

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

LEADERSHIP AND PERFORMANCE OF DECENTRALISED LOCAL  
GOVERNMENT SYSTEM IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA

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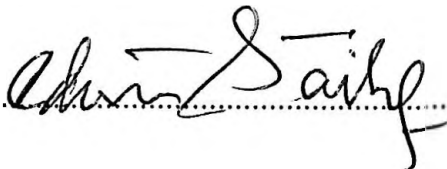
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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

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

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### Supervisors' Declaration

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 set out to examine leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region of Ghana. Descriptive survey design and mixed-methods approaches were used. Multi-stage sampling procedures were used to select a sample of 989 respondents. Cape Coast Metropolis, Effutu Municipality and Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District were purposively selected. Data were collected on regional, district and community actors using an interview guide and interview schedules. Content analysis, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

The study found that although mixed leadership behaviours were exhibited in the three study areas, the political and technocratic leaders were generally perceived as autocratic, while the Assembly persons were perceived as democratic. The leadership approaches influenced participation, but did not influence performance. Differences in perceptions of the influence of the leadership approaches on participation and performance in the three study sites were not statistically significant. The Functional Organisational Assessment Tool (FOAT) framework focused on response to policy and legal mandates with little focus on the influence of leadership approaches on performance.

It is recommended that leaders of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies should involve their followers to enable them demand accountability to improve leadership and performance. There is the need for collaboration among departments in the Assemblies and to integrate assessment of the leadership approaches into eliciting response to performance requirements in the FOAT framework.

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## DEDICATION

To my late parents, Mr. James Baisie Ghartey and Mrs. Alice Ghartey, my dear wife, Bertha, and our lovely children, Yookow and Kukua.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAP	Annual Action Plan
AOB	Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa
CCMA	Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly
CHPS	Community Health Planning Services
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DACF	District Assemblies' Common Fund
DCE	District Chief Executive
DD	Decentralised Department
DDF	District Development Facility
DRA	Demand Responsive Approach
FOAT	Functional and Organisational Assessment Tool
GNI	Gross National Income
GoG	Government of Ghana
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation
HoD	Head of Department
IGF	Internally Generated Fund
ILGS	Institute of Local Government Studies
IMCC	Inter-Ministerial Coordinating Committee
KEEA	Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem
LI	Legislative Instrument
MC	Minimum Condition
MDA	Ministries, Departments and Agencies



MLGRD	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
MLGRDE	Ministry of Local Government Rural Development and Environment
MMCE	Metropolitan/Municipal Chief Executive
MMDA	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assembly
MMDCD	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Coordinating Director
MMDCE	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Chief Executive
NA	Native Authority
NCCE	National Commission on Civic Education
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NRCD	National Redemption Council Decree
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PA	Public Agenda
PM	Performance Measures
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
PNDCL	Provisional National Defence Council Law
RCA	Regional Committees of Administration
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
RPCU	Regional Planning Coordinating Unit
SD	Sustainable Development
SNGs	Sub-National Governments
SPSS	Statistical Products and Service Solutions
UCC	University of Cape Coast

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### **Background to the study**

Development permeates the aspirations of governments, politicians, academics, civil society, development partners and the international community (Myrdal, 1968). It is the sustained elevation of an entire society and social system towards a better or more humane life that ensures sustenance, self-esteem and freedom (Goulet, 1971). Achieving sustenance implies the ability to meet basic needs such as food, shelter, health and protection, while self-esteem aims at ensuring that citizens have a sense of worth and self-respect. Freedom, on the other hand, entails emancipation from alienating material conditions of life and from social servitude to nature, other people, misery, oppressive institutions and inflexible beliefs (Freire, 1990; Sen, 1999).

Todaro and Smith (2009) have, therefore, argued that development should aim to increase the availability and widen the distribution of life-sustaining goods, raise the levels of living through higher incomes, provision of more jobs, better education, greater attention to cultural and human values, as well as generate greater individual and national self-esteem. In addition, development should seek to expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to forces of ignorance, poverty, inequality and human misery.

To achieve desired levels of development requires the efficient harnessing and sustained management of a country's available resources, and their equitable

allocation in the interest of the entire society (Ghartey, 1987). According to Rondinelli and Heffron (2009) and Shah (2005), this requires leadership approaches that ensure involvement of all actors and enable adequate exploitation of the resources at all levels of government, including the national and sub-national levels. It also requires assignment of roles and responsibilities among institutional actors at all levels to facilitate successful performance in overcoming challenges of underdevelopment.

The United Nations (2007a) has argued that without efficient and equitable allocation of resources and responsibilities, there would be imbalance in the development process with people at some levels of the government system making good progress towards development while others remain poor. Building on this, Rondinelli (2007) asserts that although governments have a crucial role in achieving equitable development and reducing poverty, they cannot achieve this alone. Effective governance in a global society implies cooperation and partnerships in which national governments provide leadership and work collaboratively with lower level public administration, the private sector, civil society organisations, as well as other state and international organisations through democratic, transparent, and participative processes (United Nations, 2007b).

Leadership plays a critical role in managing development interventions. It is also important in influencing the performance of sub-national governments (SNGs) in responding to their mandates and the development aspirations of their constituents (Flynn, 1997). Management focuses on planning, organising and controlling the interventions to maintain stability, while leadership focuses on creating a vision for the future and inspiring others to achieve it (Daft & Marcic

1998). Leadership and performance of SNGs from the structural functionalist and systems thinking perspectives are, therefore, interdependent, interconnected and interrelated and ought to be pursued holistically (Beerel, 1998; Checkland, 1999; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002).

However, Daft (1999, p.16) has observed that despite the crucial role that leadership plays in enhancing performance, the focus has been on the delivery of results with “too many people doing management, too few providing leadership, and fewer still integrating the skills and qualities needed for meeting both leadership and management challenges”. Similarly, Covey (2004) submits that most organisations, families included, are vastly over-managed and desperately under-led. Manning and Curtis (2007) and Antwi (2009) have also observed that the weakest link in business, industry and government today is leadership. It could be argued from these assertions that performance of governments at all levels appears to be viewed in isolation from leadership which is an interdependent element in the development management process.

Literature on leadership approaches to development management suggests that although leadership can make a difference to organisational performance, the determinants of leadership success are not as clear-cut. What is clear is that successful organisational leadership relies on a combination of traits, skills, attitudes, environmental and intra-organisational conditions. Therefore, for leadership to achieve higher performance, the leadership behaviour should respond to the situation and environment (Bass, 1997; Bennis, 1993; Sosik, 1997). The leader must have skills to provide the vision, influence the followers to share in the

vision and work together to achieve the vision (Chambers, 1997; Daft, 1999; Rondinelli & Heffron, 2009).

Jung and Avolio (1999) have argued that in accordance with the transformational and integrative leadership theories, leaders must build self-confidence, self-sufficiency and self-esteem in the followers, positively influence followers' identification with the organisation and vision, as well as boost motivation and goal achievement. Consequently, Covey (2004) contends that the leadership approach should seek to reduce leader-dependency and leader-follower co-dependency inclinations in which the followers over-depend on the leader and both the leader and followers depend on one another for subordination and authority. It should empower followers to conceptualise and analyse issues for themselves in order to enhance their understanding and ensure commitment, ownership and enhanced performance in pursuing development goals.

The importance of leadership in the performance of SNGs could be viewed from the micro-theory and macro-theory paradigms. Micro-theory aims to understand social life at the intimate level of individuals and their interactions, while macro-theory appreciates the big picture of institutions, whole societies and the interactions among societies (Babbie, 2007). Micro-theory underscores the importance of leadership in enabling SNGs to function well to achieve sustainable local level development. Macro-theory, on the other hand, emphasises the need for the SNGs to function well to enable the country to perform well in achieving equitable and sustainable development. Building on this, Ahwoi (2010) asserts that since the central government is held responsible for the management of the

national economy, it must be concerned about the performance of its micro-components.

Decentralisation theory (Oates, 1972) informs decentralised decision making and strong role for local governments on grounds of efficiency, accountability, manageability and autonomy. The quest for greater efficiency in the performance of SNGs has provided considerable impetus for decentralised system of local government (Villadsen & Lubanga, 1996). Litvack and Seddan (2002) have noted that decentralisation: a set of policies that encompasses fiscal, political and administrative changes, can impact all aspects of development. It has become a common feature in most developing countries as a way of facilitating development at the local level.

Kendie and Martens (2008) contend that the structure of intergovernmental relations affects everything from the efficiency and equity of service delivery, the social safety net and poverty alleviation programmes, to the development of the financial sector and macroeconomic stability. Consequently, governments across the world have embarked on decentralisation programmes as a way of promoting inclusiveness and ensuring that the local populations are more accurately identified and planned for. Decentralisation has, therefore, become a central issue for development, and both the donor community and governments of developing countries increasingly link development programmes to decentralised structures.

Ghana has undergone local government systems from the colonial era where traditional authorities held military, political and social power to administer local affairs to the current system introduced in 1988 under which political, administrative and fiscal authority have been devolved to local government

structures (Ministry of Local Government Rural Development and Environment - MLGRDE, 2007a). Decentralisation in Ghana is expected to transfer functions, powers, skills, competence, means and resources from the Central Government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) to local government bodies, the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs). It aims to respond to development aspirations of the people, share responsibilities between central and local government institutions and structures, and provide avenues for leadership and participation by the local people (Ahwoi, 2010).

Local governments are increasingly required to play larger roles in providing services, alleviating poverty and facilitating development (Mitlin, 2000). In addition, Shah (2005) notes that the decentralisation of government administration enhances performance by removing development constraints and laying strong foundation for involvement of all actors to achieve accelerated growth, equitable and sustainable local development. Therefore, given the important role that local governments are expected to play, central governments, civil society and development organisations find it imperative to assess the performance of local governments (Sandbakken, 2006). Local governments as used in this study are institutions or entities created by national constitutions, ordinary legislation or executive order to deliver a range of specified services to a relatively small geographically delineated area (Shah, 2006).

Shah (2005) has argued that effective assessment of the performance of decentralised local governments goes a long way in responding to the tenets of decentralisation. Response to the tenets of decentralisation in turn provides the framework for responding to the tenets of good governance. Cheema (2007)

defines governance as the formulation and execution of collective action. It encompasses the direct and indirect roles of formal institutions of local government hierarchies, as well as the roles of informal norms, networks, community organisations and neighbourhood associations in pursuing collective action by defining the framework for citizen-state interactions, collective decision making, and delivery of local public services.

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) asserts that growing disenchantment with government performance has increased pressures for reforms in Europe, with such widespread public dissatisfaction with government being experienced in other regions of the world (OECD, 1996). Accordingly, Rondinelli (2007) submits that the pressures of globalisation, coupled with widespread access to communication have resulted in citizens in many countries demanding more of their governments, with these rising expectations resulting in growing dissatisfaction with, and lack of trust in governments.

Government officials have often been seen by citizens as acting in their own interest rather than responding to the needs of citizens. Dzorgbo (1998) has observed that much has been said in recent years about the failures of the African states. The governments are seen as being authoritarian and controlling society, with the decision-making process lacking transparency. In addition, they are seen as extracting resources from society but spending much of it on themselves and lacking capacity to spur development. Similarly, Rondinelli (2007) has noted that in many countries, the claim by government agents that they are there to serve the interest of the citizenry is met with popular derision. These perspectives of the



citizenry have dominated the rationale for assessing the performance of decentralised local government systems to enhance achievement of equitable and sustainable local level development.

Sandbakken (2006), therefore, suggests that measures should be adopted to assess the performance of local governments in responding to their mandates and the development aspirations of the people to inspire confidence in them. In Ghana, apart from routine progress reports that were demanded of the MMDAs, performance assessment of MMDAs had not been consciously done (MLGRD, 2009). Consequently, the MLGRD, the ministry responsible for providing policy and coordination support to the MMDAs, introduced the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool (FOAT) in 2008 to assess the performance of the MMDAs and motivate them by giving qualified ones additional resources known as the District Development Facility (DDF). Two assessments had been conducted as at January 2011, the first in 2008 and the second in 2009 (MLGRD, 2010a, 2010b).

However, Asante (2009), Gyimah-Boadi (2009) and Offei-Aboagye (2009) have observed that the decentralised local government system in Ghana had been plagued with leadership, participation and performance challenges. Similarly, Ahwoi (2009) had argued that the MMDAs experience frequent and uncoordinated transfers and changes in the top political and administrative hierarchy of the leadership. Among the reasons assigned to these frequent changes in the leadership were their inadequate commitment to the dictates of the political party in power, autocratic tendencies of the leaders, arbitrary use of power, and inequitable allocation and distribution of development interventions. Other reasons assigned

were the poor performance of the leadership in responding to their mandates and development aspirations of their constituents.

The Central Region is no exception to the aforementioned observations. Despite its historical potential in the decentralised local government system in Ghana, it is still grappling with leadership and performance challenges. Its capital, Cape Coast, was the capital of the Gold Coast until 1877, when it was moved to Accra. It was also one of the four regions together with Greater Accra, Western and Ashanti regions in which the Municipal Councils Ordinance of 1859 regulated local government in their major municipalities (Ahwoi, 2010). Furthermore, it is the only region that has a functional Regional Development Corporation, that is, Central Region Development Commission (CEDECOM) (Central Region Coordinating Council - CRCC, 2009).

The Central Region was also the second poorest performed region after Greater Accra, with only two out of the 13 districts qualifying for the DDF in the first FOAT administration in 2008, and the third best in the second assessment in 2009 with 16 out of the 17 MMDAs qualifying for the DDF (MLGRD, 2010b). The region has, therefore, featured prominently in Ghana's decentralisation process and this provides a compelling attraction for examining its leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system. The importance of leadership in enhancing performance in harnessing these potentials and overcoming development challenges, therefore, becomes crucial. This is the major focus of this study. The direction of policy intervention will, however, need to be informed by empirical studies, a gap which this study seeks to fill.

## **Problem statement**

Literature on leadership and development management in most developing countries suggests a tendency for leaders to be directive, instructive and prescriptive rather than involving the followers and beneficiaries in the decision making and implementation processes (Chambers, 1997). In the absence of the leader, therefore, it becomes difficult for the followers and beneficiaries to successfully continue to pursue the development agenda initiated by the leader (Daft, 1999). The followers and beneficiaries are disempowered and assume a passive role in the development management processes. They see the leader as responsible for initiating and directing affairs (Covey, 2004)

This approach to leadership, according to Chambers (1997), is informed by the experiences and realities of the leaders that are self-constructed and do not fit into the context in which they are applied. It slows down the pace of development and sustained growth at the various levels of governance leading to inadequate performance. Chambers (1997) contends that participatory approaches to facilitating development processes between the leaders and followers seem to be the right approach in bridging the gap between them. Similarly, Cooke and Kothari (2001) have argued that proponents of participatory approaches believe that the acts and processes involved in participatory approaches will promote sharing of knowledge and negotiation of power across all levels of state or other global institutions or at the hands of local elites. However, the validity of this claim has not lived up to expectations in its application by change agents (Chambers, 2005).

Chambers (2005) observed that leaders develop their own interpretation of follower needs, as well as their own strategies of intervention, which are sensitive

to their managerial and institutional requirements. Followers then shape their needs to match the administrative requirements, thus validating imposed schemes with local knowledge. Consequently, beneficiaries request what is delivered by leaders and build the leaders' interests into their perspectives, with the leaders' decision becoming perfectly 'participatory'. Osei-Ababio (2007) contends that these realities perpetuate the dependence of followers on the dictates of the leaders, resulting in loss of confidence and trust in their ability to drive their own development agenda. And until the followers reduced dependence on the leader and followers developed their creative abilities, achievement and sustenance of development goals would continue to be a mirage.

Since the introduction of Ghana's decentralised local government system in 1988, a number of reviews and studies have been conducted to assess progress towards achieving effective and efficient decentralisation. Prominent among them are the half-yearly and annual Joint Government of Ghana and Development Partners' Multi-Donor Budget Support Programme Reviews, National Decentralisation Action Plan (MLGRD, 2003), Ghana Decentralisation Policy Review (MLGRDE, 2007a), and Government of Ghana Comprehensive Decentralisation Policy Framework (MLGRDE, 2007b). Others are the Joint Government of Ghana and Development Partners Decentralisation Policy Review (MLGRDE, 2007c), and stakeholder consultation series on the 20 years of decentralisation in Ghana (Decentralisation Agenda, 2009; Ghana Centre for Democratic Development [CDD-Ghana], 2009).

In all these reviews and studies the focus was on progress made in improving the functioning of the local government sub-structures, enhancing

accountability of Assembly functionaries to the citizenry, paying attention to economic and fiscal decentralisation as well as ensuring and sustaining adequate human capacity for the Assemblies. Other issues relate to responsiveness to the basic legal and policy framework, the political and administrative framework, local government financing, local government human resources, and the arrangements for reform coordination and support (MLGRD, 2003; MLGRDE, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c). There is little focus on whether, and to what extent, the leadership approaches in the decentralised system of local government enhanced participation and created the environment for enhanced performance.

Current debate on ensuring responsiveness of leadership at the decentralised levels of government also focus largely on the election or appointment of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Chief Executives (MMDCEs) as a means of enhancing their commitment to the development agenda of their constituents (Ahwoi, 2009, 2010; Gyimah-Boadi, 2009; Kisseih, 2007; MLGRDE, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c). There is little mention of the responsiveness of the leadership approaches in terms of behaviours, qualities and interrelationships among leaders and followers. The FOAT mechanism that aims to motivate MMDAs to achieve higher performance has similarly not given leadership adequate attention.

Under the FOAT administration, good performing MMDAs are rewarded with additional financial resources, while weak performance is responded to by tailor-made capacity building support. Key indicators under the FOAT centre on five thematic areas namely, management and organisation, human resources development, planning and budgeting, financial management and administration,

and accounting and auditing (MLGRD, 2009). Although the five thematic areas and their corresponding indicators provide basis for comprehensive assessment of the performance of MMDAs, the focus has been on the establishment and functioning of the systems, structures, procedures and processes for operationalising the legal and regulatory requirements. Little attention is paid to leadership and how it facilitates participation and enhances performance in the management of development interventions.

Key issues of strategic importance to the performance of MMDAs remain unanswered. For example, who provides the vision and direction for development at the decentralised levels? What skills do the leadership at the decentralised levels have to influence the followers to pursue the vision and goals? How effectively have the leadership at the decentralised levels integrated the issues of MMDAs' responsiveness to their mandates into influencing participation and, therefore, coordination of actions of the various actors? The decentralised local government system in Ghana continues to be trapped in the leader-dependency and leader-follower co-dependency web, leading to the slow pace of progress in the implementation of the decentralisation policy in Ghana (Lawson, Gyimah-Boadi, Evans, Ghartey, Killick, Ghartey, Kizilbash & Williamson, 2007).

Despite the importance of leadership in the performance of MMDAs, little attention has been paid to leadership as an interrelated, interdependent and interconnected element and the Central Region is no exception to this challenge. The need to adopt leadership approaches that enable the leaders to set the tone and empower followers to conceptualise and analyse issues for themselves in order to enhance their understanding and ensure commitment, ownership and improved

performance in pursuing development goals, therefore, becomes paramount. It was against this background that this study sought to explore leadership and performance of MMDAs in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region of Ghana.

### **Objectives of the study**

The general objective of the study was to examine leadership and performance of the decentralised local government system in the Central Region of Ghana.

The specific objectives were to:

1. Examine the leadership approaches in the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region;
2. Assess how the leadership approaches influence participation and performance in the management of development interventions in the region;
3. Analyse the FOAT framework from a leadership perspective;
4. Discuss ways to improve the FOAT framework from a leadership perspective; and
5. Explore ways to improve leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region.

## **Research questions**

The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership approaches to the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region?
2. How do the leadership approaches to the management of development interventions influence participation and performance in the decentralised local government system in the region?
3. How do the assessment criteria in the FOAT framework elicit leadership approaches that enhance performance?
4. What should be done to improve the FOAT framework for assessing leadership performance?
5. How can leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system be improved?

## **Scope and justification of the study area**

Geographically, the study covers the Central Region of Ghana and focuses on Cape Coast Metropolis, Effutu Municipality and Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District. The Central Region was selected for this study owing to its historical antecedents in the decentralised local government system (Ahwoi, 2010) and performance assessment of the MMDAs under the FOAT framework (MLGRD, 2010). In addition, the region is noted for the high concentration of educational institutions, historical sites and other tourist attractions. Furthermore, no study had been conducted on the region to assess the MMDAs' leadership and performance



potentials and challenges (CRCC, 2009). Therefore, leadership and performance of the MMDAs in the region in responding to mandates and development aspirations of constituents present compelling attraction for its selection.

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. It covered the political leadership, heads of departments, Assembly persons, sub-district structures and community leaders. The leadership approaches in term of behaviours, qualities and interrelationships in the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region, and how the leadership approaches influenced participation and performance in the management of development interventions were interrogated. The FOAT framework and its responsiveness to leadership as well as ways to improve the FOAT framework, leadership and performance in the management of development interventions in the decentralised system of local government have also been explored.

As at January 31, 2011, two FOAT had been administered, the results published and the DDF disbursed to qualified MMDAs. The leadership and performance issues examined were, therefore, limited to the period up to 31 January, 2011. Studies on performance assessment focus largely on the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations in managing their administrative, operational and fiscal health (Adebayo, 2001; Andrew & Shah, 2003; Foltin, 1999; Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, 2006; Sandbakken, 2006) as reflected in the FOAT framework. This study did not address efficiency and effectiveness issues as the

focus was limited to assessing the influence of leadership on performance and the interrelationships among them.

Although a study of this nature would have required a wider coverage to enhance its representativeness, time constraint and limited resources did not allow a larger coverage. Despite the limited sample size, the findings of the study could be applicable to all regions and their MMDAs. This is because the regions and MMDAs have similar characteristics in terms of historical development in the decentralised system of local government, the systems, structures and procedures, the nature of leadership at the various levels, as well as the use of common criteria for performance assessment within the FOAT framework.

### **Significance of the study**

Results of this study are expected to stress the need to view leadership and performance in the decentralised system of local government from the structural functionalist and systems thinking perspectives as interdependent, interrelated and interconnected. It would underscore the importance of leadership in influencing participation and performance of MMDAs in responding to their mandates and development aspirations of their constituents. It would also provide information for creating awareness among the leaders and followers at all levels of the MMDAs, MLGRD and other governance institutions about the interdependence of leadership and performance in achieving development goals.

In addition, the study would contribute to knowledge, literature and learning for academics, researchers and policy makers. Finally, the findings of the study would provide a reference point for researchers and academia to contribute

to improving the performance assessment of MMDAs and motivate further research on leadership and performance of MMDAs.

### **Organisation of the study**

The study is divided into eight chapters. Chapter One deals with the introduction which focuses on the background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, scope, justification and significance of the study. Chapter Two provides an overview of decentralisation and Ghana's decentralisation experience. It discusses the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of decentralisation, trajectory of decentralisation in Ghana and the extent to which leadership, participation and performance have been addressed over the years.

In Chapter Three, the interrelationships, interdependence and interconnectedness among decentralisation, leadership and performance are analysed. It builds on the structural-functionalist paradigm and systems thinking philosophy to provide the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of leadership, and performance in the decentralised system of local government and how they are interlinked. Chapter Four examines performance in the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system and reviews the concepts of performance, participation and development to provide the basis for understanding the decentralisation leadership and performance nexus. Using the force-field model, the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus are used as basis for the conceptual framework of this study.

Chapter Five describes how the study was designed and carried out and how data was analysed. Chapter Six presents the first part of the results and discussions and focused on the leadership approaches adopted and how they influenced participation and performance of MMDAs in the management of development interventions. In Chapter Seven, the second part of the results and discussions are presented and analyses how the FOAT framework elicited leadership approaches that enhanced performance. In addition, it discusses ways in which the FOAT framework, leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system could be improved. Chapter Eight presents the summary, conclusions, recommendations, contribution of the study to knowledge and literature as well as suggestions for further research.

**CHAPTER TWO**  
**OVERVIEW OF DECENTRALISATION AND GHANA'S**  
**DECENTRALISATION EXPERIENCE**

**Introduction**

Contextual factors influence the leadership approaches adopted in governance and how they facilitate participation and performance. To place the literature review in context the chapter is organised under the following themes:

1. Theory, principles, meaning and practice of decentralisation;
2. Objectives, advantages and challenges of decentralisation;
3. Status of decentralisation in developing countries;
4. Trajectory of decentralisation in Ghana;
5. Current local government reforms in Ghana;
6. Structure of Ghana's Current Local Government System; and
7. Responsiveness of the decentralised system of local government in Ghana to leadership, participation and performance.

**Theorising, conceptualising and practising decentralisation**

This section reviews the decentralisation theory (Oates, 1972) and the related principles namely, Stigler's menu, the correspondence principle, subsidiarity principle, empowerment as well as the concept of decentralisation to provide the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the notion of decentralisation. Several theories inform decentralised decision making and strong

role for local governments on grounds of efficiency, accountability, manageability and autonomy. However, the decentralisation theory expounded by Oates (1972) is reviewed to provide the theoretical foundation for decentralisation in this study.

The decentralisation theory argues 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 (Oates, 1972). The theory is premised on the grounds that local governments understand the concerns of local residents and local decision making is responsive to the people for whom services are intended. This encourages fiscal responsibility and efficiency, especially if financing of services is also decentralised. In addition, unnecessary layers of jurisdiction are eliminated and inter-jurisdictional competition and innovation are enhanced.

Shah (2006) has argued that an ideal decentralised system should ensure a level and combination of public services consistent with voters' preferences while providing incentives for the efficient provision of such services. However, some degree of central control or compensatory grants may be required in the provision of services when spatial externalities, economies of scale and administrative and compliance costs are taken into consideration. Shah (2006) has further argued that the practical implications of the theory require considerable overlapping jurisdictions.

