and also to enable the local government work better at tailoring interventions to respond accurately to local needs (Crawford, 2004; Crook, 2003; Oates, 1972a).

The above finding is consistent with Todaro and Smith (2011) assertion that even if the mechanisms for participation are already in place, they require more time to operate them to make sure there is sufficient voice to aggregate the preferences voiced and to work out a means of implementation. In addition they indicated that in most cases the mechanisms for genuine participation are not in place. Although doing so may take long time, it is important for responsiveness and accountability. As indicated in the conceptual framework, genuine participation is critical for responsiveness and accountability.

The disaggregated responses showed that 66.7 percent of the respondents from TAMDA referred to meetings and forums organised by community-based associations, such as religious, ethnic, and thematic associations. In CCM and MM, 58.9 percent and 65.3 percent, respectively agreed that there were either no platforms or they did not know of any avenues in their respective communities for expressing their developmental needs. Thus, the study showed that whereas most of the respondents in TAMD were familiar with expressing their developmental needs at forums and meetings, the majority of the respondents from CCMA and MMA were not aware of any platform for expressing their needs.

The association between the available platforms for needs expression/ identification and the respondents' resident districts was analysed for statistical significance. The idea was to determine whether the communities from which the respondents were sampled had a relation with the platforms that were made available for community members to make their developmental needs known to the District Assembly. The distribution of responses were associated with a Chi-square of 205.632 (df = 12; p-value = 0.001) and a Phi of 0.424, which revealed that, at an alpha level of 0.05, the association between the available platforms for needs expression/identification and the respondents' resident districts was relatively strong (Rea & Parker, 1992) and statistically significant.

The results, therefore, showed that the platforms for expressing one's developmental needs significantly differ in the three districts. A significant majority of the respondents in CCM (58.9%) and MM (61.9%) had no avenues to express their needs. The fundamental purpose of decentralisation, which is to use proximity of the Local Assembly to the community, as an advantage to elicit

the needs of the community (Kumi-Kyereme *et al.*, 2006; Muriisa, 2008; Schou, 2000) was not practical in CCMA and MMA.

Following this, the alignment of the development projects to the needs of the communities was in question because the results suggested a low rate of participation of community members in the needs identification of the Districts, especially in CCM and MM. Inferring from Kearns' (2003) and Papadopoulos' (2003) perspectives on the importance of needs identification by the District Assembly, this is likely to lead to the misalignment of the decision making, planning, budgeting, resource allocation processes and implementation of development interventions, monitoring and evaluation to local priorities (Crawford, 2004; Shah, 2006). As depicted by the conceptual framework (Figure 3) misalignment is a sign of poor or non participation and low responsiveness.

Another important aspect of responsiveness is equity in resource distribution, which is both a cause and consequence of responsiveness (Jones, 2009). Decentralisation is also founded on the principle of equity and thus, equitably responding to the needs of the local people represents the progress towards a functional decentralised system. Chen and Ravillion (2004) and Jones (2009) underscored the importance of equity to development and argue for people to be treated equally. In their opinion, equity requires creating more equal opportunities and reducing difference between groups of people to the barest minimum. As indicated in the conceptual framework equity in the distribution of resources, projects and investments contributes to responsiveness.

Table 22 presents the results on the respondents' perception of the fairness of responsiveness of their respective Assemblies to the developmental needs of community-based groups. The population of 1,143 household heads were covered for this analysis. The aggregate results showed that 43.3 percent of the respondents agreed that their Assemblies focused on the needs of a few groups within their communities, whereas 42.8 percent of the respondents disagreed and 13.9 percent indicated that they were not sure about the veracity of the statement. The implication was that more of the household heads were of the view that the Assemblies, in general, responded to the needs of a few groups. The elite theory by Besley (2007) and the conceptual framework portrays that a few specific groups have their basic needs met thereby leaving the majority deprived and this exacerbates poverty.

Table 22

Household Heads Perception of People and Groups Whom the Assembly is Responsive to their Developmental Needs

Responses	CCMA		MMA		TAMDA		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Agrees that the Assembly focus on needs of few	111	28.9	177	46.5	207	54.8	495	43.3
Disagrees the Assembly focus on needs of few	187	48.7	159	41.7	143	37.8	489	42.8
Don't know	86	22.4	45	11.8	28	7.4	159	13.9
Total	384	100	381	100	372	100	1143	100

Chi-square = 68.694; phi = 0.245; df = 4; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

However, the disaggregated results showed that whereas 54.8 percent of the respondents from TAMDA and 46.5 percent of those from MMA agreed that their Assemblies focused on the needs of a few groups within their communities, 48.7 percent of the respondents from CCM disagreed. The findings show that, in MM and TAMD, more of the respondents were inclined towards the perception that the Assemblies responded to the needs of a few groups in the communities. On the other hand, respondents from CCMA were more tuned to the idea that the Assembly responded fairly to the needs of the community groups.

The association between the respondents' resident Assembly and their perceptions about the equity in responsiveness to community groups was analysed using Pearson's Chi-square and its associated phi-statistics. For the distribution of responses in Table 22, a Pearson's Chi-square of 68.694 was reported with a phi-statistic of 0.245 (df = 4; p-value = 0.000). Based on Rea and Parker's (1992) categorisation of phi-statistic, the study deduced that the association between the respondents' perception of equity in responsiveness and their resident assemblies was moderately strong and also statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Therefore, it was established that the respondents' perceptions of equity in responsiveness would significantly differ from assembly to assembly.

In the context of this study, the objective of decentralisation to equitably distribute resources had some credence in CCM but not in MM and TAMD. The respondents who agreed that the district assemblies focused on the needs of a few groups were asked to identify the reason for such practices of the assemblies. This was important for the understanding of the fundamental issues

regarding unfair and inequitable responsiveness to the needs of the various groups in the districts. The results therefore covered the 495 respondents who indicated that the District Assembly focused on the needs of a few groups in the communities.

The results showed that 43.6 percent of the respondents gave the reason that the assemblies are politically influenced to allocate resources to a few groups in the district. Thus, political influence emerged as the most essential factor underlying inequity in responsiveness to the needs of the various groups in the Districts and communities. This finding is consistent with the political agency theory (Jenkins, 2007) which explains why political considerations influences inequity in the distribution of services and facilities. The respondents also mentioned the limited resources of the Assembly as one of the major reasons underlying the inequity of responsiveness of the District Assembly to community groups. The conceptual framework indicates that MMDAs have to overcome resource challenges among others in order to achieve responsiveness.

Table 23 showed that inequity in responsiveness of the District Assembly was underscored by favouritism, especially for the wealthy in society. This was indicated by 15.6 percent of the respondents, whereas 5 percent of the respondents noted that the inequity in responsiveness of the District Assembly was underscored by the Assemblies' focus on rural development, which led to the channelling of a small proportion of the districts' resources in favour of rural communities.

In the order of importance, therefore, the primary factors underlying the respondents' perception of inequity in the responsiveness of the Assemblies' to the needs of the community groups were political influence, the Assemblies'

limited resources, favouritism of rich societies and the focus of rural development. In the disaggregated results, it was found that the importance placed on the various reasons were not uniform across the Districts. In CCMA, 41.4 percent of the respondents identified the Assembly's limited resources as the more influential factor for the Assembly's unfairness in responsiveness to the community groups. On the contrary, more of the respondents in MMA (30.5%) and the majority in TAMDA (65.7%) pointed to political influence as the most significant factor underlying inequity in the responsiveness of their respective Assemblies to their communities' needs.

Table 23

Respondents' Perception on the Reason for the Assembly Responsiveness to the Needs of Specific Groups

Reason	CCMA f(%)	MMA f(%)	TAMDA f(%)	Total f(%)
Political influence	26(23.4)	54(30.5)	136(65.7)	216(43.6)
Assembly's resources	46(41.4)	52(29.4)	34(16.4)	132(26.7)
Favouritism	22(19.8)	36(20.3)	19(9.2)	77(15.6)
Focus on rural areas	11(10.0)	9(5.1)	6(2.9)	26(5.2)
Cannot tell	6(5.4)	26(14.7)	12(5.8)	44(8.9)
Total	111(100.0)	177(100.0)	207(100.0)	495(100.0)

Chi-square = 84.724; phi = 0.414; df = 8; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The association between the respondents' perceptions and their resident communities was analysed using Pearson's Chi-square and its associated Phi-statistic and p-value at 95 percent confidence level. A Pearson's Chi-square of

84.724 (df = 8; p-value = 0.000) with a Phi of 0.414, was reported for the distribution of data, as shown in Table 23. The implication, based on Rea and Parker's (1992) categorisation of Phi-statistics, was that a relatively strong and statistically significant association existed between the respondents' resident community and their perceptions of inequity of responsiveness to the developmental needs of community groups. Therefore, it was found that the reasons that underlay the respondents' perceptions of inequity of responsiveness to the developmental needs of community groups significantly differed based on their resident communities.

According to Ahwoi (2010), district assemblies are often heavily dependent on financial resources from the central government and are politically controlled by the central government. This makes the district assemblies susceptible to financial constrain when the central government changes funding policies or delays funding. Limited resources of the District Assemblies have been cited by Ahwoi (2010) as an important limitation on the performance of the District Assembly. According to MLGRD (2010), the Assemblies operate mainly with the DACF, DDF and internally generated funds. However, delays in the DACF and DDF and inefficiencies in revenue mobilisation at the local level can put serious constraints on the functioning of the District Assembly.

One of the critical issues that the study interrogated is which specific group's needs local governments respond to. The respondents were, therefore, asked to identify the groups which, in their view, had their needs mostly met and satisfied by local government. The perspectives shared are presented in Table 24. The percentages represent the proportion of the total respondents (1143) that subscribed to the identified groups.

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From Table 24, it was found that 79 percent of the respondents were of the view that the District Assemblies generally prioritised the needs of political parties above all other groups within the respective Assemblies. This view was emphasised by 80.6% of the respondents from TAMDA, 77.7 percent of respondents from MMA and 78.6 percent of those from CMMA. The perception that the needs of political parties' constituency leaders were the priority of the District Assembly was therefore shared by all the Assemblies that were studied.

Table 24

Perception of Responsiveness of MMDA to People's Needs

	Assembly			
	CCMA	MMA	TAMDA	Total
Groups	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
Political parties leaders	302(78.6)	296(77.7)	305(80.6)	903(79.0)
Government officials	250(65.1)	242(63.5)	179(47.3)	671(58.7)
Urban residents	60(15.7)	60(15.7)	100(26.4)	220(19.2)
Rural resident	80(20.8)	74(19.4)	50(13.2)	204(17.8)
Pro poor /PWDs	58(15.1)	64(16.7)	62(16.4)	184(16.1)
Elite in the community	150(39.3)	122(32.0)	178(47.0)	450(9.3)
Others (specify)	20(5.2)	30(7.87)	26 (6.87)	76(6.6)
	n=384	n= 381	n=378	n=1143

Note: (Multiple responses)

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

With the exception of the political parties, the aggregate results showed that the needs of government officials were given prominence over the other identified groups. This was indicated by 58.7 percent of the total number of respondents. Across the District Assemblies, 65.1 percent of the respondents from CCMA, 63.5 percent of the respondents from MMA and 47.3 percent of

those from TAMDA also indicated that, next to the needs of the constituent leaders of political parties, the needs of government officials were given prominence over the other identified groups. Hence, the results showed that needs of the government officials came second only to the needs of the political parties' constituency leaders, but the officials' needs were given prominence over all the other groups.

The above finding is consistent with the elitist theory by Gaventa (2007) which states that the needs of government officials get a response to the neglect of the needs of the majority of citizens in society, but inconsistent with equity as the officials allocate a large part of public resources for their own needs. According to Jones (2009), equal concern must be given to people's needs, and he argues that the level of needs should be the sole criterion for services such as health care, water, and basic education. These basic services are pre-requisites for people to take full part in society and as a result needs ought to be distributed based on very stark and firm criteria in order to respect people's common humanity.

In the order of importance, the respondents indicated that the Assembly catered for the needs of the urban residents (19.6), rural residents (17.8%) poor/ marginalised and people with disabilities (PWDs) (16.1%) and then the elite/rich communities (9.3%). The most prioritised groups, by the District Assemblies were thus the political parties' officials and the officials of the District Assemblies, according to the majority perception of the household heads. This indicated that most of the household heads felt that the needs of the residents, including the rural and urban, as well as rich and poor dichotomies were not adequately met by the District Assemblies. According to Crawford

(2004) and as illustrated in the conceptual framework local government must respond to the needs of all groups, but the results seem to indicate otherwise.

The responses of the household heads confirmed assertions established by the political agency theory that sometimes the interests of the public officials' conflict with the interests and preferences of the majority of citizens and electorates (Besley, 2007). The perception that the needs of political parties are prioritised above the needs of the Assembly and its residents corroborate the assumption of the theory that politicians behave in rent seeking, clientelistic and opportunistic ways to divert public resources and funds to personal and political party use contrary to public opinion and interest.

The key informants from the respective MMDAs interviewed held similar views as the household heads. They indicated that MMDAs are more responsive to political party and constituency leaders, government officials and local elite and the rich in the community and they are less responsive to the needs of the pro-poor i.e. marginalised, PWDs and the rural dwellers. Thus, the responses of the key informants also gave credence to the political agency theory's assumptions that local government officials and representatives prioritise their political interests over public interests (Gaventa, 2007).

The key informants further identified political interference, the superior authority of MDCEs' influence in decision making and resource allocation as influencing factors for the appropriation of community resources by the political parties, at the detriment of proper interventions to meet people's needs. In CCMA, a key informant expressed that "the MCEs and DCEs are too powerful and they have ultimate control over financial, human and logistic resources in the District Assembly". One key informant from TAMDA pointed out that

cronyism and clientelleism cannot be ruled out. The key informant explained that "cronyism and clientelleism are possible because the MCEs and DCEs offices are political appointments, which places the offices under the will of the political parties". This finding contradicts the claim that MCEs and DCEs are non-partisan.

The responses obtained from focused group discussions were also analysed in support of the responses of the household heads. The responses gathered from the PWDs group in all the communities indicated that the District Assemblies neither assessed nor catered for their development needs. In Saltpond, Mfantseman, Twifo Mampong, Twifo Praso, Abura, Victoria Park and Akotokyir, for example, the PWDs group identified employment or a source of regular income as their major developmental need, but appeals made through the Assembly to set up an artisanship/educational training centre for PWD, in Saltpond, Twifo Praso and Victoria Park had not been met. In Abura, the PWDs group indicated that the need to participate in the development process had been disregarded by the Social Welfare Department of the Metropolitan Assembly, which is the body responsible for their welfare.

The findings corroborated with ILO's (2011) indication that disabled people are less likely to be employed as compared to their non-disabled peers. This assertion explains the basis of the needs of the PWDs focus groups to gain employment or a livelihood. The findings that the needs of the PWDs were neither elicited by the Assembly nor catered for also confirmed the assertion that disabled people are often left out of development strategies and programmes, which leads not only to their exclusion from initiatives but also their marginalisation in community decision making (ILO, 2011).

The focus groups formed out of the Assembly Persons (APs) also expressed their perceptions on the Assemblies' progress on meeting their developmental needs in their respective communities. The APs concerns generally bordered on being under resourced to perform their primary task which was being the direct and primary liaison between the District Assemblies and the communities, including all sub-groups therein. The APs focus group for CCMA, for example, expressed that, among the government officials and representatives at the local level, they were the least resourced in terms of finance and logistics. The APs were convinced that, the development of the communities had direct link to the Assemblies and APs' resourcefulness. According to Capuano (2009), and as depicted by the conceptual framework, inadequate resources hinder their capacity to function well and be responsive.

The revelation that the political figures in the District Assemblies, notably the MCEs and DCEs, hold absolute power over the resources of the Assembly contradicts the idea of citizen control in the participation process, as outlined by Freire's (1973) theory of empowerment. In Zimmerman's (1995) conceptualisation of empowerment, a greater control of a community's resources by the majority of its members is ideal. Thus, placing absolute or near-absolute control and decision making authority in the MCEs and DCEs contradicts the ideal situation for empowering the local people. This has connotations for the participation of the local people in their own development, in that, without adequate control and decision making authority the perception and opinions of the local people will neither be represented in the community development plans nor in the implementation of those plans.

Braun and Grote (2000) and Mitlin (2000) believe that participatory local governments tend to be responsive governments, whereas Blair (2000) notes that participation is both an input to the building of accountability, and outcome of improved responsiveness and a sense of empowerment. In these respects, the practice that MCEs and DCEs usurp too much power, as noted by the key informants, is both a cause and a reflection of non-responsiveness of the District Assemblies. Theoretically, it is believed that decentralised local government, by virtue of its closeness to the people is more knowledgeable and informed on local situations and needs, and is better able to work and match its resources and interventions to local needs than the centre (Rondinnelli, 2007). Due to the principles of subsidiarity and correspondence, local people participate in the decisions and provision of services they consume.

The more people are involved and actively participate in decisions that affect them, the more likely local government authorities listen and tailor their interventions, and the more responsive they are perceived to be (Shah, 2007). In this study, however, the findings showed that ultimate control and decision making with respect to the application of the Assemblies' financial, logistic and human resources rest with the DCEs and MCEs, which was indicative of little participation of the community members, and Assembly persons in resource allocation in the Assemblies.

With regard to planning at the MMDA level, one of the key elements in the decentralised planning system is the participation of local communities in decision making that affects their livelihood (Geol, 2010). Accordingly, the district development planning process is expected to commence with the participation of the local communities in the identification of problems and

determination of goals and objectives from the unit committee level through the town/area/zonal councils to the DAs (Ahwoi, 2010). In order to ascertain the degree of community members' participation in needs identification the sampled household heads were asked to indicate their level of involvement in decision making in needs identification and their level of satisfaction.

Table 25 describes the participation of the respondents in needs identification in the communities, taking into consideration the gender perspectives on community participation. This was done on the basis that a study by Offei–Aboagye (2008), indicates that community participation is often gender sensitive, and in most cases, women are marginalised in community participation. Thus, the participation of men and women in the needs identification was analysed. The analysis covered a total of 1,084 respondents due to non-responses.

Overall, 33.1 percent of the respondents indicated that neither they nor the community members were involved in the identification of developmental needs of their respective communities. The situation was true for most of the males (61.3%) and females (68.1%) in CCMA as well as the majority of the males (64%) and females (87.6%) in MMA. In TAMDA, it was found that 43.8 percent of the males and 26.4 percent of the female respondents were of the perception that they were not in any way involved in identifying the developmental needs of their resident communities. This finding contradicts that of the conceptual framework which depicts that, adequate and accessible mechanisms and channels for participation and accountability allows citizens' voice to be heard and depending on receptiveness by local government will lead to responsiveness.