Accordingly, Stigler's (1957) menu in Shah (2006) identifies two principles of jurisdictional design namely, the closer a representative government is to the people, the better it works; and people should have the right to vote for the kind and amount of public services they want. In Shah's (2006) view, the

principles suggest that decision making should occur at the lowest level of government consistent with the goal of allocative efficiency. Thus, the optimal size of a jurisdiction varies with specific instances of economies of scale and benefit-cost spillovers.

The correspondence principle, a related concept to the jurisdictional design proposed by Oates (1972), 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. The principle, however, requires a large number of overlapping jurisdictions. Frey and Eichenberger (1999) have extended this idea to define the concept of functional, overlapping and competing jurisdictions. They argued that jurisdictions could be organised along functional lines while overlapping geographically, and that individuals and communities could be free to choose among competing jurisdictions through initiatives and referenda. The jurisdictions have authority over their members and the power to raise taxes to fulfil their tasks.

The subsidiarity principle complements the correspondence principle. The principle holds that decisions should be taken at the most appropriate level of government and establishes a premise that this level will be the lowest available (Shah, 2006). It also states that taxing, spending, and regulatory functions should be exercised by lower levels of government unless a convincing case can be made for assigning them to a higher level of government. One way of achieving this is to decentralise authority of service provision to the lowest possible level of government. Kisseih (2007) has, therefore, argued that in accordance with subsidiarity, true democracy is a product of local institutions and self-reliance and, therefore, there is the need to empower the local structures to deliver.

According to Litvack and Seddan (2002), empowerment for decentralised local government, planning and management of development interventions is about handing down authority. It is also about increasing the efficiency, enhancing the effectiveness and ensuring sustainability of development interventions by passing on responsibility to those people, communities and enterprises to whom efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability matter. Thus, when local people are involved in local governance, which is decision-making at their level, they tend to abide by decisions taken more than when decisions are handed down to them. It is, therefore, important to see local people as assets rather than merely beneficiaries, and allow them the opportunity to express their skills, gifts, capacities and abilities to improve their well-being.

Shah (2006) asserts that improving the institutions of local government requires agreement on three basic principles. First of all, there should be responsive governance aimed at ensuring that governments do the right things by delivering services consistent with citizens' preferences. Secondly, governance should be responsive, requiring that the government manages its fiscal resources prudently, earn the trust of residents by working better and costing less, and by managing fiscal and social risks for the community. The government should also strive to improve the quality and quantity of, and access to public services, as well as benchmark its performance with the best-performing local government. Finally, government should be accountable to its electorate and adhere to appropriate safeguards to ensure that it serves the public interest with integrity.

Over the years, policy makers, politicians, and practitioners in developing countries, driven by a variety of internal and external factors, have supported



decentralisation policies and programmes. The scope of decentralisation has ranged from de-concentration of some of the routine functions of government departments and ministries to their field offices to devolution of political authority and resources to local governments (Cheema, 2007). The results of these efforts have been mixed. Whilst some of the countries have made inroads in pursuing decentralisation, the majority are still grappling with the responsiveness of the systems, structures and procedures to leadership, participation and performance (Ahwoi, 2010; Khan, 2006).

Yet, Shah (2006) contends that decentralisation continues to be one of the predominant approaches to strengthening democracy, especially at the grassroots level, improving service delivery and enhancing equitable and sustainable development. In order to facilitate understanding of the decentralised system of local government in this study, it is important to establish what it is, the forms it takes, the objectives and advantages, as well as the challenges and how its implementation has influenced leadership, participation and performance.

Rondinelli, Nellis and Cheema (1983) define decentralisation as the transfer of authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions from a higher level of government to any individual, or agency at a lower level. Mills, Vaughan, Smith and Tabibzadeh (1990) also define decentralisation as the transfer of authority, or a dispersal of power, in public planning, management and decision-making from the national level to sub-national levels. Similarly, Litvack and Seddan (2002) and Ribot (2002) refer to decentralisation as any act in which a central government formally cedes powers to actors and institutions at lower levels

and moves decision-making away from the centre and closer to the users of the service.

Kendie and Mensah (2008) mirror the foregoing definitions and contend that decentralisation implies sharing of political power and responsibilities between levels of government. Ahwoi (2010) corroborates the elements in each of the definitions and submits that decentralisation also refers to reform initiatives characterised by the transfer of fiscal, administrative, and political authority for planning, management, or service delivery from the central administration to alternative institutions. All the definitions look at decentralisation in relation to the transfer of authority in planning, decision-making and management of public functions from a higher level to a lower level. This is the context in which this study views the decentralised system of local government. However, the mode of transfer depends on the option of decentralisation being pursued.

The four main variants of decentralisation have been described as devolution, delegation, deconcentration and privatisation (Rondinelli et al., 1983). Devolution is the transfer of authority for decision-making, finance, and management to quasi-autonomous units of local government with corporate status. It usually transfers responsibilities for services to municipalities that elect their own mayors and councils, raise their own revenues, and have independent authority to make investment decisions. In a devolved system, local governments have clear and legally recognised geographical boundaries over which they exercise authority and within which they perform public functions. It is this type of administrative decentralisation that underlies most political decentralisation (Litvack & Seddan, 2002).

Delegation is a more extensive form of decentralisation. Through delegation central governments transfer responsibility for decision-making and administration of public functions to semi-autonomous organisations not wholly controlled by the central government, but ultimately accountable to it. Deconcentration, on the other hand, is the redistribution of decision-making authority and financial management responsibilities among different levels of the central government (Rondinelli et al., 1983).

Privatisation can range in scope from the provision of goods and services based entirely on the free operations of the market to public-private partnerships in which government and the private sector cooperate to provide services or infrastructure. It involves allowing private enterprises to perform functions that had previously been monopolised by government (Litvack & Seddan, 2002). Privatisation also involves contracting out the provision or management of public services or facilities to commercial enterprises, as well as financing public sector programmes through the capital market, with adequate measures to ensure that the central government does not bear the risk for this borrowing, and allows private organisations to participate (Ahwoi, 2010).

Implementation of decentralised systems of local government are characterised by political, administrative, planning and fiscal decentralisation (Ahwoi, 2010; Asante, 2006; Cheema, 2007; Local Government Service, 2010; Mills et al., 1990; MLGRDE, 2007c). Political decentralisation involves the devolution of Central Government political authority to the sub-national structures, with a measure of electoral legitimacy and a distinct constituency of electorates. In

administrative decentralisation, identified functional areas of government and the accompanying competence are transferred to sub-national structures.

A change from top-down approach to planning to a bottom-up approach under which the jurisdiction of local development planning is assigned to local authorities takes place in decentralised planning. Fiscal decentralisation, on the other hand, involves the transfer of the means and eventually a composite budget system that gives local authorities control over their budgets and finances (Silverman, 1990). It could be argued from the foregoing that irrespective of the type of decentralised system of local government adopted by a country, the objectives and inherent benefits appear to be the motivating factors.

### **Objectives, advantages and challenges of decentralisation**

As advanced by the decentralisation theorists (Oates, 1972) and supported by the literature (Ahwoi, 2010; Asante, 2006; Kendie & Mensah, 2008; Levaggi & Smith, 2003; Litvack & Seddan, 2002; Local Government Service, 2010; MLGRDE, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Oats, 2006; Shah, 2006) decentralisation, as a policy, is based on the assumption that decisions made at the local level better reflect the needs of local population. Central authorities are assumed to be less informed about local needs and special circumstances and, therefore, tend to institute policies that often have little to do with realities on the ground. This notion underpins the growing shift from centralised administrative systems to increased transfer of decision-making and other responsibilities to local bodies in both developed and developing countries.

Silverman (1990) asserts that the objectives of decentralisation differ depending on the country-specific setting. A number of public sector reform initiatives in the OECD countries have been based on decentralised systems of decision-making with respect to wide range of planning and management activities aimed to increase efficiency, improve accountability, ensure equity in the allocation of development interventions and give the public greater voice in decision-making (Litvack & Seddan, 2002).

In practice, decentralisation promotes public administration and good governance by providing an institutional framework to bring decision-making closer to the people, and by building partnership and synergies among actors at multi-levels to achieve economic and human development goals (Shah, 2006). It makes plans more reflective of the needs of local people, facilitates ownership, commitment and sustainability of development interventions, as well as enhances performance in responding to mandates and development aspirations of constituents (Kendie & Martens, 2008).

Cheema (2007) contends that decentralisation promotes a culture of accountability and improves equity and access to government services. It reduces red tape, rigid and uniform procedures of central governments, and relies on the knowledge, expertise, and experience of local people. It strengthens the capacity of local governments and facilitates exchange of information about local needs. However, the effect of decentralisation on service delivery and access depends on the quality of leadership, extent of resources and responsibilities granted to local governments, as well as their administrative capacity to execute responsibilities. From the discourse, therefore, it could be argued that decentralisation has the

potential to facilitate the exercise of leadership to enable leaders and followers to influence one another to enhance performance. Nevertheless, just like most beneficial systems, the practice of decentralisation has its own challenges (Ahwoi, 2010).

According to Silverman (1990), decentralisation has the tendency to encourage richer regions to opt for autonomy, to the detriment of poorer regions, once they begin to feel self-sufficient. As the wealth of a country is inequitably distributed, decentralisation is likely to accentuate the already precarious imbalance within the state because the poor districts would tend to become even poorer. Ayee (1999) and Ribot (2002) assert that decentralisation can lead to increased waste, deepen corruption and squandering of public funds. In addition, Ayee (1999) contends that the devolution of power may help to augment the dominance of those who because of wealth or status were already powerful at the local level. Decentralisation involves changing the power relationships and distribution of tasks between levels of government which can generate conflict of interest (Ahwoi, 2010).

Kisseih (2007) and Kendie and Mensah (2008) posit that although through the decentralised structures avenues are provided for popular participation and, therefore, some control of the direction of local development by the local people, several aspects of the operations of the decentralised structures in terms of resource allocation and the control of decision-making point to control from the centre. This undermines the exercise of leadership in the management of development interventions at the decentralised levels. Thus from the discourse, it could be argued that decentralisation may not always be a panacea to local level

development. The virtues and the dangers are often discussed simultaneously, confusing the minds of advocates. This confusion is deceptive since the success in a given country is dependent on the context in which decentralisation is applied. This notion may explain the status of decentralisation in developing countries.

### **Status of decentralisation in developing countries**

Available literature reveals that in most developing countries, decentralisation forms a key element of the reform agenda. However, the practice of decentralisation in developing countries tends to show more failure than success. Among the reasons assigned to this situation are the centralising tendencies of governments, the lack of political commitment on the part of bureaucrats, inadequate human and financial capacities, and the confusion associated with the entire concept of decentralisation (Ahwoi, 2010; Rondinelli, McCullough & Johnson, 1989; Smith, 1985).

Ribot (2002) and Kendie and Mensah (2008) had observed that a factor which had contributed to the failure of decentralisation is the fact that it is fundamentally a political process involving a change in the distribution of power or influence. They contend that despite claims to have decentralised power by setting up local government units, developing countries' leaders have rather brought about a form of supervised decentralisation in which the central authorities tend to have the last say in a wide range of issues including matters relating to the day-to-day running of the local government units.

According to Ayee (1999) and Ahwoi (2010), in Sub-Saharan Africa, the objectives of decentralisation programmes focus primarily on maintaining law and

order with socio-economic development as a secondly issue. Decentralisation drains resources of the central government, and since many African countries face resource challenges there is the tendency to focus attention at the central level (Ayee, 1999). Until the last three decades, empowerment of ordinary members of the communities received lower priority. Local government units were used as agents of the central government rather than constituting them into local self-governing institutions. The central governments perceived the local government units as inefficient due to their weak resource base and the absence of skilled and well paid officials. Hence, in many countries, central government staff were seconded to supervise decentralised agencies (United Nations, 2007a).

An emerging factor which is often not mentioned specifically but which influences the success of the decentralised local government system in developing countries is leadership. Beerel (1998) contends that although leadership at the decentralised levels plays a significant role in achieving success, little attention is paid to the responsiveness of leadership to performance. Skill and knowledge base of the leaders to influence followers to enhance performance, as well as the ability of the leaders to provide vision and direction to pursue the vision and goals are not given adequate attention. In addition, how leaders at the decentralised levels integrate responsiveness to mandates into influencing participation and coordination of actions of various actors have not been addressed adequately.

In order to facilitate one's understanding of the decentralised system of local government in Ghana and how it has influenced leadership and performance of MMDAs, it is important to undertake a historical review of the system. Such



understanding and appreciation of the system provide basis for subsequent analysis and discussions in this study.

### **Trajectory of decentralisation in Ghana**

Decentralised local government in Ghana can be traced to 1878, when the British colonial administration introduced the indirect rule under which local governments were given some level of administrative functions in the then Gold Coast. Prior to the indirect rule, the indigenous administrative system in place had elements of decentralisation inherent in its nature and functioning that provided opportunities for the hierarchy of chiefdoms to exercise some level of autonomy in the administration of their constituencies (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999; Kisseih, 2007). Subsequently, the country evolved decentralised local government systems that sought to improve on the nature, scope and functioning in response to the aspirations of the government and situations pertaining at each given period.

MLGRD (1996), Ayee (1999), Bandie (2002), Kisseih (2007) and Ahwoi (2010) in reviewing the local government system in Ghana identified the following stages through which the system had evolved:

- a) The Indigenous Administration System;
- b) The Provincial/District Council System under colonial rule;
- c) Elected Local Government System under Ordinances and Local Administration Acts;
- d) The Dual Hierarchy System;
- e) The Single Hierarchy System; and
- f) The New Decentralised Local Government System.

## Indigenous Administration System

The indigenous administrative systems in 1878 were organised around chieftaincy as established local institutions of governance. They were based on a hierarchy of chiefdoms, with the lowest level as the village chief who was advised by a council made up of heads of families or clans within the village. Villages were grouped into divisions headed by a divisional chief who was also advised by a council of village chiefs (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999). The divisional chiefs, in turn, formed the state council headed by the paramount chief. Citing Arhin (1985), Bandie (2002) opined that the hierarchy operated for ritual and military emergency purposes only, while the general administration of the chiefdoms at each level was autonomous. Nonetheless, Arhin (1985) argued that it was a form of decentralised government administration, with the paramount chief as the central figure performing multi-functional roles as the military, religious, administrative, judicial and executive head of the community.

## Provincial/District Council System

The provincial system was operated under the indirect rule introduced in 1878. Indirect rule was a policy aimed at providing statutory basis for the chiefs to carry out some limited local government functions, including judicial, legislative and rating activities. In order that the chiefs, the nexus of indirect rule, could carry out the decisions of the British Government conveyed through district commissioners, the government established Native Authorities (NAs). It had three levels namely, the national, provincial and district levels. The national level had

four institutions namely, the offices of the Governor, Colonial Secretary and the Executive and Legislative Councils (Ayee, 1999).

The Governor was head of the executive and the president of the legislature. Control over the civil service, courts, police and army was under the Governor who was accountable, not to the governed, but to the British Crown. The NAs throughout British West Africa were vested with limited powers of local government, exercised under the strict supervision of the colonial administration (Ahwoi, 2010; Bandie, 2002; Kisseih, 2007). Ayee (1994) and Ahwoi (2010) argued that the NAs did not offer opportunity to develop local democracy and democratic local government because they were made up of paramount chiefs, sub-chiefs and elders, who behaved like enlightened and benevolent oligarchy.

#### Elected Local Government and Dual Hierarchy System

The policy of indirect rule was modified in diverse ways in the late 1940s and early 1950s to enable the Local Councils to include the appointment of educated, professional and technical persons from the local area, have two-thirds elected representatives and one-third appointed chiefs. The paramount chiefs served as presidents of the Local Councils, while the areas of jurisdiction were re-demarcated to make them economically viable (Ayee, 1999).

According to Ahwoi (2010), the search for effective decentralised administration took the form of government instituted commissions and committees mandated to inquire into the political and administrative relationships between the centre and other levels and make recommendations. Such commissions and committees included the Watson Commission (1948), Coussey

Committee (1949), Greenwood Commission (1956), Van Lare Commission (1958), Mills-Odoi Commission (1967), Siriboe and Akuffo Addo Commissions (1968), Public Administration Restructuring and Decentralisation Implementation Committees (1983), Committee of Experts to Draft Proposals for a Constitution for Ghana (1991) and Consultative Assembly (1991).

All the committees and commissions expressed concern about the high level of centralised authority in Ghana and argued for a decentralised system that would bring together citizens, government and administration in the governance process (Ayee, 1999). An elective representation was introduced into local administration in Ghana. Acts were enacted to effect policy changes, with two systems of local administration evolving, one under the colonial administration (1951–1960), Local Government Ordinance of 1951, and the other, the Local Government Act, 1961 (Act 54).

Under the Local Government Ordinance, 1951, the Municipal Councils were largely in the hands of elected majority, two-thirds elected members and one-third chiefs, with paramount chiefs as presidents of the councils. Four Municipal Councils, 26 upper-tier authorities (District Councils) and 252 lower-tier ('Local' and 'Urban' Councils) were established in the country. The Councils' areas of jurisdiction were re-demarcated not on the basis of chiefdoms but on population, size and viability regarding potential ability of the areas to generate local revenues to support the local government units. Local and Urban Councils were the basic development units for the provision of local services (Bandie, 2002).

According to Ayee (1999), the District Commissioners became Government Agents who acted as liaison officers between the Ministry of Local

Government and the Local Councils and saw to it that the policies of the central government were implemented by officers and members of the Councils. However, the 1951 model and its subsequent reorganisation failed because the Councils were too large and remote from the people. On attainment of independence in 1957, the Government of the first Republic inherited the provincial and district administration. The trend towards reduction of traditionalism in local government and the introduction of more popular elements continued. By the time the regime was overthrown in 1966, the chief's role in local government had reduced to mere ceremonial presence at inaugural meetings.

Ahwoi (2010) explains that Local Government Act, 1961 (Act 54) was passed to legitimise central government actions regarding control of local authorities. The Act facilitated the practice of a Dual Hierarchy Model of Administration namely, the national and local levels. At the national level, the Government was made up of Ministers responsible for the various sector ministries with their offices at the regional and district levels. The Regional Chief Executive, who was appointed by the central government, had overall responsibility for ensuring law, order and development in the assigned region. Regional and district departmental heads were directly responsible to their head offices in Accra. The Ministry of Local Government was the sector ministry in charge of local government, with Act 54 governing the powers of local authorities.

While there was no established body at the regional level for local government, District Councils, headed by District Commissioners appointed by the government, existed at the district level. Under the 1961 Act, 104 District Councils, 139 Local Councils, 12 Urban Councils, one Municipal Council, and

three City Councils were established (Ayee, 1999). The Local Government system operated from 1957 to 1965 faced many challenges, including lower revenue collection capacity, inability to attract qualified personnel, inadequate planning and supervision of Local Government projects. The Councils increasingly relied on Central Government personnel for technical assistance, while the officers relied on their headquarters in Accra for directions before taking any action (Ahwoi, 2010). Other challenges that confronted the dual hierarchy model of administration, included:

1. The distinction between Central and Local Government agencies that sought to create a poor and distorted image of the poorly resourced Local Government bodies as corrupt, inefficient agencies of Central Government;
2. The top-down approach that alienated the ordinary citizens from government and made them perceive the system as foreign imposition;
3. The corrupt practices in the system; and
4. The large number and small size of Local Councils that made it extremely difficult to raise adequate revenue to meet administrative cost.

According to Ayee (1994), duplication of roles and functions, and confusion of the dual hierarchy model led to ineffective and slow development at the local level. These challenges culminated in the virtual collapse of Local Government by 1966. The period 1966 to 1974 witnessed three governments in Ghana, one civilian and two military. To enhance effectiveness of the local authorities, the military government in 1966 established a three-tier system of local

government units as the Regional Councils, District Councils, Area/Town and Local Councils, with the district as the basic unit of local government.

The administrative areas set up under the 1961 Act were amalgamated into 47 districts. However, the regional boundaries were left intact. Regional Committees of Administration (RCA), headed by the most senior soldier in the region, and assisted by the most senior police officer and civil servant, were set up. The committees were to maintain law and order, exercise overall control over government activity in the regions, and inform the government of the needs of the people. Below the RCA, District Committees of Administration were established under one senior police officer and a senior civil servant to maintain law and order, and coordinate the work of central government departments in the district (Ayee, 1999; Bandie, 2002).

Under the 1967 administrative system, Local Authorities replaced Local Councils and were given Local Management Committees. At the lowest level, Town and Village Development Committees were established. This period marked the beginning of integration of Local Government into the national administrative system and the termination of popular representation. Unfortunately, this system also failed as a result of Central Government bureaucracy and overburdening of the Councils with functions at the local level (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1994).

### The Single Hierarchy System

Local Government Act, 1971 (Act 359) established a decentralised administration. The District Councils served as the organisations through which people at the lower levels could participate more effectively in the development of

their areas. It sought to address the challenges experienced under the previous administrations, but also failed to make any significant impact on local government. The challenges confronting the Councils, including inadequate financial resources, the absence of clear leadership and definition of the respective roles of local government agencies in the performance of certain functions, as well as the limited staff with requisite skills to manage technical services continued (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999).

Following continuous ineffectiveness and inefficiency, Local Government Act 1971 (Act 359) was amended by National Redemption Council Decree (NRCD) 138 and 258 (1974) as the 1974 Local Government System. This new Act sought to establish a decentralised administration and to create new local institutions outside the ministries, in the regions and the localities with responsibility for well-defined functions within the government machinery. The basic unit of administration was the District Council (Bandie, 2002).

According to Ahwoi (2010), the 1974 local government structure, described as the “Single Hierarchy Model” sought to abolish the distinction between local and central government at the local level, and created one common monolithic structure. Under the 1974 system, 65 District Councils were created to coincide with the administrative boundaries. Below the Councils were Municipal/Urban/Local Councils, Town and Village Committees. The Councils were given responsibility for the provision and maintenance of socio-economic infrastructure. To perform their roles effectively, the Councils were also to amalgamate all decentralised central government departments at the local level to enhance their viability. The main criteria for the establishment of District Councils were the



need to ensure that these units were sufficiently large, financially sound and administratively self-sustaining.

Ayee (1999) and Bandie (2002) contend that lack of commitment and political will of successive governments as well as reluctance of the bureaucratic class to cede power to lower levels of administration resulted in ineffectiveness of the 1974 local government system. In 1981, the government sought to address the inherent challenges in the decentralisation process. Consequently, Local Government Law, 1988 (PNDCL 207) was promulgated to usher in the New Decentralised Local Government System. Under PNDCL 207, 110 District Assemblies were established from the existing 65 District Councils and entrusted with a wide range of functions, the main one being the promotion of local development. The government sought to enhance participation in decision making and governance by all Ghanaians and facilitate mobilisation of the local people for local development (Ahwoi, 2010).

### **Current Local Government Reforms in Ghana**

MLGRD (2003), MLGRDE (2007a, 2007b) and Ahwoi (2010) trace the current Local Government Reforms and Decentralisation Policy, The New Decentralised Local Government System, to such factors as:

1. The failure of the pre- and immediate post-independence local government systems, the dual and single hierarchy models;

2. The urge of the international donor community to establish democratic structures, strengthen local government and bottom-up decision-making to achieve greater participation in the development process;
3. The internal and external demands for devolution of power to subsidiary levels to ensure sustainable mobilisation and utilisation of local resources;
4. The government's commitment to the promotion of decentralisation and grassroots participation in local development; and
5. Institutional reforms under the macro-economic policies pursued within the Economic Recovery Programme (1983-1986) which gave prominence to decentralisation and local participation in the development process.

The current decentralised local government system in Ghana is premised on such legislations as the 1992 Constitution of the Fourth Republic of Ghana, Civil Service Law 1993 (PNDCL 327), District Assemblies' Common Fund Act, 1993 (Act 455), Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) and Local Government (Urban, Zonal, Area and Town Councils and Unit Committees) Establishment Instrument, 1994, L.I. 1589. Other legislations are the National Development Planning Commission Act, 1994 (Act 479); National Development Planning (System) Act, 1994 (Act 480); Local Government (District Tender Boards) Establishment Regulation, 1995, L.I. 1606; Institute of Local Government Studies Act, 2003 (Act 647); and Local Government Service Act 2003 (Act 656).

These legislations provide for the decentralisation policy, institutional framework, processes, procedures and functions for the new Local Government System. Article 240 of the 1992 Republican Constitution prescribes that "Ghana

shall have a system of local government and administration, which shall as far as practicable be decentralised.” It further provides the features of the decentralised local government system to ensure transfer of functions, powers, responsibilities and resources from Central Government to Local Government units in a coordinated manner. In addition, sections 6(d) and (e) of the Constitution provide that, “government shall 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.”

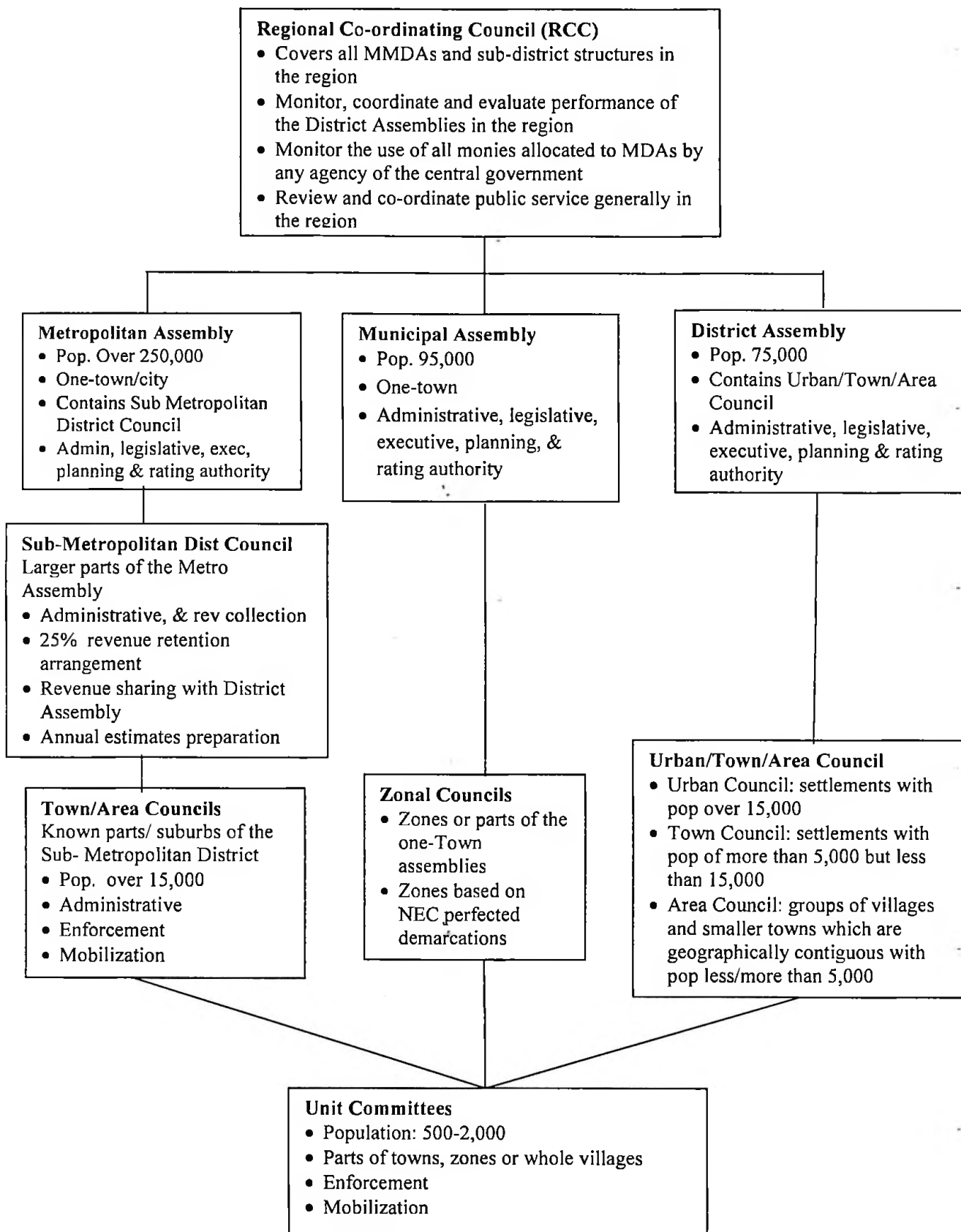
These provisions of the Constitution have been translated into the passage of the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462), which reinforces the basic principles established in the Local Government Law, 1988 (PNDCL 207). They emphasise a devolved system of decentralised local government which aims at the transfer of authority, functions, means and competence from the Central Government through the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) to the sub-national institutions, MMDAs. It also ensures that the decentralised bureaucracy has the capacity to plan, manage, monitor, and evaluate social, spatial and economic development through effective citizens’ participation in the development process.

The discourse reveals that the constitutional provisions have been pursued through political, administrative and fiscal decentralisation, decentralised development planning and management policy strategies. It is within this system of local government that this study examines leadership and performance.

## **Structure of the Current Local Government System**

The current system, and its characteristics, as provided in Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) comprises a Regional Coordinating Council (RCC) and a four-tier Metropolitan and three-tier Municipal/District Assemblies structure (Figure 1). Composition of the structure as indicated in Table 1 has evolved from a total of 10 RCCs and 110 MMDAs in 1988 to 10 RCCs and 170 MMDAs by 2008 (Ahwoi, 2010). The roles of the various tiers in the structure are provided in Table 2. The RCC comprises the Regional Minister as Chairman, the deputies, Presiding Member and District Chief Executive (DCE) of each MMDA within a region, two chiefs from the Regional House of Chiefs, and regional heads of decentralised ministries, without a vote.

Sections 142 and 143 of Act 462 stipulate the duties of the RCC to include coordination and monitoring roles. In performing its functions, a Regional Planning Coordinating Unit (RPCU), established as a secretariat of the RCC (Section 9(1) of Act 480), operates at the regional level. Section 5 of Act 462 provides that the District Assembly shall comprise the DCE, 70 percent of elected members, member(s) of Parliament from the district, without a vote, and not more than 30 percent of the members nominated by the President in consultation with chiefs and organised groups in the district. The District Assembly is non-partisan and is the highest administrative and political authority in the district.



**Figure 1: Structure of the New Local Government System**

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

**Table 1: Composition and structure of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (1988-2008)**

Decentralised structures	Period and composition		
	1988	2004	2008
Total Number of MMDAs	110	138	170
Number of Metropolitan Assemblies	3	4	6
Number of Municipal Assemblies	4	10	40
Number of District Assemblies	103	124	124
Number of Sub-Metropolitan Assemblies	13	28	33
Number of Urban Councils	34	76	69
Number of Zonal Councils	108	N/A	N/A
Number of Urban (a)/Town (b)/Area (c) Councils	a: 34 b: 250 c: 826	N/A	N/A
Number of Unit Committees	16,000	N/A	N/A

Note: N/A = Data not available

Source: Adapted from Ahwoi (2010)

Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462), Section 10 (1), Section 6 (3) of PNDCL 207 and Section 2 of the National Development Planning (System) Law, 1994 (Act 480) specify the functions of the MMDAs. Section 10 (3) of Act 462 provides details of the functions of the MMDAs as indicated in Figure 1 and Table 2. Eighty-four functions are specified in the Legislative Instrument establishing each District Assembly, categorised into six namely, physical environment; education, social welfare and culture; transport and communication; health and hygiene; general administration; and security and public safety.

**Table 2: Roles of the various levels under the decentralised local government system in Ghana**

Level	Institutions of the machinery of Government	Role
National	Restructured ministries and their ministerial ramifications including NDPC	Sector policy/strategy formulation and budgeting: guidelines to local governments on sector policy/ strategies and programmes and their evaluation; development plan approval.
Regional	RCCs and their departments	Plan and programme coordination, harmonisation, monitoring, and evaluation and other functions assigned under any enactment.
Metropolitan/ Municipal/ District	MMDAs and their departments	District legislation, district policy / strategy, district development planning and programming, implementation, monitoring and evaluation; development resources mobilisation budgeting and public accounting; security and public safety; promotion of justice.
Town	Urban, Zonal and Town Councils and their Secretariats	Town administration, data collection, planning, resource mobilization, co-ordination of activities of units.
Sub-town/ Community Level	Unit Committees and their residents	Resource mobilisation, mobilisation for popular participation, initiation of development planning and implementation.

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, 1996

In the performance of their functions, the MMDAs work through the Executive Committees and their subsidiary committees of Development Planning, Social Services, Works, Finance and Administration, and Justice and Security. The executive functions of the Assembly are performed by the Executive Committee, presided by the DCE. It consists of not more than one-third of the total number of members of the Assembly. To enable it perform its functions, a District Planning Coordinating Unit (DPCU), established as a secretariat of the District Assembly, operates at that level.

Sub-district level structures, as established by Legislative Instrument 1589, include Urban, Zonal, Area and Town Councils and Unit Committees. The main functions of the Urban/Zonal/Area/Town Councils include enumeration and records keeping of all rateable persons and properties, assisting in the collection of MMDAs' revenue, ensuring the day-to-day administration of the Urban, Area, Zone and Town, as well as mobilising resources for planning and implementation of development interventions. Unit Committees are mandated to provide a focal point for the discussion of local problems, take remedial measures as appropriate and ensure good sanitation. They are also to make proposals for levying and collecting special rates for special programmes and projects, monitor the implementation of self-help development projects, oversee the performance of MMDA's staff assigned the unit, as well as assist in the collection of revenues.

The functions as defined transfer all implementation functions from the national and regional levels to the district level. Decentralisation, therefore, aims to increase the efficiency and responsiveness of local level administration, using local knowledge to meet rural needs, broaden local participation in development



planning and implementation processes, and make development programmes more relevant to the people. The functions constitute the mandates of the Assemblies, on which their existence is justified and performance assessed. The multiplicity of functions shows the importance of the MMDAs as basic units for local level development.

In order to ensure that the MMDAs effectively perform the functions assigned to them, the administrative decentralisation also included the establishment of departments and organisations at the district level. Twenty-two such institutions were decentralised under PNDCL 207 of 1988. Under Act 462, these departments and organisations cease to exist and have been merged into 16 Metropolitan, 13 Municipal and 11 District Departments. The administrative decentralisation is further accompanied by a major restructuring of the Civil Service Law 327 of 1993 with the introduction of Local Government Service Act, 2003 (Act 656). This law replaces the vertical reporting system through the region to the centre, with a horizontal reporting to the District Assemblies at the district level, and to the RCC at the regional level.

These arrangements give the MMDAs the needed capacity to implement their development programmes. Although Local Government Instrument, 2009, LI 1961 came into force in February 2010, to give effect to the Local Government Service Act, 2003 (Act 656) and to transfer the responsibility for human resource management and development to the Local Government Service, the transfer was formally effected on 22 March 2011. A total of 30,000 civil servants were transferred to the Local Government Service. The delayed integration of the line departments, to create a monolithic district organisation for cross-sectional

coordination and implementation has denied public administration in Ghana the critical capacity to implement programmes, operate and maintain public service efficiently (Ahwoi, 2010).

As with previous systems, the New Local Government System is confronted with challenges including low capacity of sub-district structures to undertake integrated development planning and community governance and centralised management of staff of decentralised departments and agencies. Other challenges were incomplete implementation of the Local Government Service Act to create the environment for effective leadership, participation and performance of the MMDAs; and frequent and uncoordinated transfers and changes in the leadership namely, MMDCEs, MMDCDs and heads of decentralised departments (Ahwoi, 2010).

### **Responsiveness of the decentralised system of local government in Ghana to leadership, participation and performance**

The foregoing discourse on Ghana's decentralised local government system suggests that challenges in operationalising the system have persisted since its initiation in the colonial era with its attendant effects on responsiveness of leadership in enhancing participation and performance. This study views leadership an influence relationship between leaders and followers. It involves creating a vision for the future and inspiring others to achieve it (Daft, 1999). The leadership behaviour can be autocratic in which decisions are made by the leader, democratic involving participation and majority rule, or laissez-faire with low levels of the leader's involvement (Covey, 2004). Performance involves managing,

controlling, supporting and continuously improving the success of organisations. It establishes the systems and processes to support assessment, review and evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations (Shah, 2006).

The discourse revealed that the indigenous administrative organisations were bureaucratic in nature, with wide degree of decentralisation, wide scope of indirect adult participation in decision-making on issues, including land distribution, community projects and justice, as well as rudimentary system of unwritten laws and procedures. However, this system of local government administration did not offer the leaders (chiefs) and followers (their constituents) adequate opportunities to influence each other to enhance performance in the management of development interventions. The quality of leadership as well as performance in the management of development interventions were assessed in terms of the ability of the Councils to maintain law and order (Ahwoi, 2009; 2010; Bandie, 2002; MLGRD, 1996).

Under the indirect rule in the Provincial/District Council system in the colonial regime (1878-1948), political and administrative powers were vested in the Governor. The Governor and the chiefs were accountable not to the people but the British Crown. There was limited space for citizens' representation in decision making and local participation. Performance was assessed on the basis of efficiency and effectiveness in responding to the dictates of the British Crown, revenue generation capacity and ability to maintain law and order (Ahwoi, 2010; Kisseih, 2007).

The elected government system under Ordinance and Local Administration Act (1951-1960) left responsibility for development in the hands of the Councils.

However, the Councils were too large and remote from the people. Leadership was assessed on the basis of their ability to respond to desires of the British Crown and not their responsiveness to development aspirations of constituents. Performance of the Council was also assessed on the basis of efficiency and effectiveness in responding to the dictates of the British Crown, revenue generation and ability to maintain law and order, and not the quality of leadership in the management of development interventions (Bandie, 2002; Kisseih, 2007).

The Dual Hierarchy system under post-colonial administration (1961-1966) made regional and district departmental heads directly responsible to the head offices in Accra and not the Councils. This top-down approach did not encourage citizen participation. There was duplication of functions by central level agencies at the centre and local level. Leadership and performance of the Councils were assessed in terms of their responsiveness to the dictates of the central government, revenue generation and ability to maintain law and order. There was no reference to responsiveness to the management of development interventions and aspirations of the constituents (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999).

Similarly, the Dual Hierarchy system under the immediate post Nkrumah era (1966-1969), as well as the 1974 Local Government System failed to improve on the quality of leadership and performance in the management of development interventions. It also failed to meet the development aspirations of constituents. Indicators for assessing performance focused, among others, on efficiency, geographical size of local government units, and revenue base (Ayee, 1994; Bandie, 2002).

The New Local Government System, 1988 to date, focuses government attention on promotion of local participation in decision making, development process and governance. However, the quality of leadership is largely dependent on responsiveness to the directives and aspirations of the President and party in power. Performance in the management of development interventions was initially based on the leadership's ability to respond to political aspirations and development agenda of the central government (Asante, 2009; Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). With the introduction of the FOAT framework in 2008, performance has been assessed on the basis of criteria established under the five thematic areas namely, management and organisation, human resources development, planning and budgeting, financial management and administration, and accounting and auditing (MLGRD, 2009), yet the quality of the leadership remains unaddressed.

The decentralised departments are expected to be part of the MMDAs and integrate their activities into the development plan of the Assembly. Unfortunately, they have the tendency to look more towards the national headquarters on policy and funding issues. They are still oriented towards the national level regarding personnel recruitment, promotion, funding and policy making. Programme planning and project funding neither involved the staff of the Assembly nor derived from the development plans of the Districts. Heads of Departments have sufficient leverage not to integrate their activities into the development scheme of the district in so far as they rely on the national headquarters for recruitment, promotion, funding and policy direction (Kendie & Mensah, 2008).

## Summary

The chapter has established that most developing countries, including Ghana, have embraced decentralisation based on the inherent benefits. The historical review of Ghana's decentralisation further revealed how it had evolved over the years. It indicated that Ghana's bid to evolve a decentralised local government system had seen gradual progress towards devolution and deconcentration of central authority and functions to the local level. There had been progress from non-representation and local participation to an elected system that creates room for citizen participation in the governance process.

In addition, the review has shown that leadership under the decentralised system of local government had experienced challenges over the years, among which are limited opportunities for exercising leadership by those entrusted with leadership roles and inadequate participation by the local people in the management of development interventions. Performance assessment of MMDAs focused on ability of the leadership to respond to the aspirations and directives of the central government with little focus on responsiveness to the tenets of decentralisation and accountability to their constituents. This has implications for leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system, which is the focus of the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LEADERSHIP, PERFORMANCE AND DECENTRALISED LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEM**

#### **Introduction**

In Chapter Two, decentralisation and its practice were reviewed to provide the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of decentralisation. The trajectory of decentralisation in Ghana and how issues of leadership and performance had been addressed were also explored. This chapter explores the interrelationships among decentralisation, leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system. It builds on the structural-functionalist paradigm and systems thinking philosophy to provide the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of leadership, and performance in the decentralised system of local government and how they are interlinked. The chapter also gives insights into related theoretical issues including leadership, motivation in the leadership process, characteristics of followers as well as perception of the leadership process by the leaders and followers.

#### **Theoretical perspectives**

The discourse on the relationship among decentralisation, leadership and performance in Chapter Two suggests that leadership and its relationship with performance in the decentralised local government system appear to have been given less attention in the practice of decentralisation. However, it is important to appreciate the interrelationships among decentralisation, leadership and performance in achieving equitable and sustainable local development. According to Beerel (1998) and Mooney, Knox and Schacht (2002), orienting organisations

to respond to leadership and performance requirements and the new realities facing the world requires taking structural-functionalist and systems view points. Decentralisation, leadership and performance challenges, by their nature, are systemic issues, and dealing with systemic issues requires structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives.

### Structural-functionalism and systems thinking

From the standpoint of the structural-functionalist, society is a system of interconnected parts that work together in harmony to maintain a state of balance and social equilibrium for the whole. They emphasise the interconnectedness of society by focusing on how each part influences and is influenced by other parts. The structural-functionalists use the terms “functional” and “dysfunctional” to describe the effects of social elements on society. Elements of society are functional if they contribute to social stability and dysfunctional if they disrupt social stability (Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002). It is in the context of the structural-functionalist paradigm that the systems thinking perspective is viewed.

Systems theory provides the framework for systems thinking. Systems theory was first expounded by von Bertalanffy (1968) as an alternative to the traditional reductionist nature of scientific research. The reductionist approach refers to the tendency to dismember a system into its essential components, assuming that interactions between these components and feedback are either negligible or linear and, therefore, easily able to be aggregated to explain the behaviour of the whole (Garcia, 1999). However, Checkland (1999) postulates that in doing so the systems perspective is lost, but contends that this should not render



the reductionists' approach redundant; rather, it needs to be used within the context of the whole, leading to better understanding.

Heylighen and Joslyn (1993) posit that systems are open to, and interact with, their environments. They can acquire qualitatively new properties through emergence, resulting in continual evolution. This perspective established systems thinking as a major scientific movement (Capra, 1996). Clayton and Radcliffe (1996) add that general systems theory was developed to provide a unifying analytical and explanatory framework throughout the hierarchy of nature. It provides a tool for integrating the contributions of different disciplines, that is, transdisciplinary.

Systems theory focuses on the arrangement, interconnectedness and relationships between the parts which make it a whole, referred to as 'holism', rather than the characteristics of the parts themselves (von Bertalanffy, 1968). This perspective is known as 'systemic', while the way of thinking it implies is referred to as 'systems thinking'. Further to holism is 'synergy', which describes the notion that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts (Checkland, 1999). These principles of holism and synergy provide useful perspectives to help inform a systems approach to decentralisation, leadership and performance in this study, particularly the focus on the relationships between system components rather than the components themselves.

Van der Lee (2002) suggests that over time, Bertalanffy's theories generated much criticism, but found an application in aiding management and organisation which resonates with the perspectives envisaged for understanding the notion of decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in this research.

The criticism arose from the assumption that open systems theory as applied in biology could be transferred to human systems (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1996). The work of Bertalanffy has, however, been extended in distinct ways in applying systems theory to management. This systems approach to management does not seek to replace current methods of investigation; rather it provides a framework to integrate the often fragmented disciplinary knowledge (Van der Lee, 2002).

Systems are groups of interacting and interdependent parts linked together by exchanges of matter and information and are defined by the relationships between the components (Watt, 1966). Systems theory is concerned mainly with the study of change in these systems and recognising that seemingly unrelated facets of a system are, in fact, connected by what could sometimes be an obscured and complex relationship. Watt (1966) suggests that it is this interconnectedness which characterises a system and which requires it to be viewed as a whole in order to be understood.

Laszlo (1972) defined systems theory as an interdisciplinary field due to its ability to cut across traditional disciplines, thus linking remnants of contemporary scientific thought. It provides a perspective from which to view a whole in terms of the organisation and structure of the components and their unique inter-relationships. This structure and organisation gives the whole distinctive features and characteristics and allows patterns in the organisation of the parts to be identified. In contrast, Van der Lee (2002) has argued that the traditional scientific disciplines tend to be fundamentally reductionist in nature, thus limiting the knowledge gained about the simple and complex relationships that exist between

system components such as the environmental, political, economic and socio-cultural dimensions.

According to the United Nations (2007), the rhetoric surrounding decentralisation, leadership and performance is that of interdisciplinarity and holism, but this seems to be where the missing link lies in the approach to decentralisation policy making in most developing countries. The rhetoric does not filter through to the practitioners in many cases. Policy processes are, therefore, initiated within an integration and holism perspective without these principles being carried through to the implementation phase. This is not to fault the approach but to heighten awareness about the gap in transition from disciplinary to interdisciplinary to transdisciplinary which is a large step for most decentralisation practitioners to take.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (1996) contends that in order for a whole system to be understood, it is imperative that the relationships that exist between system components are fully identified and explored. Through the application of such a holistic approach, complex feedback loops may be identified that are not otherwise apparent. System components interact through these feedback loops, where a change in one component affects numerous others over time, which in turn affect other variables. A particular way of thinking, known as systems thinking, is required to enable the observer to understand the underlying structure of the whole, such as the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in this study, and to make reliable predictions about the behaviour of that system under different circumstances or external environmental forces.

Beerel (1998) has asserted that taking a systems' perspective requires understanding and analysing the organisation as a sub-system of an ever-larger whole. From this assertion, it could be argued that organisations, including MMDAs, are part of communities; which are part of societies, towns, cities and states; which in turn are part of regions, countries and continents. To understand leadership, we need to understand the decentralised local government system and performance requirements. As argued by Checkland (2000), it is not possible to reduce nature to fundamental entities or essences, the essence is the whole. To understand a living phenomenon it must be understood holistically, both in and of itself, and as it relates to the larger system it belongs. To grasp the properties of the parts requires observing and understanding the dynamics of the whole in order to understand the properties and interactions of the parts.

According to Armour and Kaye (1997), systems analysis is a continuous review of the relationships within a system and requires understanding of functions, roles, structures and behaviours of the component parts of the greater whole. The advantage of systems thinking is that it enhances one's ability to see relationships, and to see how interconnectedness creates both the dissonance and harmony of any system. Further, systems thinking focuses the study of phenomena on their adaptive capacities not just their behaviour. For example, within the decentralised system, while it may be of interest to observe the actual performance or competitive behaviour of some departments or levels of the assembly structure, the concern is really more with the reasons that underlie their actions and how this behaviour may provide an indicator of their capacity to survive and thrive (Checkland, 2000).

Beerel (1998) suggests that system thinking is about taking multi-perspective approach. Owing to the interrelatedness and interdependence of the world, problems are usually embedded in complicated and interactive webs that cannot be viewed from one perspective. System thinking emphasises processes and encourages the organisation to pay attention to the processes by which the organisation achieves its goals. Beerel (1998), therefore, contends that in natural systems, structure is the natural manifestation of a process and should be left to form itself. As with natural systems, structures that facilitate processes will automatically form where the processes are healthy and congruent with the organisation's purpose. Thus, organisations, including MMDAs, need to place emphasis on understanding and honing processes, and allow the structures to form themselves.

Checkland (1999) has argued that systemic problems, being integral by nature, require integrated solutions. By seeing the whole, one can better understand how the parts fit together and how the different parts are needed to constitute the whole. It encourages seeing patterns rather than events and helps to organise complexity into a coherent story. Different people perceive their reality as a range of diverse networks of relationships. Understanding the implications of this diversity of networks facilitate our understanding of why multiple realities exist. The systems thinking perspective has informed the review of leadership theories and other related theories, as well as the concepts of participation and performance in this study.

## Leadership theories

A number of theories underpin leadership approaches adopted by leaders to influence their followers. According to Covey (2004), the great man theories of leadership, which dominated the literature on leadership prior to 1900, gave rise to trait theories of leadership. In response, theorists placed stronger emphasis on situational and environmental factors. Subsequently, theories have been developed around persons and situations, psychoanalysis, role attainment and contingencies. Leadership theories since 1970 have, therefore, developed around one of these fundamental theories. For the purposes of this research, the traits, behaviour, situational, contingency, transformational, charismatic, integrative, dependency and co-dependency leadership theories are examined. The discussions focus on the behaviours (styles) and qualities, their consistency with systems thinking and how they enhance performance in the decentralised local government system.

## Traits theory

The great man theory which gave rise to the traits theory argues that few people are born with the necessary characteristics to be great (Marriner, 1994). It contends that history and social institutions are shaped by the leadership of great men and women (Covey, 2004). This notion created the perception that only few people were born with and could exercise leadership. The traits theory postulates that the leader is endowed with superior traits and characteristics that differentiate the individual from his/her followers. Researchers labelled the leadership traits as energy, drive, enthusiasm, ambition, aggressiveness, self-assurance, self-

confidence, friendliness, affection, honesty, fairness, loyalty, dependability, technical mastery and teaching skill (Manning & Curtis, 2007).

Researchers of trait theories addressed two questions regarding the traits that distinguish leaders from other people and the extent of those differences (Bass, 1990). Various researchers arrived at different conclusions on what the leadership traits were. However, some common leadership traits were identified to include the intelligence, initiative, creativity, emotional maturity, communication and persuasion skills. Others were the ability to perceive and recognise allies from opponents and to place subordinates in suitable positions, participation in social activities with all kinds of people, as well as adaptability to various groups (Fairholm, 1998).

Marriner (1994) and Manning and Curtis (2007) contend that the traits theory expanded knowledge about leadership, but it was not without its flaws. Few, if any, traits are identified in all traits theory research. They are not mutually exclusive and there is considerable overlap between categories or definitions of the characteristics. It is neither clear which traits are most important nor which traits are needed to acquire leadership and which to maintain it. Thus traits theory does not view personality from a systems thinking perspective in the sense that it does not view it as complex and an integrated whole. It does not deal with followers and avoids environmental influences and situational factors.

In addition, owing to its premise that leaders are born and not made, many find the traits theory unattractive as it suggests that leaders cannot be developed (DuBrin, 1998). Moreover, leadership from the traits theory perspective would seem to assume that it is vested in the individual with a unidirectional cause-effect

relationship between the leader and followers, which may not be consistent with the systems thinking perspective of this research. However, it provides insights into appreciating some of the behaviours and qualities of good leadership which are explored further in subsequent sections.

### Leadership behaviour theory

During the 1930s, growing emphasis on behaviourism in psychology moved leadership researchers in the direction of the study of leadership behaviours versus leadership traits. A study of leadership behaviour was conducted by Lewin, Lippit and White (1939) in which the researchers trained graduate assistants in behaviours indicative of three leadership styles namely, autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. The autocratic style was characterised by the tight control of group activities and decisions made by the leader. The democratic style emphasised group participation and majority rule, while the laissez-faire leadership style involved very low levels of any kind of activity by the leader. The results indicated that the democratic behaviour of leadership was more beneficial for group performance than the other behaviours (Bennis, 1993).