Forms of Participation in Needs Identification by Sex and District

Participation level	CCMA		MMA		TAMDA		Total
	Female f(%)	Male f(%)	Female f(%)	Male f(%)	Female f(%)	Male f(%)	f(%)
Manipulation: Not involved	109(68.1)	130(61.3)	92(87.6)	169(64.0)	63(43.8)	61(26.4)	624(56.0)
Decision made by officials/representatives	6(3.8)	16(7.6)	4(3.8)	18(6.8)	9(6.3)	30(13.0)	83(7.4)
Informing: Few people are consulted but suggestions are not reflected in decisions	17(10.6)	11(5.2)	3(2.9)	35(13.3)	40(27.8)	43(18.6)	149(13.4)
Consultation: Provide information and inputs for implementation	6(3.8)	7(3.3)	3(2.9)	11(4.2)	14(9.7)	35(15.1)	76(6.8)
Placation: Involved in decision making but contributions may not be implemented	0(0.0)	3(1.4)	3(2.9)	10(3.8)	8(5.5)	32(13.9)	56(5.0)
Partnership: Partnership and delegation, working with or through other stakeholders	22(13.8)	45(21.2)	0(0.0)	11(4.2)	7(4.8)	6(2.6)	91(8.1)
Delegation: Citizens are given optimum level of decision making	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(3.8)	3(2.1)	24(10.4)	37(3.3)
Total	160(100)	212(100)	105(100)	264(100)	144(100)	231(100)	1116(100)

Sources: Arnstein's Ladder of Participation (1965), Pretty's Typology of Participation (1995), Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

An additional 10.3 percent of the respondents also noted that decisions on needs identification were made solely by the District Assembly Officials or their representatives. This suggested that the community members were not involved in the needs identification and decision making process. Thus, in total, the study inferred that 43.1 percent of the respondents were not involved in identifying their own developmental needs. Based on Arnstein's (1969) participation ladder, this group operated on the level of manipulation, which is the lowest level of participation on the ladder

In the perspective of Pretty's (1995) frame for participation, it was found that 43.1 percent of the respondents were passive participants in the needs identification process. The fact that a little over two-fifths of the respondents were on the level of manipulation was contrary to the tenets of the rights-based theory that people and societies are the active subjects of their own development (Chambers, 2005). In Hur's (2006) view, a manipulative state represents a fundamental level of disempowerment of the local population and approach to development where there is likelihood that development projects and interventions will not reflect the needs of the populace is high.

Non-involvement in needs identification, according to Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1995), disallows the local populace participation and control of their own development, which also breaches the tenets of decentralisation by de-localising development of the local people. The remaining respondents, therefore, agreed that they were involved in the needs identification of their Districts in one form or the other. Generally, 22.1 percent of the respondents asserted that a few people are consulted on the needs identification but their suggestions are often not reflected in community projects.

Others also indicated that some community members are allowed to make some inputs into the planning phase of community development plans, which also involved the identification of community needs. This represented the level of consultation, whereas 10.7 percent indicated that they were involved in decision making process in a two-way dialogue, but their contributions may not be implemented. Thus, 10.7 percent of the respondents participated on the level of placation, according to Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation, and on the level of consultation, according to Pretty's (1995) frame. Generally, however, Ahwoi categorises both levels of participation as low. Given that non-involvement, consultation (Arnstein, 1969) and manipulation (Pretty, 1995) are low levels of participation, the study inferred that 53.8 percent of the respondents expressed that their participation in needs identification was low.

Following this, 13.5 percent of the respondents were of the view that they were engaged in partnership and delegation, working with or through other stakeholders in decision making and implementation of interventions. In CCMA, 21.2 percent of the males and 13.8 percent of the females responded that they were engaged on the level of partnership, according to Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation. In MMA none of the females were at the partnership level, but 4.2 percent of the males were identified to be participating at the level of partnership. The proportions of males (2.6%) and females (4.9%) at the partnership level in TAMDA were also low. At the delegation level, only 7.2 percent of the respondents were of the view that they were given ultimate decision making authority over their needs identification.

According to the United Nations (2005) cited in Ghose et al. (2006), participation implies peoples' involvement in decision making, implementation

and sharing in the benefits. This idea is a fundamental basis for a decentralised planning process, which aims to engender citizens' participation in all stages of the development process (European Commission, 2004). From this perspective, the study found that generally citizenship participation was not honoured as part of the decentralised system of governance either at the general District level, or from a gender perspective.

According to Heywood (1997), participation entails the sustainability and effectiveness of the local government in providing opportunities for citizens to participate in the political life of their community. The assertion that decentralisation will be more responsive to the needs of ordinary citizens is premised on the notion that local more participatory forms of government actively will offer more than just greater effectiveness in promoting development (Crawford, 2004; Shah 2006). As depicted by the conceptual framework (Figure 3) the low level of participation of the local people in their needs identification is therefore a breach of this assumption, which suggests that the effectiveness in promoting a responsive government in the study area was questionable. The results from the study clearly indicate both means of eliciting citizens direct participation are being undermined and underutilised.

The participation of the key informants in the district planning process was also examined. In an interview with some key informants at the MMDA level, they indicated that they rather consult the communities through their elected representatives and assembly persons. They do so by asking them to forward the needs of communities in their respective electoral areas to the area council office for collation and forward them to MPCU or DPCU for coordination. From the responses, it was noted that the draft list of needs is

prepared by M/DPCU and sent to the statutory sub-committees, namely development planning, social services and works sub committees for further deliberations and prioritisation. Heads of department (HODs) are ex officio members of the sub committees to avail their technical comments and inputs. . At a General Assembly meeting, the draft plan is presented to the house for deliberations and approval. This document is sent to the RCC for harmonisation and forwarded to the NDPC. As indicated by the conceptual framework, participation in the MTDP is expected to be responsive to local needs.

The key informants noted that the development planning process supports the combination of both direct citizens' participation at the community level with that of representatives to achieve the intended objectives and outcomes of participation. However, the platforms made available for the community members to express their needs were through public hearings that are organised by the assemblies at the area council level. This practice denies a number of communities outside the area council capital from effectively participating in the process. This partly explains why the majority of the respondents said they were not aware of avenues for expressing their development needs and have never participated in any needs identification forum. It was therefore inferred that participation in the decentralised decision making and planning process is not up to the desired levels.

In Chambers' (1983) opinion, participation includes empowering the grassroots and giving basis for direct participation among the grassroots. However, from the narrations of the key informants, it was noted that right from the needs identification phase of the Districts' planning process, most of the household heads and by extension, the community members are neither directly

nor indirectly involved, which indicates some form of disempowerment of the local people in the control and determination of their development agenda. This practice, according to Lockwood (2006), centralises power into the hands of a few, thereby, increasing the likelihood of incongruence between the preferences of citizens and their representatives.

As illustrated by the conceptual framework, power in the hands of a few officials and elite implies that citizens do not have their voices heard. In this respect responsiveness and accountability are missing elements in the relationship between the elite and the disempowered citizens'. According to Gaventa (2007) and as depicted by the conceptual framework (Figure 3) voice is a critical element of good governance. However, the study did not find any strong e vidence that participation in decision making and needs identification led to MMDAs being more responsive to citizens needs.

Chapter Summary

The priority developmental needs of households and communities in the study districts have been identified as sanitation, jobs, market, roads, water and clinic and classified as survival, safety and security, and enablement needs. Application of Arnstein ladder and Pretty's typology of participation to needs determination revealed that majority of the people are not adequately involved, hence the perception of inequity and unfairness in the distribution of development interventions. The next chapter discusses responsiveness of the local government structures to the needs of households and communities and accountability of the local government institutions and structures to the people.

CHAPTER SIX
RESPONSIVENESS TO DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS AND ACCOUNTABILITY TO THE CITIZENS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion on responsiveness of the local government system to the developmental needs in the Central Region, and utilisation of accountability mechanisms, under the third and four objectives and the corresponding questions they addressed. In discussing the results and their policy implications for responsive and accountable governance and local level development, due reference has bee n made to the relevant literature reviewed in chapters two and three, and the conceptual framework.

The chapter, therefore, aims to establish the interrelationships that exist among participation, responsiveness and accountability. It examines general responsiveness, that is, the congruence between the development priorities per the MTDP and household needs from the survey results, while institutional responsiveness measures citizens' satisfaction with local government's organisational performance, services delivery and outcomes. The practical and theoretical significance of the results are also discussed in the subsequent sections of the chapter. The chapter also discusses challenges to MMDAs responsiveness and offers suggestions for improvement.

According to Andrew and Shah (2007) and as illustrated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3), responsiveness can be classified into general responsiveness and institutional responsiveness. The former measures the perception of congruence between local government policies and programmes and resource allocation on one hand, while the latter measures citizens'

satisfaction with the institutional and organisational performance as well as outputs of local government.

Perceptions of Local Government Responsiveness to Community Needs and Services Delivery

In the previous chapter, community and household needs and preferences were established and the extent of peoples' participation in their determination discussed. In the above context, Table 18 established the current community developmental needs while Tables 19, 20 and 21 established the preferences of women and men respondents in CCM, MM and TAMD. Crook and Manor (1998) and Kumi-Kyereme et al., (2006) in their study of responsiveness in Ghana, used congruence between government policies and plans, and community needs and service provision, vulnerable groups and satisfaction. A similar approach to assessing responsiveness through congruence, satisfaction with local government institutional performance and overall satisfaction with local government is adopted by this study.

The results of analysis on congruence are presented qualitatively as and then quantitatively. The qualitative assessment of congruence compares the development policies and priorities as stated in the MTDP 2010-2013 document, with the household survey results, in order to establish the degree of harmony or disharmony, similarity or dissimilarity. The quantitative aspect measures household respondents' perception of congruence. In line with establishing congruence between the local government plans, the priority needs in the MTDP of the three MMDAs were compared with the respective community priority needs from the household survey results and analysed. Table 26 presents the

satisfaction with the institutional and organisational performance as well as outputs of local government.

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Table 27

Congruence between MTDP 2010-2013 Priorities, Budgets and Community Needs and Preferences - CCMA

MMDAs	Rank /Community Needs and preferences	4 Yr. MTDP priorities (2010-2013)	Resource allocation-provision made in budgets from 2010 to 2013for implementation	Findings-remarks and conclusion
CCMA	1 Sanitation	Sanitation covered in MTDP and MESSAP Metro. Environmental Sanitation Strategic Action Plan	Provision made in 2010-2013 budget for implementation	Congruent: sanitation needs /preference aligned to MTDP and annual budgets 2010 -2013
	2 Market	Market in MTDP /AAP 2012	Local /Central government	Congruent: market need /preference is aligned to MTDP and budget community need /preference
	3 Roads	Roads/bridges	Local /Central government	
	4 Drains and gutters	Not mentioned in MTDP	Environment and sanitation	
	5. Streetlights	Maintenance of streetlights	MTDP has no provision for maintenance	community need preference for streetlights matches MTDP and budget misaligned incongruent
			Budget exist for general	

Sources: CCMA MTDP 2010-2013, Annual Budgets 2010-2013 and Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

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As gleaned from the 4 year MTDP 2010-2013 Table 28, the test for congruence was done qualitatively by comparing the two data sets, i.e. the survey results and the MTDP priorities and making an inference on the degree of congruence. Congruence implies that the priorities as indicated in the MTDP matched with those of the survey results. The result revealed that in CCMA, sanitation, markets and roads' needs were congruent with the MTDP. It was however, incongruent with streetlight maintenance and repairs and cleaning drains and gutters because they were not captured in the medium term plan.

In Mfantseman municipality, the priority needs according to the MTDP were poor condition of internal roads, inadequate accommodation for teachers, poor sanitary conditions and inadequate health facilities. Table 28 presents the result of congruence between MMA MTDP priorities from 2010-2013 and community and household needs and preferences. In MMA the survey result indicates that job creation was not mentioned in the medium term development plan at all, therefore it was incongruent with the MTDP priorities.

The above finding can be further explained that although every MMDA is responsible for policy formulation and facilitating local economic development by creating the enabling environment for the private sector to develop, they are not directly responsible for creating jobs. It was also found out that provision for schools, roads and clinics had been made in MTDP and the budget but the projects had not been implemented or implementation was ongoing or had delayed. Thus, the MMA was not very responsive to community developmental needs.

Table 28

Congruence between Development Priorities, Budgets and Community Needs and Preferences - MMA

Rank /Community needs and preferences	4 Yr. MTDP priorities (2010-2013) Annual Action Plan 2010-13	Resource allocation-provision made in budgets from 2010 to 2013 for implementation	Findings Remarks conclusion
1 Jobs (employment generation)	Job creation not mentioned in MTDP 2010-13	Budget exists for private sector and local economic development	MTDP and not aligned to budget community preference not addressed
2Sanitation (toilet, refuse)	Metro Environmental strategic Action Plan		Preferences in sanitation aligned to MTDP.
3 Roads (transport)	community need in MTDP and AAP budget exists	Road sector is aligned to MTDP and budget for 2010-2013	Project has not been implemented and need is unmet. MMA deemed unresponsive to road needs
4. School (education)	Provision made for schools in MTDP 2010-13	Provision made for schools in MTDP/AAP and budget exist	Untimely release of funds
5. Hospital/clinic (health)	Provision made for health facilities in MTDP	budget exist	MTDP not aligned to budget. project not implemented

Sources: MMA MTDP 2010-2013, Annual Budgets 2010-2013 and Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

As shown earlier in Table 17 the community priority needs, and the priority developmental needs gleaned from TAMDA MTDP 2010-2013 and indicted in Table 26, respectively, were merged and compared, and analysed for congruence. The congruent needs were those that had been stated by the community members and which were being or had been implemented by the MMDAs. Table 28 presents the result of congruence between TAMDA MTDP priorities and community needs from the field survey. In TAMDA, community priority needs, in terms of sanitation, water and market, were congruent with MTDP. Moreover, provisions for roads construction had been made in the MTDP, but the project had not been implemented. Similarly, a budget allocation for the construction of a clinic had been made, but the project had not been implemented. Three of the five priority needs of the communities were found to be congruent with the MTDP.

In all three Assemblies, the disaggregated needs of communities were congruent with priorities in the MTDP in most cases. The conceptual framework (Figure 3) indicates that a responsive government matched resource allocation with needs of the local people. In this respect, it was inferred that CCMA and TAMDA were somewhat responsive to the needs of the local populace, whereas MMA was not responsive to community priority needs. Wolman (1997) cited in Kee (2003) observes that in order to promote greater responsiveness of local officials with its associated greater accountability to citizens, decentralisation places much emphasis on allocation of decision-making closer to the people. This is so because local decision makers are expected to be informed of the problems and needs of their jurisdiction as compared to their central counterparts.

Following the arguments of Oates (1993) and Oluwu (1989) the priorities of local communities might differ from those considered to be important by the national government in some cases. Comparison of central and local preferences is therefore difficult. Local government spending therefore tends to be directed towards the provision of certain public goods and services, such as primary education and health care. In line with Rondinelli, Cheema and Nellis (1983) argument, the study asserts that decentralisation externally will lead to more responsiveness towards the local community.

However, internally, lack of capacity within the local administration will reduce the level of responsiveness of local government (MMDA) and political system. This was confirmed by the study. The needs in economic empowerment were not met. MMDAs lack the requisite institutions to deal with such needs as the department of trade and industry at the MMDA level is yet to be operationalised (MLGRD, 2009).

One of the objectives of adopting decentralisation in Ghana was that it will make local government respond to local needs and concerns promptly. How long it takes an assembly to respond to community requests and needs is indicative of its responsiveness. Vigoda (2002b) measured responsiveness by speed and prompt attention with which local government acts to meet the needs and requests of local people. Respondents were asked how long they generally had to wait for assembly's response to their needs. Table 30 presents the results on the promptness of the Assembly's response to community needs.

Table 30

Perception of Promptness of the Assemblies Response to Community Needs

Waiting time in years	CCMA F (%)	MMA F (%)	TAMDA F (%)	Total F (%)
Less than 1 (very short)	6(1.6)	13(3.4)	13(3.4)	32(2.8)
1 – 2.9 (short)	10(2.6)	3(0.8)	17(4.5)	30(2.6)
3 – 3.9 (moderately long)	51(13.3)	17(4.5)	3(0.8)	71(6.2)
4 – 4.9 (long time)	34(8.9)	34(8.9)	39(10.3)	107(9.4)
5 and more (very long)	221(57.5)	278(73.0)	273(72.2)	772(67.5)
Don't know	62(16.1)	36(9.4)	33(8.7)	131(11.5)
Total	384(100.0)	381(100.0)	378(100.0)	1143(100.0)

Chi-square = 84.021; Phi = 0.271; df = 10; p-value = 0.000

Source: Filed survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The results showed that 67.5 percent of the sampled respondents indicated that they had to wait five or more years for the District Assembly to respond to their requests. The disaggregated results showed that across the districts, 72.2 percent of the respondents from TAMDA, 73 percent from MMA, and 57.6 percent of the respondents from CCMA also confirmed that they had to wait for five years or more for the District Assembly to respond to their requests. Based on the categorisation of the responses, the majority of respondents indicated that they had to wait for a long time for their requests to be granted. In contrast, only 2.8 percent of the respondents obtained their requests or had their needs granted in less than one year.

The association between the waiting time for respondents' requests to be granted and their respective district of residence was analysed using Pearson's Chi-square and the associated Phi value. It was found that the distribution of the responses was associated with a Chi-square of 84.021 and a phi of 0.271 (df = 10; p-value = 0.000). Based on the Rea and Parker's (1992) categorisation of phi-statistics, the results showed that the association between the waiting time and the districts was moderately strong and also statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05.

The study, therefore, established that the responses on the waiting time for addressing the needs of the respondents differed significantly from district to district. This further translated that, in comparison with CCMA, a significant majority of the respondents in TAMDA and MMA waited a very long time before their requests to the District Assembly were granted. Based on the assertion that responsiveness encompasses speed and prompt attention with which local government acts to meet the needs and requests of local people, as emphasised by the conceptual framework, the study emphasised that the majority of the household heads thought that the assembly is not responsive to their needs and concerns.

The general assertion of the household heads was corroborated by the assembly persons. Assembly members believed that the staff of the assemblies was too slow in responding to the needs of the local people. From the focus group discussions, the assembly persons accused assembly staff of poor implementation of the Assembly's decisions. The discussions revealed that delays in implementing the Assemblies' decisions and the actions taken to solve community problems were some of the fundamental reasons for untimeliness of

responses to community requests. The findings corroborate Ahwoi's (2010) observation that development is that which responds to the needs and problems of the communities.

The responsiveness of the District Assembly to the needs of the PWDs was analysed on the basis that Crook and Manor (1991) cite responsiveness to the needs of the vulnerable as an important element of the development process. Moreover, the conceptual framework establishes that responsiveness to the poor and vulnerable is central to the overall responsiveness to development needs. ILO (2011) also indicated that the needs of PWDs are often overlooked in development policies, and even when their needs are speculated in the development plan, they are often not implemented.

The distribution of results in Table 31 seeks to authenticate or dispute these assertions about the needs of PWDs in the District Development Plan. The analysis covered 1,143 respondents and the results indicated that, overall, 42.3 percent of the respondents were of the view that the District Assembly was not responding to the needs of the PWDs appropriately. This was confirmed by 50.4 percent of the respondents from MMA and 45 percent of those from TAMDA. On the contrary, 58.6 percent of the respondents indicated that they could not tell if the needs of the PWDs were being responded to by the District Assembly. However, in CCMA, the percentage of respondents (31.5%) who agreed that the District Assembly was not catering for he needs of the PWDs, was greater than those who had opposing views (9.9%).

Table 31

Perception of Responsiveness to the Needs of the Vulnerable

Responsiveness	CCMA f (%)	MMA f (%)	TAMDA f (%)	Total f (%)
Well	7(1.8)	37(9.7)	82(21.7)	126(11.0)
Fairly well	31(8.1)	22(5.8)	46(12.2)	99(8.7)
Not well	121(31.5)	192(50.4)	170(45.0)	483(42.3)
Can't tell	225(58.6)	130(34.1)	80(21.1)	435(38.0)
Total	384(100.0)	381(100.0)	378(100.0)	1143(100.0)

Chi-square = 168.315; Phi = 0.384; df = 6; p-value = 0.000

Source: Filed survey data, Bamfo (2013)

A Chi-square of 168.315 and a phi of 0.384 (df = 6; p-value = 0.000) were reported for the distribution of responses, which showed that the respondents' perceptions of the assemblies' responsiveness to the needs of the PWDs had a moderately strong association with their resident districts and also statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. The implication was that the respondents' views on the assemblies' responsiveness to the needs of the PWDs differed significantly among the districts. In that respect, the general perceptions about the assemblies' responsiveness to the needs of the PWDs in MMA and TAMDA were that the assemblies were not responsive to the needs of the PWDs. However, most of the respondents in CCMA were ignorant of the Assembly's responsiveness to the needs of the PWDs.