The importance of the study on leadership behaviour was that it emphasised the impact of the behaviour of the leader on the performance of followers. However, as could be gleaned from the situational theory, which suggests that the traits in a leader differ according to varying situations (Marriner, 1994), the leadership behaviour cannot be predetermined. It is in itself influenced by situational and environmental factors. This makes leadership behaviour and its responsiveness to followers' expectations complex. Leadership behaviour,



therefore, needs to be viewed from a holistic and systems thinking perspective. Depending on the situation and environment a combination of leadership behaviours may be explored to achieve optimum results (Beerel, 1998).

### Charismatic leadership theory

The charismatic leadership theory assumes that leaders possess exceptional qualities as perceived by followers. The theory assumes that a person may be a leader because of charisma (Burns, 1978), but relatively little is known about this intangible characteristic. Most people agree that charisma is an inspirational quality which some people possess and makes others feel better in their presence (Bass, 1990). The charismatic leader inspires followers by obtaining emotional commitment from the followers and arousing strong loyalty feelings and enthusiasm. However, Daft (1999) has argued that charisma is so elusive and complex that some may sense it while others may not. Irrespective of the varied perspectives about charismatic leadership, it appears to be integral aspects of later leadership theories such as situational, contingency, transformational, integrative and behaviour theories which inform leadership thinking and practice today.

### Situational theories

Situational theories suggest that the traits required of a leader differ in varying situations. Among the variables which determine the effectiveness of leadership behaviour are personality of the leader, performance requirements of the leader and followers, attitudes, needs, and expectations of the leader and followers. Other variables include the degree of interpersonal contact possible,

time pressures, physical environment, organisational structure, nature of the organisation, stage of organisational development, as well as influence of the leader outside of the group (Marriner, 1994). Bogardus (1918), Hocking (1924), Person (1928) and Hersey and Blanchard (1972) posit that leadership is the product of situational demands, thus situational factors determine who emerges as a leader rather than a person's heritage.

Personal-situational theories represent a combination of great-man, traits, and situational leadership (Daft & Marcic, 1998). Research has suggested that the study of leadership must include affective, intellectual and action traits, as well as the specific conditions under which the individual operates. The conditions include personality traits, nature of group and its members, as well as the events confronting the group (Hodgetts, 1999). A person may be a leader in one situation and a follower in another, or a leader at one time and a follower at others. Therefore, the type of leadership is dependent upon the situation. This perspective from which leadership is viewed seems consistent with the systems thinking perspective which forms the premise of this research. It also provides the basis for the variables that inform the leadership approach in this research namely, the leadership behaviour, qualities and interrelationships.

### Contingency theory

Fletcher (1997) contends that both the traits and behavioural theories of leadership were attempts to identify the one best leader and the one best behaviour for all situations. However, by the late 1960s, it became apparent that there was no such universal answer. Leadership contingency theory holds that the most

appropriate leadership qualities and actions vary from situation to situation. Effectiveness depends on leader, follower and situational factors, including the job being performed, the culture of the work place and the urgency of the task. No single element explains why leadership takes place, because leadership results when the ideas and deeds of the leader match the needs and expectations of the followers in a particular situation (Manning & Curtis, 2007).

Fiedler (1987) introduced the contingency model of leadership effectiveness and identified three important dimensions of a situation namely, leader-member relations, task structure and position power. The leader-member relations refer to the level of confidence and loyalty followers have in their leader, while the task structure is related to the number of correct solutions to a situation. Position power is dependent upon the amount of organisational support available to the leader (Marriner, 1994).

Given the context, Fiedler (1987) contends that one could predict the most productive leadership behaviour. If task is structured but the leader is disliked and, therefore, needs to be diplomatic, or if the task is ambiguous and the leader is liked and, therefore, seeks cooperation of the workers, the considerate, accepting leadership style would probably be most productive. The most productive leadership behaviour is contingent upon situational variables. Daft and Marcic (1998) have argued that Fiedler's (1987) contingency theory is a complex three-dimensional model which is not easily understood and conclusively supported by research. However, the contingency theory as expounded appears to embrace the complex nature of the leadership process and the need for systems thinking to

enable the actors in the leadership process to understand and appreciate the dynamics involved in meeting decentralisation and performance challenges.

### Transformational leadership

Although transformational leadership was first introduced by Downton (1973), its importance can be traced to Burns (1978), who distinguished two types of leaderships, transformational and transactional. Transactional leaders focus on exchanges between leaders and followers as in the case of a leader who exchanges pay and promotion for work performed. However, the transformational leader focuses on the potentialities of the relationship between the leader and followers. This leader taps the motives of followers to achieve the goals of both and elevate the potentials of followers beyond expectations. It requires understanding the influence of the qualities of leaders, characteristics of followers, and the nature of situations (Armour & Kaye, 1997). The holistic perspective of transformational leadership in engaging the full person of the followers to realise their full potentials is congruent with the systems thinking perspective of this research.

### Integrative leadership theory

In Bennis' (1993) view, effective leaders perform three functions, they align, create, and empower. Leaders transform organisations by aligning human and other resources, creating an organisational culture that fosters the free expression of ideas, and empowering others to contribute to the organisation. Consistent with systems thinking, integrative leadership is the approach to leadership that brings different people together and preserves the identity of the

individual, while this identity is simultaneously transcended and made greater (Manning & Curtis, 2007). Followers are assumed to transcend self-interest for the good of the group, consider long-term objectives, and develop an awareness of what is important.

Stemming from the above, it could be argued that the integrative leadership theory appears to integrate the behaviour, charismatic, situational and transformational theories and provide indications of the leadership approaches adopted by leaders in terms of behaviour, qualities and interrelationships between leaders and followers. It enables leadership to be seen from leader-follower interrelationships perspective. Therefore, this integrated approach to leadership is what is explored further in this study to provide a conceptual understanding of the qualities of leaders and the leadership process.

### Leadership qualities

Stogdill (1981), Marriner (1994) and Fairholm (1998) identified certain traits of the individual that correlate positively with leadership. They include a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigour and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem-solving, as well as drive to exercise initiative in social situations. The traits are also characterised by self confidence, sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decisions and actions, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustrations and delay, ability to influence other person's behaviour, as well as capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand.

Building on the traits, Covey (2004) outlined and explained the qualities that influence the leadership process to include vision, ability, enthusiasm, stability, concern for others and people building skills, self-confidence, persistence, vitality, charisma and integrity. A vision of what could and should, enables a leader to recognise what must be done and to do it. Vision inspires others and causes the leader to accept the responsibility of leadership. Enthusiasm is a form of persuasiveness that arouses interest and willingness to accept what the leader is to accomplish and, therefore, enthusiasm shown by a leader generates enthusiasm in followers.

Manning and Curtis (2007) also explained that the leader must be concerned about the welfare of people and have confidence to give him/her inner strength to overcome difficult tasks. The leader must have people building and other important skills, including the ability to assemble and develop a winning team, performance planning, coaching, and correcting poor performance; effective delegation; discipline and the ability to motivate. People want an empowering leader who will be a mentor and developer of others. Vitality, strength and stamina are needed to fulfil the tasks of leadership. Integrity entails honesty, strength of character and courage and, therefore, without integrity there is no trust. Integrity leads to trust, and trust leads to respect, loyalty and ultimately, action.

The qualities outlined are adopted in this research as the basis for establishing responsiveness of the leadership of MMDAs in motivating followers, eliciting participation and enhancing performance. Manning and Curtis (2007) contend that the cluster of characteristics differentiate leaders from followers and effective from ineffective leaders. They further argued that the characteristics

considered individually hold little diagnostic or predictive significance, but in combination, they interact to generate personality dynamics advantageous to the leader. They submit that conceptions of characteristics of leadership are culturally determined, therefore, patterns of behaviour regarded as acceptable in leaders differ from time to time and from one culture to another. The qualities of the person and environmental factors are critical elements in the leadership equation, thus leadership results from the inextricable interaction between the two.

Stemming from the discourse, it could be argued that exercising leadership is about understanding the dynamics of the system both internally and externally. It could also be argued that leadership is a continuous process and for it to be responsive, some degree of interdependence between the leaders and followers, as well as within the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus is necessary. Hence, to ensure responsive leadership requires flexibility, dynamism, and capacity to absorb the daily forces of internal and external disturbances that affect the quality of leadership and performance in responding to aspirations of constituents and achieving sustainable local level development. The foregoing appears to explain the tendency for follower dependency on the leader and the leader-follower co-dependency in the leadership process.

#### Dependency and co-dependency in the leadership process

The dependency theory provides basis for understanding the dependence of followers on leaders and co-dependency between leaders and followers in the leadership process. According to Fagerlind and Saha (1989), the dependency theory assumes that development and under-development as relational concepts

within and between societies are inversely related. The under-development of a region or society is a process which is linked to the development of another. The theory focuses on the process whereby the conditions of less developed localities in the world are perceived to be caused by the activities of the metropolis/urban centres, and the rich nations (Raj, Mukherjee, Mukherjee, Ghose & Nag, 2006).

The dependency theory has been justified by a number of scholars and used to explain relational issues in development management, including the relationships between leaders and followers. Dos Santos (1973) sees dependence as a conditioning situation in which the economies of one group of countries are conditioned by the development and expansion of others to which the former is subject. Nketsia (1993) contends that dependency may develop between private individuals, groups and nations in which one party manages aspects of behaviour of the other party due to related superior political, social, economic, technological, skills and other resource circumstances. This implies that within families or community, dependency may occur as some members will have command over neighbours and will, therefore, use those superior advantages to the detriment of their fellow kinsmen or neighbours (Awekeya, 2008).

Acquandah (1993), Ninsin (1993), and Nketsia (1993) have suggested that sustenance of a dependency condition required local collaborators, usually, the local elites or leaders in key positions in a given context. The elites build and legalise structures that reinforce dependency. In the decentralised local government system in Ghana the elites constitute the leadership at the national level, including Ministers, Chief Directors and Heads of Departments and Agencies, as well as the leadership at the regional level: the Regional Minister,



Regional Directors of departments as well as the Regional Coordinating Directors. The elite also include the leadership at the MMDAs namely, the political, administrative, community and civil society leadership, who constitute the focus of this study. The central argument of this thesis is that they condone jointly and severally to perpetuate the leader-follower dependency in the MMDAs.

The political leadership comprises the MMDCEs, Presiding Members and Members of Parliament from the MMDAs, Assembly Persons and political activists. The administrative and technocratic leadership are the Coordinating Directors and heads of departments of the central administration and other departments. The community leaders are the Unit Committee Members and opinion leaders who influence decision-making, including the chiefs and elders, whilst the leadership of civil society organisations namely, non-governmental and community-based organisations, constitute the civil society leadership.

Proponents of the dependency theory appear to gloss over the fact that the leader-follower dependency worked under such circumstances as the traditional chieftaincy system, governance under colonial rule and military dictatorship in most developing countries, where strict obedience (dependence) led to some improvements in performance (Acquandah, 1993). However, in the context of this study, the dependency theory tends to highlight the dangers associated with dependence on the leader and co-dependence between the leaders and followers as they have the tendency to negatively impact on performance due to low levels of participation, ownership and commitment. Covey (2004) has argued that most people think of leadership as a position and, therefore, do not see themselves as

leaders. They think that only those in positions of authority should decide what must be done and, therefore, wait on them for directives.

Beerel (1998) extends the dependency of followers on leaders a step further to situations where both the leaders and followers become co-dependent. Covey (2004) contends that the widespread reluctance of followers to take initiative and to act independently only fuels formal leaders' tendency to direct their followers. The leaders tend to believe that they must be instructive and directive in order to get followers to act, and this cycle eventually results in co-dependency. Each party's weakness reinforces and justifies the other's behaviour and the more leaders control, the more they evoke behaviours that necessitate greater control. The co-dependent culture that develops is eventually institutionalised to the point that no one takes responsibility.

The foregoing review of leadership theories suggests that there is no one best leadership behaviour. Leaders are rarely totally people-oriented or task-oriented. Leaders, followers and situations all influence leadership effectiveness. Wheatley's (1992) holistic approach assumes that leadership is contextual and systemic. Leaders create synergistic relationships between individuals, organisations and the environment. The situation and circumstances within the leadership process are complex, interrelated and interconnected and would require systems thinking to enhance responsiveness of leadership to performance requirements in the decentralised system of local government. These perspectives of leadership which are consistent with the systems thinking and structural-functional paradigms of this research are explored further in subsequent sections.

## **Leadership defined**

Available literature on the notion of leadership suggests that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are scholars and writers. Each person tries to define leadership from the perspective and context of his/her reality (Daft, 1999). Covey (2004) contends that defining leadership has become a complex and elusive problem because the nature of leadership itself is complex. In recent years, however, much progress has been made in understanding the essential nature of leadership as a real and powerful influence in organisations and societies. Leadership studies are an emerging discipline and the concept of leadership continues to evolve (Rondinelli & Heffron, 2009).

Rost (1993) defines leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their shared purposes. For DuBrin (1997), leadership is the ability to inspire confidence and support among people on whose competence, commitment and performance depends. Similarly, Daft and Marcic (1998) and Hodgetts (1999) see leadership as the process of influencing people to direct their efforts toward the achievement of some particular goal(s). In Robbins' (2003) view, leadership is about controlling and directing an organisation or group towards predetermined goals. Covey (2004), on the other hand, defines leadership as communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves. According to Manning and Curtis (2007), leadership is a social influence. It is leaving a mark by initiating and guiding to achieve change.

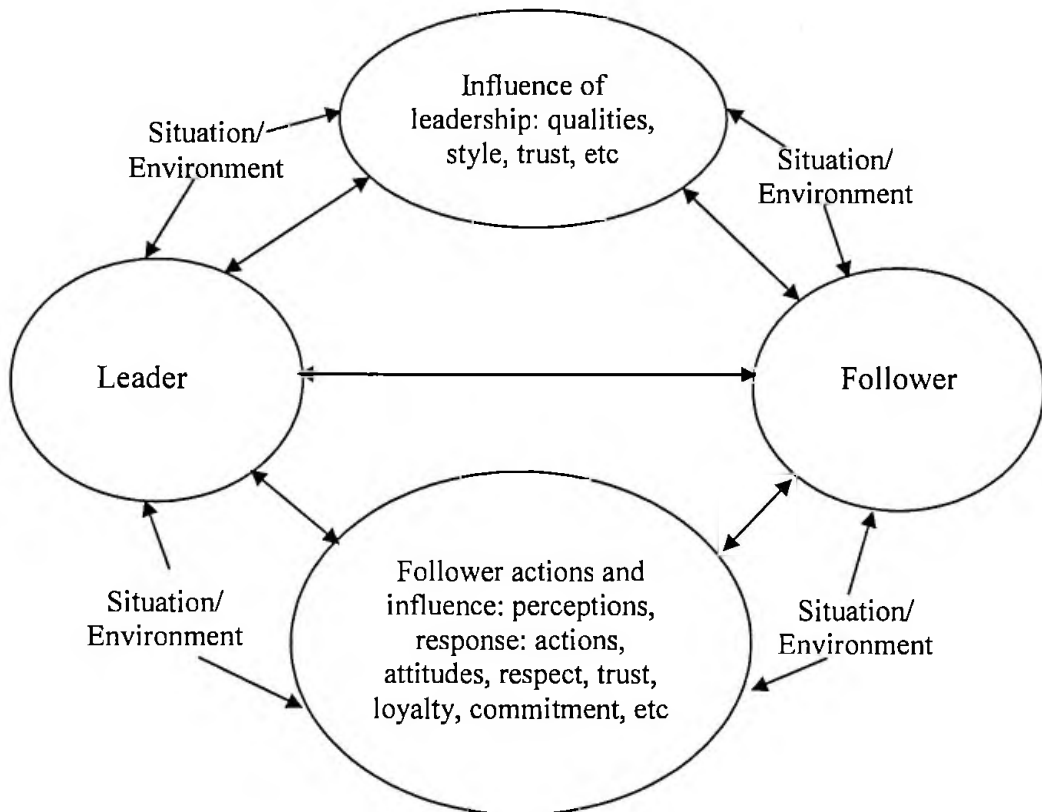
Despite the different expressions used in defining leadership, all the definitions associate leadership with having a vision and the ability to

communicate that vision and influence people to move in a desired direction to achieve a desired goal. However, all but Rost (1993) and Covey (2004) appear to highlight only the leaders' ability to influence the followers without making explicit the ability of followers to also influence the leaders. Focusing on the key elements of Rost's (1993) definition, Daft (1999) argued that leadership involves influence, it occurs among people and those people intentionally desire significant changes, and the changes reflect purposes shared by leaders and followers. The influence means that the relationship among people is not passive, but multidirectional, non-coercive and reciprocal.

Covey (2004) has argued that leadership is not a formal position, but a choice to deal with people in a way that will communicate to them their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves. Of the numerous definitions of leadership, those by Rost (1993) and Covey (2004) respond to the context of this study. The two definitions see leadership from a common perspective. They see leadership not as a position, but involving leaders and followers, with leaders influencing the followers to see the worth and potential in themselves and mobilising these innate abilities for action to achieve a shared purpose. Implicit in the definitions are the fact that the exercise of leadership is not unidirectional, but reciprocal and multidirectional, with followers also having the opportunity and choice to influence the leaders.

Rost's (1993) and Covey's (2004) definitions, therefore, highlight the complex interrelationships between the leader and followers and fits into the systems thinking and structural-functionalist perspectives of this study as illustrated in Figure 2. This perspective of leadership as a people and relational

activity has informed the conceptualisation and operationalisation of leadership in this study. The leadership of the MMDAs play critical roles in facilitating local level development by encouraging their followers to rally together to contribute towards development interventions.



**Figure 2: The leadership process**

Source: Adapted from Rost (1993) and Covey (2004)

The leaders also have the power to sanction their followers (Amedzro, 1993). Awekeya (2008) has argued that when a user group forms leadership within itself, the rate of community participation increases because the leaders would serve as a source of encouragement to their fellow group members. According to Kouzes and Posner (1995), leaders should take a systemic approach to grasping situations and understanding problems. They should understand the interconnectedness of the leadership process and be able to take a multi-

perspective approach, even where some perspectives might be in apparent conflict with one another.

Similarly, Beerel (1998) suggests that actors in the leadership process should understand that what is seen depends on the way that they are perceived, and therefore multiple, equally valid, realities exist. Leadership entails the co-creation of a solution through meaningful participation of all relevant stakeholders. It does not mean that solutions or visions are imposed on others by powerful and charismatic leaders. Exercising leadership entails gaining appropriate trust from followers and empowering them to recognise and exercise leadership without encouraging dependency.

### **Characteristics of followers**

This study adopts Covey's (2004) definition of a follower as a person who accepts the teachings or instructions of another as well as support and complement the efforts of another. Followers in this study, therefore, constitute all those below a higher level of the Assembly structure, central administration, and other departments, as well as beneficiaries of development interventions in the local government system. Followers exhibit certain characteristics that influence the leadership process. Two of such characteristics are respect for authority and interpersonal trust (Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD), 1994).

The IPD (1994) has suggested that building trust, the firm belief that a person may be relied on, is the only basis upon which commitment can be generated. Manning and Curtis (2007) outlined the principles of trust for leadership effectiveness to include dealing openly with everyone, considering all

points in view, keeping promises, giving responsibility, as well as listening to understand and care about people. Covey (2004) contends that people who respect authority figures and have a trusting nature are led more easily than people who disregard authorities and are suspicious of others.

Rondinelli (2007) has observed that a general decline is evident in the level of trust followers have in leadership personnel in public organisations in developing countries. In the view of the United Nations (2007), the tendency to withhold trust and be self-guarded can be traced to a number of factors, including lack of shared values, breakdown of the traditional family structure and decline of a wide range of social structures. Additionally, there have been instances in which highly visible and influential leadership figures were discovered putting self-interest over the public good. This provides clear evidence that too many leaders violate the trust accorded them.

According to Guest and Conway (1998), attitudes towards authority have been changing and effective leadership requires adjustment to the ideas and expectations of followers. Leaders are more likely to be trusted by followers when the latter observe that the leaders do what they pledge to do. If followers know the leaders care about them, they will be honest with them and do all they can to meet the leaders' expectations. Similarly, Daft (1999) has noted that people who feel oppressed usually respond in negative ways by slowing down production, producing poor-quality work, and being uncooperative. Leaders should, therefore, view their task as one of motivating followers to do their best by functioning as facilitators and teachers as opposed to enforcers and disciplinarians, believing that trust and respect should be earned, not demanded.

## **Motivation in the leadership process**

Motivation is a set of energetic forces originating both from within and outside the individual that initiates behaviour and determines its form, direction, intensity and duration. It is a set of processes that energise a person's behaviour and direct it towards attaining goals (Marfo-Yiadom, 2005). Motivation, therefore, drives people to behave in certain ways. It guides the behaviour and influences the strength of the behaviour as well as its level of sustenance. Amstrong (2006) has argued that the leadership process should motivate followers to participate effectively in the management process to achieve and sustain high levels of performance. However, the process of motivation is so complex that motivation theories are used to examine the processes involved.

The most influential theories are classified under instrumentality theory, needs theory and process theory. The needs theory originated by Maslow (1943), views motivation as taking action to satisfy needs and identifies the main needs that influence behaviour. The instrumentality theory sees rewards or punishment as the means of ensuring that people behave or act in desired ways. The process theory, on the other hand, focuses on psychological processes which affect motivation in terms of expectations, goals and perceptions of equity (Amstrong, 2006).

Maslow (1943) identified five major categories of human needs starting from the fundamental physiological needs and leading through a hierarchy of safety, social and esteem needs to the need for self-actualisation, the highest need of all. The physiological needs include the need for oxygen, food, water, sex, and shelter, whilst the safety needs focus on protection from danger and the



deprivation of physiological needs. The social needs encompass the need for affiliation, affection and friendship, with the esteem needs covering self-confidence, independence, knowledge and reputation. Self-actualisation needs, on the other hand, focus on the need to become all that one is capable of becoming, using skills to the fullest.

Motivational needs vary widely among individuals and in ways that the needs are satisfied. As noted by Maslow (1943), as each urgent need is satisfied, the satisfaction itself ceases to be important and moves on to other urgent needs. Similarly, McGregor's (1960) 'Theory X and Theory Y', in line with the instrumentality theory, proposed that the individual has insatiable needs and that as soon as one of the needs is satisfied another appears in its place. The 'Theory X' employee dislikes work, shuns responsibility and needs to be coerced and directed with a 'carrot and stick' to perform satisfactorily. The 'Theory Y' person welcomes work and responsibility and believes that commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

In Marfo-Yiadom's (2005) view, the theories suggest two different styles of management based on the underlying assumptions of employee motivation. Theory X requires a 'carrot and stick' model of motivation, while Theory Y places problems of human resources in the lap of management with the notion that authority and control are not appropriate for all purposes and under all circumstances. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the achievement of organisational objectives if they are committed to those objectives.

The discourse on motivation suggests that the motivational needs of followers depend on several factors including the followers' self-disposition and

characteristics, the situation and circumstances, as well as the leadership behaviours and other environmental factors that impact positively or negatively on the perceptions of the followers. This shows the complexities involved in identifying and meeting individual's motivational needs and calls for leadership skills that can unearth the motivational needs of followers. Motivation in this study, therefore, focuses not only on the needs of the followers, but on their characteristics as well as the needs of both the leaders and followers to enable them influence each other in the leadership process. It involves leaders' and followers' attitudes, behaviours and perceptions, which influence each other in a mutually reinforcing manner to enhance performance.

### **Perceptions of leaders and followers in the leadership process**

According to Starbuck and Mezias (1996), perception is the set of processes by which an individual becomes aware of and interprets information about the environment. People perceive the same things in different ways and, therefore, there is the need to embrace multiple realities. However, people often assume that reality is objective and that everyone perceives the same things in the same way. Saal and Moore (1998) identified two basic perceptual processes that affect behaviours as selective perception and stereotyping. Selective perception is the process of screening out information that people are uncomfortable with or contradicts their beliefs, while stereotyping is the process of categorising or labelling people on the basis of a single attribute.

Ford (1985) and Martinko and Gardner (1987) proposed the attribution theory to enhance appreciation of effects of perception on behaviour. The theory

suggests that people attribute causes to behaviour based on their observations of certain characteristics of that behaviour. They argued that behaviour could be caused internally from within the person or externally from the person's environment. Moorhead and Griffin (2000) contend that selective perception is beneficial if it is accurate and helps to disregard trivial information. However, it could be detrimental when it results in discounting important information. They identified common attributes of stereotype as race and sex and submitted that stereotypes along such lines could be inaccurate and harmful to organisations. This understanding of perception, as multiple realities, forms the basis for examining views on leadership, decentralisation and performance in this study.

### **Summary**

The literature review has revealed the need for a shift in development thinking from that of seeing decentralisation, leadership and performance independently of each other in the decentralised system of local government to seeing them as interrelated, interconnected and interdependent. This shift is informed by the structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives that enable decentralisation, leadership and performance to be seen from a holistic perspective. The theoretical and conceptual review of leadership has provided the foundations for adopting the variables on leadership behaviours, qualities and interrelationships between leaders and followers in this study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PERFORMANCE IN MANAGING DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS IN THE DECENTRALISED LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEM**

#### **Introduction**

The theoretical foundations informing the interrelationship, interconnectedness and interdependence among decentralisation, leadership and performance was reviewed to provide a frame for understanding how they work together to improve the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system. This chapter further explores the interrelationships and reviews the conceptual underpinnings of performance, development and participation to deepen understanding of the leadership, decentralisation and performance nexus. It concludes with an empirical review of performance assessment and the conceptual framework that informs this study.

#### **Conceptual underpinnings of performance**

This section reviews the conceptual underpinnings of performance. It examines the concept, practice, criteria and indicators of performance to inform the development of a performance assessment model for the decentralised local government system in this thesis. According to Fletcher (1997), the measurement of performance is a key topic on organisations' agenda. There has been a move away from traditional financially-based measures to a combined financial, quality and people measurement of success and health in a competitive market known as integrated performance management and measurement systems.

Identifying the current and planned future structure, type and objectives of an organisation should always be a starting point for defining and implementing a competence-based system of performance management. Shah (2006) has argued that public service performance which entails managing, controlling, supporting and continuously improving the success of organisations is of primary interest to all stakeholders. It establishes the systems and processes to support assessment, review and evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations.

Fletcher (1997) contends that an integrated performance management system is one that approaches the organisation as a whole. Inherent in this approach is the systems thinking perspective that the organisation, as a functioning entity, comprises various component parts. This is because of the added dimension of interaction between all components. If this interaction is to be managed and empowered effectively, there must be a common framework and toolkit as a reference point for all people within the organisation. Integrated performance management links individual performance to organisational plans and ultimately to organisational objectives. Using McKinsey's 7-S framework (Waterman, Peters & Phillips, 1980), Fletcher (1997) outlined the performance criteria and indicators to include strategy, structure, systems, staff, style, skills and shared goals. Key elements of each of the indicators are defined in Table 3.

Ouchi (1981) built on McKinsey's 7-S framework (Waterman et al., 1980) and proposed that there were seven major distinguishing characteristics of successful organisations, namely skills, staff, shared goals, trust, loyalty and involvement, as well as the link of individuals' performance to corporate goals. How people are motivated, involved, recognised, rewarded and valued all

influence the success or otherwise of the performance of the organisation in responding to mandates and development aspirations of their constituents. Drucker (1983) recommends the seven layers in the 7-S framework as the maximum necessary for any organisation.

**Table 3: Definitions of the 7-S framework**

7-S Framework	Definition
Strategy	Plan or course of action leading to the allocation of a firm's scarce resources over time, to reach identified goals;
Structure	Characterisation of the organisation chart (functional, decentralised, etc);
Systems	Procedural reports, routine processes, etc;
Staff	Descriptions of important personnel categories within the firm;
Style	Characterisation of how key managers behave in achieving the organisation's goals and cultural style of the organisation;
Skills	Distinctive capabilities of key personnel or the firm as a whole; and
Shared goals	The significant meanings or guiding concepts that an organisation imbues in its members.

Source: Adapted from Fletcher (1997)

The United Nations (2007b) in elaborating the criteria for assessing the performance of public organisations in achieving good governance focused on public participation, transparency in decision-making, accountability, strategic management of organisations, and human resource management. Other issues addressed were quality and access to services, revenue and expenditure

management, as well as inter-organisational and inter-governmental relations. Similarly, the MLGRD (2009) in formulating its performance assessment framework for the MMDAs adopted five thematic areas for the criteria including, management and organisation, transparency, openness and accountability, planning system, human resource management and relationship with sub-structures. Others were financial management and auditing, fiscal capacity, procurement, and environmental sanitation and management.

A review of the key elements in the performance assessment criteria and indicators of McKinsey's 7-S framework (Waterman, et al., 1980), Ouchi (1981), United Nations (2007b) and MLGRD (2009) suggests that they all view the criteria and indicators from similar perspectives as illustrated in Table 4. However, apart from Ouchi (1981) who indirectly addresses the issue of leadership by looking at trust and loyalty, and McKinsey's 7-S framework (Waterman, et al., 1980) that makes the style of leadership an explicit requirement, the rest appear not to focus directly on leadership as a key requirement.

The inadequate focus on leadership in the United Nations (2007b) and MLGRD (2009) assessment criteria is the central concern of this thesis that the quality and style of leadership appear to be given less attention in assessing the performance of MMDAs. In addition, while McKinsey's 7-S framework (Waterman, et al., 1980) and Ouchi (1981) do not address issues of transparency, openness, accountability, quality, access to services, as well as revenue and expenditure management directly, the United Nations (2007b) and MLGRD (2009) explicitly address them in their criteria.

**Table 4: Connecting the four perspectives on performance assessment**

McKinsey's 7-S framework	Ouchi's criteria	United Nations criteria	MLGRD FOAT assessment criteria
Strategy		Strategic management	Planning system
Structure		Inter-organisational/ and inter-governmental relations	Management and organisation, relationship with sub-structures
Systems	Link individual performance and corporate goals	Public participation, transparency and accountability	Transparency, openness and accountability
Staff	Staff	Human resource management	Human resource management
Style	Loyalty, trust, involvement	Participation	Transparency, openness and accountability and relationship with sub-structures
Skills	Skills	Human resource management	Human resource management
Shared goals	Shared goals	Strategic management Quality and access to services  Revenue and expenditure management	Planning system Environmental sanitation and management  Fiscal capacity, financial management and auditing

Source: Adapted from Waterman et al. (1980), Ouchi (1981), United Nations (2007b) and MLGRD (2009)



Another element which they all appear to overlook is the external environment of the organisation. Although the United Nations (2007b) attempts to address this through the inter-organisational and inter-governmental relations, it is not explicit enough. This study, therefore, adopts a performance assessment model that encapsulates the key elements of the four sets of criteria into one composite criteria, that highlights leadership, and the corresponding indicators as outlined in Table 5.

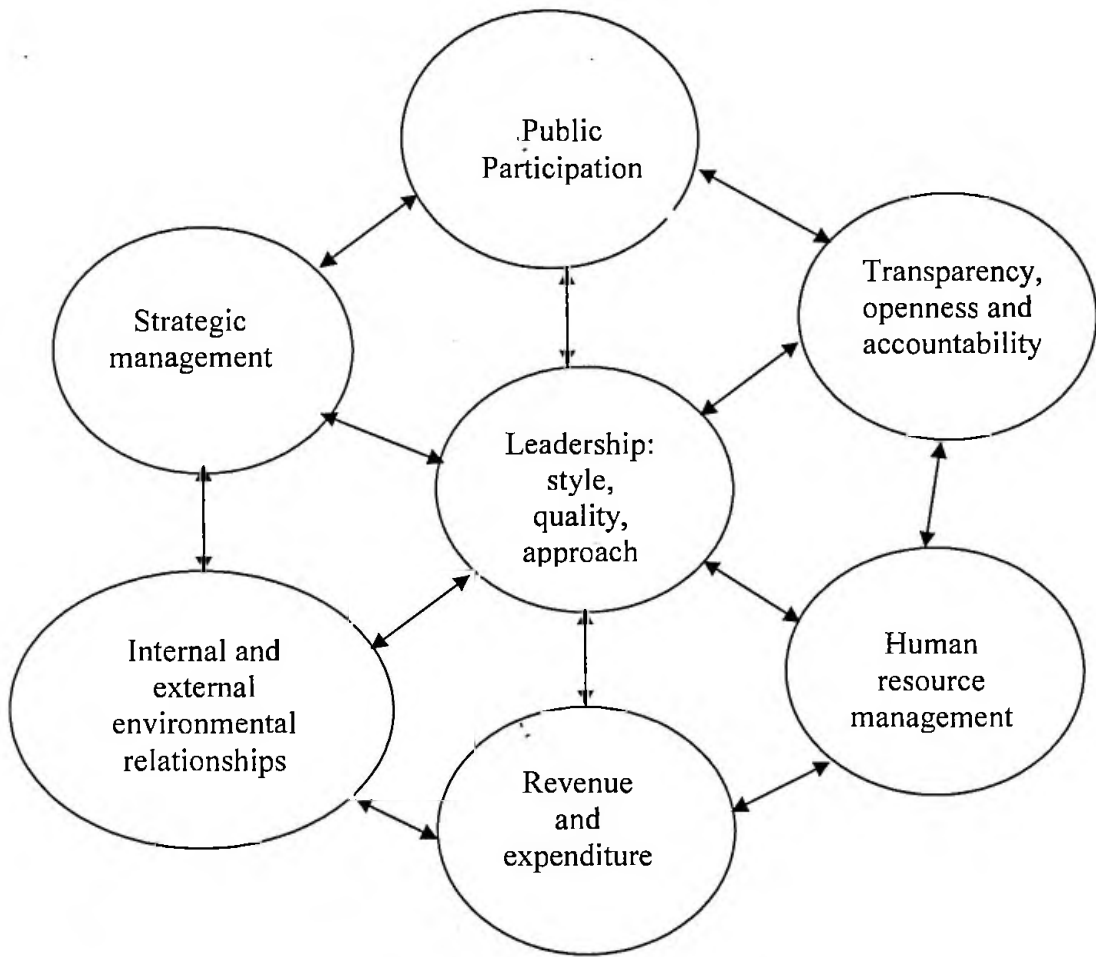
**Table 5: Performance criteria and indicators**

Performance criteria	Indicators
Leadership	Style, quality and responsiveness
Strategic management	Strategy, planning system and shared goals
Public participation	Decision making, vision/ goal formulation, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation
Transparency, openness, accountability	Reporting, feedback, clear processes, procedures, accessibility to information, holding individuals and organisations responsible for access to and quality of services, and results measured objectively: financial, political and administrative accountability.
Human resource management	Staffing (quantity and quality), skills, organisational structure and culture.
Revenue and expenditure management	Revenue generation capacity, financial management and accountability system
Internal and external environmental relationships	Inter-organisational, inter-governmental and environmental relationships.

Source: Adapted from Waterman et al. (1980), Ouchi (1981), United Nations (2007b) and MLGRD (2009)

The model is viewed from a systems thinking perspective and provides a holistic and integrated framework for the assessment of MMDAs' performance. However, as noted by Fletcher (1997), although the individual elements provide basis for assessing specific aspects of the MMDAs, on their own and by themselves, they cannot provide sufficient basis for assessing performance. The elements are interconnected, interrelated and interdependent. They feed into each other in a multi-dimensional manner (Checkland, 2000). For example, to achieve transparency, openness and accountability, the systems and structures need to be in place, leadership provided and the goals shared. In addition, strategies should be adopted to determine the staffing and skills requirements to operationalise the systems and structures.

Figure 3 illustrates the performance assessment model and suggests the idea of a multiplicity of factors that should inform assessment of the performance of the MMDAs. It also portrays the interdependence, interrelatedness and interconnectedness of the elements which make it difficult to achieve one element without pursuing the other elements. In addition, it conveys the notion that there is no starting point or implied hierarchy amongst the elements. Each element in the criteria is as important as the other elements and provides the basis for understanding the responsiveness of the other elements. Each element also influences achievement of the other elements (Checkland, 2000; Waterman et al., 1980). This is congruent with the systems thinking and structural-functionalist perspectives of this research.



**Figure 3: MMDAs’ performance assessment model**

Source: Adapted from Waterman et al. (1980)

The strategic management of organisations deals with the identification of the mission and purpose of the organisation, its main policies and plans to achieve the mission, and activities affecting its products and services in the interest of stakeholders. The interdependence of mission, policies and activities helps the organisation to position itself within its environment, build an identity, and use its strengths to carve out a niche for itself. Public participation at all levels of government is essential to promote policies that will better focus on issues of

growth with equity, sustainable human development and poverty reduction (United Nations, 2007a).

Cheema and Rondinelli (2003) submit that transparency promotes openness of the democratic process through reporting and feedback, clear processes and procedures, and the conduct and actions of those holding decision-making authority. They see accountability as a key pillar of good governance that compels the state, the private sector and civil society to focus on results, seek clear objectives, develop effective strategies, and monitor and report on performance. It implies holding individuals and organisations responsible for results, measured as objectively as possible and has three dimensions namely financial, political and administrative accountability. Financial accountability implies an obligation on the part of the person handling resources, or holding public office or any other positions of trust, to report on the intended and actual use of resources.

Political accountability involves regular and open methods for sanctioning or rewarding those who hold positions of public trust. Administrative accountability, on the other hand, entails systems of control internal to the government, including civil service standards and incentives, ethics, codes and administrative reviews (United Nations, 2007a). The need to improve the quality of and access to public services is a critical issue in public sector management. It entails continuous improvement of products and service quality, a shorter and more reliable response time in production, provision for sales and service, and constant concern about customers and efficiency (United Nations, 2007b).

According to Shah (2006), delivery of basic services in developing countries is fraught with challenges. Firstly, not everyone can access public

services due largely to limited coverage. Education, health, water supply and sanitation facilities may be located far away, making access very difficult, especially in rural areas. Women, in particular, suffer more due to lack of proximate services as they are the primary caregivers for the family and organisers of their households. Secondly, even if the facilities were accessible, the quality of service may be so poor as to be practically non-existent. Thirdly, there may be barriers to accessing services for some in society, including financial - inability of the poor to afford to pay for services, legal - inadequate understanding and access to legal services, and socio-cultural - traditions inhibiting participation of women, children and other vulnerable groups.

Human resource management includes organisational structure and culture, personnel selection and placement, training and development, job design, and performance appraisal. In many developing countries, human resource management continues to focus on administering rules and regulations instead of taking a proactive approach to improve performance (Amstrong, 2006). United Nations (2007a) has noted that the shortage of skilled, well-trained managers is a major constraint to effective public sector management. In response, developing countries and external partners have invested in management training and development. It is, however, important to provide the type of training that can be effectively used in the socio-political environment prevailing in the country.

Revenue and expenditure management involves ensuring that more resources are available for use in expanding and improving services to make service delivery efficient and cost-effective. If there is increased transparency and less corruption, fewer scarce resources will be misdirected, and instead used for

service provision. Likewise, improvement in tax administration and collection of user charges assist in mobilising more resources to expand and improve service provision (Shah, 2006).

Kendie and Mensah (2008) have argued that inter-organisational and intergovernmental relations significantly influence the performance of public organisations. It involves central-local government allocations of responsibilities and relationships among ministries, parastatal organisations, state enterprises and external development partners. In order to build effective partnerships among different levels of government, it is essential to streamline and clarify areas of primary and secondary responsibility for each level of government and administration. They noted that a key challenge in most government organisations is lack of coordination. This usually emanates from a lack of clarity in the division of responsibilities and duplication and multiplicity in service provision resulting in inefficiency and wastage in the use of public resources.

According to Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2006), studies have shown that leaders make the difference in the performance of organisations. The right leader translates resources or assets to production, which ultimately determines the survival or success level of that organisation. The overall organisational effectiveness and performance may not be due to poor administrative system, but poor organisational leadership. Therefore, leadership is about doing the right thing. Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2006) postulates that the definition of performance is always problematic and challenging because it is value-laden and this ultimately makes output difficult to measure.

Citizens evaluate a government's performance according to the ways its services affect their lives in terms of education of their children, protection of lives and properties, maintenance of clean environment, as well as provision of clean and potable water and other social services. However, accurate measurement of government performance has always been difficult because of the nature of its products and services that are hard to measure. This ultimately leads to a lack of accurate data to evaluate the performance of public service (United Nations, 2007a, 2007b).

In addition, the assessment of these services by the end users is usually subjective. Moreover, the subjective criteria for assessment of public organisations preclude assessment of the nature and quality of leadership and the extent to which leadership fosters participation and enhances performance in the management of development interventions. The subjective criteria also fails to examine performance against stated goals and the extent to which systems, structures, procedures and processes put in place facilitate performance (Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, 2006).

Stemming from the discourse and from a systems thinking perspective (Checkland, 2000), therefore, a more objective basis of assessment criteria together with the citizens' subjective criteria appears to provide a holistic basis for the assessment of governments. Hence, this study uses both the 'objective' and 'subjective' criteria as basis for assessing performance in consonance with the structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives of this research. The subjective measurement constitutes the perceptions of the leadership of MMDAs namely, MMDCEs, MMDCDs, Assembly persons, heads of departments of the

central administration, decentralised departments and civil society organisations as well as community members about the leadership approach and performance elicited through interviews. Performance is explored in terms of their perceived responsiveness to mandates and development aspirations of constituents.

The objective measurement for this study, on the other hand, relates to performance criteria and corresponding indicators adopted for the study in Table 5, and the actual achievements of MMDAs as perceived by the leadership and defined by results of the FOAT framework (MLGRD, 2009). Although MMDAs' performance could be measured at the individual, group or organisational levels, this study focuses on the performance of MMDAs at the organisational level, in tandem with the FOAT framework and the holistic and systems thinking perspective of this research in achieving sustainable local level development.

### **Theoretical and conceptual perspectives of development**

This section reviews theories of development and provides an operational definition of development for this study. It also reviews the concepts of development interventions, local level development, sustainability of development interventions, as well as endogenous and exogenous development. The importance of development has been generally acknowledged by the global community. However, the meaning, purpose and direction of development tend to be nebulous (Ghartey, 1987). Development has been taken to mean different things at different times, in different places, and by different people in different professions and organisations (Chambers, 2005; Todaro & Smith, 2009). The dominant meanings have been those attributed to economists, and often equated with economic



development and growth which has also evolved through the concept of human development in the Human Development Reports of UNDP.

Several theories of development which had been accepted in the past have been the subject of critical review in recent years (Myrdal, 1968; Streeten, 1994). Todaro and Smith (2009) trace the conceptual evolution of development from the traditional to modern perspectives. In their view, traditional theories saw development in economic terms, focusing on a country's ability to generate and sustain an annual increase in its Gross National Income (GNI) or income per capita which takes into account the ability of a nation to expand its output at a rate faster than the growth of its population. Economic development in the past was also seen in terms of the planned alteration of the structure of production and employment, focusing on rapid industrialisation, often at the expense of agriculture and rural development. Problems of poverty, discrimination, unemployment and income distribution were not addressed.

The concept of development has, however, evolved from a purely economic concept to an economic and social development perspective (Dzorgbo, 1998). Recent views dwell on Sen's (1999) concept of human well-being, focusing on the individual's capability to function in terms of people's ability or inability to utilise opportunities to improve their well-being. In Morse's (2004) view, development must be sustainable, encompassing concerns for the well-being of the current and future generations. It must be seen as a multidimensional process involving changes in social structures, popular attitudes, national institutions, as well as acceleration of economic growth, reduction of inequality and eradication of poverty (Todaro & Smith, 2009).

In all cases, and irrespective of the issues addressed, development appears to have had two aspects namely, it has been normative and it has involved change. The underlying meaning of development has, therefore, been good change. Chambers (2005) has argued that views have differed and would always differ about what is good and what sorts of changes are significant. Change is continuous in what changes and how it changes, and in what we see as good. Similarly, Todaro and Smith (2009) postulate that development must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system, based on the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups, moves away from a condition of life perceived as unsatisfactory towards a condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better. Seeing development as a change in the well-being of people for the better is the sense in which it is used in this study.

Dwelling on Collins' (2005) definition of intervention as taking a decisive or intrusive role in order to determine events, development interventions are seen in this study as initiatives, actions, processes and procedures adopted in the decentralised local government system to provide social services, improve well-being of citizens, alleviate poverty and achieve development goals. The intervention can be tangible or physical as in the case of financial support, logistical and other physical inputs and projects, or intangible as in the case of capacity building in knowledge, skills and attitudes, administrative, technical and operational support. District Assemblies are established to undertake development interventions to alleviate poverty and other social services. It is on this basis that their performance is assessed. However, this needs to be viewed from the perspective of local level development.

## Local level development

In this thesis local level development refers to decision-making, planning and implementation of development actions to improve the well-being of the people within a particular locality (Kendie & Martens, 2008). The term local generally refers to a geographic area where people could have social relationships and opportunities to work together (Uphoff, 1986 in Kendie & Martens, 2008). The defining criterion is that inhabitants share similar problems, challenges and resources. The locality provides the space for people's creative actions with the local space as the place constructed by actors through social interaction. Although a location could be viewed as a delimited physical area within an abstract space, place which is the local space, is always humanised as a location with meaning attached.

In Ghana, the sub-structures of the MMDAs, Area, Urban and Zonal Councils and Unit Committees, are the lowest level decision-making authorities for the organisation of space for local level development. The district and traditional authorities, therefore, need to work together and provide the space for local participation to achieve good governance and sustainable development (Kendie & Martens, 2008). The United Nations (2007a, 2007b) posit that the goal of governance and sustainable development should be to create conditions that enable people to realise their potential for social, economic and political fulfilment. A decentralised local government system with functional structures and institutions are, therefore, essential in the creation of these spaces and ensuring enhanced performance regarding the sustainability of development interventions.

## Sustainability of development interventions

According to Awekeya (2008), the main concern of the central government, MMDAs and other development partners is to ensure that projects which they provide to facilitate development are sustainable. Sustainability of development interventions entails the ability of the interventions to continue functioning to meet the needs of the beneficiaries long after a sponsoring organisation has ended its support services. One of the key factors for achieving sustainability is the Demand Responsive Approach (DRA) in which services are provided in response to demand for such services that the beneficiaries are willing to contribute to its provision. With DRA, it is envisaged that there would be a strong sense of ownership when beneficiaries express the need for services themselves, instead of just providing it without their involvement and resource commitment.

Similarly, Litvack and Seddan (2002) have argued that once an intervention is accepted by beneficiaries, its chances of sustainability are higher, since they are capable of facilitating development in the beneficiary communities. They noted that people would naturally actively pursue the betterment of their lives within the context of their understanding and cultural values. Thus, any form of development intervention should take into consideration what the beneficiaries themselves think or perceive their development needs to be, and not what the leader thinks as intervention needs. Therefore, all development interventions, either physical or non physical meant to improve upon the socio-economic status of the beneficiaries, no matter their importance, will not in any way aid development unless the followers and beneficiaries internalise and own them.

In the view of Oates (2006) and Shah (2006), beneficiaries gradually assume responsibility for interventions during planning, implementation and follow up stages. Eliciting beneficiary inputs, including decision-making into intervention activities at all stages is, therefore, critical in achieving sustainability. Consequently, they argued that the leadership approach should be such that it influences beneficiaries to assume control over management and alignment of the intervention activities, bearing in mind their needs and concerns as beneficiaries. In addition, participation at all levels helps to educate members about the project objectives and strengthen its management process. People will naturally contribute to support and maintain projects and programmes if they perceive them as being able to serve their immediate and future needs, interest, cultural values and aspirations.

It would seem from the discourse thus far, that local level development and its sustainability could be realised within the context of exogenous and endogenous development. It requires a focus on the complex relationships and interrelationships between the internal and external environments of MMDAs and fits into the structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives of this research.

#### Endogenous and exogenous development

The endogenous development theory holds that the development of a society should be based on its internal characteristics such as traditional values, social and economic activities, and the skills and talents of its people. This is usually referred to as development from within and it can be explained as a

process that involves three phases with the first as improvement of native knowledge, followed by skills improvement and technology improvement in that order. These three attributes need to be harnessed and modified appropriately in order to meet local communities' needs (Awekeya, 2008).

Endogenous development is based mainly, but not exclusively, on locally available resources, local knowledge, culture and leadership, with openness to integrating traditional as well as outside knowledge and practices. It has mechanisms for local learning and experimenting, building local economies and retaining benefits in the local area (Rigoberta, 2007). Exogenous development, on the other hand, focuses on development of a locality based on external influences and dominant forces to the neglect of the people and resources in that locality (Kendie & Martens, 2008).

Fekade (1994) is of the view that endogenous development is people centred. It permits free choice by each country of its own form of development, on the basis of its social ideals and its national objectives. Six endogenous strategies need to be adopted by developing countries to ensure sustainability. The first is empowering people to enable them to participate fully in any development programme. Secondly, an effort should be made to provide access to resources and equity. In addition, there should be extensive use of and dependence on local resources such as labour, materials and technical skills. Furthermore, there should well defined procedures directed at strengthening local institutions to serve as catalyst to community development. Finally, locally-based technology capable of being used by the majority of the people to address their daily socio-economic and cultural challenges should be developed.

The discourse point to the need for leaders and followers within the decentralised local government structures to develop the capacities to become self-reliant, rather than depend on other leaders and external actors to dictate the pace and direction of local level development. Endogenous development, therefore, appears congruent with the objective of decentralisation that aims at enhancing performance in pursuing development at the local level by ensuring the people's participation in the exercise of leadership at the decentralised levels. It also fits into the systems thinking perspective of this research and provides basis for examining the multiple and complex factors within the internal environment of the MMDAs and how they interact with the external environment to achieve local level development.

### **Conceptualising participation**

The preceding sections have established the inextricable link between leadership, participation and development, with participation serving as the means by which sustainable local level development could be achieved to enhance performance in the decentralised local government system. This section reviews the concept, principles, types and practice of participation. According to Chambers (2005), literature has interpreted participation in different ways, with each generation, group and person fashioning out its meaning and how they can best give expression to participation. While some of the definitions are set in a field development context, much of the discussion of participation applies to human relationships in other contexts including the organisation, workplace, family, social group and meetings.

For Francis (1993), participation implies a stakeholder-inclusive process of planning. Similarly, Mikkelsen (1995) and Chambers (1997) define participation as the voluntary contributions by people in a project, and/or dialogue between the local people and project preparation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. DFID (2000), on the other hand, sees participation as enabling people to realise their rights to participate in, and access information relating to the decision-making processes which affect their lives. DeBruin, Parker and Fischhoff (2007) and Simpson and Gill (2007) sum up the key elements in the various definitions and view participation as the process of involving people in projects, policy reviews or ideas to encourage decision-making and empowerment, ownership of opinion and influence in services and issues that affect them and promote inclusion.

Participatory approaches to planning and implementation of development interventions are seen to be inclusive of the interest of disadvantaged and vulnerable groups. It is also believed to empower poor people, build social capital and strengthen governance. These processes are seen to lead to better planning, because outcomes are assumed to have been generated collectively between interventionists and participants (Chambers, 1997; Mikkelsen, 1995). For example, in the planning of development projects, various forms of participatory planning and implementation methodologies aimed at enhancing the level of involvement in the consultation processes have been applied. These include visioning, community profiling, appraisal, mapping, and community animation (Chambers, 1997, 2005).

This study builds on the key elements of the definitions discussed thus far and sees participation as involvement of people in the share and control over



resources for development initiatives and decision-making processes which affects their life. It involves empowering people and enabling them to contribute to planning, implementation, management and assessment of development interventions. However, it is important to establish the type of participation and the purpose for which participation is elicited in development activities in order to facilitate informed decisions on participation in the management of development interventions among leaders, followers and beneficiaries.