The perceptions of the household heads were confirmed by the PWDs in focus group discussions in nine communities in the study areas. The PWDs emphasised that the provisions in the Disability Act 767 were not being enforced

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by local governments. This confirmed ILO's (2011) assertion that in many developing countries, policies for disability inclusion do not always exist, and where they do exist they are not always implemented. Following this, the PWDs explained that the Act was to encourage building plans that allow physical access to public places and buildings, but these have not been enforced country-wide. The PWDs also pointed to mismanagement of the DACF's for the vulnerable and also mentioned that they received little or no benefits from the fund.

According to Bardhan and Mookherjee (2006), decentralisation in developing countries can bring disadvantages. When the mechanisms of local accountability are relatively weak, local elites can capture the process of public service delivery and disfavour the poor and vulnerable. In the context of this study, such benefits were not likely to be obtained, given that the respondents' perceptions, especially in MMA and TAMDA hold true. The conceptual framework also emphasised the importance of responding to the needs of the PWDs and the vulnerable to the overall responsiveness of the needs of the local people. In that respect, the results indicate that the District Assemblies were not completely responsive to the needs of the PWDs and the vulnerable.

The MMDAs are expected to be responsive to the needs of all groups in the community and discharge their duties equitably (Jones, 2009). Therefore, the study asked respondents' views on what they perceive MMDAs are doing to address their community's developmental needs. The results are presented in Table 32. A total of 1,116 respondents indicated their perception on what their respective assemblies were doing to cater for their development needs.

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Table 32

Perceptions of what the MMDA is doing to Address Household and Community Needs

Action of Assembly	CCMA (n=369)		MMA n=378		TAMDA (n=369)		Total (n=1121)	
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
Needs are not addressed	162	43.9	18	4.7	253	68.6	433	38.8
No knowledge of what MMDA is doing to address needs	85	23.0	292	77.2	39	10.5	416	37.3
Doing something but not enough	4	1.1	28	7.4	17	4.6	49	4.4
Doing the best to address needs	52	14.1	27	7.2	53	14.4	132	11.8
Plans and resources allocation	28	7.6	3	0.8	7	1.9	38	3.4
Implementing projects	35	9.5	6	1.6	0	0.0	41	3.7
Abandoned projects	3	0.8	4	1.1	0	0.0	7	0.6
Total	369	100	378	100	369	100	1,116	100

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

According to Crook and Manor (1998), institutional responsiveness provides an opportunity to people, service users, and beneficiary communities to express their level of satisfaction with local government institutions performance and services delivered. Following this, the respondents were asked to express their level of satisfaction with the services and infrastructure provided in their communities. This was a measure of responsiveness under laid by the individual's evaluation of the extent to which the services provided by the Assembly met his/her needs. The services were community specific and thus, they were analysed from the perspective of respondents in the different communities. The respondents were asked to indicate whether the DA's interventions matched their priority needs. Figure 17 presents the results on CCMA.
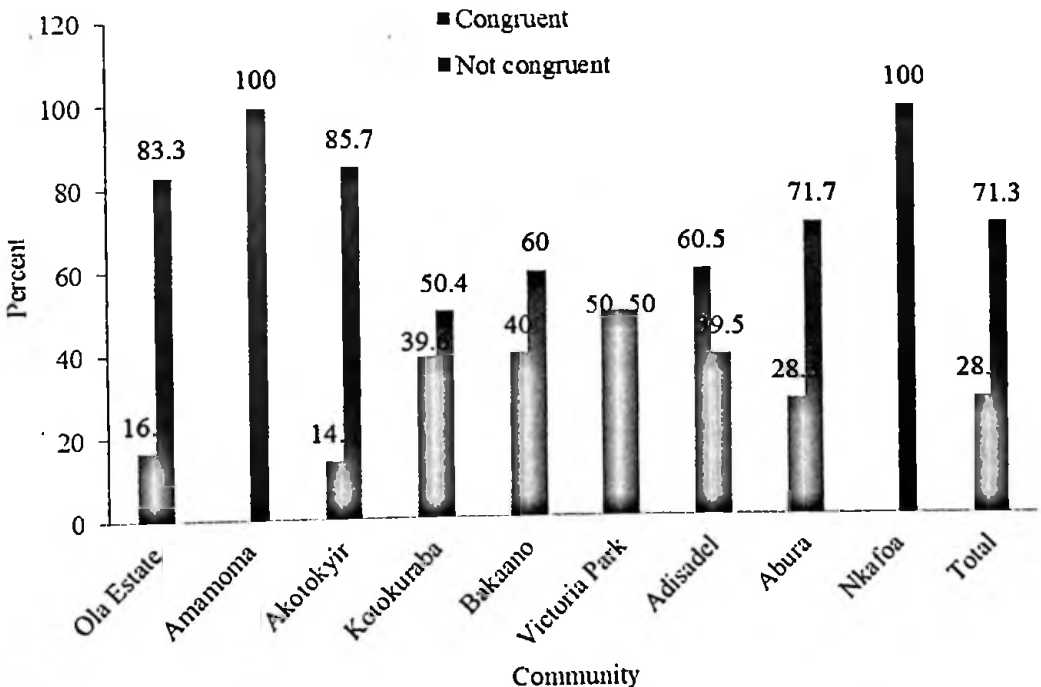
Figure 17: Perception of Congruence between Community Needs and Service Provision by the CCMA

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

It was found that 71.3 percent of the respondents indicated that the CCMAs interventions were not congruent with their priority needs. For example, all the respondents in Amamona and Nkafoa, as well as most of the respondent in Akotokyir (85.7%) and Abura (71.7%) noted that the DA's interventions were not meeting the priority needs in their respective communities, whereas most of the respondents in Adisadel (60.5%) contradicted the assertion that DA's were not meeting their community priority needs
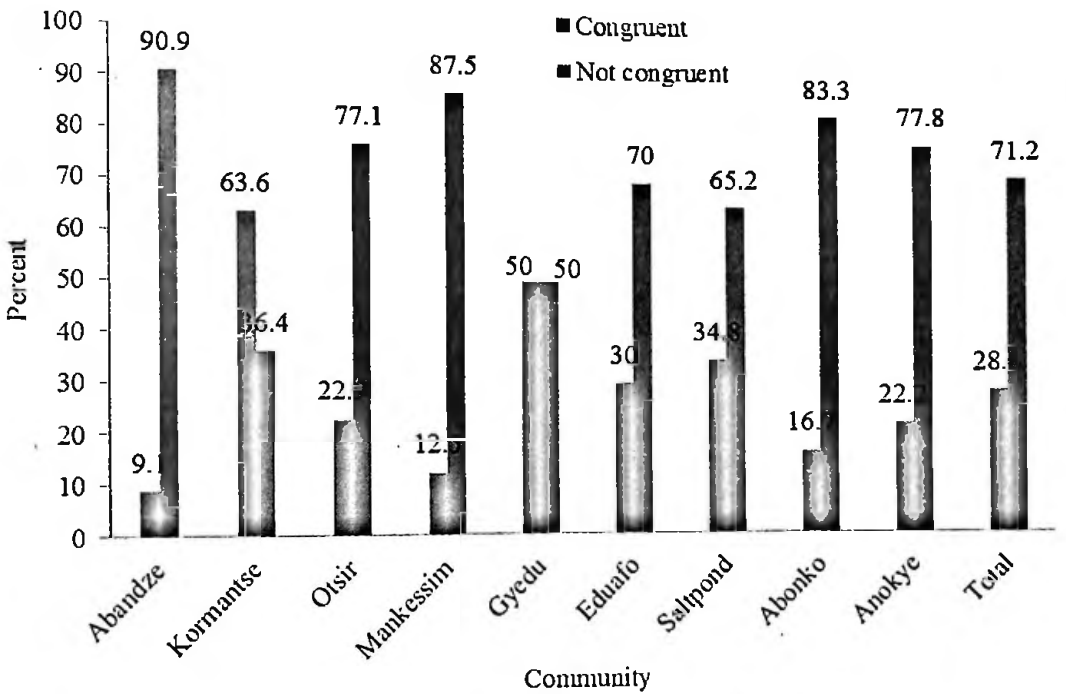
Figure 18: Perception of Congruence between Community Needs and

Service Provision by the MMA

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The study sought out any association between the respondents' resident community and their perception of the congruence between their needs and service provision by the district assembly. Figure 18 presents the results for MMA. It was found that the distribution of responses was associated with Pearson's Chi-square of 46.715 (df = 8; p-value = 0.000) and a

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phi of 0.379, which indicated that the relationship being examined was moderately strong and statistically significant. In MMA, it was noted that 71.2 percent of the respondents held the perception that the DA was not responsive to their community needs.

In the disaggregated results, majority of the respondents in communities, such as Abandze, Mankessim, Abonko and Anokye indicated that the DA's interventions were not matched with the priority needs of the respective communities. However, in Kormantse, most (63.6%) of the respondents asserted that the DA's interventions were congruent with their priority needs..
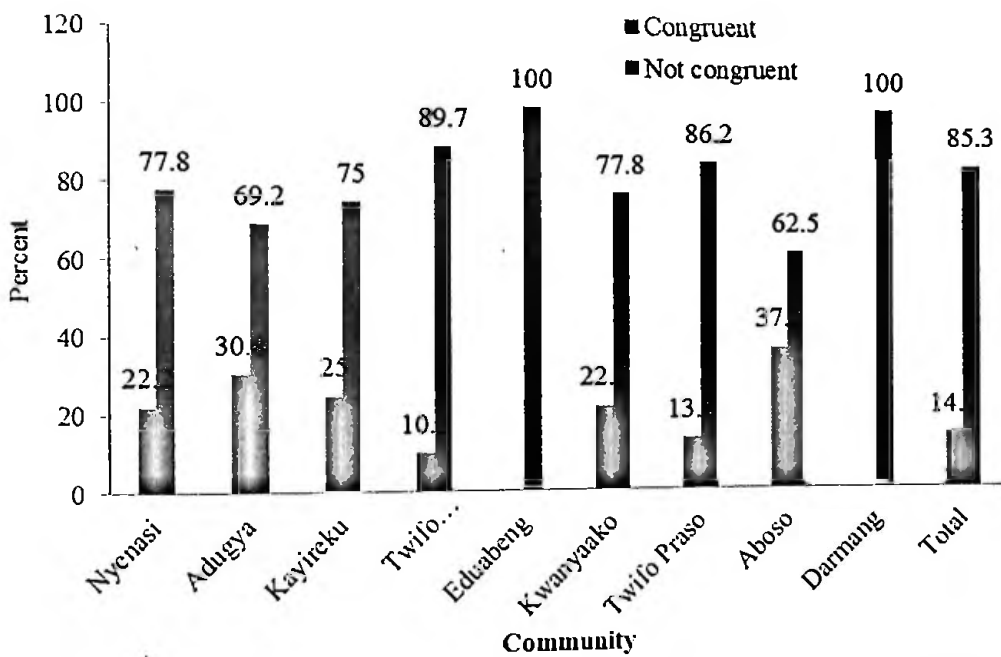
Figure 19: Perception of Congruence between Community Needs and Service Provision by the TAMDA

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

Further statistical analysis revealed that the distribution of responses was associated with Pearson's Chi-square of 73.455 (df = 8; p-value = 0.000) and a phi of 0.472, which indicated that the relationship between the

respondents' perception and their community of residence was moderately strong and statistically significant

The overall responses obtained from TAMDA showed that the majority (85.3%) of the respondents thought that the interventions implemented by the DA were not responsive to the priority needs of the District. In this, district most of the respondents from all the sampled communities noted that the DA's interventions were not responsive to their community priority needs. For example, all the respondents from Eduabeng and Darmang, as well as most of the respondents from Twifo Mampong (89.7%), Twifo Praso (86.2%), and Nyenasi (77.8%) expressed that the DA's interventions were not responsive to their community priority needs.

The study attempted to establish the statistical significance of the relationship between the respondents' perceptions and their resident communities in the district. The statistics showed that the distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson's Chi-square of 28.983 (critical χ^2 value = 15.507; df = 8; p-value = 0.000) and a phi of 0.287, which indicated that the relationship being examined was relatively strong and statistically significant.

The results corroborated those of other studies which indicate that, usually, in most developing countries, government policies and community needs do not always match, leaving gaps at the local level and unsatisfied citizens (Koethenbuerger, 2007; UNDP, 2008). The conceptual framework also emphasised the congruence of needs and service provision as a major measure of responsiveness, and in that respect, the study found that the

Assemblies were not adequately responsive to the needs of community members in most of the communities studied.

Responsiveness also encompasses the satisfaction of the local people with the performance of local government institutions and services delivered (Crook & Manor, 1991; Fried & Rabinovitz, 1980). The satisfaction of the local people suggests that their needs are being or have been responded to, whereas their dissatisfaction points to gaps and incongruence between their needs and interventions meant to satisfy those needs. The services examined included educational, health, water, sanitation, market and transport services. For each area of services provided by the District Assembly, the availability, accessibility and satisfaction ratings were analysed.

Sanitation was the most prioritised need of the communities studied and as such, the responsiveness of the local government to the sanitation concerns of the citizens was salient to this study. On this premise, the respondents were asked to indicate if there were sanitation facilities, such as refuse dumps, toilets and proper drainages on their respective communities. The results, as presented in Figure 20, were disaggregated by district. It was found that, overall, 72.5 percent of the respondents noted that there were sanitation facilities in their respective communities, per the direction of the question which was towards the availability of toilets, refuse dumps and drainages. In CMMA (81.5%) and MMMA (81.5%), most of the respondents asserted that such sanitation facilities were available in their respective communities.

In TAMDA, the percentage (54.1%) of respondents that indicated the presence of such facilities in their communities was lesser than that found in

CCMA and MMA. The results correspond with the fact that CCMA and MMA are more urban than TAMDA and thus, it was more likely to find sanitation facilities, in CCMA and MMA than TAMDA. This assertion is made on the basis that both private and public sanitation services are sensitive to population rates, based on population threshold requirements for the location of sanitation facilities by the District Assemblies.
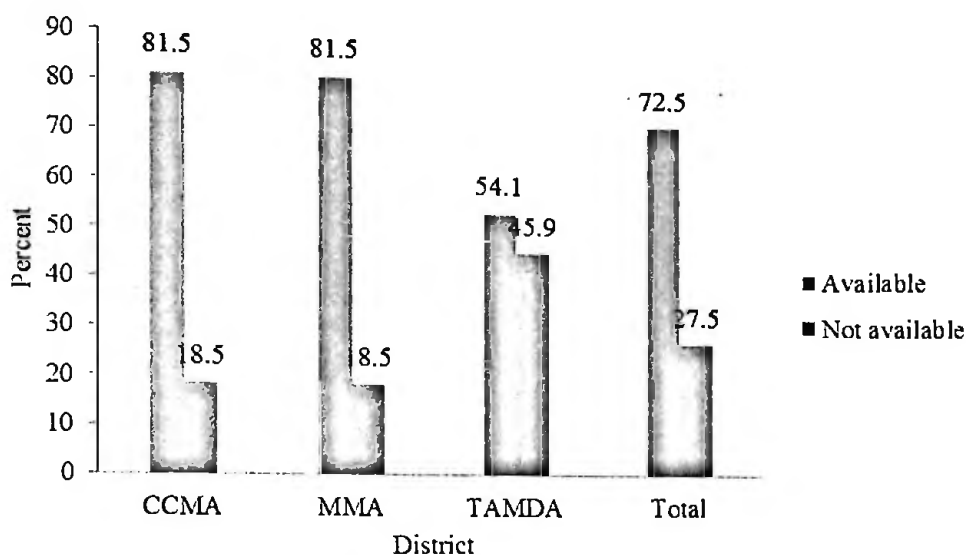
Figure 20: Availability of Sanitation Facilities

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

According to WHO (2000), sanitation coverage is much lower in rural areas than urban areas and indicated that, in Africa 84 percent of urban and 45 percent of rural residents have access to basic sanitation. Poor sanitation practices and inadequate sanitation are a major cause of disease burden in most developing countries. In this case, the full health benefits would not be realised without proper sanitation and hygiene (WHO, 2012).

The respondents were required to rate their accessibility to and their satisfaction with the sanitation facilities in their respective communities. This

formed the basis for comparing the availability to the accessibility of sanitation facilities in the various districts. The importance of this analysis is founded in the thought that the available facilities may be geographically or financially inaccessible to the citizens. Thus, the expected benefit or intended use of the facilities by the local populace would not be realised.

The results in Table 33 show that 47.4 percent of the respondents in CCMA gave equal ratings to satisfaction with and accessibility to sanitation facilities in their respective communities. On the other hand, only 19.3 percent of the respondents noted that the facilities were available but not accessible. The differences in these ratings was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05, given a z-score of -4.579 and corresponding p-value of 0.000. In CCMA, therefore, sanitation facilities were accessible to a significantly high percentage of the population.

In MMA, the study showed that 24.3 percent of the respondents gave higher satisfaction ratings than accessibility ratings. On the other hand, 38.6 percent of respondents rated the accessibility of sanitation facilities higher and 37 percent rated accessibility and satisfaction equally. This was similar to the case of CCMA where smaller number of respondents could not access the available sanitation facilities. In TAMDA, similar findings were also made, where a higher percentage (46.9%) of the respondents rated accessibility to and satisfaction with sanitation facilities equally. Generally, the results depicted that the available sanitation facilities were satisfactorily accessible by most of the respondents in each of the districts studied. This suggested that the district assemblies were responsive to the sanitation needs of the citizens.