Cooke and Kothari (2001) contend that the way in which words are used in the rhetoric of self-reliance and participation encourages the idea that increased participation would mean a more democratic, egalitarian and equitable society. However, this is not the case as leaders evoke different forms of participation in their bid to engage followers in the development process. Chambers (2005), therefore, provides three main ways that participation can be analysed in terms of who participates, the institutions involved, and the objectives and functions of participation as presented in Table 6. Chambers (2005) submits that it is perhaps, only at the very low levels that the full and open meeting is effective. At higher levels representation or selection of leaders and discussion in committees may be used. However, quite often, participation gives more influence and resources to the more influential and better off than the less influential and less well off.

**Table 6: Ways to analyse participation**

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Ways of analysis	Details of analysis
Who participates	Government staff at the local level, local inhabitants of an area or a combination of these two.
Institutions involved	Including local government authorities, development committees, self-help projects, public meetings and local interest groups.
Objectives and functions of participation	Include making known local wishes; generating developmental ideas; providing knowledge; testing proposals for feasibility; enhancing ability of communities to manage their affairs, control and exploit their environment; demonstrating support for a regime; doing what government requires to be done; extracting, developing, investing local resources; and promoting desirable relationships.

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Source: Adapted from Chambers (2005)

Oakley (1989) distinguished participation in projects as contribution, organisation and empowering. The types of participation are often characterised as ladders, devised to fit particular contexts and needs. The first ladder, developed by Arnstein (1969), had eight rungs in descending order namely, citizen control, delegated power, partnership, placation, consultation, informing, therapy and manipulation. Chambers (2005) posits that ladders unpack participation and use the same word for different activities and relationships. They can also show how much participation is about power and this can reduce pretence and hypocrisy and improve practice. However, the danger is to consider it as sufficient to use a ladder

and make practices less participatory. Chambers (2005), consequently, dwells on four levels of participation namely, information-sharing, consultation, decision-making and initiating action.

Bell and Morse (2006) reinforce Chambers' contention about the order in which participation can be viewed and put forward Pretty's (1995) different types of participation (Table 7) to guide public participation in the management of development interventions. Pretty's (1995) type and characterisation complements Chambers' (2005) levels of participation and together provide an integrated framework for assessing the types of participation envisaged by leaders and experienced by followers in the leadership process in this study.

United Nations (2007a) has observed that public participation at all levels of government is essential to promote policies that will better focus on issues of growth with equity, sustainable human development and poverty reduction. The constitutions of many countries, including Ghana, formally encourage direct citizen participation in governance. Additionally, specific local government laws encourage involvement and participation of the citizenry in the management of development interventions. However, legal mandates and constitutionality do not necessarily guarantee true participatory governance. In practice, the extent of participation in many developing countries may be very limited. Citizens may be unaware of government policies and actions until after they have been implemented.

**Table 7: Different types of public participation in sustainable development**

Type of participation	Characteristics
Passive	People are told about a decision related to sustainable development (SD) or what has already happened, with no ability to change it.
Functional	Public participation seen by external agents as a means to achieve SD goals (e.g. reduce costs) usually after major decisions have already been made.
Consultative	People answer questions related to the planning of SD, but who to ask, the form of the questions and analysis of results is done by external agents.
Manipulative	A pretence (no real power), e.g. the presence of one or a few 'people's' representatives on a board or committee charged with planning SD. They may be outnumbered, and hence outvoted, by external experts.
Interactive	People involved in analysis of condition, development of action plans, etc as part of SD. Here, public participation is seen as a right and not just a mechanical function.
Self-mobilisation	People mobilise themselves and initiate actions without the involvement of any external agency, although the latter can help with an enabling framework.

Source: Adapted from Pretty (1995)

Access to information is scarce, tightly controlled or denied outright. People's isolation from policy making is particularly evident in the areas of fiscal and economic policy, which are not open to public participation (United Nations, 2007a, 2007b). Limited public participation has led to the concentration of power in the hands of a few. Good leadership processes facilitate participation and ensure that public organisations are held accountable for discharging their duties responsibly in managing development interventions.

### **Management of development interventions**

Management is the art of getting things done through people. It refers to how managers give direction to their organisations, provide leadership and make decisions on how to use organisational resources to accomplish goals (Daft & Marcic, 1998). Getting things done through people and other resources and providing direction and leadership, are what managers do. Similarly, Tomasco (1998) sees management as the attainment of organisational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organising, leading and controlling organisational resources. Two ideas are important here namely, the functions of planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling, and the attainment of organisational goals in an efficient and effective manner (Daft & Marcic, 1998).

Planning defines goals for the future organisational performance and deciding on the tasks and resource use needed to attain them. Organising involves assigning tasks, grouping tasks into departments, and allocating resources to departments. Leading involves the use of influence to motivate employees to achieve the organisation's goals, while controlling is concerned with monitoring

employees' activities, keeping the organisation on track toward its goals, and making corrections as needed. Managers and leaders use a lot of skills to perform these functions. They require conceptual, human and technical skills. Management is, therefore, considered universal because it uses organisational resources to accomplish goals and attain high performance in all types of profit and not-for-profit organisations (Daft & Marcic, 1998).

This study views both management and leadership from a systems thinking perspective. It sees them as vital, and that either one without the other is insufficient. Leadership is seen as a critical and integral part of the management process in enhancing performance in the decentralised local government system. Analyses of the potentials and constraints of decentralisation, leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system using the Force-Field model would enable the identification of key issues to address in order to achieve a responsive nexus.

### **Force-field model**

The force-field model was developed by Lewin in 1939 (Lewin, Lippit & White, 1939) as a method for assessing an organisation's disposition to change by identifying the driving and restraining forces. It is based on Lewin's theory that the current way of doing things is the result of a balance between driving and restraining forces. If a change is to be introduced, the balance of forces has to change either by increasing the driving forces for change or reducing the restraining forces. Hannaway and Hunt (1995) have argued that the force-field

analysis reduces the tendency to look for simplistic solutions by looking at all the restraining factors rather than a single cause.

The force-field analysis enables consideration of all the forces for and against change in order to facilitate the adoption of responsive strategies to reduce the forces against change and to adopt actions to enhance the forces in favour of change. The feasibility and priority of each action is assessed and prioritised and plans developed to implement the actions (Hannaway & Hunt, 1995). In this study, the force-field analysis is used as a framework for analysing the current situation of the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus and to identify a desired situation for enhanced performance from a systems thinking perspective.

### **Empirical review**

The discourse on decentralisation, leadership and performance has provided a frame for analysing leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system. Literature on leadership and performance studies present varied scenarios from which this study could be contextualised. The Harvard Institute for International Development in Indonesia [HIID] (1993) evaluated the performance of local governments in the developing world and focused on the legal, process conformance and fiscal health of the government with no mention of leadership. Similarly, Islam and Khan (1996) in Shah (2005) in evaluating local government performance in Dhaka and Bangladesh dwelt on legislative conformity, while Andersson (1999) evaluated the performance of local government in Caiza by concentrating on conformance to legislations on participation. Leadership was not given attention as a critical element.

In examining the mechanisms for evaluating local government performance in the developed countries, Foltin (1999) concluded that the evaluations focused on examining conformance and fiscal health. Adebayo (2001) also assessed the efficiency of Nigeria's public service and identified five factors that affect performance to include institutional, political, psychological, sociological and attitudinal factors with no mention of leadership in the equation. Andrew and Shah (2003) assessed local government performance in developing countries using the mixed practice theory approach to build on existing evaluation practices and noted that the indicators focused on conformity with legislation, maintenance of fiscal health, responsiveness, efficiency and accountability to citizens. No mention was made of the role of leadership in meeting requirements.

Sandbakken's (2006) Norwegian study on leadership practices and organisational performance, on the other hand, examined leadership practices and the relationship between these practices and organisational performance thus linking the role of leadership in the performance of governments. Similarly, Oyelaran-Oyeyinka's (2006) study on governance, bureaucracy and leadership in Nigeria's public service using mixed-methods approach examined the role of leadership as an important element in the performance of governments. Although the two studies appear to examine leadership and performance from an interrelationship point of view, the issues were examined from a government-wide perspective and not at the local government level which is the focus of this study.

In Ghana, the FOAT framework provides basis for assessing the performance of MMDAs. It examines performance from efficiency and effectiveness point of view, with little attention to leadership. The elements in the



framework also appear to be pursued independently of one another, without stressing the interrelationships among the criteria and indicators. In addition, administration of the framework appears to be centrally driven, focusing on vertical rather than horizontal accountability (MLGRD, 2010a). This alienates local leaders and followers from the accountability processes and has the tendency to perpetuate dependence on the centre.

A critical review of the aforementioned studies reveals that all, but Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2006) and Sandbakken (2006), focus on examining performance from efficiency and effectiveness perspectives in terms of responsiveness to mandates, policies, legal and regulatory requirements. There appears to be little focus on how leadership influences performance. The thrust of this research still remains that efficiency and effectiveness in performance cannot be achieved without a leadership approach that influences followers to achieve higher performance. Although Oyelaran-Oyeyinka's (2006) and Sandbakken's (2006) work appear to align with this thesis, not much empirical research has been done to highlight the interrelationship between leadership and performance in the decentralised system of local government. This is a gap that this study hopes to address.

In addition, the earlier studies appear to focus on government-wide performance as opposed to performance of local governments which is the focus of this study. Finally, there appears to be little empirical studies on the decentralisation, leadership and performance arena that have used the systems thinking and structural functionalist paradigms to establish the interrelationship, interdependence and inter-connectedness among them. It is hoped that by applying

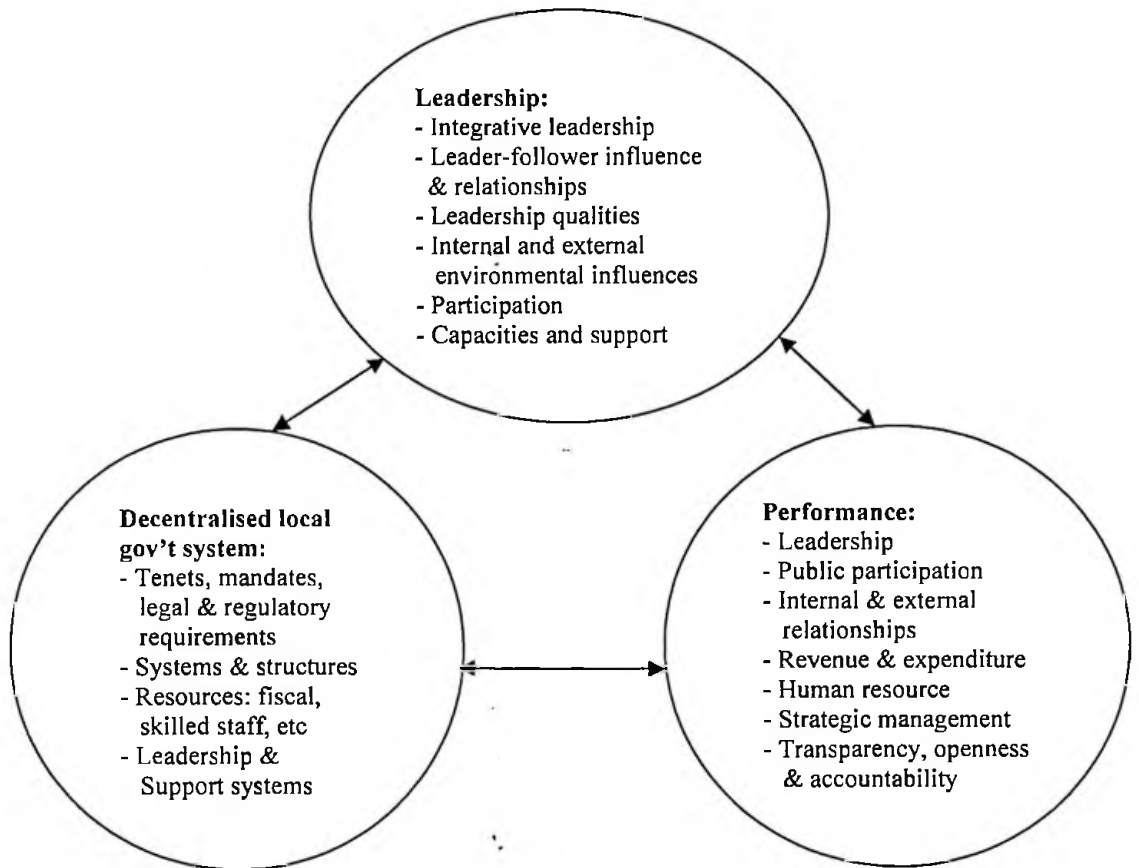
the systems thinking approach, this study will become a reference point in evolving strategies to overcome the difficulties in achieving sustainable local level development in the decentralised local government system.

### **Conceptual framework**

Based on the discourse, it could be argued that perceiving decentralisation, leadership and performance from a systems thinking perspective provides a framework for seeing them as an integrated whole. The interrelationship in functioning between leadership and performance should form the basis for achieving the tenets of decentralisation. Each sub-system needs to function from a systems perspective in relation to its elements. Leadership cannot be reduced to position. The Assembly system cannot be reduced to departments and units, and performance cannot be reduced to responsiveness to statutory requirements. Decentralisation should be viewed in relation to the tenets, structures, systems, statutory requirements, as well as leadership and the larger environment that interact with the sub-system. The interrelationships need to be analysed and understood in order to respond to performance requirements (Checkland, 2000).

Similarly, using the systems thinking standpoint, leadership needs to be viewed from the perspective of the leader-follower relationships, interrelationships and interconnectedness among the leaders and followers and how they influence each other. Leadership should also be viewed from the perspective of how it relates to the decentralised local government system and its environment in order to respond to performance requirements. Likewise, performance needs to be analysed and understood from the perspective of the various elements that

constitute the performance requirements and how together they enable leadership in the decentralised local government system to achieve equitable and sustainable local level development (Beerel, 1998; Van der Lee, 2002). Consequently, the systems thinking perspective has been used to present the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus illustrated in Figure 4.



**Figure 4: Decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus**

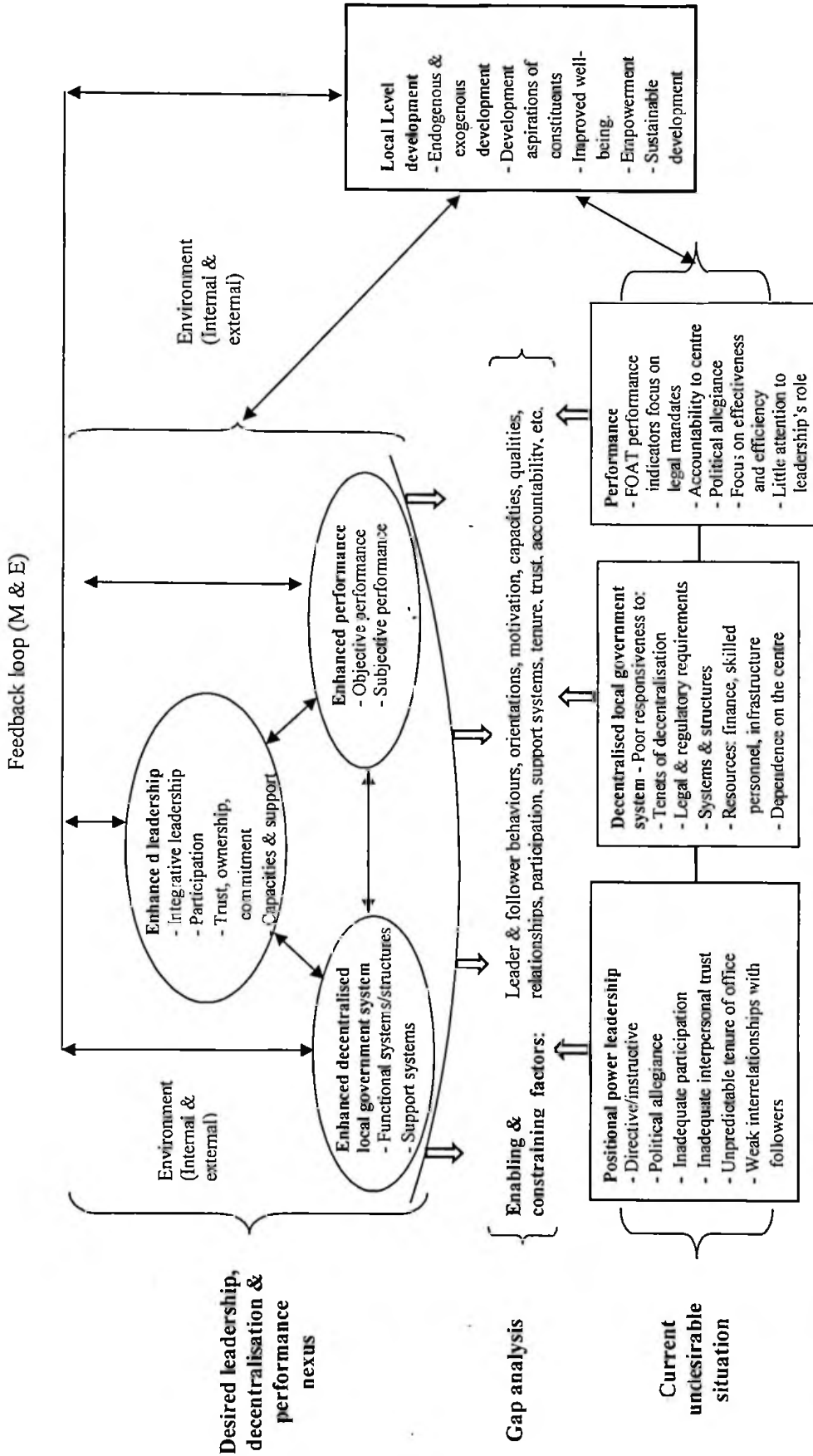
Source: Adapted from Beerel (1998), Checkland (2000) and Mooney, Knox and Schacht (2002)

As noted by Kendie and Mensah (2008), effective performance of MMDAs is required for efficient service delivery, good governance and local level development. Leadership is expected to provide the vision and direction for decentralisation to achieve equitable and sustainable local level development. The

link between decentralisation, leadership and performance, therefore, needs to be strengthened. Good leadership and vision are essential if MMDAs are to perform well. Consequently, transformational and integrative leadership capable of providing vision and direction, building consensus on strategy to operationalise the vision and identifying clear ways to overcome environmental constraints to achieve organisational objectives is a prerequisite for effective performance.

For decentralised local governments to achieve efficiency and equity goals they should have uninhibited authority, align responsibilities among actors, and have the requisite capacity to respond to mandates and aspirations of constituents. Revenue and expenditure requirements need to be addressed to assure the fiscal health, while services must be delivered locally under the subsidiarity principle. Participation should be strengthened by involving and empowering the people in policy making, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions. There should be adequate flow of information, openness of decision-making and transparency. Assessment of the performance of the nexus helps to ascertain the current situation in terms of what works well and what works less well. It also helps to establish the gaps to address in order to improve performance. The force-field model which facilitates such analysis is, therefore, employed in this study.

These perspectives inform the conceptual framework of this thesis outlined in Figure 5. It looks at the current undesirable and future desired situations, identifies the gaps and how the systems thinking perspective helps to improve leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system.



**Figure 5: Decentralisation, leadership and performance framework**

Source: Adapted from Hannaway and Hunt (1995), Beerel (1998), Checkland (2000) and Mooney, Knox and Schacht (2002)

The framework sees the current decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in the MMDAs as undesirable and needs to be strengthened (desired situation) in order to achieve sustainable local level development. The undesirable situation seems to be informed by inadequate responsiveness of the decentralised local government system to the tenets, legal and regulatory requirements and poor functioning of the systems and structures.

Leadership appears to be seen more as a position and the behaviour directive and instructive, with inadequate participation. Leadership also appears to be inclined more towards political allegiance, and the tenure of office unpredictable. Performance appears to focus on, among others, systems and structures and their functioning and responsiveness to legal and regulatory requirements. The quality of the leadership approach appears to be given little or no attention. Consequently, an analysis of the enabling and constraining factors influencing the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus needs to be done. To establish the factors, therefore, requires a gap analysis using the force-field model within a systems thinking perspective.

## **Summary**

The literature review has revealed that to understand leadership, it is necessary to understand the decentralised system of local government and performance requirements. It has provided the basis for understanding the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus. As asserted by Bereel (1998) and Checkland (2000), to understand decentralisation, leadership or performance it must be understood holistically, and as it relates to the decentralisation, leadership

and performance nexus in which each of them is embedded. To grasp the factors that inform the dynamics of each of them requires understanding of the dynamics of the nexus. Once the dynamics of the whole is understood, one can derive, at least in principle, the properties and interactions of each of them.

Although the systems thinking perspective appears to be the driving force behind decentralisation policy formulation in most developing countries, including Ghana, there appears to be a missing link in the systems thinking perspective of the policy formulation and its practice. The chapter has, therefore, indicated that for performance in the management of development interventions to improve, leadership needs to be embedded and internalised in order for decentralisation to yield the desired local level development.

Each of the sub-components of the nexus also needs to be analysed from a systems thinking perspective in terms of the interrelationship between the tenets, systems and structures as well as the legal and regulatory requirements in the decentralised local government system. Leader-follower interrelationships in the leadership process as well as performance criteria and indicators interrelationships need to be seen as sub-systems. The related theories and concepts of decentralisation, leadership and performance have together provided the conceptual framework for this study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter elaborates the methodology adopted for the study and the approach and tools used for data analysis to address the research questions. It provides an understanding of the study area, how the research was carried out, the study population, the sampling procedures and instrument design. It also outlines the pre-testing, ethical considerations, field work, problems encountered in the field as well as data processing and analysis.

#### **Study region**

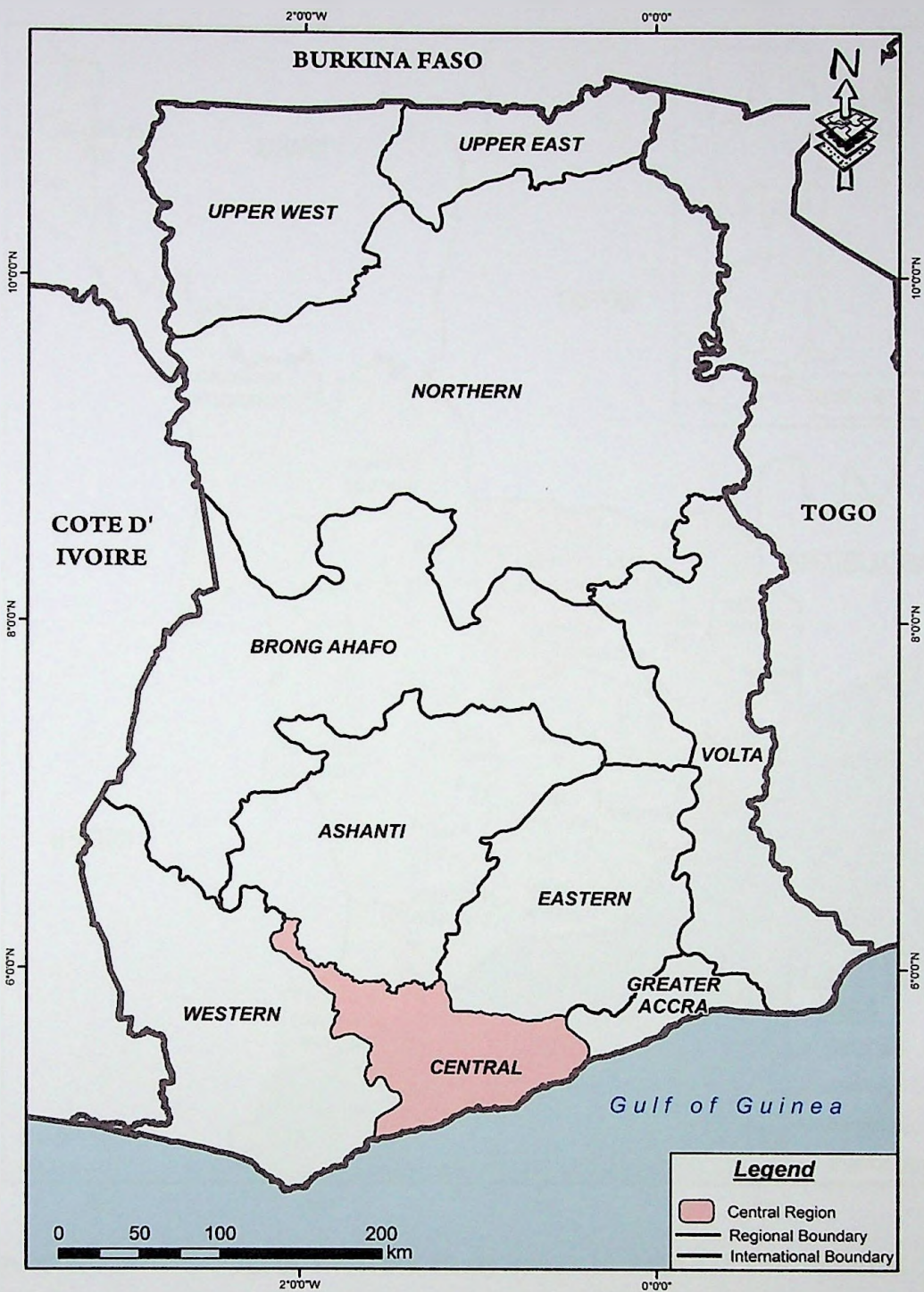
The Central Region of Ghana was selected for the study owing to its historical antecedents in the decentralised system of local government and the FOAT administration in the country. It was also selected due to its potential for tourist attraction and high concentration of educational institutions (Ahwoi, 2010; CRCC, 2009; MLGRD, 2010a). Although the region has featured prominently in Ghana's decentralisation and has these potentials, it still remains the fourth poorest region (Ghana Statistical Service [GSS], 2000) thus providing a compelling attraction for examining its leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system.