Table 33

Differences in Scores for Satisfaction with and Accessibility of Sanitation Facilities

District	f(%)	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z-score	p-value
CCMA	95(33.3)[a]	84.29	8007.50	-4.579	0.000
	55(19.3)[b]	60.32	3317.50		
	135(47.4)[c]				
MMA	94(38.6)[a]	84.71	7962.50	-3.973	0.000
	59(24.3)[b]	64.72	3818.50		
	90(37.0)[c]				
TAMDA	79(35.2)[a]	57.65	4554.50	-2.690	0.007
	40(17.9)[b]	64.64	2585.50		
	105(46.9)[c]				
Total	268(32.0)[a]	141.50	32262.00	-5.378	0.000
	154(21.6)[b]	272.46	41888.00		
	330(46.4)[c]				

[a] Accessibility > Availability; [b] Accessibility < Availability; [c] Accessibility = Availability

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

In the analysis of the responsiveness to the educational needs of the respondents, the surrogates for the educational services provided by the District Assemblies were availability, accessibility and satisfaction with schools provided by the assemblies in the district. The availability of schools in the various districts was analysed according to the respondents' perceptions. Schools represent an essential component in the educational system, and they also fall within the category of safety needs under Maslow's (1965) needs

hierarchy. Availability of schools, as a variable was considered because it was fundamental to the accessibility of schools.
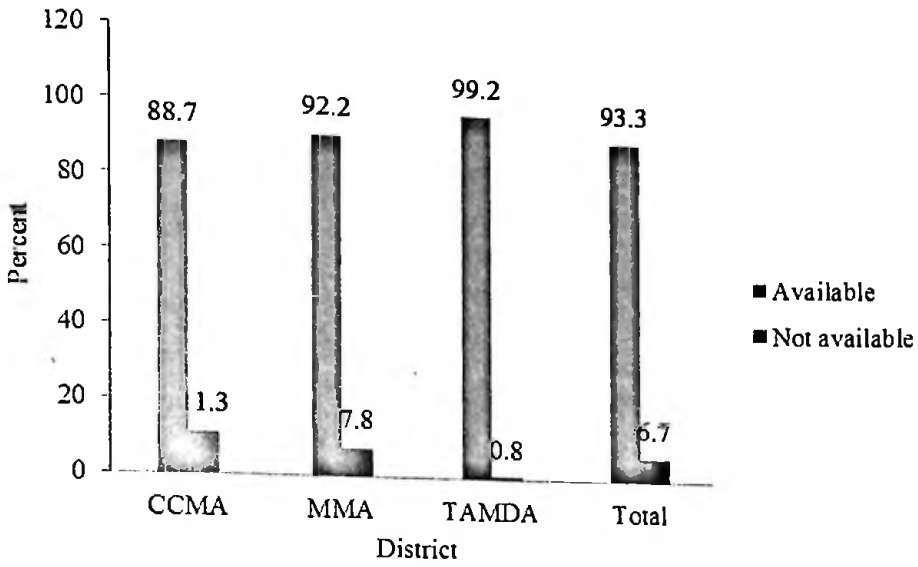
Figure 21: Availability of Schools

Source: Field survey data Bamfo (2013)

It was found that 93.3 percent of all the respondents indicated that there were schools available in their respective communities, whereas 6.7 percent disagreed (Figure 21). In all the area councils, most of the respondents confirmed that there were schools available. This indicated that all the district assemblies had made considerable attempts to provide schools that could be used by communities in each area council.

In CCMA (88.7%), MMA (92.2%), and TAMDA (99.2%), the majority of the respondents indicated that there were schools available in their district. This is indicative of the fact that the various district profiles elaborate that the individual districts are endowed with several schools. For example, the Twifo-Hemang-Lower Denkyira District Assembly (THLDDA, 2009)

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reports that there are 199 pre-schools (Nursery/Kindergarten), 135 primary schools and 85 JHS. As shown in the conceptual framework, improved public service infrastructure is a major development outcome. Given that in all the area councils, the majority of the respondents indicated the availability of schools in their respective communities, the study deduced that the MMDAs had made some significant milestone in the provision of school infrastructure in their respective districts.

On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 was the lowest rating and 5 was the highest, the respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with, and accessibility to schools in their respective communities. Table 34 presents the results of satisfaction ratings with accessibility to schools.

Table 34

Satisfaction with Schools in District

| District | n | Average ratings | | | Kruskal Wallis Mean rank | Skewness | |
		Mean	Median	Mode		Stat	Std. Error
CCMA	384	3.30	4.00	4.00	655.34	-0.910	0.125
MMA	381	3.16	3.00	3.00	544.30	-1.383	0.125
TAMDA	378	2.91	3.00	3.00	517.45	-1.446	0.125
Total	1143	3.12	3.00	3.00		-1.187	0.072

Chi-square = 43.335; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The results showed that the ratings for school accessibility and satisfaction with the schools were not normally distributed, given a skewness

of -1.188 and 1.019 respectively. Thus, according to Pallant (2005), the median ratings were adopted as the representative average and Kruskal Wallis-H test was used to test for significance of statistical differences in the accessibility and satisfaction ratings for schools in the districts.

According to the results, the median rating for satisfaction with schools in CCMA was 4.00, whereas in MMA, the median was 3.00, and also 3.00 in TAMDA. This showed that, generally, the household heads in CCMA were more satisfied with schools in their district, as compared to the respondents from MMA and TAMDA. Further statistical analysis, using Kruskal Wallis-H Test showed that, at two degrees of freedom and with a Chi-square of 43.335, the differences in the satisfaction ratings for school in the districts were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (p-value = 0.001). The study, therefore, found that the average satisfaction ratings for school in CCMA were significantly higher than the ratings for MMA and TAMDA.

The accessibility of schools and the districts was also examined based on the perception of the respondents. The ratings for school accessibility were not normally distributed, given a skewness of -1.187, which fell outside the boundaries of ± 0.5 for normally distributed data. Thus, the medians were reported as the averages and Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to test for significance of statistical difference in the accessibility of schools in the various districts.

In Table 35, it was shown that the median rating for school accessibility in CCMA was 4.00, whereas the average was 3.00 in MMA, but 4.00 in TAMDA. The statistics suggested that, overall respondents in TAMDA rated the accessibility to schools in their district higher than their

counterparts in CCMA and MMA. This would suggest that the accessibility to schools in TAMD is higher than in CCM and MM. In that case, the findings indicate that, in comparison with CCMA and MMA, TAMDA was more responsive with regards to the accessibility of schools in the district.

Table 35

Accessibility to Schools in District

| District | n | Average ratings | | | Kruskal Wallis Mean rank | Skewness | |
		Mean	Median	Mode		Stat	Std. Error
CCM	384	3.38	4.00	4.00	608.97	-1.585	0.125
MM	381	3.25	3.00	3.00	475.16	-1.378	0.125
TAMD	378	3.82	4.00	4.00	493.76	-0.727	0.125
Total	1143	3.50	4.00	4.00		-1.187	0.072

Chi-square = 46.793; d.f. = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Using Kruskal Wallis H Test, a chi-square of 46.793 (df = 2) and a p-value of 0.00 showed that the differences in the ratings for school accessibility in the districts were statistically significant. The finding was that respondents in CCMA rated accessibility higher than their counterparts in TAMDA and MMA in that order. In terms of accessibility to schools, respondents in CCMA and TAMDA indicated that their district assemblies had been more responsive than those in MMA. The results can be explained by the fact that CCM is largely urban and is more likely to have a wider spread of schools in terms of number and geographical coverage. The CCMA (2009) indicated that CCMA is the cradle of education in Ghana and has some of the best senior high

schools in the country and a college of education, a polytechnic and a university. These were not available in MMA and TAMDA where the population was largely rural (MMA, 2009; THLDDA, 2009). Therefore, it was more likely for the respondents in CCM to find their District Assembly more responsive with regards to the availability of, and accessibility to schools.

The overall satisfaction of the respondents with the schools was also analysed in order to assess the institutional responsiveness with regards to the school provision in the various district assemblies. The satisfaction ratings scale was on a continuum of 1 to 5, where "1" was the least satisfaction score and "5" was the highest. The results as presented in Table 36 show that the respondents from CCMA gave the highest mean satisfaction (mean = 3.30) with the overall educational structure within the District Assembly. This corroborated with the generally higher ratings of availability and access to schools within CCMA. On the other hand, the average satisfaction rating for the respondents in MMA was 2.91, and 3.16 in TAMDA.

Table 36

Satisfaction with Schools Availability by District

| | | Availability ratings | | | | |
| | | | | | Skewness | |
District	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Statistic	Std. Error
CCMA	384	3.30	4.00	4.00	-0.373	0.125
MMA	381	2.91	3.00	3.00	-0.390	0.125
TAMDA	378	3.16	3.00	3.00	-0.219	0.126
Total	1143	3.12	3.00	3.00	-0.275	0.073

F-stat. = 10.415; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Further analysis indicated that, with 95 percent confidence level, the differences in the satisfaction ratings among the districts were statistically significant, with 2 degrees of freedom, F-statistic of 10.415, and p-value of 0.000. It was, therefore, established that the institutional responsiveness regarding the provision of schools in CCMA was perceived higher than that of MMA and TAMDA. Once more, this can be explained by the relative difference in urbanisation in the three districts. The situation is such that urban areas have received more attention in terms of infrastructural development, which make them more likely to have better schools and public infrastructure (GSS, 2010).

Based on Ostrom's (2005) rational choice approach, it is established that residents in the urban areas where there is higher likelihood of accessing better schools would rationally be satisfied with the performance of the District Assembly in school provision. However, the possibility that urban areas might have private schools which are not necessarily underscored by the efforts of the District Assembly might also distort such overall satisfaction of school provision in the District.

The Turkey's Post-Hoc test, shown in Table 37 was used to test for the statistical difference of ratings between any of the Districts. It was found that the mean difference of 0.384 between the average ratings for CCMA and MMA was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Similarly, the mean difference of -0.247 between MMA and TAMDA was also statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. The mean difference between the ratings of the respondents in CCMA and TAMDA was not statistically significant. The implications were that the institutional responsiveness regarding school

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services provided by CCMA and TAMDA were similar, and they were both rated higher than the school services provided by MMA.

Table 37

Post-Hoc Test for Satisfaction with Schools by District

(I) District	(J) District	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
CCMA	MMA	.38400*	.08528	.000	.1839	.5841
	TAMDA	.13686	.08568	.247	-.0642	.3379
MMA	CCMA	-.38400*	.08528	.000	-.5841	-.1839
	TAMDA	-.24714*	.08563	.011	-.4481	-.0462
TAMDA	CCMA	-.13686	.08568	.247	-.3379	.0642
	MMA	.24714*	.08563	.011	.0462	.4481

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level;

Dependent Variable: School availability.

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The satisfaction and accessibility ratings for school were compared in each district. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to test for the statistical difference between the satisfaction scores and accessibility scores, because the scores were not normally distributed. The satisfaction ranks were subtracted from the accessibility ranks. Thus, negative ranks represented cases of higher ranks for satisfaction and lower ranks for accessibility, whereas positive ranks represented cases of lower ranks for satisfaction with schools and higher ranks for school accessibility. The ties in ranks were the cases of equal ranks for satisfaction and accessibility. The p-values represent the statistical significance between the differences in ranks, and all tests were conducted at the default alpha of 0.05. The result is presented as Table 38.

From the results, it was found that in 214 cases, representing 18.9 percent of the respondents, the accessibility ratings were higher than satisfaction ratings for the schools. On the other hand, 36.6 percent of the respondents rated accessibility to schools lower than the satisfaction with school facilities. The remaining respondents (44.5%) gave the same ratings for both the satisfaction with, and accessibility to schools, indicating that the availability and accessibility to school facilities were at par. This suggested that the prominent perception held by the respondents was that the available school facilities within the districts were satisfactorily accessible. The differences in the ratings were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (z-score = -8.037; p-value = 0.000).

Table 38

Differences between Satisfaction with and Accessibility to Schools Facilities

District	f(%)	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z-score	p-value
CCMA	108(28.4)[a] 105(27.6)[b] 167(43.9)[c]	105.50 108.54	11394.50 11396.50	-0.001	0.999
MMA	60(15.7)[a] 159(41.7)[b] 162(42.5)[c]	116.35 107.60	6981.00 17109.00	-5.546	0.000
TAMDA	46(12.3)[a] 151(40.4)[b] 177(47.3)[c]	64.15 109.62	64.15 16552.00	-8.732	0.000
Total	214(18.9)[a] 415(36.6)[b] 506(44.6)[c]	296.01 324.79	63347.00 134788.0	-8.037	0.000

[a] Accessibility >Satisfaction; [b] Accessibility < Satisfaction ; [c] Accessibility = Satisfaction
Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

In CCMA, the respondents who rated school accessibility higher than satisfaction (28.4%) were more than those who rated school accessibility lower than satisfaction (27.6%). However, the prominent perception was that school accessibility was satisfactory, as indicated by 43.9 percent of the respondents. The differences in the ranks were not statistically significant at 95 percent confidence level (p-value = 0.999). The satisfaction and accessibility ratings for schools in CCMA were therefore similar.

In MMA, a similar pattern of responses was discovered. The respondents who rated school accessibility and satisfaction equally formed 42.7 percent, which represented the highest response grouping. Thus, the outstanding perception was that school accessibility was satisfactory in MMA. This was statistically different from the other perceptions help by the respondents, at an alpha level of 0.05 (z-score = -5.546; p-value = 0.000).

The responses obtained from TAMDA indicated that 47.3 percent of the respondents equally rated satisfaction with, and accessibility to schools, whereas 40.4 percent rated accessibility higher than satisfaction. Thus, a similar trend in respondents' ratings of accessibility to, and satisfaction with schools in CCMA and MMA was also found in TAMDA, where satisfaction with, and accessibility to schools were mostly rated equally. However, the percentage of respondents who rated accessibility lesser than satisfaction, was more in MMA (47.1%), in comparison with those from TAMDA (40.4%) and CCMA (27.6%).

The priority needs identified by the respondents included health services. This necessitated further analyses of the responsiveness of the district assemblies to health services in the various districts and communities. The

first section of the analyses covered the availability of health services in the various communities. The respondents were asked to indicate whether there were adequate hospitals or clinics in their respective communities, as presented in Figure 22. The results covered the availability of health centres, such as clinics, hospital, community health posts (CHPs) in the communities, grouped under their respective area councils. The motive for grouping the communities into area councils is that, although each community might not have a health centre, the residents might have access to one within the catchment area of the Area Council.
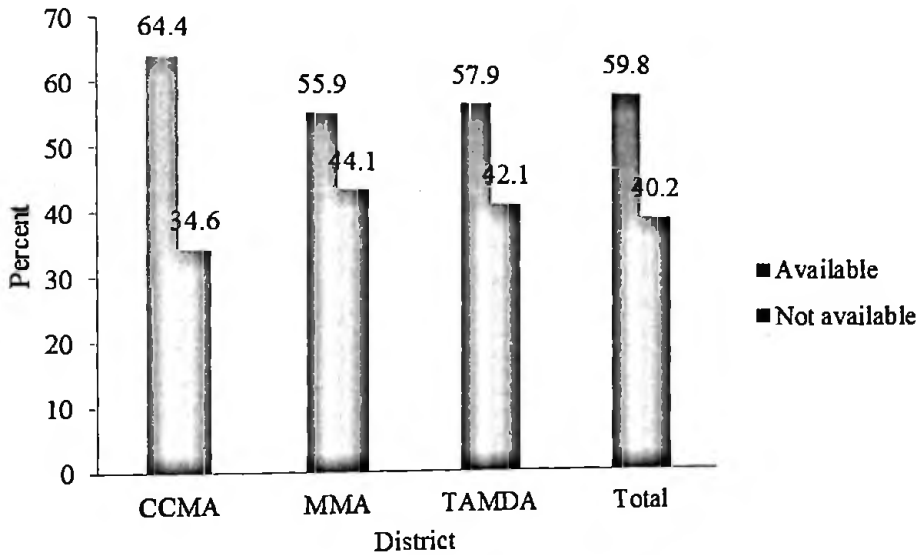
Figure 22: Availability of Health Centres

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Overall, 59.8 percent of the respondents noted that they had a health centre in their respective area councils. The majority of the respondents in all the districts, CCMA (64.4%), TAMDA (57.9%), and MMA (55.9%) confirmed that there were health centres in their respective locations (Figure 22). The results can be explained on the basis that CCMA is largely urban and

is more likely to meet the population threshold for the sitting of public health centres. Furthermore, there is the proliferation of private health facilities throughout the communities and the various districts.

The results showed that the study areas had health institutions which served the communities. In TAMDA, the THLDDA (2009) indicated that the district has one hospital, five health centres and twelve rural clinics. Some private persons have also established a number of maternity homes and herbal clinics to complement the public ones. In CCMA, there is the regional hospital and metro hospital as well as several other private clinics serving the communities. The accessibility to health services in the respective area councils were also analysed, given that availability of the facility may not directly lead to access geographically and economically. The respondents were required to rate the accessibility to health institutions in their various localities on a scale of 1 to 5, where "1" was the lowest ratings representing least or no access, and 5 was the highest rating representing unlimited access.

Table 39 shows that, the distribution of the scores for accessibility of health services had an overall skewness statistic of -0.691 which indicated that the distribution was not statistically normal. Thus, based on Pallant's (2005) recommendation, the medians were reported as the representative averages. In that respect, it was found that the respondents from CCMA, on the average, rated the accessibility of health service as 4, whereas the average ratings given by the respondents in MMA were 3, and 2 in TAMDA.

The statistics suggested that respondents in CCMA rated the accessibility to health services in their District higher than their counterparts in MMA and TAMDA. This could be explained by the fact that the Regional and

Metro Hospitals, as well as several other specialist clinics were within the catchment area of the study in CCMA. In MMA, the MTDP (2009) indicates that there are hospitals, health centres and rural clinics, maternity homes, herbal clinics and a mobile health van that provides remote communities with health care.

Table 39

Accessibility to Health Services by District

| District | n | Average ratings | | | Kruskal Wallis Mean rank | Skewness | |
		Mean	Median	Mode		Stat	Std. Error
CCMA	384	3.33	4.00	4.00	465.72	-1.279	0.160
MMA	381	2.72	3.00	4.00	400.7	-0.907	0.310
TAMDA	378	2.20	2.00	3.00	378.33	-0.154	0.147
Total	1143	2.82	3.00	4.00		-0.691	0.085

Chi-square = 21.246; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Given a Chi-square of 21.246, at 2 degrees of freedom, it was shown that the differences among the average ratings for accessibility to health services in the districts were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (p-value = 0.000). This means that the average rating for accessibility of health services in CCMA was significantly higher than the average ratings given by the respondents in MMA and TAMDA. The results suggested that CCMA was more responsive to the provision of health services than MMA and TAMDA, whereas MMA was also more responsive than TAMDA in terms of accessibility to health services.

The satisfaction of the respondents with the overall health services provided by the district assemblies was also analysed in that respect. This was necessary as the satisfaction of the respondents with the service was highly indicative of the responsiveness of the district assemblies. Therefore, in this context the satisfaction of the respondents was used as a surrogate of responsiveness. The satisfaction ratings for health services were based on a scale of 1 to 5, where "1" was the least satisfied and "5" was the most satisfied. The results are presented in Table 40 and the overall skewness indicated that the satisfaction ratings were normally distributed, thus the mean ratings were reported as the average ratings and One-Way ANOVA was used to test for the statistical difference of ratings among the districts.

Table 40

Satisfaction with Health Services by District

| District | N | Satisfaction ratings | | | Skewness | |
		Mean	Median	Mode	Statistic	Std. Error
CCMA	384	3.30	4.00	3.00	-0.373	0.125
MMA	381	2.91	3.00	3.00	-0.390	0.125
TAMDA	378	3.16	3.00	3.00	-0.219	0.126
Total	1143	2.62	3.00	3.00	-0.435	0.085

F-stat. = 10.415; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The results showed that, the average ratings for the satisfaction with health services was 3.30 in CCMA, 2.91 in MMA and 3.16 in TAMDA. This indicated that, on the average, the respondents from CCMA were more

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satisfied with the provision of health service by the District Assembly, in comparison with MMA and TAMDA. Again, the relative urban structure of CCMA which provides more geographical access to the available health institutions within the District might explain the higher satisfaction ratings for CCMA, which is relatively more urbanised than MMA and TAMDA.

The finding of satisfaction ratings for health services is consistent with the tenets of the decentralisation theorem (Oates, 1972b) which suggests that the provision of public services is likely to ensure the satisfaction of users because local government understands the concerns of residents and voters preference and local decision making is responsive to people for whom the services is intended,

In further analysis, an F-statistic of 10.415, at 2 degrees of freedom (p-value = 0.002) indicated that the differences in the satisfaction rating among the districts were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Table 41 represents the results. In Turkey's Post-Hoc test, it was shown that the mean difference between the satisfaction ratings for health services in CCMA and MMA were statistically significant at the default alpha of 0.05 (p-value = 0.001). This meant that the satisfaction scores in CCMA were significantly higher than that of MMA. Similarly, there was significant difference between the satisfaction scores of MMA and TAMDA (p-value = 0.001). On the other hand, the satisfaction scores were not statistically significant between CCMA and TAMDA (p-value = 0.460). Therefore, it was established that the satisfaction ratings for health services in CCMA were significantly higher than the ratings in the other districts. As indicated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3), the development outcomes include improved public infrastructure,

which is a measure of responsiveness of the local assembly. In this study, the omnibus One-Way ANOVA results showed that CCMA was more responsive in developing its health infrastructure and thus was more responsive to that effect.