The Central Region occupies an area of 9,826 square kilometres, which constitutes 4.19 percent of Ghana's land area. It shares boundaries with the 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,



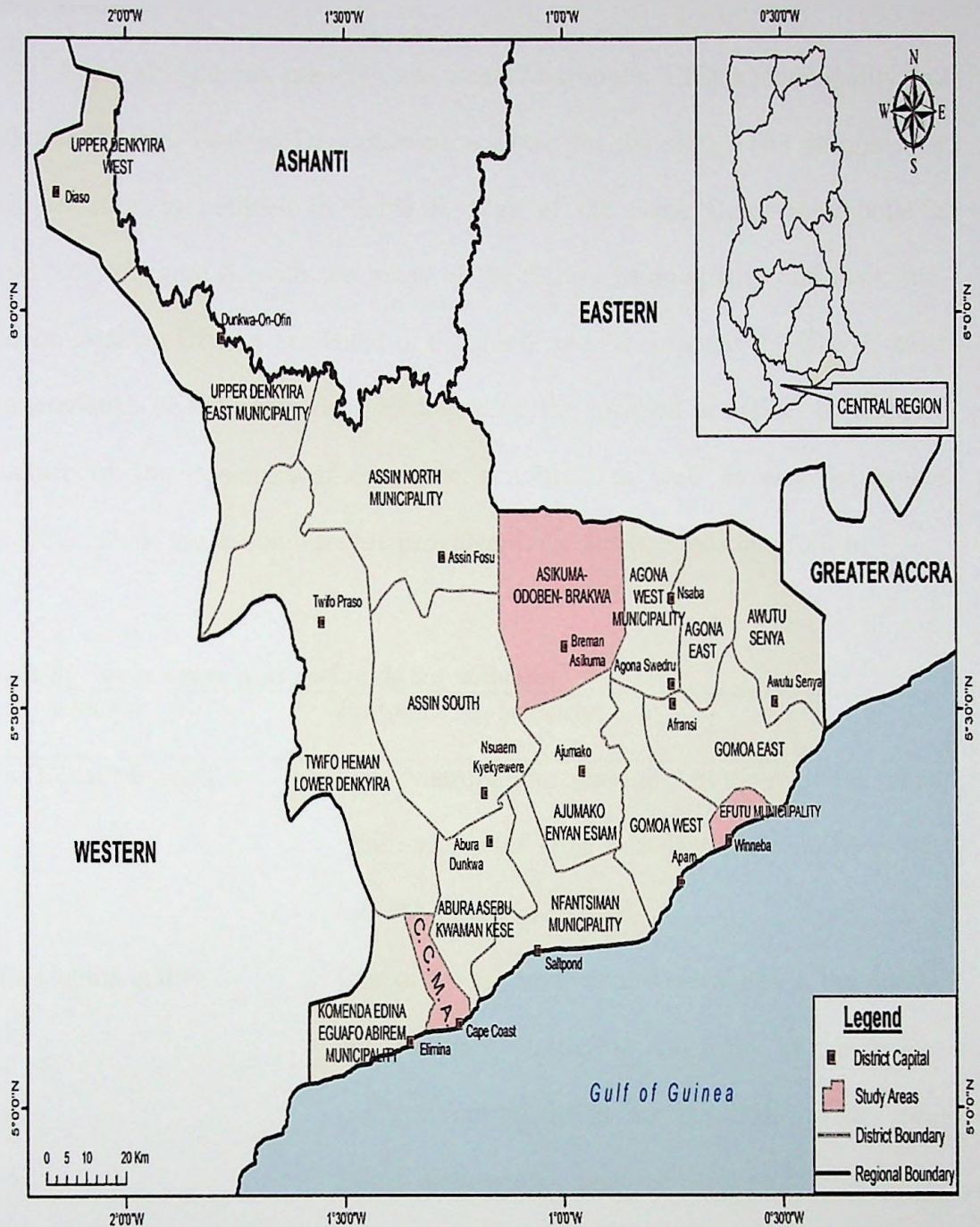
the Gulf of Guinea coastline (CRCC, 2009). The region in national context is shown in Figure 6. The region with the study districts is also presented in Figure 7. The 2010 population and housing census provisional results indicates that the Central Region has a population of 2.107 million representing 8.7 percent of Ghana's population. It is largely rural-based with 62.5 percent of its inhabitants found in the rural area (GSS, 2012). It has 17 MMDAs made up of one Metropolitan, six Municipal and 10 District Assemblies (Ahwoi, 2010).

The region is considered as the site of academic excellence due to the number of schools it has. As at 2007, it had 1,625 pre-schools, 1,712 primary, 1,254 junior high and 72 senior high schools, as well as three training colleges, two technical schools, two universities and one polytechnic, in addition to other tertiary institutions. It had 128 health facilities made up of 17 hospitals, 54 clinics and 57 health centres/health posts. It is predominantly agricultural and its manufacturing enterprises are mainly agro-based. The manufacturing sector has about 2,496 establishments representing 10 percent of the national total, with food processing as the principal activity, employing about 50 percent of the manufacturing labour force. Other economic activities include extractive industries such as timber logging, mining and quarrying (CRCC, 2009).



**Figure 6: Central Region in national context**

Source: CRCC, 2009



**Figure 7: Central Region with the study areas in regional and national context**

Source: CRCC, 2009

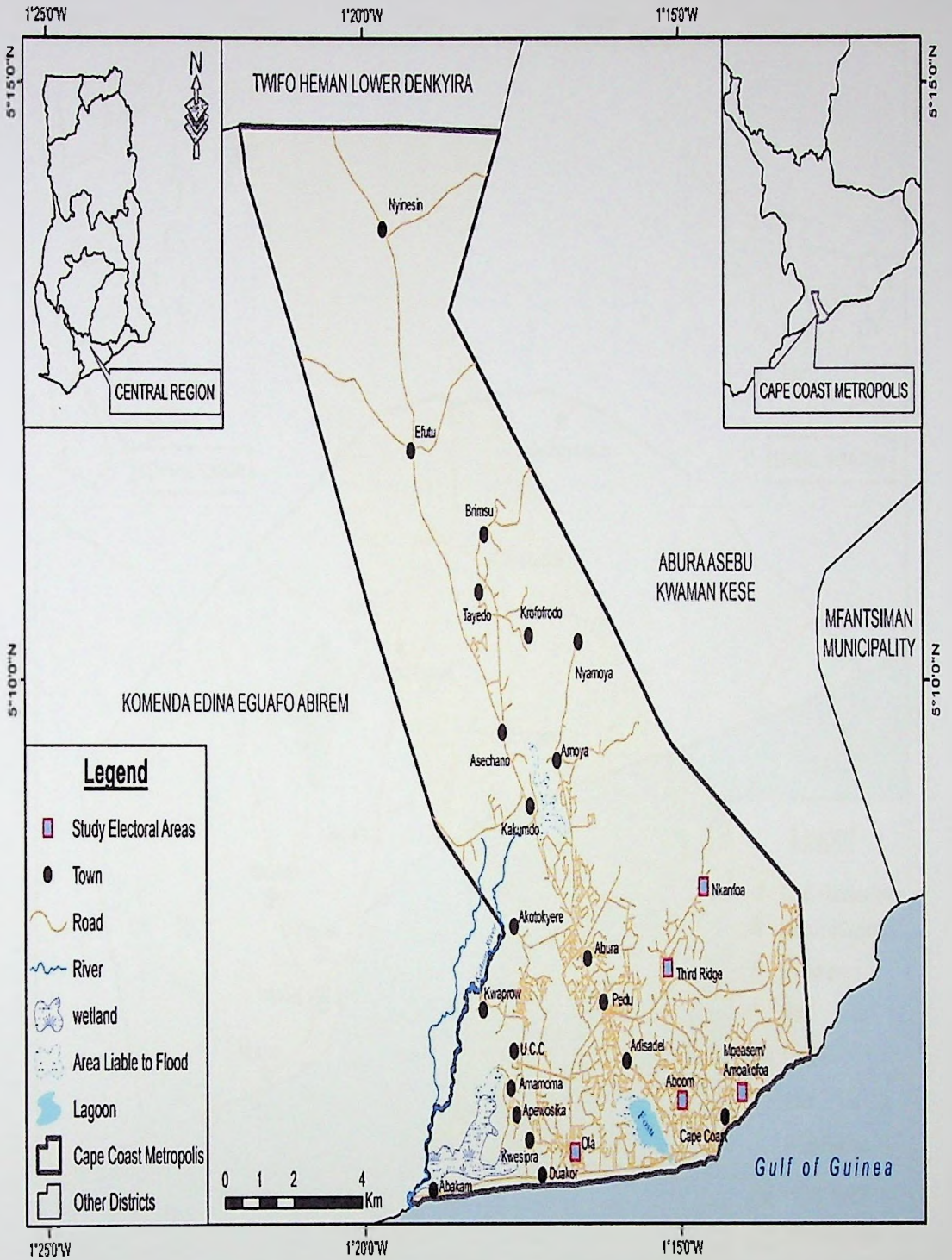
## Study areas

Three study areas, namely Cape Coast Metropolis, Effutu Municipality and Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District, were selected for the study. The rationale for their selection is outlined in Table 8. Map of the Cape Coast metropolis is presented in Figure 8, with the maps of the Effutu Municipality and Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District presented in Figures 9 and 10 respectively. The detailed characteristics of the study districts including the location and size, population, structure of the Assemblies, economic activities, as well as socio-economic infrastructure of the Assemblies are provided in the sub-sections that follow.

**Table 8: Study areas and rationale for selection**

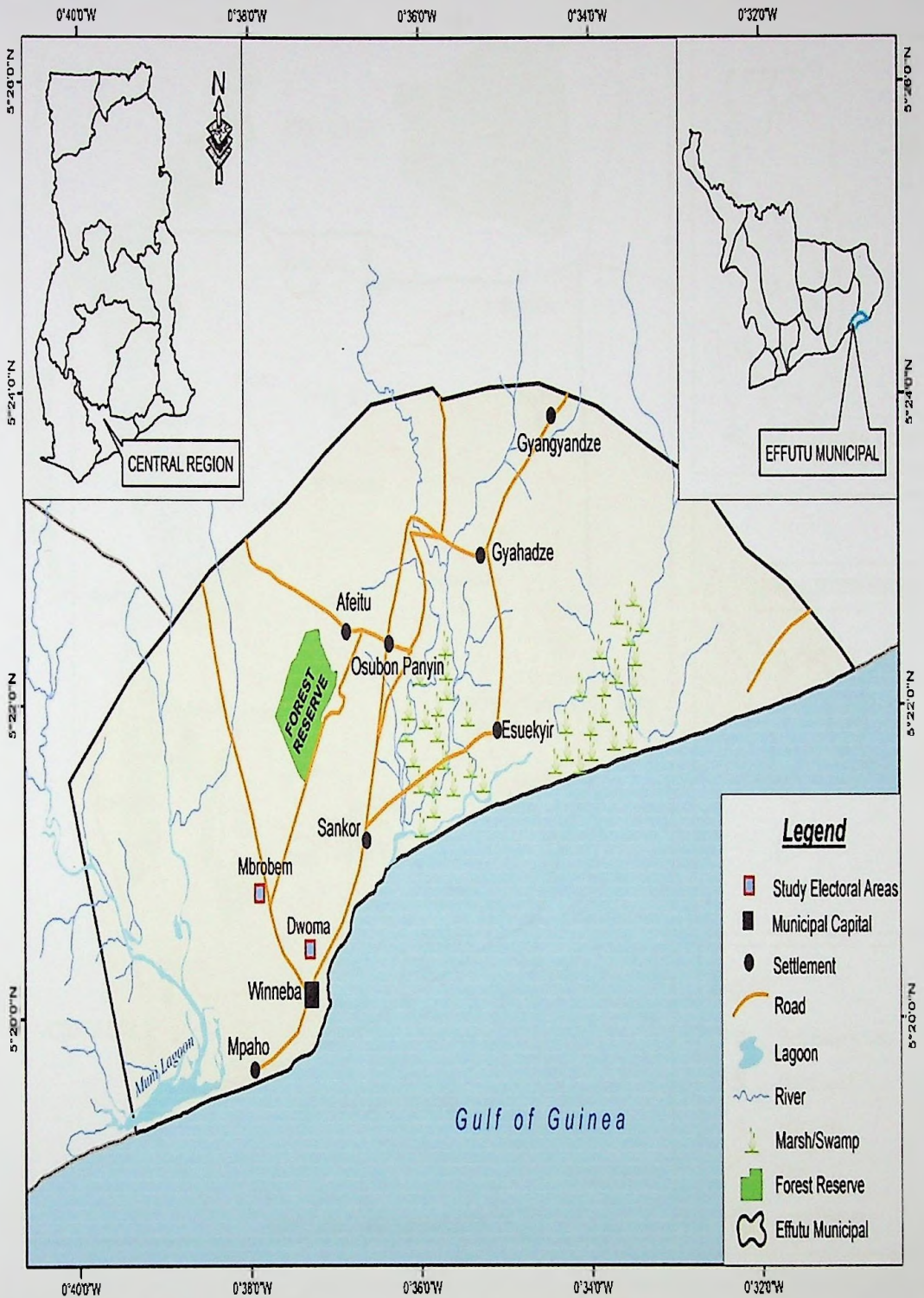
Areas selected	Rationale for selection
Cape Coast Metropolis	Only Metropolitan Assembly in the region and has qualified for the DDF in only one (in 2009) of the two FOAT assessments;
Effutu Municipality	One of the six Municipal Assemblies in the region and the only Municipal Assembly in the region that has not qualified for the DDF in the two FOAT assessments; and
Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District	One of the ten District Assemblies in the region and the only District Assembly in the region that has qualified for the DDF in all the two FOAT assessments in 2008 and 2009.

Source: Author's construct (2011)



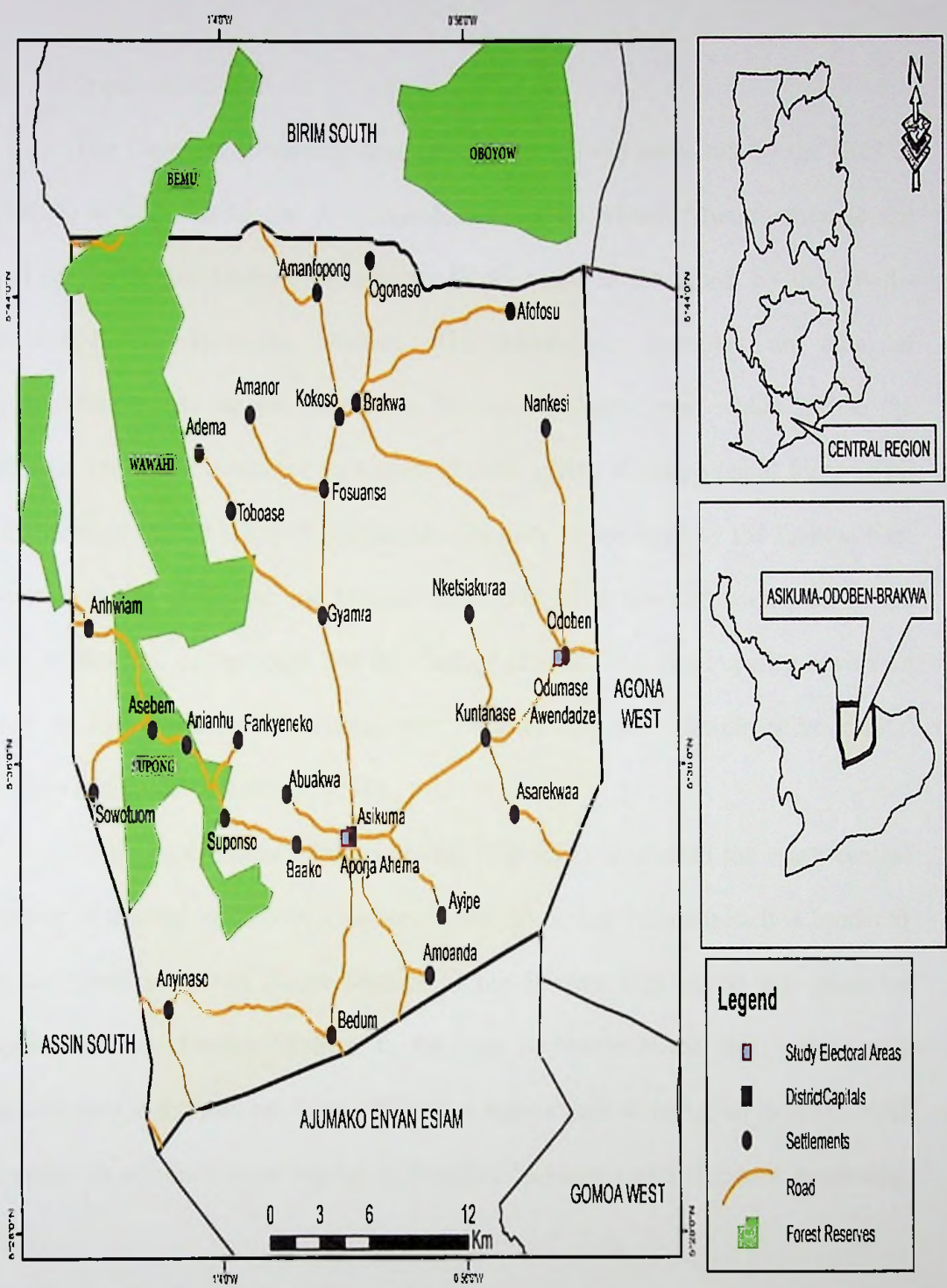
**Figure 8: Cape Coast Metropolis in regional and national context**

Source: Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly (CCMA), 2010



**Figure 9: Effutu Municipality in regional and national context**

Source: Effutu Municipal Assembly (EMA), 2010



**Figure 10: Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District in regional and national context**

Source: AOB District Assembly, 2010

a) Location and size

The Cape Coast Metropolitan area is bounded to the south by the Gulf of Guinea, to the west by the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality, to the east by the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District and to the North by the Twifu-Hemang-Lower Denkyira District. The Metropolis occupies an area of approximately 122 square kilometres. Its capital, Cape Coast, which is also the regional capital, is noted for its historical sites, giving it the potential for tourism development (CCMA, 2010). Effutu Municipality is bordered by the Gomoa East District to the north-east and Gomoa West District to the north-west, all in the Central Region. In the south lies the Gulf of Guinea. The municipality covers an area of 417.3 square kilometres, with Winneba as the administrative capital (Effutu Municipal Assembly, 2010).

Asikuma-Odoben- Brakwa (AOB) District is located in the north-central portion of the region. It covers an area of 884.84 square kilometres. It is bordered to the north by Birim South District in the Eastern Region, to the south by Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District, to the west by Assin North and Assin South districts and to the east by Agona West and Agona East districts, all in the Central Region. Its administrative capital is Breaman Asikuma (AOB District Assembly, 2010).

b) Population

The population of the Cape Coast Metropolis is 118,106 representing 5.6 percent of the total population of the Central Region (CCMA, 2010). The Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District has a population of 89,395 which constitutes



4.2 percent of the regional population and remains one of the lowest densely populated areas in the Central Region (AOB District Assembly, 2010). Effutu Municipality, on the other hand, has a population of 169,97 representing 8.1 percent of the region's total population (Effutu Municipal Assembly, 2010).

#### c) Structure of the District Assemblies

The Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly is the highest political and administrative authority in the metropolis. It has 60 members, made up of the 42 elected and 18 appointed members, including the Member of Parliament for Cape Coast who has no voting right. The Metropolis accommodates the Central Regional departments and organisations which are responsible to the RCC in addition to 16 departments that fall under CCMA. It has two Sub-Metropolitan Assemblies, seven Town Councils and 87 Unit Committees. The sub-district structures are yet to be fully established (CCMA, 2010).

Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District has a 33 member Assembly, made up of 20 elected and 13 appointed members, as the highest administrative and political authority in the district. Its sub-structures are yet to be fully established. It has 11 departments (AOB District Assembly, 2010). The Effutu Municipal Assembly is the highest administrative and political authority in the municipality. It is made up of 24 members, 17 elected and seven appointed, with one member of Parliament who is an Ex-Officio member. The Municipal Assembly has 13 departments. Its sub-structures are yet to be fully established (Effutu Municipal Assembly, 2010).

#### d) Economic activities

The main economic activities in the CCMA are farming and fishing. The Metropolis produces both food crops: mainly cassava, maize, and plantain, and cash crops: citrus and coconut. Vegetables and livestock are also produced in commercial quantities. Land available for agriculture is about 9,000 hectares, with only 2,500 hectares under cultivation. This affords the metropolis the potential for higher levels of crop production to meet both domestic and export market needs. Unemployment rate in the metropolis is 11.3 percent. About 10.7 percent of the population is in the agriculture sector, 33.1 percent in government employment and 7.4 percent in self employment (CCMA, 2010).

Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District has agriculture as the main economic activity, employing 49.2 percent of the population. Staple crops, mainly maize, cassava, yams and plantains, are produced in commercial quantities. Cash crops such as oil palm and citrus are common and these together with cocoa are the main cash earners for the producers. Production is the next largest employment avenue for the population employing about 15.6 percent, followed by commerce (14.2%) and the service sector (6%) (AOB District Assembly, 2010).

The main economic activities in the Effutu Municipality are agriculture, wholesale/retail trade, service, manufacturing, mining and agro-processing. Agriculture employs 45.5 percent of the working population. Major crops under cultivation include maize, cassava, yam, pineapple, cocoa and citrus. The fishing industry, which is very prominent in the coastal communities, employs 10.5 percent, trade and commerce 16 percent and the manufacturing sector 14.4 percent of the population in the Municipality (Effutu Municipal Assembly, 2010).

#### e) Socio-economic infrastructure

The Cape Coast Metropolis is served by the Metropolitan hospital with the Regional hospital as a referral hospital. It has five government hospitals, 11 private clinics and one private maternity home. At the community level, there are 67 trained Traditional Birth Attendants and 82 Community Based Surveillance Volunteers in 104 communities. One Community Health Planning Services (CHPS) Compound has been built by the Metropolitan Assembly with four others under construction. The major health facilities are located in Cape Coast. Over 90 percent of the communities have access to basic educational facilities. There are 50 pre-schools, 71 primary schools, 68 junior high schools, 12 senior high schools, two vocational schools, one technical school, one teacher training college, one polytechnic and one university. All communities in the metropolis are served with pipe-borne water (CCMA, 2010).

For the Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District, over 75 percent of the population have access to potable water. It has one hospital, five health centres, four CHPS Compounds, 11 community clinics, seven private clinics and eight maternity homes. All the health posts refer cases to the Asikuma District Hospital. There are 76 public primary, 21 private primary and three senior high schools in the District (AOB District Assembly, 2010). The Effutu Municipality has 213 nursery and kindergarten, 232 primary, 138 junior high and four senior high schools as well as a university. It has one public hospital located at the district capital. In addition, there are three private hospitals, five public health centres, five CHPS zones and 37 privately owned health institutions in the district (Effutu Municipal Assembly, 2010).

## **Research design**

An important aspect of any research is the design. It is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the initial questions of the study and, ultimately, to its conclusions (Sarantakos, 2005). Over the years, two main approaches, namely quantitative and qualitative perspectives, have informed the design of research projects (Babbie, 2005). Quantitative research involves numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomenon that those observations reflect. Qualitative research, on the other hand, entails non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships (Babbie, 2007).

Quantitative research design is informed by the positivist philosophy, which makes knowledge claims on the basis of careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists in the world. Qualitative approaches, on the other hand, are often based on social constructivism, which stresses the subjective meaning that individuals attach to their experiences as they seek to understand the world. This methodological approach places considerable emphasis on getting close to one's subject and exploring its detailed background and life history (Robson, 2002). Although all the two approaches, qualitative and quantitative, have their strengths and weaknesses, the choice between them has attracted considerable scholastic debate (Patton, 2002).

Since there are various research choices, the researcher must justify the approach chosen as each technique is associated with distinctive means of collecting and analysing data and specific advantages and disadvantages (Yin,

1994). Thus, different underlying assumptions are likely to incline researchers towards different methodologies (Crotty, 1998). According to Essaw (2007), researchers are influenced by the epistemological position they hold which affects the way they examine issues and the methodologies they adopt to tackle those issues. 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.