Table 41

Post-Hoc Test for Satisfaction with Health Services by District

(I) District	(J) District	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CCMA	MMA*	.21403	.09242	.001	.1129	.4310
	TAMDA	-.11003	.09249	.460	-.3271	.1071
MMA	CCMA*	.21403	.09242	.001	.4310	.1129
	TAMDA	-.32406*	.09173	.001	-.5394	-.1088
TAMDA	CCMA	.11003	.09249	.460	-.1071	.3271
	MMA	.32406*	.09173	.001	.1088	.5394

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level;

Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with health services

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The ratings for satisfaction with, and accessibility to health facilities were compared in each district. The Wilcoxon Signed ranks tests were used to test for the statistical difference between the satisfaction and accessibility scores. Three ranks were generated from the analysis, as shown in Table 42. It was found that in 239 cases, representing 31.9 percent of the respondents, the accessibility to health services was rated lower than their satisfaction with health services in their respective communities.

Table 42

Difference between Satisfaction with, and Accessibility to Health Facilities

Area council	f(%)	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z-score	p-value
CCMA	69(29.7)[a]	51.42	3548.00	-4.310	0.000
	126(54.3)[b]	57.38	7229.88		
	37(15.9)[c]				
MMA	64(26.2)[a]	50.45	3229.00	-0.6291	0.000
	138(56.6)[b]	58.14	8060.58		
	42(17.2)[c]				
TAMDA	106(38.7)[a]	64.50	6837.00	-5.718	0.000
	142(51.8)[b]	74.65	10600.30		
	26(14.0)[c]				
Total	239(31.9)[a]	167.53	40038.50	-5.827	0.000
	406(54.1)[b]	183.81	74626.86		
	105(14.0)[c]				

[a] Accessibility < Availability; [b] Accessibility > Availability; [c] Accessibility = Availability

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

On the other hand, in 54.1 percent of the cases, accessibility ratings were higher than satisfaction ratings. This suggested that the prominent perception held by the respondents was that the available health institutions within the districts were accessible but not necessarily satisfactorily. The remaining respondents gave the same ratings for both satisfaction with, and accessibility to health services, indicating satisfactory accessibility to health services in the districts. The differences in the ratings were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05.

In the disaggregated results, 54.3 percent of the respondents from the CCMA rated accessibility to health services higher than satisfaction with the services. Thus, in this area, the results suggested that the available health institutions were accessible but the services rendered were not quite as satisfactory. The situation was similar in all the other district assemblies. For instance, 56.6 percent of the respondents from MMA and 51.8 percent of those from TAMDA also rated accessibility to health facilities higher than their satisfaction with the services. These differences in ratings were tested and found statistically significant in each of the district assemblies. Thus, overall, it was established that although health facilities were highly accessible in the study areas, the satisfaction with services provided was lower. The finding contradicts with the notion that local governments and their decentralised departments know the concerns and needs of residents and are responsive to them.

The results can be explained by the fact that there were health institutions available in all the districts and the district capitals which were accessible by the surrounding and neighbouring communities. For example, the respondents in the Abura-Adisadel, Ola-Amamoma, and Bakaano-Kotokuraba areas could access the district or regional hospitals, as well as other private specialised health institutions throughout the district. Similarly, the MMA is endowed with a hospital, a clinic, CHPS and mobile health van, as reported by the Assembly (MMA, 2009). Therefore, the results indicated that these establishments had helped in the accessibility of health service in the various communities.

Regular flow of potable water emerged as one of the top priority needs identified across the districts. This necessitated further analyses into the responsiveness of the district assemblies towards provision of potable water in the districts. The variables studied were availability of regular potable water, accessibility of potable water and satisfaction with water provision by the assemblies. In Maslow's (1965) hierarchy of needs theory, potable water falls under survival needs, which indicate that some of the priority needs of the communities still bordered on survival needs. This analysis, therefore, represented the progress being made towards fulfilling one of the essential survival needs of the communities.
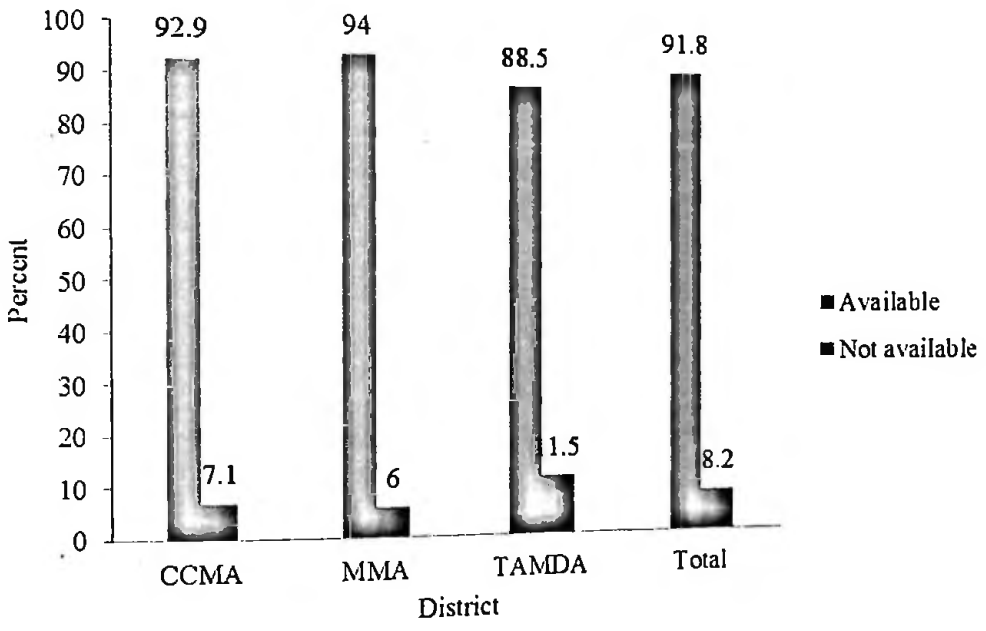
Figure 23: Availability of Potable Water in the Study Areas

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The overall results showed that 91.8 percent of the respondents noted that potable water was available within their respective communities, whereas 8.2 percent stated otherwise. In the various area councils, majority of the respondents indicated that potable water was available, as shown in Figure 23.

The results suggested that the various district assemblies had been responsive in providing facilities for potable water in the various communities captured under the area councils. The results confirmed reports indicating that the percentage of residents that use unsafe sources of water in the districts was low. For example, in MMA, the MTDP (2009) indicated that 11 percent of the population, and in CCMA, 12 percent of the population were without access to potable water. Thus, the result was a reflection of the current situation in the districts.

The accessibility to potable water in the communities was also analysed on the basis that while potable water may be available, it may not be accessible by the community members. Table 43 presents the results. The accessibility of the water in the area councils were scored on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented the lowest or no access and 5 represented unlimited access to potable water. It was found that, overall the distribution of ratings for the accessibility to potable water was not normally distributed, given a skewness of -1.187. Thus, the overall average, represented by the median was 4.00 which was categorised as high, given that the highest possible ratings was 5.00. The lowest average of 2.00 was recorded in Twifo-Praso area council, which indicated that the area had the lowest access to potable water.

On the other hand, the area councils with the highest accessibility ratings were Abura-Adisadel (CCMA), Abandze (MMA) and Nyinase area councils (TAMDA), indicating that accessibility to potable water was highest in these areas, with area council recording an average rating of 4.00. Abura-Adisasel area council had the highest Krukal Wallis mean rank of 528.03 which clarified its position as the area council with the highest potable water

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accessibility ratings. Further statistical analysis revealed that a chi-square value of 72.442 (df = 8) and a p-value of 0.000 showed that the differences in the average ratings were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05.

Table 43

Accessibility to Potable Water in Area Councils by District

District	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Kruskal-Wallis mean Ranks	Skewness Stat.	Std. Error
Abura-Adisadel	131	3.54	4.00	4.00	528.03	-0.521	0.230
Ola-Amamoma	112	2.72	3.00	4.00	399.86	-0.895	0.357
Bakano-Kotokroaba	144	3.05	3.00	3.00	424.50	-0.430	0.472
Saltpond	132	2.91	3.00	4.00	423.70	-1.214	0.229
Mankessim	126	2.30	2.00	3.00	334.52	-0.372	0.481
Abandze	123	2.93	4.00	4.00	460.50	-0.798	0.590
Twifo-Praso	141	2.36	2.00	3.00	332.84	0.157	0.226
Nyinase	123	3.12	4.00	4.00	470.05	-0.131	0.263
Twifo-Mampong	111	2.28	2.50	3.00	336.68	-0.886	0.490
Total	1143	3.50	4.00	4.00		-1.187	0.075

Chi-square = 72.422; df = 8; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

In order to measure the "overall performance of local government" an indicator composed of selected local government functions was constructed. The construct was derived from the idea that MMDAs are responsible for delivering a wide range of public services which is referred to, in this thesis, as service delivery and for raising and spending revenue which is referred to as

financial management. The measurement of overall local government performance combines both of these aspects since the study could not ask about citizen satisfaction with every local government service.

The respondents rated the performance of the District Assembly on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 was the lowest score and 10 was highest. In Table 44, the overall score of the district assemblies' performance are presented according to districts. The scores were analysed using the median of the respondents from each district. The decision to use the median was determined using the skewness statistic which showed that the distributions of scores for the three districts were not statistically normal and per Pallant's (2005) indication, the medians were adopted as the representative averages.

Table 44

Perception of Overall Performance of the Local Government

District	Performance score			Skewness	
	Mean	Median	Mode	Statistics	Std. Error
CCMA	3.69	3.00	1.00	0.515	0.125
MMA	3.94	5.00	1.00	-0.522	0.125
TAMDA	3.76	4.00	1.00	-0.506	0.125
Total	2.45	2.00	1.00	1.019	0.072

Chi-square = 34.003; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The study found that the average score of the overall performance in CCMA was 3.00, as compared to 5.00 and 4.00 in MMA and TAMDA respectively. The study indicated that, generally, the respondents in MMA

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rated the overall performance of the Assembly highest, whereas those in CCMA rated the overall performance lowest. On the basis that scores were not normally distributed, the Kruskal Wallis H test was adopted to compare the statistical differences between the scores of the overall performance of the District Assemblies in other services provision. A chi-square of 34.003 (df = 2) and a p-value of 0.000 was reported for the distribution of the responses.

Thus, the study found that the differences in the scores of overall performance of the District Assemblies were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. The implication was that on the average, the respondents from MMA significantly rated the overall performance of their District Assembly higher than CCMA and TAMDA. As shown in the conceptual framework (Figure 3) responsiveness also implies that the local government delivers services consistent with the users' preferences and institutional outputs satisfy local preferences. The overall performance of the District Assemblies' in service provision represents the overall satisfaction with the services and per the results, the household heads in MMA were more satisfied than their counterparts in TAMDA and CCMA.

Accountability Mechanisms and their Effective Utilisation by Citizens

This section discusses the fourth research objective, accountability mechanisms and the linkage to participation and responsiveness. It examines the availability and access that citizens have to local government structures, public officials and elected representatives. It also examines citizens' awareness, knowledge and utilisation of accountability mechanisms that link both the internal and external environments to participation and

responsiveness. In addition, citizens' perceptions of the factors influencing accountability and thereby responsiveness have been discussed.

According to Gaventa (2007), and as illustrated in the conceptual framework, decentralisation and democratisation increase citizens' participation in political life, and thereby, provide citizens' with enhanced opportunities to demand public officials' attention for their needs and monitor government response to these demands. Shah (2007) also acknowledges that as citizens hold local officials responsible for their performance, reward and or punish electorally, those who do not deliver on promises and to public expectations, accountability of government to citizens improve. Thus, accountability is a consequence of participation and responsiveness.

The theoretical and conceptual framework indicates that local government system is made up of sub elements that are interlinked and interconnected and influenced by internal and external environments. The decentralisaiton theorem propounded by Oates (1972a) establishes that, in order for citizens to hold local governments accountable, they need channels through which they can mount such challenges and respond to information that they receive (Andrews & Shah, 2007). It has been depicted in the conceptual framework that several modes of accountability exist, but political, administrative, financial and social accountability are the most common types (Paul, 1996). According to Fishbien (1997), all modes of accountability are relational. It is therefore imperative to understand its nature and attend to the actors between whom relations of accountability exists.

Based on the above theoretical and conceptual foundations, household heads were asked to indicate the officials and local government structures that

they contact most often when they have issues for which the MMDAs response is needed. Political accountability, in the form of citizen participation in local government activities was assessed by asking household respondents if they contacted local representatives, assembly persons and any of the structures involved in local government and if they attended meetings, and voted in local elections.

As shown in Figure 24, the majority (64.8%) of respondents across all three district assemblies indicated that the assembly person is the most contacted official among the local government structures at that level. In CCMA (69.7%), MMA (62%) and TAMDA (61.9%) more of the respondents indicated that they had contacted assembly person. This result is not surprising since most APs reside in or close to the community and are therefore often easily approachable, available and more visible than the other structures.
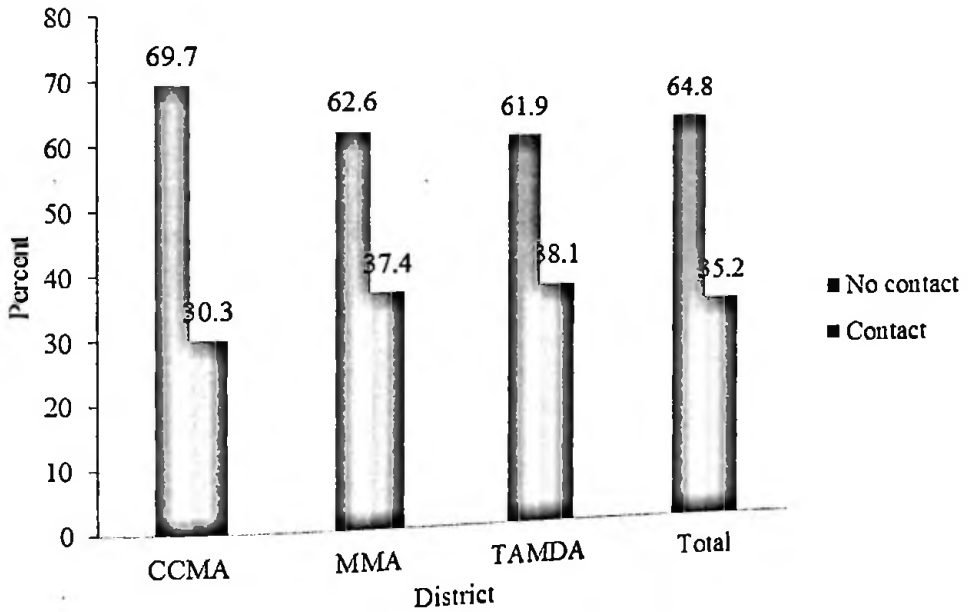
Figure 24: Contact with Assembly Persons

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The finding shows that the representative system in the study area seems to be working. Assembly persons are seen as representatives of the

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people as well as their respective MMDAs. This finding is consistent with the decentralisation theorem by Oates (1993) and Stigler's menu (1957), both of which acknowledge that, the closer the local government structure is to the local people, the better it works.

Figure 25 shows the respondents' view about their contact with the area council officials. The results are disaggregated according to area councils in order to differentiate which area council officials were more accountable.
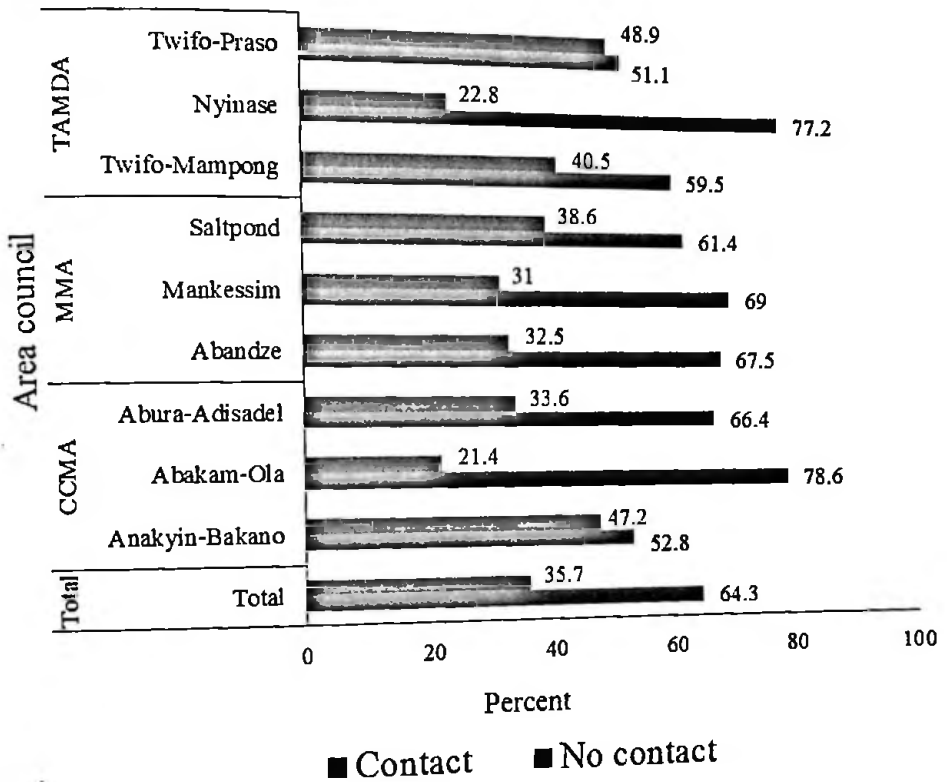
Figure 25: Contact with Area Council Officials

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

In all the area councils, the percentage of respondents that did not have any contact with the area council officials was more than those who had contact with the officials. For example, 59.5 percent of the respondents from Twifo-Mampong, 77.2 percent from Nyinase, 69 percent from Mankessim, and 66.4 percent from Abura-Adisadel area councils had no contact with the

area councils. The responses indicated that the area council members are not accessible to most of the respondents in all the district assemblies and also in the various area councils. Given that contact with local representatives is an important platform for demanding accountability from public offices and officials, the finding suggest that democratic decentralisation is not working as envisaged.
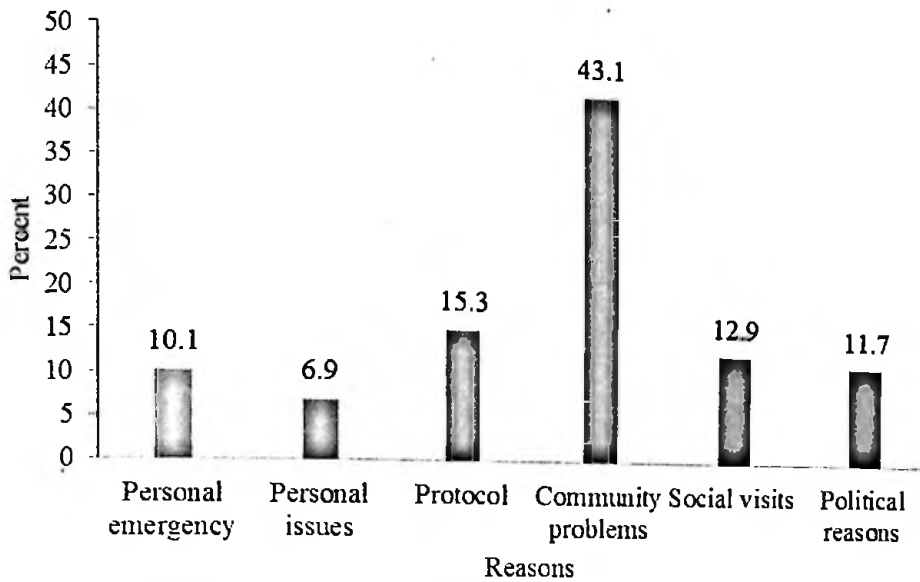
Figure 26: Reasons for Contacting Assembly Persons

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The above finding is consistent with Ahwoi (2010) assertion that decentralisation improves citizens' access to administrative agencies and governance institutions. It also reduces unnecessary bureaucracies and congestions at the centre, thereby, providing for speed in decision-making by reducing the levels of central direction and control. Literature is in tandem with the conceptual framework that citizens' need to maintain close contact Decentralisation is seen as a more effective way of meeting the needs of the poor as well as local needs.

Accountability refers to being answerable for actions or inactions (Gaventa, 2007). The finding indicates that there were various reasons assigned for contacting these structures with their concerns and problems, such as personal issues and needs in emergency situations like urgent medical attention, disaster and death. They were also contacted for social, political, protocol, personal and community problems and concerns of all kinds. For example, some of the respondents noted that they contacted the assembly person for help regarding their inability to pay school fees or examination fees, to secure admission to a senior high school, to settle hospital bills or facilitate people's access to services in emergency situations. In fact, the assembly person is the first point of call not only for visitors but for community members as well.

Key informant interviews confirmed that the majority of assembly persons resided in the community and interacted with the resident on daily and regular bases. However, the minority who resided outside their electoral areas or in another community within the same electoral area other than where the study was conducted were mainly criticised for not showing interest in the community's affairs or for failing to interact with them and learn of the needs and challenges and forward them to the Assembly for action. Such APs risked having their mandates renewed. This was found to be consistent with literature on political accountability (Shah, 2007) which appears to be one of the most effective accountability mechanisms at the local level.

The findings above were corroborated by the assembly persons and unit committee members in focus group discussion. Although APs are the most contacted officials in the community and among the local government

structures, they lack resources, the means, and the incentives to respond effectively and efficiently to the diverse needs. One female and one male assembly person captured the mood succinctly.

"You want to do something about peoples/community members' problems and requests when it comes to your attention, but there is very little one can do because you lack the means and resources to do so effectively. The AP becomes a messenger so you inform the assembly and it usually takes them a long time to respond. Sometimes never or by the time it is resolved you have been voted out of office. This is really frustrating. At the end, your people think you have done very little and vote you out".

Another AP said "we are compelled to use our personal resources to address urgent problems. Yet, we are poorly motivated or not motivated and get punished by the electorate if we are unable to help". The responses suggested that the assembly persons and the area council officials who are closest to the electorate are poorly resourced. In their responses, the key informants also indicated that they are not able to perform their duties because they are under-resourced. Thus, the accountability of the assembly persons and the area council officials to the citizenry is undermined by inadequate resources for effective execution of their responsibilities.

The second item asked respondents if local elections were held now who they would vote for. There were three non-responses, thus, a total of 1,140 responses were covered for this analysis. The result is presented in Figure 27.
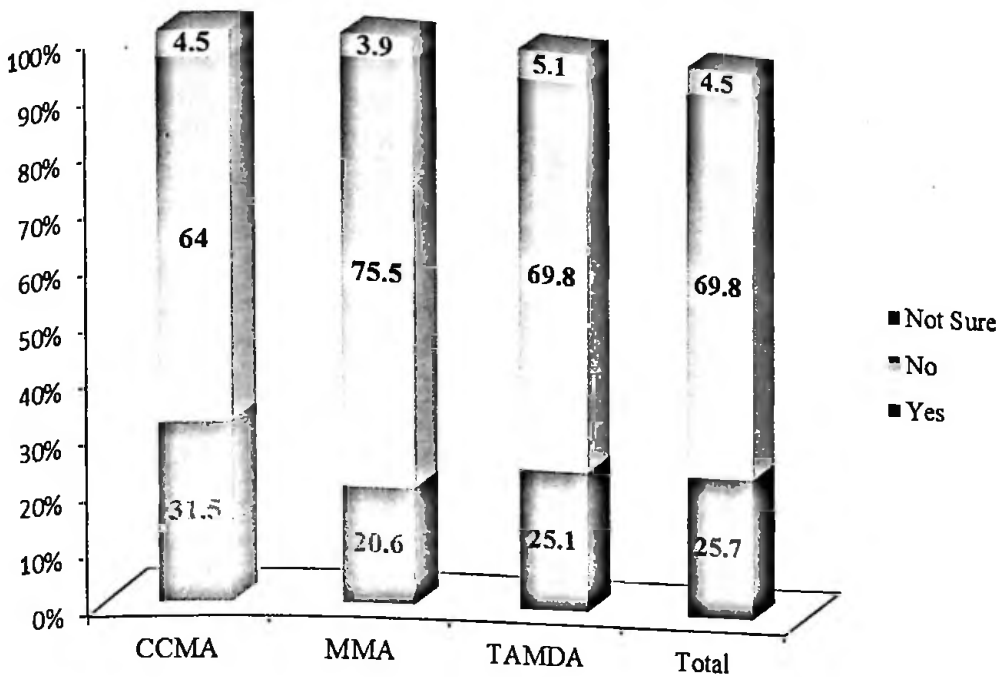
Figure 27: Perception of Household Heads on Re-Election Chances of Representatives

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

From the results, majority (69.8 %) of household heads across the study areas indicted that they would vote to oust the assembly person while the minority (21%) of all respondents answered that they would vote to retain them. In CCMA (64%), MMA (75.5%) and TAMDA (69.8%) at least three-fifths of the respondents indicated that they would vote to oust the Assembly person in the next local level elections. This finding is supported by Andrew and Shah (2007) who opine that elections are seen as imposing very general accountability on the elected representatives, who have to submit their record to the electorate at periodic intervals for evaluations and re-election.

The assumption made under this analysis is that, the electorate would re-instate accountable and responsive representatives. Inman (1979) established that candidates must please voters if they hope to be re-elected. In other words, re-election could indicate that the officials were accountable and

responsible to the needs of the electorate. In this study, therefore, the responses of majority of the household heads allude to non-responsive officials.
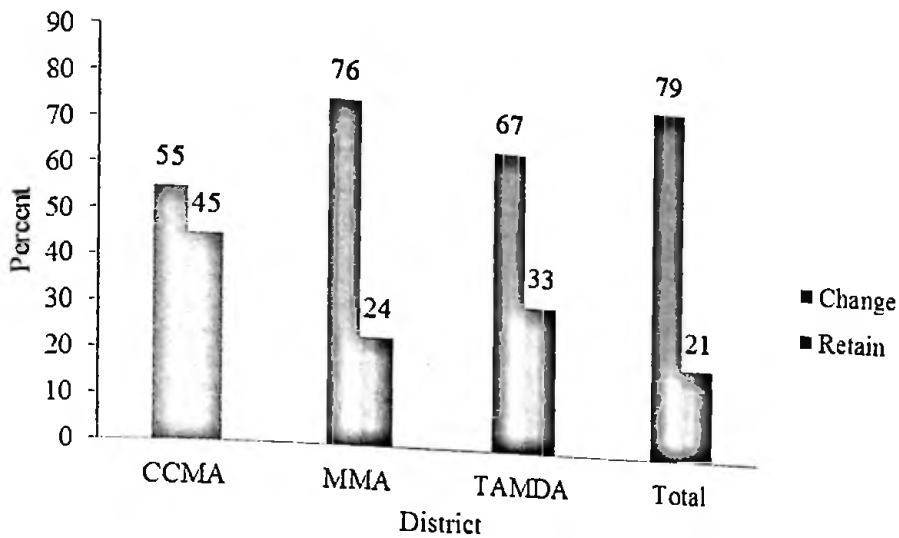
Figure 28: Decision to Change or Retain Current Assembly Person
Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The finding also contrasts Schou's (2000) assertion that a high degree of accountability may foster responsiveness in democratic local governments, and help to close the gap between the citizens and the electorate, and provide opportunities for grievances to be aired and wrongs remedied (Crook, 2003; Smith, 1985). Several reasons were given to support this widely held view of non renewal of mandate. Notable among them, were unresponsiveness of the assembly person to community needs, problems and requests. In addition to partisan and political interests, difficulty in reaching the assembly members in time of need was among the factors which the respondents thought under-laid unresponsive representatives. Gyimah-Boadi (2009) has argued that local government election can also be used as a means of demanding accountability from the local level.
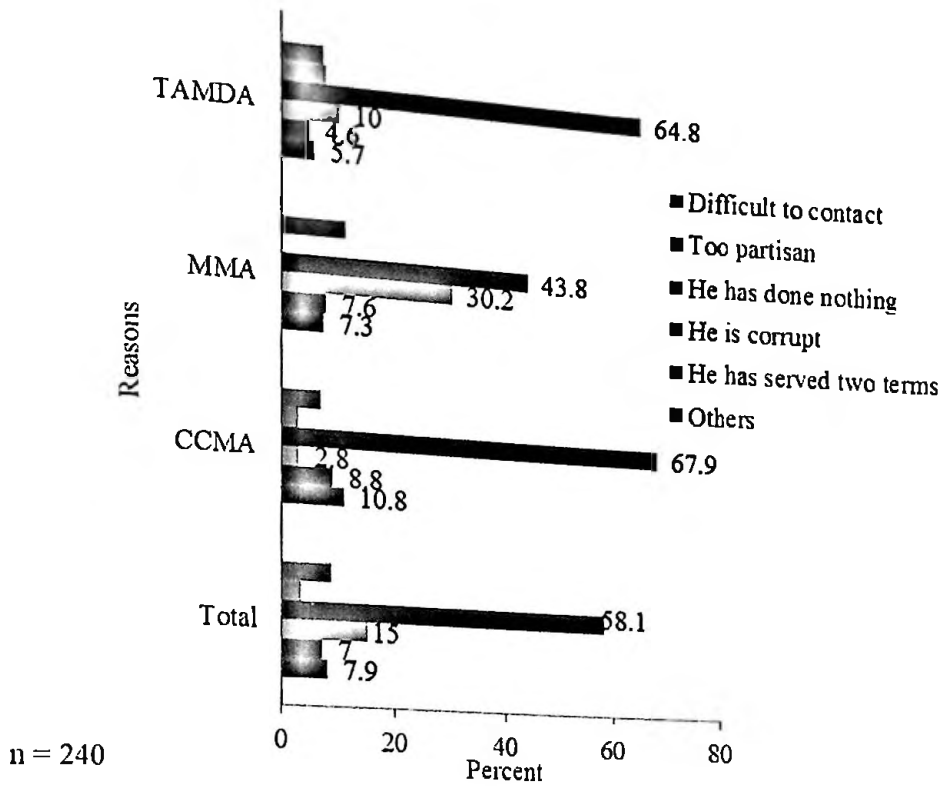
Figure 29: Reasons for Changing the Assembly Person

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Some of the respondents also gave reasons to explain why they would re-instate their current assembly persons. Figure 30 showed that, overall, the approachableness of the Assembly person was the major reason why the respondents would re-elect them into power. Others (38%) would also re-vote officials into power because they could communicate the concerns of the citizens. A few (3.3%) of the respondents aligned their re-vote to partisan reasons.
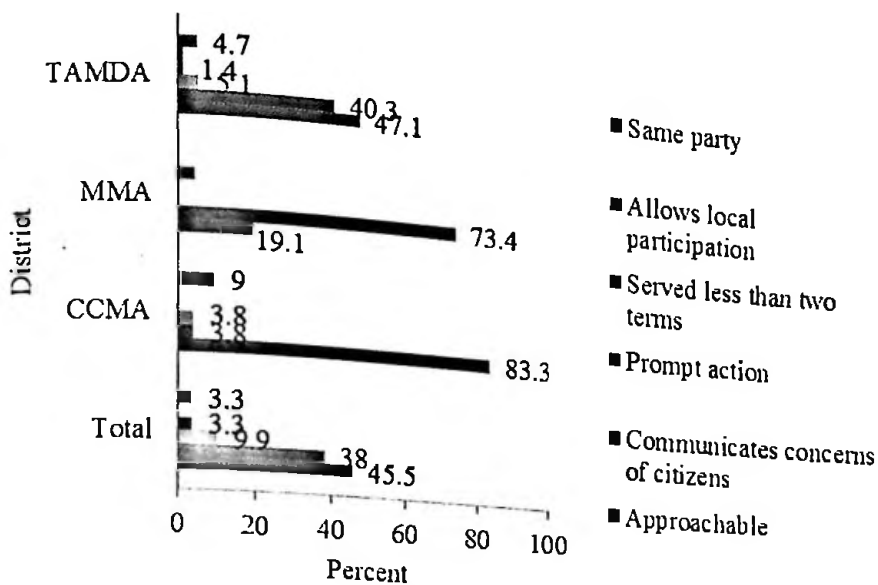
Figure 30: Reasons for Retaining Assembly Person

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

Shah (2003) argues that decentralisation in a democratic context should lead to greater responsiveness to constituents demand, saying that, "candidates must please voters if they hope to be re-elected". Building on this proposition, Thomasi and Weinschelbaum (2007) argue that responsiveness to voters needs determines government or local government representatives' chances of re-election. Participation also enhances organisational commitment and accountability, because a politically mobilised population is assumed to exercise disciplined control over the administration. Thus, in the above respect, the level and form of participation represents an important variable that determines the level of responsiveness.

Respondents' Perceptions of Challenges to Local Government Responsiveness

This section discusses the fifth research objective, which covers the operational challenges that local governments in the region face in responding

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to their mandates and meeting the needs of communities in a responsible, responsive, equitable and accountable manner. Ahwoi (2010) and Shah (2007) believe that some operational challenges retard accountability and institutional responsiveness of local government. The conceptual framework indicates that internal and external challenges inhibit local government from being effective, responsive and accountable.

In order to, appreciate the operational challenges of the local government system and proffer effective solutions, the perceptions of all the respondents' were sought. The items elicited from all the respondents challenges confronting local government and suggestions for improvement. Responses from 1,143 household respondents, and core staff of the assemblies, assembly persons and unit committee members were reported. Household respondents' perceptions of local government operational challenges are presented in Table 45.

Across the study areas, the most commonly mentioned challenges to local government responsiveness were inadequate resources and logistics (18%), and ineffective use of resources (10.4%). The inability of the central government to transfer more funds to the local level coupled with the assemblies own inability, to generate adequate financial resources has made local governments more dependent on central government for resources. This in turn, affects the MMDAs financial autonomy. Thus, the ability of local government to be responsive to local needs and accountable to local people is constrained by inadequacy of resources. The finding is consistent with Ayee's (2003) assertion that inadequate resources needed to implement and sustain programmes are major constraints to progress.

Table 45

Respondents' Perception of Local Government Operational Challenges to Responsiveness

Challenges	All MMDAs	
Don't know	Frequency	Percent
Inadequate funds and resources	265	8.4
Ineffective use of resources	561	18.0
Poor accountability and perception of corruption	325	10.4
Political interference and politicisation of issues	294	9.4
Weak institutional and organisational capacity	285	9.1
Poor functioning of MMDAs and sub structures	221	7.1
Weak leadership	205	6.6
Poor communication MMDAs & communities	196	6.3
Inadequate motivation of staff	151	4.8
Inadequate involvement of local actors	147	4.7
Late release of funds by the national level	127	4.1
Poor teamwork &interdepartmental coordination	126	4.0
Low autonomy of MMDAs	120	3.8
	102	3.3
Total	3125	100

Note: Multiple responses n =1,100

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

The finding above on the financial and resource challenges mirror the views of pessimists (Crook & Sverrisson, 1999; Samoff, 1990) who argued that local governments are too susceptible to elite capture, and lack technical, human and financial resources to deliver a heterogeneous range of services

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that are efficient and responsive to local demand. As indicated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3) inadequate resources and inequity in the distribution affects infrastructure and service provision thereby lowering responsiveness.

Other key challenges identified by the household respondents were, poor accountability and perception of corruption among public officials (9.4%) and political interference and politicisation of issues (9.1%). Political interference and politicisation of issues was also reported as one of the main challenges that local governments face in striving for responsiveness and accountability. The President of Ghana, appoints the MCE/DCE, and nominates 30 percent of the assembly persons for approval and confirmation by the General Assembly. In addition, MCEs and DCEs are accountable to the President of Ghana through the Regional Minister (Offei-Aboagye, 2008). Although the assemblies are supposed to be non-partisan, in reality this appointment arrangement makes them accountable to the centre and not the citizens at the local level (Ahwoi, 2010).

Chief Executives, constituency executives and political party leaders wield a lot of power and influence over resource allocation and are more accountable to the appointing authority. According to literature (Shah, 2003) and as described in the conceptual framework, the excessive use of political power undermines the principal-agent relationship and consolidates political agency relationships. The above finding is also consistent with the tenets of the political agency theory, which states that public officials and politicians are motivated by rent seeking behaviours and thereby divert public resources and funds for private and partisan uses (Besley & Burges, 2002). This in turn,

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affects the delivery of public services to meet community needs and demands, thus, undermining the extent of responsiveness and accountability (Shah, 2007).

In addition, weak institutional and organisational capacity (7.1%), and weak leadership at the MMDAs (6.6%) were mentioned as militating against local government performance. The sub-structures lack core personnel and resources to work. This finding is explained by the linkage in the conceptual framework which acknowledges that organisations face internal and external challenges. These challenges have to be addressed in the most effective and efficient way in order to move the organisation forward.

Poor functioning of the MMDA and their sub-structures (6.6%) is consistent with the tenets of systems thinking and structural functionalism (Mooney, Knox Schacht, 2002), that, a dysfunction in one area of an organisation affects the whole. In this respect, the non-functioning of the sub-structures, town, urban, area and zonal councils affect the performance of the entire local government system. The sub-structures were formed to promote participation, accountability and responsiveness but since their inception in 1988, they have persistently and consistently lacked personnel, resources and incentives with which to work and be functional (Ahwoi, 2010).

The results revealed that 8.4% of the respondents did not know the challenges. This response seems to suggest the existence of gaps in communication and access to information among the administrative and governance structures, development institutions and citizens. Assembly persons, who are the people's representatives, are supposed to consult their constituents before assembly meetings and give feedback to them after

assembly meetings (ILGS & FES, 2011). However, the "I don't know responses" indicate that the APs have failed to give feedback to their constituents. From literature (Gaventa, 2007) and based on the conceptual framework (Figure 3) asymmetries in information hamper effective participation, responsiveness and accountability to the local people.

According to Agyemang-Duah (2008), asymmetry of information between those who govern, and those whom they are supposed to serve makes it easy for political elite to pursue policies in their own interests, rather than in the interest of the public. In addition, Agyemang-Duah (2008) posits that public officials have little respect for citizens' right to information, and are only inclined to give out information which they think furthers their cause, rather than information that the citizens may require and need.

As mentioned in literature (Shah, 2007) and indicated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3), gaps in information, transparency, resources, participation and accountability constitute operational challenges, and constrain MMDAs from achieving responsiveness. Nevertheless, no matter the challenges that MMDAs face, the constituents expect them to be responsive to their needs (Kumi-Kyereme et al., 2006). The challenges enumerated above are consistent with the findings of Action Aid Ghana in 2002 (Mensah & Kendie, 2008). These studies noted that the operational challenges that MMDAs face include, inadequate resources and logistics, ineffective use of resources, late release of inter-governmental transfers, and inadequate personnel.

In addition, political interference from the centre, Members of Parliament, MCE/DCEs, and party leadership inhibit their smooth operations.

Corroborating the above findings, the core staff of the Assembly and assembly persons alluded to the perceptions of the household respondents, and indicated that indeed these aforementioned challenges influence the performance of not only the MMDAs, but the effective functioning of sub-structures as well. In the same vein, unit committee discussants confirmed that lack of motivation and inadequate logistics among others inhibit them from performing their duties as expected of them by stakeholders. According to Mooney, Knox and Schacht (2002), and Shah (2007), the identified challenges have the propensity to make local government dysfunctional and inefficient, less participatory, less accountable and unresponsive to the local people.

Respondents' Suggestions for Improving Local Government Responsiveness

As indicated in the conceptual framework (Figure 3) the operational challenges can be minimised and or mitigated, through implementation of interventions that would lead to high responsiveness and the desired local level development outcomes. Suggestions for improving responsiveness performance of MMDAs were elicited from all respondents. The responses of household heads were first analysed by each local government but due to the similarities they have been combined for the analysis. Respondents' suggestions to MMDAs for improving responsiveness to community needs are highlighted in Table 46.

In tandem with the aforementioned challenges and desirous of achieving the objectives of decentralisation, the respondents suggested that there should be promotion of transparency in information and openness in application of rules and procedures of engagement (23%). Rodden and

Wibbeis (2012) have suggested that improving the public's access to information would improve participation, enhance local government responsiveness and accountability. Strengthening organisational capacity of MMDAs and sub-structures was suggested by 16.4 percent of the household responses. This was corroborated by core staff of the assembly, assembly persons and unit committee respondents.

Table 46

Respondents' Suggestions for Improving Local Government Responsiveness

Suggestion	All MMDAs	
	Frequency	Percent
Promote transparency in information, resource mobilisation and expenditure	548	23.0
Strengthen organisational capacity of MMDA and sub-structures.	392	16.4
Promote equity in the distribution of resources	360	15.0
Promotion of local economic development	300	12.5
Prompt release of funds by the national level	292	12.1
Fight corruption at all levels	198	8.3
Provide incentives and motivation for staff	110	4.6
Increase in size of inter-governmental transfers	102	4.3
Increasing autonomy of MMDAS	92	3.8
Total	2394	100

Note: Multiple responses, frequency 2394 exceed the sample (n=1100)

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

Responsiveness of local government is contingent upon the environmental factors. Core staff of the MMDA corroborated the household

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heads perspectives and further suggested capacity building interventions to focus on improving attitudes to work and development of soft data skills. In order to ensure, equitable development at the local level, the household respondents suggested promoting equity in the distribution of resources, investments, infrastructure and services to communities. Promoting equity in resource distribution and investment (15%) and stimulating local economic development (9.3%) would help to improve local government responsiveness and accountability. The above suggestions are mutually inclusive in ensuring a responsive and accountable local government, and equitable local level development. These challenges discussed in the previous section and suggestions made have all been factored into the study's recommendations.

Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed general and institutional responsiveness of local governments to the developmental needs of households and communities and accountability to their constituents in CCM, MM and TAMD. General responsiveness measured congruence and promptness, while institutional responsiveness measured satisfaction with organisational performance, outputs and improvement in service delivery, and organisational learning. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendation.

CHAPTER SEVEN
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents summary, conclusions and recommendations. The summary comprises what the study set out to do, the methodology used and key findings. Conclusions were derived from the key findings while recommendations were based on key findings and conclusions. In addition, researcher's contribution to knowledge, the study's limitations and suggested areas for further research are presented.

Summary

The study set out to examine responsiveness of the local government system to the developmental needs of households and communities in the Central Region of Ghana. From a systems perspective, participation and accountability were examined as an integral part of responsiveness of local government to community needs and rights. The human capital, basic needs and rights based approach informed needs, while decentralisation theorem, political agency and principal agents, structural functionalist and systems theories informed participation, responsiveness and accountability. These informed the theoretical, conceptual and analytical framework, and methodology adopted for the study.

Mixed-methods approach and descriptive design were adopted for the study. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used to sample 1,143 household respondents at community level, while purposive sampling was used to select 55 key informants at the district level and 24 Assembly persons at the

community level. Interviews, focus group discussions and observations were the main methods of data collection while interview schedules, interview guides, focus group discussion guides and observation checklist were the instruments used for data collection. The Cape Coast Metropolis was purposively selected while Mfantseman Municipality and Twifo Ati-Mokwa District were randomly selected. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the quantitative data while the qualitative data employed content analysis, transcription and interpretation.

Key Findings of the Study

The key findings are based on the research objectives. The first objective addressed the developmental needs of households, communities and development priorities of the assemblies. The main findings were as follows:

1. There were 31 developmental needs across the communities and districts in the study area. All were basic needs and rights related to the human development issues of jobs, livelihood and income, water and sanitation, health and education and infrastructure. Although, the developmental needs of households and communities differed by sex and locality, they reflected the needs and aspirations for survival, security and enablement.

2. Cape Coast Metropolis respondents prioritised sanitation, market, roads maintenance, and repair of streetlights as their most pressing needs. Mfantseman Municipality respondents prioritised jobs, sanitation, roads maintenance, schools and hospital, while Twifo Ati-Mokwa District identified sanitation, water, roads and bridge, market and health centre as

the pressing priority needs. Most of the needs were congruent with the provisions in the MTDP yet, they have not been implemented.

Objective two, examined who participates, how and the extent of people's participation in needs determination and the extent to which that influences responsiveness. The following key findings emerged:

3. Most of the respondents (44%) said they were not involved in needs identification. In CCM (44.8) and MM (61.9) while TAMD (25. 1) percent agreed that the respective assemblies did not involve the people and the communities in development decision-making.

4. Contrary to the belief that the assembly persons, unit committee members and traditional leaders were perceived to be actively involved in determining community needs, the finding suggests otherwise. In CCM (45.8), MM (34.1) and TAMD (33.7) percent of assembly persons were involved while unit committee CCM (10.5) MM (8.6) and TAMD (24.2) percent were actively involved in needs determination.

5. The platforms for expressing ones development needs significantly differed from district to district. The association between the available platforms for needs expression and the representatives are strong and statistically significant.

The third objective examined peoples' perception of responsiveness of the Assemblies to households and community developmental needs. The main findings were as follows:

6. All the three assemblies studied were perceived to be poorly responsive to service delivery in education, health and water to the constituents However, inequity in the distribution of health, educational facilities, and

water were more prominent in MM and TAMD than CCM. This may be partly due to the presence of more private service providers in CCM, which is more urban. Although availability and accessibility to health services and sanitation facilities were perceived to be higher in CCM and lower in MM and TAMD, they were all perceived as not responsive to safe sanitation and economic needs of their residents.

7. The majority (70%) of the household heads were dissatisfied with services provided by their MMDAs while 51 percent were not satisfied with the speed and accuracy with which the assemblies responded to households and communities needs and concerns.

8. The decentralised planning process at each MMDA and sub-district levels relied more on the knowledge and voice of the assembly persons and unit committees for the needs of their electorates, instead of broadening citizens' participation. Participation in needs identification through consultation, information sharing signified a lower level on the ladder of participation.

In the fourth objective, the effective utilisations of accountability mechanisms were analysed. The following key findings emerged:

9. Downward accountability mechanisms are not effectively utilised in CCM, MM and TAMD. Mechanisms and channels available for citizens' to voice their concerns and needs to the right institutions at that local level and demand response and accountability were underutilised. Attitudes and behaviour of the residents, that is the demand-side, and the Assemblies, the supply-side reinforced the low utilisation and accountability of the Assemblies to the citizens.

10. Citizens' direct involvement in local affairs and elections to choose their representatives, and reward good performance by retaining them in office or sanction poor performance by voting them out has not ensured the desired political accountability and government responsiveness.

11. Citizens' knowledge of accountability mechanisms, access to information and contact with key government institutions were equally low. Citizens are yet, to take full advantage of the mechanisms built into the local government structures and systems by Act 462 to ensure accountability.

Objective five examined the operational challenges to Assemblies' responsiveness and accountability. It found that:

12. Operational challenges such as organisational capacity constraints, inadequate resources, undue political influence and unresponsive behaviours and attitudes of public officials have rendered the local government less participatory, responsive and accountable.

13. Non-functionality of the sub-structures affected not only participation but also accountability and responsiveness at the local level. Lip service paid to the sub structures by successive national governments has minimised their potential as one of the decentralised structures to galvanise participation, responsiveness and accountability at the local level.

Conclusions

Developmental needs of households and communities are related to poverty reduction and are concerned with promoting the rights and well-being of people. The developmental needs of households and communities also reflects the fundamental aspirations of people, which includes survival,

security, decent work and higher incomes, living in peace, liberty and achieving functions and functioning. Nevertheless, the need for jobs, employment and better incomes, sanitation, water, health were basic and consistent with citizen's rights and their fulfilment is a right not a privilege. How well the Assemblies respond to these needs and rights reflects their degree of responsiveness.

MMDAs have not created enough awareness of the platforms provided for the majority of citizens' to participate in the development process in ways that they would like to be involved. This has adversely affected levels of utilisation of the existing participatory mechanism. Few influential individuals and groups were involved in the development decision-making process, but the majority of them are still not involved in the decision-making processes. Political influence, resource envelope, and the unwillingness of the assemblies to respond promptly were critical factors in achieving responsiveness.

CCMA, MMA and TAMDA were perceived as poorly responsive to households and communities pressing needs. None of these were perceived to be very responsive to the community needs and concerns. CCMA was deemed to be responsive to water, education and health but not to the sanitation needs of the residents. MMA was unresponsive to demand for jobs, sanitation, roads and health needs of its residents, especially those outside the district capital, while TAMDA was not responsive to sanitation, water, and health needs of people outside the capital. All of them were not responsive to sanitation and maintaining roads as well as local economic needs.

Accountability has not been given the deserved attention by both the citizens and the Assemblies, thereby, making accountability in CCM, MM and

TAMD more a rhetoric than a reality. The citizens are not engaging well with their local governments and vice versa to promote responsive and accountable development. In this respect, from a systems and structural functionalist perspectives, both the demand-side and supply-side are not well connected. The study therefore is unable to confirm or deny that proximity to people enhances participation, responsiveness and accountability. The study concludes that the organisational capacity of local government (MMDAs) and community engagement and accountability remain very crucial for responsible, responsive and accountable governance.

Again, developmental needs and preferences of households and communities in the Central Region are heterogeneous, diverse and differ by locality and sex. Unmet needs could result in poverty, ill-being as well as citizens' dissatisfaction with government performance at all levels. To be responsive, it is imperative that local governments re-examine the needs of their constituents from time to time, and reflect changes in their policies, programmes and plans. The study therefore, concludes that theoretically, conceptually and empirically the assumed synergies among participation, responsiveness and accountability yields mixed results.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings and conclusions of the study, the following targeted recommendations were made.

It is recommended that at CCMA:

1. The Assembly and assembly persons should sensitize household heads and communities. This is necessary to raise their awareness and enhance access and contact with public officials, intensify their interaction and

improve the quality of engagement between them and demand accountability. To increase participation, MPCU should collaborate with civil society organisations, traditional authorities and organise more public fora and meetings to sensitise the electorate.

2. Address the sanitation problems in the city. This should be done by CCMA with the support of the waste management department, as well as complete ongoing market projects and repair the deplorable roads in the city, with the help of the urban roads departments.

At MMA, it is recommended that,

1. The priority needs: job, sanitation, water and road maintenance should be addressed by the M/DPCU in collaboration with the relevant ministries; Ministry of Roads and Transport, Ministry of Works, Water Resources and Housing and the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. The remaining needs identified should be factored into the medium term development plan (2014-2017) and resources allocated for implementation. This would enhance responsiveness.

2. The Assembly should seek equity and fairness in the distribution of resources, development interventions and health needs in order to enhance responsiveness.

With respect to TAMDA,

1. The Assembly is advised to seek equity and fairness in the distribution of resources, development interventions and projects to enhance responseveness by adopting transparent procedures.

2. It should provide water to the least served areas like Twifo - Praso area council and respond to healthcare needs of Twifo-Mampong area council with urgency since they are basic to their sustenance.

In general the three assemblies should:

- Build the capacity of all assembly persons, core staff of the CCMA, MMA and TAMDA and the decentralised departments. Attitudinal and behaviour change skills must be integrated into the capacity building programmes.

- Adopt more transparent procedures in their engagement with the public and ensure information flows. This can be done by equipping the public relations and complaints committee (PRCC) to perform their oversight roles and also sensitise the public to channel their complaints and demands for accountability to the assembly through the PRCC.

- Create awareness and sensitize households, community members and build their capacity in order to enable them participate in planning, decision-making and demand accountability from duty bearers. They can do this by contacting NCCE for advice, sensitisation workshops and durbars. The above measures are expected to enable them to engage better with the public, provide better services, and respond to their needs..

Contribution to Knowledge

The thesis makes three significant contributions to knowledge. First, theoretically and conceptually, the combined application of systems theory, decentralisation theorem and human capital, basic needs, capabilities and typologies of participation provide inter-linkages among the theories and concepts. Secondly, more detailed analyses of developmental needs and the

extent of citizens' participation in needs identification and measurement have been added to the methodology for assessing responsiveness. Thirdly, the findings of the study add up to empirical knowledge on responsiveness and accountability in public sector and local government management.

Limitations of the Study

The study relied mainly on the memory and perceptions of respondents as a proxy to assess responsiveness of Ghana's local government system to community needs. Respondents may not have been able to recall exactly from memory and give exact responses. This may have some elements of subjectivity or over exaggeration. However, the large sample adopted for the study increased objectivity. A major limitation of the study however is the fact that only one budget (2012-2013) had been prepared following the re-demarcation and creation of new districts in 2012. More data on annual budgets would be required in order to undertake an assessment of resource allocation and responsiveness to needs. Good governance areas of transparency and rule of law were excluded from the study.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

The assemblies that have never been studied for responsiveness present opportunities for further study to be conducted and scaled up to the other regions in Ghana in order to have a broader picture of the decentralised local government system's responsiveness to citizens needs at the district, regional and national levels. The composite budget of the MMDAs are being rolled out and when fully operationalised further studies could be carried out in the area of resource allocation and expenditure in order to assess responsiveness to

household and community needs. The study revealed that little attention has been given to accountability at the local level. Further research is needed in this area to help improve on accountability and responsiveness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HOUSEHOLD HEADS

Introduction

The researcher is a PhD candidate at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. He is conducting a study on "Responsiveness of the Local Government System to the developmental needs of people in the Central Region of Ghana". Your local government area and community have been selected for the study. You are kindly required to share your opinion on the issues in this interview schedule. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and used for academic purposes only. Thank you for your participation.

For official Use

District: Cape Coast Metropolis { } Mfantseman Municipal { } Twifo Ati-Mokwa{ }

Name of community:.......................Suburb of the community........................

Name of interviewer:...................... Date of interview.................................

Section A: Characteristics of respondents

1. Sex: Female [ ] Male [ ]

2. Age (years) of respondent ....

3. What is your highest level of education reached? Kindly tick the appropriate one.   [ ]

    (a) Never been to school

(b) Dropped out before completing Junior High/Middle School

(c) Basic level: completed Junior High /Middle School   [ ]

(d) Secondary level: completed SHS /Vocational/ Technical   [ ]

(e) Polytechnic: Diploma, Degree   [ ]

(f) University: Diploma, Degree. Post Graduate, PhD   [ ]

(g) Other specify...   [ ]

4. How many years have you lived in this community?

....

5. What is your main occupation? ....

Section B: Participation in the determination of community's developmental needs

6. List and rank five developmental needs of people in this community? Give reasons for your ranking.

Community Developmental Needs	Rank 1.2.3.4.5	Reasons given for ranking
....		....
....		....
....		....

7. Who takes part in the determination of the community needs?

....

8. How do you take part in the determination of the development needs of your community?

(a) Non – involvement

(b) Officials or representatives impose their will in determining the needs of the community.

(c) Few people are consulted but suggestions are not reflected in the final decision.

(d). People provide information and inputs for implementation

(e). Involved in the decision making process in a two way dialogue process but contributions may not be listen and bound to follow.

(f). Appeasing people is the lowest level of involvement in decision making

(g). Partnership and delegation, working with or through other stakeholders in decision - making and implementation of interventions indicate accepted levels of involvement.

(h). Citizens optimum level of involvement in decision making, implementation and management of development interventions.

9. Indicate the level of satisfaction with your involvement in needs identification.

i.	Very satisfied	( )
ii.	Satisfied	( )
iii.	Indifferent	( )
iv.	Dissatisfied	( )
v.	Very dissatisfied	( )

10 .Give reasons for your answer to Q10 ....

11. Does the Assembly focus on the development needs of few groups? (a)

Yes ( ) (b) No ( ) (c) Don't know ( )

12. If yes, which categories of people in the community do you think benefit most from the Assembly's interventions? *Tick as many responses as are*

Tick√

applicable   { }

Government officials at that level   { }

(a) Elite and rich people in the community

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(b) Pro poor i.e. very poor, marginalised, persons with disability { }

(c) Political party and constituency leaders

(d) Urban residents { }

(e) Rural residents { }

Others (specify) .... { }

13. What reasons do you think account for the assembly focusing attention on these groups mentioned in 12? ....

14. What platforms exist in the community for Assembly person – community engagement in determining community needs? (E.g. meetings, consultations, NGOs forum and networks, and ethnic and trade associations).

15. How do community members access the platforms in Q14 and demand attention from the Assembly? Is it easy { } or difficult {) to demand attention. Give as many reasons as you can for your answer?

....

16. What factors influence the Assembly in responding to community needs?

Section C: Responsiveness of the local government system to community needs

17. In your view, what is your Assembly doing to address your community developmental needs? ....

18. When you make a request to the Assembly, how long do you have to wait for the Assembly to address your request? ....

19. Give reasons for your answer Q19? ....

20. How swift does the Assembly's response to your community needs?

a. Very fast ( )   b, Fast ( )

c. Cannot tell ( )   d. Slow ( )

e .Very slow (   )

Give reasons for your answer?..

21. To what extent would you say that your Assembly's interventions are addressing the developmental needs of the people with disabilities (PWD's)

(a)Very well   {   }   (b) Well   {   }

(c) Indifferent   {   }   (d) Fairly well   {   }

(e) Not well   {   }

22. Give reason for your answer...

23. In your view, how much has the Assembly improved the delivery of services and facilities in the community over the last 4 years (2010-2013) coterminous with the Medium Term Development Plan implementation?

i.   Improved very much

ii.   Improved much

iii.   Improved a little

iv.   No improvement

v.   Deteriorated a little

vi.   Deteriorated very much

24. Give reasons for your answer to Q24

....

25. On a scale of 1 to 10, how would you rate the overall performance of your Assembly in providing services to your community? ....

26. Give reasons for your answer to the question above. ....

27. On a scale of 1-10 indicate your overall satisfaction with the operations of local government and services provided...

28. Give reasons for your answer ....

29. *To what extent do you agree with these statements on responsiveness of development plans, resources allocation and services provision to community needs? Choose from a scale of one to five. 5 Strongly Agree, 4 Agree, 3 Fairly Agree 2 Least Agree 1 Does not agree*

Responsiveness	Level of agreement on scale					Give Reasons
	5	4	3	2	1	
Congruence						
(a).Assembly's development projects are distributed equitably among communities needs.						
Resources						
(b).Assembly matches its resources to community priority needs.						
Services delivery						
(c) Assemblies match public services to community needs						
Timeliness						
(d) local government acts on priority needs with prompt attention						
Accessibility						
(e)The closer a community is to the Assembly office /administration the more its needs are easily met						

30. *Please, indicate the availability and accessibility to quality of services received from the following facilities in your community. Indicate availability with Yes or No, accessibility with a score of 1 to 5. A score of 5 is the highest and 1 is the lowest. Indicate level of satisfaction with a score of 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest and 1 the lowest. Tick (√) the appropriate column and cell and give your reasons*

Facility and services	Availability		Accessibility					Reasons	Level of satisfaction					Reasons
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5	
(a) School														
(b) Health facility														
(c)Potable Water														
(d) Sanitation- toilet refuse disposal,														
(e)Markets														
(f) Motorable Roads														

Section D: Accountability mechanism and their utilisation

Indicate your response by answering the following statements

31. Did you vote in the last local elections? Yes ( ) No ( ) Don't remember ( )

32. Do you consult your assembly member with issues before he/she attends Assembly meetings? Yes ( ) No ( ) Don't remember ( )

33. Do you consult your assembly member after Assembly meetings for feedback? Yes ( ) No ( ) Don't remember ( )

34. Do you contact any of the following structures or persons when you have an issue with the development of your community? Is it easy to contact.

Local governance Structures	Contact		Ease of access		Give reasons
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
a. Assembly office					
b. Assembly officials					
c. Area council office					
d. Assembly person					
e. Unit committee member					

35. Do you know of any other means that has been provided by the Assembly for communities to demand accountability from the Assembly officials'?

i. Yes { }   ii. No { } iii. Not sure { } *Note: If No, skip to Q36.*

36. If yes, mention at most three means available for your community to hold the Assembly and officials accountable? (a)..

(b).. (c)..

37. How does your Assembly account to the local people and communities for the revenues/resources they receive on behalf of the people?

....

38. If elections were held today, would you vote for the current Assembly member? Yes [ ]   No [   ] Don't know [   ]

39. Give reasons for your answer ....

40. Indicate you knowledge of these channels for accountability and if you have used it before. Tick√ the appropriate column and give remarks

Mechanism for accountability	Knowledge of existence		Used the means before		Remarks
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
a. Dissemination of Information to the public					
b. Complaints made to Public Relations and Complaints Committee (PRCC) of the Assembly					
(c) Public hearings /community durbars					
(d).Publications of budget /statement of accounts					

41. Indicate your local government's overall accountability performance on a scale of 0-10. Score: ....

42. Give reasons for your answer...

43. To what extent do you agree with the following statements of MMDAs accountability to their constituents? Indicate your views by choosing from a scale of one to five. 5. Strongly Agree 4 Agree, 3. Fairly Agree 2.Least Agree 1. Does not agree

Accountability	Level of agreement on scale of 0 to 4					Give Reasons
	Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	Fairly agree 3	Least agree 2	Does not agree 1	
(a). Local government treats you with respect/dignity when dealing with your community needs						
(b). Local government respects your rights and liberties when providing services to constituents						
(c) local government acts with legitimacy when taking-decisions at that level						
(d) local government use sanctions to demand the best from public officials and agencies						
(e)local governments treat citizens fairly and equitably						

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44. Mention five challenges you think the Assembly face in responding to peoples' development needs?

....

....

45. What suggestions do you have for improving participation, accountability and responsiveness of the Assembly to meet people's needs?

....

....

Thank You

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CORE STAFF OF CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION AND HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS

Introduction

The researcher is conducting a study on "Responsiveness of the Local Government System to the developmental needs of people in the Central Region of Ghana" for a PhD degree in Development Studies, at the University of Cape Coast. Your local government area and you have been selected for the study. You are kindly required to share your views on issues in this interview guide. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and used for academic purposes only.   Thank you for your participation

For official Use

Study Area Code...

District: Cape Coast Metropolis{ }Mfantseman Municipal{}Twifo Ati-

Mokwa{}   Name of community: ....

Name of interviewer: .... Date of interview.....................

Rank/Position in the Assembly

i.   Chief Executive   ii. Coordinating Director

ii.   Directors/Head of Department /Unit Heads

iii.   Officers (Finance, Budget, Planning, Environmental Health)

iv.   Other specify..

Section A: Participation in the determination of developmental needs

1. What are the development policies of this Assembly? Probe for policies for water, sanitation, education, health, markets and roads.

2. What are the development priorities of the district? List and rank five priority developmental needs of communities in this district? Probe for reasons.

3. What mechanisms have been put in place for Assembly and community engagement in the planning processes?

4. How do you involve the community members in the determination of developmental needs?

5. How do you provide information to communities and get feedback from them?

6. How do you ensure that communities actively take part in the needs identification and development planning processes?

7. How does the assembly allocate projects/resources to communities?

8. What are the challenges with actively involving people in this district in the decision-making process?

Section B: Responsiveness of Assembly to the developmental needs

9. What resources are available to the Assembly for development?

10. Probe for the criteria the Assembly uses to allocate resources to communities?

11. Which factors influence Assembly's resource allocation to community needs in the district?

12. What is the Assembly doing to ensure transparency and answerability in its processes of governance and development?

13. What makes it difficult for communities to approach the Assembly with their needs?

14. How are public services provided by the Assembly meeting the priority needs of communities?

15. How do people perceive the performance of the Assembly in providing accessible basic facilities and services to communities?

16. What makes it difficult for your Assembly to respond promptly to needs of the communities?

Section C: Accountability mechanisms and their utilisation

17. How accessible are the Assembly offices and officials to the people?

18. How open are the Assembly's processes for engaging the public?

19. What kinds of information flow between the assembly and the people?

20. What arrangements are there for people to hold Assembly accountable?

21. What challenges do you think the Assembly faces in responding to development needs?

22. Give three suggestions for improving participation, accountability and responsiveness of the Assembly to meet people's needs?

Thank you.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR ASSEMBLY PERSONS

Introduction

The researcher is a PhD candidate at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. He is conducting a study on "Responsiveness of the Local Government System to the developmental needs of people in the Central Region of Ghana". Your local government area and your community have been selected for the study. You are kindly required to share your views on how your MMDA promotes local people's participation in the decision-making process, responds to their community needs and account to them. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and used for academic purposes only. Thank you

For official use

District: Cape Coast Metropolis{}Mfantseman Municipal{}Twifo Ati-Mokwa{}

Name of community: ....Suburb of community.....................

Name of interviewer :...............................Date of interview...........................

Section A: Background Information

1. Highest academic level reached

2. Length of service. How many terms have you served as an AP for your community/ electoral area.

3. How central/close is your community of residence to other communities in your electoral area?

Section B: Participation in the determination of developmental needs

4. What is your role as an Assembly person in determining the community needs?

5. What arrangements are in place for civic-community engagements to determine their development needs?

6. What arrangements are in place for you to decide on resource allocation and approval of budgets by the General Assembly

7. What are the developmental needs of people in this area,

Section C: Responsiveness of Assembly to people's needs

8. Find out people's involvement with the planning process at area council level

9. How much time does it take the assembly to complete projects in this community? Look for any completed projects in the community and find out when it was started and when it was completed.

9. How satisfied are you with the quality of services in education, health, water, sanitation, markets, and roads provided by your Assembly or services provider?

10. How do citizens' perceive satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the service of the following: i. District Assembly ii. Assemblyperson iii. Unit committees?

Section D: Accountability mechanisms and their utilisation

11. Do you consult your community members on issues before attending every Assembly meeting and report back to them afterwards?

12. How does information flow from community to AP and to MMDA?

13. What are the arrangements for the community's to demand accountability?

14. What challenges do APs face in their work? Suggest ways for improvement.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR UNIT COMMITTEE

Introduction

The researcher is a PhD candidate at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. He is conducting a study on "Responsiveness of the Local Government System to the developmental needs of people in the Central Region of Ghana". Your local government area and your community have been selected for the study. You are kindly required to share your views on issues in this guide. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and used for academic purposes only.

Thank you

For official use

District: Cape Coast Metropolis {}Mfantseman Municipal{}Twifo Ati-Mokwa

Name of community: ....Suburb ....

Name of interviewer: .... Date of interview...........................

Section A: Introduction

1. Background and description of focus group

a. Name and description of focus group

b. Number of people present: males and females met

Section B: Participation in the determination of developmental needs

2. Community civic engagement

a. Platforms, type and frequency of engagement

b. Consultation of constituents/participation and use of voice mechanisms

c. Decision making and resource mobilisation/allocation

d. Handling of public complaints and grievances at that level

e. Process and practices used to facilitate engagement and participation

Section C: Responsiveness of the Assembly to people's needs

3. Find out U/C member's availability, public's access to unit committee members and platforms for interaction.

a. Information flow between the UC and the constituents.

b. Relationships with the community and other local government structures

4. Probe for people's levels of satisfaction with performance, quality of services and timeliness

a. Gauging citizen's perception of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with Assembly unit committee's performance

b. Unit committees satisfaction with the

c. Satisfaction with services provided by Assembly.

5. Mention challenges Unit Committees face in performing their duties?

Section D: Accountability mechanisms and their of utilisation

6. Explore knowledge of existing channels of accountability and extent of utilisations by local people and satisfaction levels.

7. Give three suggestions for improving participation, accountability and responsiveness.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR PERSONS WITH DISABILITY

Introduction

The researcher is a PhD candidate at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. He is conducting a study on "Responsiveness of the Local Government System to the developmental needs of people in the Central Region of Ghana". Your local government area and your community have been selected for the study. You are kindly required to share your views on the issues in the FGD guide. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and used for academic purposes only.

For official Use

Study Area Code..

District: Cape Coast Metropolis { } Mfantseman Municipal{ } Ati-Mokwa

District{ } Name of community: ....

Name of interviewer: .... Date of interview................

Section A: Participation in the determination of needs

1. Participation in development needs determination

a. PWDs and local government structures engagement type and frequency of engagement, platforms and spaces for participation

b. PWDs voice in determining developmental needs and resource allocation - knowledge of share of DACF for vulnerable groups and utilisation.

c. Handling of public complaints and grievances at that level

Section B: Responsiveness of local government to PWDs needs

2. Responsiveness of Unit Committees to community needs

   a. PWD's access to Assembly persons and Unit committees.

   b. Information flow between PWDs and APs/UCs.

   c. Relationships with community and other local government structures

   d. Gauging citizen's perception of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with unit committee performance

Section C: Accountability mechanism and utilisation by PWDs

3. Accountability of representatives and MMDA to citizens

   a. Available mechanisms for accountability

   b. Access that people have to the available mechanisms and information

   c. levels of utilisation and satisfaction levels

4. What are the challenges PWDs face in accessing help from the Assembly?

5. Give three suggestions for improving participation, accountability and responsiveness?

DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE SIZE FOR RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

The ever increasing demand for research has created a need for an efficient method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population. The research division of the National Education Association has published a formula for determining sample size. Regrettably a table has not been available for ready, easy reference which could have been constructed using the following formula.

$$s = X_2 NP(1- P) \div d_2(N-1) + X_2 P(1- P).$$

s = required sample size.

X_2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

No calculations are needed to use Appendix F. For example, to know the sample size required to be representative of the opinions of 92,035 household heads needed to assess participation, responsiveness and accountability for the Cape Coast Metropolis. To obtain the required sample size enter Appendix F at N = 75,000 and 100,000 for the corresponding sample size of 382 and 384 respectively. Since the number 92,035 is closer to 100,000 the corresponding sample size of 384 was selected to achieve representativeness. Appendix F is applicable to any defined population. The sample size also increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases.

TABLE FOR DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE FROM A POPULATION

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	378
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—N is population size. S is sample size.

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970) Determination of Sample Size for Research Activities.

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APPENDIX G

ITINERARY FOR FIELDWORK IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLITAN ASSEMBLY

Fieldwork dates and period for data collection

Area Council	Locality	Sample	Household survey	Focus group discussions		Key informants interviews	
				Unit Committees	PWDs	Assembly persons	Core staff Metropolitan Assembly
Abura - Addisadel (128)	Abura	(81)	18th - 20th Oct, 2013	20th Oct,2013	21st Oct,2013	21st Oct, 2013	24th-31st Oct, 2013
	Addisadel	(32)	21st - 22nd Oct	-	-	22nd Oct, 2013	-
	Ridge	(15)	23rd-24th Oct,	-	-	24th Oct, 2013	-
Abakam-Ola(112)	Akotokyir	(22)	25-26th Oct,	24th Oct,2013	25th Oct,2013	26th Oct, 2013	-
	Ola	(77)	27-29th Oct,	-	-	28th Oct, 2013	-
	Amamoma	(13)	29th Oct, 2013	-	-	29th Oct,2013	-
Aankyin-Bakaano (144)	Bakaano	(40)	1st-2nd Nov,2013	3rd Nov, 2013	4th Nov, 2013	2nd Nov,2013	-
	Kotokruaba	(80)	3rd - 4th Nov	-	-	4th Nov, 2013	-
	Victoria Park	(24)	7th-8th Nov, 2013	-	-	8th Nov.2013	-

Source: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

ITINERARY FOR FIELDWORK IN THE MFANTSEMAN MUNICIPALITY

Area Council	Locality Sample	Fieldwork Dates/Period				
		Household survey	Focus Group Discussion		Key Informants Interview	
			Unit Committees	PWDs	Assembly persons	Core staff of the Municipal Assembly
Saltpond 15th-22nd November (132)	Saltpond (106)	15th -19th Nov, 2013	22nd Nov,2013	22nd Nov,2013	19th Nov ,2013	15th-22 Nov, 2013
	Anokye (13)	20th -21st Nov			20th Nov, 2013	-
	Abonko (13)	20-21st Nov	-	-	20-21st Nov	—
Abandze 23rd-30th November (84)	Abandze (33)	29-30th Nov	-	-	29th Nov	-
	Kromantse (41)	23-24 Nov	30th Nov, 2013	30th Nov, 2013	23-24th Nov	-
	Otsir (10)	25th Nov			25th Nov	-
Mankessim 1st-8th Dec (168)	Mankessim (150)	1st -7th Dec	8th Dec, 2013	8th Dec, 2013	7 -8th Dec	-
	Gyendu (8)	4th Dec, 2013			4th Dec	-
	Eduafo (10)	4th Dec, 2013			4rd Dec	-

Source: Field survey, Bamfo (2013)

APPENDIX I

ITINERARY FOR FIELDWORK IN THE TWIFO ATI-MOKWA DISTRICT

| Area Council | Locality | Sample | | Fieldwork Dates / Period | | | |
| | | | | Focus group discussions | | Key informants interviews | |
			Household survey	Unit Committees	PWDs	Assembly persons	Core staff of the District Assembly
Twifo Praso (144)	Twifo Praso	(88)	14 -17st Dec 2013	17th Dec 2013	17th Dec 2013	15th Dec 2013	14th -21st Dec
	Damang	(28)	14th Dec 2013	-	-	14th Dec 2013	-
	Aboso	(28)	18th Dec 2013	-	-	18th Dec 2013	-
Nyenase (123)	Nyenase	(90)	7-14th Jan14	13th Jan 2014	13th Jan 2014	8th Jan 2014	-
	Adugya	(16)	11th Jan 2014	-	-	11th Dec 2014	-
	Kayireku	(39)	12-13th Jan 2014	-	-	12th Jan 2014-	-
Mampong (111)	Mampong	(58)	14-17th Jan 2014	17th Jan 2014	17th Jan 2012	14th Jan 2014	-
	Eduabeng	(24)	18th Jan 2014	-	-	19th Jan 2014-	-
	Kwanyarko	(29)	20th Jan 2014	-	-	20th Jan2014-	-

Source: Field Survey, Bamfo (2013:2014)

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DISTRIBUTION OF ASSEMBLY PERSONS INTERVIEWED AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSANTS

MMDA	Area council	Community	Assembly person interviewed	No. of participants		FGD with Persons with disability
				FGD with Unit committee members		
Cape Coast Metropolis	Abura- Adisadel	Abura	2	6		4
	Anakyin Bakano	Bakano	3	6		4
	Ola	Amamoma	2	6		2
		Subtotal	7	*18*		*10*
Mfantseman Municipality	Saltpond	Saltpond	2	6		3
	Mankessim	Mankessim	2	6		4
	Abandze	Abandze	2	6		2
		Sub total	6	*18*		*9*
Twifo-Ati Mokwa district	Twifo Praso	Praso	3	6		2
	Mampong	Mampong	3	6		2
	Nyenase	Nyenase	2	6		2
		Subtotal	8	*18*		*6*
	Total		21	54		25

Note: The figure for Assembly persons excludes the three Presiding members in CCMA, MMA and TAMDA interviewed.

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013)

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PRIORITISED DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS BY LOCALITY IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

Area Council/	Abura-Adisadel			Ola –Abakam			Bakaano-kotokroaba		Victoria
Community	Abura	Adisade	Ridge	Ola	Amamoma	Akotokyir	Bakaano	kotokroaba	Victoria
Priority-Need			Residential						Park
Sanitation–toilet/ Sanitation refuse mgt	1	2	5	1	2	1	1	1	3
Clean gutters	2	1	-	-	1	-	2	2	2
Water regular flow/	-	-	1	5	4	-	3	-	
Market	-	-	-	4	3	1	4	-	
Jobs /Credit	-	3		3	-	5	5	3	1
School		4						5	5
Streetlights Repair	-	5	2	2	5	4	4	4	4
Roads (transport)	3		4			3			
Community centre	4	-	-	-	-	-		-	
Clinic/health centre	5	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	
Police station	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	

Note: 1,2,3,4 and 5 represents the order of priority of community needs

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

APPENDIX L

PRIORITISED DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS BY LOCALITY IN THE MFANTSEMAN MUNICIPALITY

Area		Saltpond			Mankessim			Abandze		
Council/	Salt pond	Abonko	Anokye	Mankessim	Eduafo	Gyedu	Abandze	kormantse	Otsir
Community/ Priority-Need/									
Job/credit	1	3	5	1	3	-	2	1	3
Sanitation toilet/ urinal waste mgt	2	1	3	2	-2	-	-	-	-
Education school	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Roads repair	4	-	-	4	4	4	-	-	2
Water	5	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	
Market	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Clinic/health centre	-	-	-5	-	-	-	-	-	
Electricity	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	

Note: 1,2,3,4 and 5 represents the order of priority of community needs

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).

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APPENDIX M

PRIORITISED DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS BY LOCALITY IN THE TWIFO ATI-MOKWA DISTRICT

Area	Council	Twifo-Praso			Nyinase				Twifo- Mampong		
Community/ Priority Needs	Praso	Aboso	Damang	Nyinase	Adugya	Kayireko	Mampong	Eduabeng	Kwanyaako
Bridge/road	1	5	1	1	1	3	-	-	-
Job/credit	4	-	5	-	2	1	-	-	-
Market	-	-	-	-	-	4	2	1	1
Electricity	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clinic/Health centre	-	-	-	3	-	-	1	-	2
school	-	2	2	5	3	2	-	5	-
Drains, eulvert	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	4	4
Water	3	3	3	-	5	5	-	2	3
Sanitation	2	4	4	4	4	-	3	-	-
Community centre	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	3	-
Police station	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-

Note: 1,2,3,4 and 5 represents the order of priority of community needs

Source: Field survey data, Bamfo (2013).