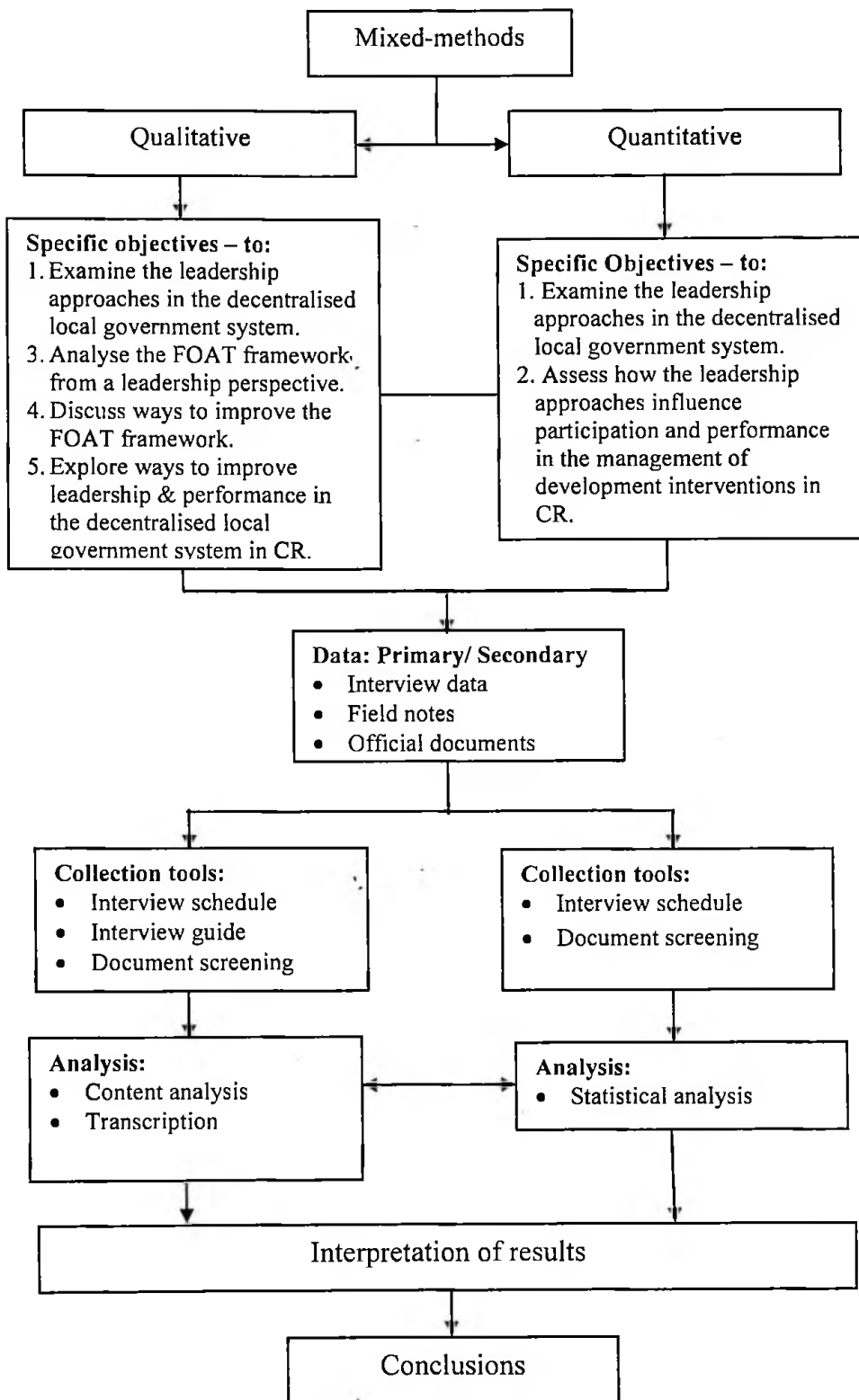
Researchers have suggested that both quantitative and qualitative methods may be adopted in research (Babbie, 2005). This emphasis has developed with the growing interest in triangulation in research methodology. Contemporary social scientific investigations are becoming increasingly dependent on triangulation in all aspects of the research design, with less emphasis on only one method (quantitative or qualitative). 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 for by the strengths of the other (Sarantakos, 2005).

This study adopts the mixed-methods design which involves collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Robson, 2002). According to Creswell (2003), in a mixed-methods approach, the researcher tends to attribute knowledge claims to pragmatic reasons. In mixed-methods, therefore, it is the research issue which is important and not the method. The researcher employs different methods to gain as much insight as possible into the issue under investigation. The adoption of the mixed-methods approach is informed by this study's objectives. Unlike other leadership and performance studies that were

quantitative, assessing performance from efficiency and effectiveness point of view (Flynn, 1997; Sandbakken, 2006; Shah, 2006), Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2006) employed the mixed-methods to address both quantitative and qualitative needs in examining leadership and performance in Nigeria's public service.

This study seeks to explore the interconnectedness between leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system and requires both qualitative and quantitative approaches. While the extent to which leadership influences performance could be established quantitatively, the leadership factors that influence performance in the decentralised local government system cannot be identified and understood without qualitative inquiry. Figure 11 gives an overview of the sequence of mixed-methods followed in the present study.

The study also adopts a descriptive survey study design used to obtain information concerning the current status of a phenomenon and to describe what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation. Key (1997) reports that methods involved in a descriptive study design range from the survey which describes the status quo, the correlation study which investigates the relationship between variables, to developmental studies which seek to determine changes over time. The descriptive study design was used to describe issues concerning decentralisation, leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system.



**Figure 11: Sequence of mixed-methods approach adopted in the study**

Source: Adapted from Asante (2006)

## **Study population**

The study population was 53,506 as indicated in Table 9. It was made up of the Regional Coordinating Director and Regional Economic Planning Officer at the regional level, the political and administrative leadership at the district level, as well as community members in the CCMA, Effutu Municipal and AOB District Assembly. Table 9 also presents the targeted sample size and the actual number interviewed. The sample size and sampling procedures for selecting the sample size are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections.

## **Sample size and sampling procedure**

The total sample size for the study was 989, comprising regional, district and community level actors as indicated in Table 9. The multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select the MMDAs as well as the respondents. According to Neuman (2000), multi-stage sampling is a process of taking samples in series of steps with the sampling portion constituting the sample units at each step being selected from a larger number of the previous step, or from a composite sample. The multi-stage sampling procedure involved five main stages. This was to ensure that the different categories of regional actors, Assemblies: metropolitan, municipal and district, MMDCEs, MMDCDs, heads of departments (HoDs), Assembly persons and community members that were of interest to the study were adequately represented on the sample. This facilitated comparison, ensured valid conclusions, and enabled generalisation in terms of the population.



**Table 9: Population, targeted sample size and actual number of respondents**

Sampling Unit	Population	Targeted sample size	Actual number interviewed	Percentage of target
Regional Coord. Director	1	1	1	100.0
Reg. Econ Planning Officer	1	1	1	100.0
<i>CCMA</i>				
• MCE	1	1	1	100.0
• Assembly persons	60	60	36	60.0
• Heads of departments	16	16	13	81.3
• Community members	27,737	295	295	100.0
Sub-total	27,814	372	345	92.7
<i>Effutu</i>				
• MCE	1	1	0	100.0
• Assembly persons	24	24	14	58.3
• Heads of departments	13	13	11	84.6
• Community members	11,172	230	230	100.0
Sub-total	11,210	268	255	95.2
<i>AOB</i>				
• MCE	1	1	1	100.0
• Assembly persons	33	33	20	60.6
• Heads of departments	11	11	9	81.8
• Community members	14,435	302	302	100.0
Sub-total	14,480	347	332	100.0
Total	53,506	989	934	94.4

Source: Author's construct (2011)

The first stage involved purposive selection of the regional level respondents namely, the Central Regional Coordinating Director and Regional Economic Planning Officer. Since the study was situated within the context of the FOAT performance assessment framework, the regional actors who provided policy, monitoring and coordinating support were purposively sampled to enable them share their perceptions on pertinent issues relating to leadership and performance in the MMDAs.

In the second stage, the three MMDAs namely CCMA, Effutu and AOB, were purposively selected. As at January 2011, two FOAT had been administered and the results published. The first was administered in 2008 and the second in 2009 to assess how MMDAs performed in 2006 and 2007, respectively. In order to ensure representativeness of the study districts, the 17 MMDAs in the Central Region were categorised into three namely, MMDAs that had qualified for the DDF in all the two assessments, MMDAs that qualified in only one of the two assessments, and those that had not qualified in any of the two assessments.

Following this, one district was purposively selected from each of the three categories. This resulted in the selection of the only one Metropolitan Assembly, CCMA, which qualified for the DDF in only the second assessment, one Municipal Assembly, Effutu, which had not qualified for the DDF in any of the two assessments, and one District Assembly, AOB, that had qualified for the DDF in both assessments as indicated in Table 8.

The third stage involved purposive selection of all the three MMDCEs and all the heads of departments, 16 in CCMA, 13 in Effutu and 11 in AOB, due to the key roles they play in the leadership and performance processes in their

Assemblies. In addition, all the Assembly persons, 60 in CCMA, 24 in Effutu and 33 in AOB, who ended their term of office in October 2010, were purposively selected. This was to ensure that the Assembly persons in office at the time of the FOAT assessments were interviewed. They constituted the leadership of sub-committees of the assembly and were better placed to respond to the decentralisation, leadership and performance issues that were investigated.

In the fourth stage, the number of elected Assembly persons that were available for interview was established, as they were the ones that had constituents. A reconnaissance survey conducted from 1<sup>st</sup> to 15<sup>th</sup> November 2010, in the three study areas helped to establish the number of the immediate past elected and appointed Assembly persons who could be readily located for interview. With the help of the MMCDs in each study area, the Assembly persons were located using their contact addresses: residential addresses and telephone numbers. Owing to the fact that they had ended their term of office, some had relocated outside the area and could not be accessed. The Assembly persons that could be accessed were grouped into elected and appointed members in accordance with their statutory composition in the Assembly as basis for selecting the community level respondents.

In CCMA, 36 out of the 60 Assembly persons, made up of 18 elected and 18 appointed were located. Of the 24 Assembly persons in Effutu, 14 comprising seven each of appointed and elected members were located. The AOB had 20 Assembly persons, made up of 10 elected and 10 appointed persons that could be located. Since the community level respondents were expected to share their perceptions on their elected representatives, only the communities that constituted

the electoral areas of the elected Assembly persons who could be accessed were purposively selected. This resulted in the selection of 18 electoral communities in CCMA, seven in Effutu and 10 in AOB.

In the fifth stage, the list of the 2008 registered voters by constituency, were obtained from the Electoral Commission of Ghana. This was used to establish the adult population in each of the electoral areas of the elected Assembly persons that were accessed. The registered voters were used as the basis for selection of respondents for this study. This was based on the assumption that at the voting age of 18 one was capable of making informed decisions on the responsiveness of the political, economic and socio-cultural issues in their locality (Government of Ghana, 1992). They were, therefore, seen as those who would be able to make informed judgements on the leadership of the Assembly persons and how they influenced performance in responding to their mandates and development aspirations of their constituents.

Stratified sampling method was used to select the registered voters. Each selected district formed a stratum from which the registered voters were selected. The sample size of the registered voters from the three selected districts was calculated using the Cochran's (1977) sample size estimation formula, which is given as:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{\left(1 + \left(\frac{n_0}{P}\right)\right)}$$

Where,  $n$  = sample size,

$$n_0 = \frac{t^2 \times p \times q}{0.05^2} ,$$

$t$  is the t-value for the selected margin of error,

$p$  is the population proportion,

$q$  is  $1 - p$ , and

$d$  is the acceptable margin of error for the sample size being estimated

The study adopted a margin of error ( $d$ ) of 0.05, which indicates the level of risk the study was willing to take that the true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error. The chosen ( $d$ ) corresponds to a t-value ( $t$ ) 1.96. The proportion of the registered voters in the selected communities ( $p$ ) to the total number of registered voters ( $q$ ) in each district was adopted for the calculation of the sample size. For CCMA, the proportion of registered voters in the selected communities to the total number of registered voters in CCMA was 0.26. Therefore, the adopted  $p$  was 0.26 and the subsequent adopted  $q$  was 0.74. The formula, therefore, generated a sample size of 295 voters for CCMA as indicated in Table 10.

For the Effutu Assembly, the adopted  $p$  was 0.28 while the adopted  $q$  was 0.72. Using the same formula proposed by Cochran (1977), a sample size of 280 voters was calculated for the Effutu Assembly. The  $p$  calculated for AOB was 0.27 while 0.73 was calculated for  $q$ , based on the proportion of the total number of registered voters in the selected communities to the total number of registered voters in the AOB District. The Cochran (1977) formula generated a sample size of 302 voters for the AOB Assembly as indicated in Table 10.

**Table 10: Coverage of sampling units at the community level**

Assembly	Electoral Area	Population	Sample size
CCMA	Third Ridge/Nkanfoa	3,282	35
	Amoakofoa/Mpeasem	1,628	17
	Ola Low Cost	621	7
	Aboom Wells	906	10
	Brofoyedur	1,607	17
	Amanful West	905	10
	Gegem	826	9
	Bakano	1,822	19
	Mpeasem/Brimso	2,082	22
	Enyitsiwdo	576	6
	Chapel Square/ Victoria Park	1,778	19
	Turum	1,156	12
	Tamesease	1,822	19
	Kawanopado	2,595	28
	Ekon Etsifi	1,154	12
	Abakam/Ahenboboi	1,454	15
	Tsibu Darko	1,725	18
	Black Star	1,798	20
<i>Sub-total</i>		27,737	295
Effutu	Ponko Ekyir	1,253	26
	Mburabamu	1,075	22
	Alata Kokwado	1,262	26
	Abasraba South	1,720	35
	Domeabra/Police Training Depot	558	11
	Dwomba	3,579	74
	Penkye	1,725	36
<i>Sub-total</i>		11,172	230
AOB	Apaja Ahenema	3,157	67
	Anafo Zongo	1,258	26
	Odumase/Awendadze	1,748	36
	Benin Anafo	696	15
	Amanfopong	1,039	22
	Mpantoase/Kokoado	1,782	37
	Mmoum/New Town	1,024	21
	Ankobea	1,390	29
	Ohenebronso/Otsemakrom	1,046	22
Kokoso	1,295	27	
<i>Sub-total</i>		14,435	302
<b>Total</b>		<b>53,344</b>	<b>827</b>

Source: Author's construct (2011)

Based on the proportion of the registered voters in each community to the total number of registered voters in the respective district, the sample sizes were proportionately distributed among the various communities, as shown in Table 10. An important factor that was considered in sampling respondents at the community level was the need to ensure that only persons who had adequately experienced the regimes of the elected Assembly persons qualified for inclusion. A minimum of five years stay in the community was, therefore, considered. Accordingly, a snowball sampling approach was used until the required sample sizes were exhausted in each community as indicated in Table 9.

The initial design for the sample selection included chairpersons of the sub-structures (Area, Town and Zonal Councils and Unit Committees) and heads of governance-related Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). However, reconnaissance visits to the study areas and the pre-test of the instruments for data collection revealed that the sub-structures were not functional in the study and pre-test areas. In addition, records at the Central Administration and the Department of Social Welfare that registered civil society organisations in the districts indicated that there were no functional governance-related NGOs in the districts. Leadership of the sub-structures and governance-related NGOs were, therefore, not covered in this study. The targeted and actual number of respondents is presented in Table 9.

The Effutu Municipal Chief Executive was not available for interview throughout the data collection period. In addition, all the three study areas did not have the full complement of departments in place. In CCMA, the Legal, Transport and Trade and Industry Departments had not been established. The Urban Roads and Trade and Industry Departments were not in place in the Effutu Municipal

Assembly, while the Trade and Industry and Works departments were not in place at the AOB District Assembly.

### **Sources of data**

The research relied on both primary and secondary data. The use of primary data enabled a better understanding of the socio-economic characteristics and operational environments in the MMDAs and facilitated a better analysis of the leadership approaches that informed district-specific performance. The primary data were collected through personal interviews using interview schedules and interview guide. A total of 934 respondents were interviewed at the regional, district and community levels to ensure that information obtained reflected views across the different stakeholder groups (Table 9). The interview schedules and interview guide that were administered on the various categories of respondents are shown in Appendices A to E.

Appendix A was administered on the Assembly persons and addressed issues relating to leadership, participation, performance, challenges in responding to performance requirements and how to improve leadership and performance. Appendix B solicited the regional level respondents' perceptions on the leadership approaches in the MMDAs, participation and how the FOAT framework elicited leadership approaches that enhanced performance. Suggestions for improving leadership and performance were also elicited.

Appendix C was administered on the leadership at the Central Administration and HoDs to obtain their perceptions on leadership, participation, performance, the FOAT framework, challenges in responding to performance



requirements, as well as suggestions for improving leadership and performance in the MMDAs. Appendix D enabled community level respondents to share their perceptions on issues related to leadership of their respective Assembly persons, participation and performance, as well the challenges and suggestions for improving leadership and performance. In addition, Appendix E was administered on all the respondents in order to obtain further information on the issues addressed.

Data from secondary sources included documents on performance of the MMDAs in the FOAT thematic areas as well as indicators for assessing the performance of the MMDAs at the national level. Other sources were MMDA and other institutional records, including records from the Decentralisation Secretariat of MLGRD on performance of the MMDAs regarding the minimum conditions and performance measures in the FOAT framework. Reports from the MMDAs regarding their operational and management approaches in responding to the minimum conditions and performance measures were also obtained from the decentralisation secretariat. In addition, the role of the RCC in ensuring responsiveness of MMDAs to the indicators, Local Government Bulletins and Journals, Acts, laws, guidelines, MMDAs' Development Plans, studies, reviews and publications on the decentralisation process in Ghana were reviewed.

### **Instruments for data collection**

The main instruments for the data collection in this study were the interview schedule and interview guide. An interview schedule is used in quantitative research and contains a number of closed-ended and open-ended items

with flexibility in wording and order (Kerlinger, 1973). The open-ended items and the interview guide provided flexibility to respondents to share their perspectives on the leadership approaches, participation, the FOAT framework and how leadership and performance could be improved. They provided respondents the freedom to express themselves on particular issues. Kerlinger (1973) contends that open-ended items and interview guides enable the researcher to know the respondent's true nature, that is, their belief systems, attitudes, interests and aspirations.

Likert-scale items were also employed as closed-ended questions in addition to the open-ended questions in the interview schedule. Likert-scale is a scaling technique where a large number of items that are statements of beliefs or intentions are formulated (Sarantakos, 2005). Each item is judged according to whether it reflects a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the object in question. It is aimed at ensuring uniformity of measurement, thus assuring high reliability of answers to suit the pattern of response needed by the researcher (Babbie, 2007; Kerlinger, 1973; Sarantakos, 2005). In this study the liker-scale questions were used to assess respondents' perceptions of how leadership in the decentralised local government system influenced participation and performance.

### **Pre-testing**

The interview schedules were first pre-tested in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (KEEA) Municipal Assembly from 15<sup>th</sup> to 31<sup>st</sup> March 2011, on selected respondents. The KEEA was used because it had similar characteristics as the study districts in terms of the historical development in the decentralised local

government system, governance structure, leadership and common legal and regulatory requirements. It was also assessed under the FOAT framework. The pre-testing exercise helped to train the interviewers and to ensure content validity by eliminating ambiguous and irrelevant questions. It also made it possible to correct errors in their administration and recording, as well as ensured consistency in language and interpretation. Corrections on the instruments were effected before using them for the actual data collection field work.

From the pre-testing exercise, it was revealed that the time allocated to interview schedules at the regional and district levels were too long, about one hour forty-five minutes. There was, therefore, the need to reduce the number of items in order to reduce the time to one hour and to help secure the respondents' attention in the course of the interview. However, conscious effort was made to ensure that the content and substance of the issues addressed were not distorted to enable collection of adequate data to enhance the quality of the research.

### **Ethical considerations**

This study was conducted in conformity with ethical standards in social scientific research. These included ensuring voluntary participation, causing no harm to the participants, anonymity, confidentiality and compliance with other codes of ethics (Babbie, 2005). Informed consent of interviewees was sought before the interview schedules were administered on them. Anonymity and confidentiality were complied with by assuring respondents that their identities in relation to their responses would not be revealed unless with their explicit consent. This encouraged frankness during the interviews. Other codes of ethics regarding

accuracy of research design, data collection and processing, as well as acknowledging sources of information have been followed.

### **Field work**

Three qualified interviewers with experience in conducting research in the districts were employed to join the researcher to administer the interview schedules from 6<sup>th</sup> April to 30<sup>th</sup> June, 2011. The researcher supervised administration of the interview schedules by the interviewers and helped in the daily review of completed interviews. The interviewers were trained during the pre-testing period to understand the issues in the interview schedules and to have a common frame for asking the questions and interpreting the issues to ensure consistency in the use of terminologies, language and recording of responses.

In order to facilitate ready access to respondents, telephone calls were made to the study districts from 20<sup>th</sup> to 30<sup>th</sup> October, 2010, prior to the actual field work to inform the Coordinating Directors about the research and to seek their support in accessing respondents. This was followed by personal contacts with the districts from 15<sup>th</sup> to 30<sup>th</sup> November, ahead of the actual field work using a letter of introduction obtained from the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast together with the itinerary for the field work to firm up appointments. This helped to prepare the minds of the respondents to ensure their readiness and availability. It also helped to secure assistance from the districts in mobilising the respondents for the interviews. This significantly reduced the waiting time and follow-up visits that had to be done to complete interviews with the targeted respondents who could not be readily accessed.

The interview schedules were administered on individual basis at the regional, district and community levels. Each interview at the regional and district levels lasted about an hour, while the community level interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes. At the community level the interest was to understand individual respondent's perception of the leadership approach of the Assembly person and how it influenced participation and performance.

### **Challenges encountered in the field**

The main challenge encountered in the field was the difficulty in accessing all the immediate past Assembly persons and a few heads of departments for interview in each of the three districts. Despite the immense support received from the MMCEs and MMDCDs, 40 percent of the Assembly persons in CCMA, 42 percent in Effutu and 39 percent in AOB could not be accessed as they had either relocated, travelled over extended periods or could not be traced with their contact details. Several visits had to be made before securing audience with some heads of departments in the Effutu and Cape Coast Assemblies.

In addition, the Effutu MCE could not be interviewed as he was out of contact throughout the period of the field work and up to the time of the data analysis. Moreover, each of the three districts did not have the full complement of departments as indicated in Table 9. Despite these challenges, the overall response rate was 94.4 percent, more than the response rate of 70 percent considered very high for analysis and reporting in surveys (Babbie, 2007).

## **Data processing and analysis**

It is not always easy determining the unit(s) of analysis in a research. Robson (2002) for instance, points out that the key factor for making a decision about the appropriate unit of analysis rests on what unit the researcher wants to discuss and draw conclusions from at the end of the research. Babbie (2005) argues that in social research there is virtually no limit to what or who can be studied. However, attempts have been made by researchers to provide hints on how this could be done effectively.

Units of analysis are those things examined in order to create summary descriptions of all such units and to explain differences among them (Mikkelsen, 1993). They could be individuals, groups, communities, organisations, whole programmes, critical incidents, time periods, social interactions or artefacts. The unit of analysis could be one or more depending on the scope and complexity of the research items being addressed. The units of analysis also determine the most appropriate study design to employ (Babbie, 2005). This study has four main units of analysis namely the political leadership, heads of departments, Assembly persons and community members whose perceptions were examined in relation to leadership, participation and performance among the political leadership, heads of departments, Assembly persons, sub-structures and community leaders.

The data analysis involved establishing the response rate, content analysis and transcription of data for the qualitative data, and document review as well as examining, categorising, tabulating, cross-tabulating data and using frequencies to present the quantitative data in accordance with the objectives of the study. At the end of the data collection exercise, the sets of interview schedules at the regional,

district and community levels were counted to establish the response rate. The qualitative data were transcribed while the completed interview schedules were numbered for identification purposes and edited to minimise coding mistakes. The responses provided by the respondents to the same items were used to prepare coding manuals. Master data sheets were prepared and the quantitative data were processed and analysed using the Statistical Products and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 16.0.

Chi square test of independence was used to establish association between responses on the leadership approaches, that is, the composite of behaviour, qualities and interrelationships; performance; participation; enthusiasm; taking responsibility; and ensuring sustainability of development interventions among the three study areas. An alpha value of 0.05 was used to draw conclusions for all inferential analysis. All the open ended responses were initially read and the main issues raised by the data categorised into themes. This was very helpful because even though the interviews were to some extent categorised by domains covered in the interview schedule and guide, new issues emerged, while some of the responses were found to be more appropriate under different headings than were originally given.

Data that were found not fitting into any of the original categories were critically examined to ensure that their exclusion from the study did not adversely affect the results. For the qualitative data obtained from document review and interview guide, content analysis and data transcription were done to identify patterns and themes (Babbie, 2007). Analysis was mostly done manually using pen and paper. Following the initial categorisation, the data were further categorised

into five broad headings in accordance with the interview domains using Microsoft Excel to capture the frequencies. The headings were:

1. Leadership approaches in the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system;
2. Leadership approach, participation and performance;
3. FOAT framework, leadership and performance;
4. Improving the FOAT framework; and
5. Improving leadership, participation and performance.

Responses from the regional, district and community levels were grouped together under these headings. In developing the codes and categories, attention was paid to differences and similarities which Babbie (2007) acknowledged as challenging in data analysis. Continuous review helped to establish the validity of the categories as well as the placement of data in categories. Where appropriate, responses were categorised to show variations at the different levels and across the three study areas. In the next stage, detailed review of information under each category was done to identify patterns and themes emerging from each level and study area. The themes were analysed for variations at the different levels and study areas and, thereafter, cross-study area analysis were done. The cross-level and cross-study analysis generated insights into the factors that influence leadership, participation and performance in the MMDAs.

### **Interpretation of data**

The final stage in the data analysis was the interpretation of results. It involved explaining the results, answering the how questions, attaching



significance to particular results and putting patterns into the conceptual framework (Sarantakos, 2005). It entailed going beyond the data to understand the results, make meaning out of the data and draw conclusions.

### **Summary**

The chapter has discussed the choice of methodology used in conducting this research. Mixed-methods research design and descriptive study design were adopted. Although the range of methods and approaches applied fall largely within the qualitative research paradigm, quantitative approaches were also used to establish how the leadership approaches influenced participation and performance. This approach was supported by the benefits of triangulation and how it suited the requirements of the study as a whole. The methods of sampling, data analysis and choice of tools of analysis have been described in detail.

**CHAPTER SIX**  
**LEADERSHIP APPROACHES AND MANAGEMENT OF**  
**DEVELOPMENT OF INTERVENTIONS**

**Introduction**

The results and discussion of this study are presented in two parts with this chapter forming the first part. The second part would be considered in Chapter Seven. The current chapter presents the results and discussion on the leadership approaches and their influence on participation and performance in the decentralised local government system in the Central Region of Ghana. The results are discussed around the first and second objectives and related research questions, and focus on the following issues:

1. Leadership approaches to the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system; and
2. Leadership approaches and their influence on participation and performance.

In tandem with the conceptual framework, the study set out to identify the enabling and constraining factors accounting for the gap between the current undesirable situation and the desired situation in the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in achieving sustained local level development. Issues elicited from the respondents, therefore, aimed at examining the factors accounting for the current situation and how they enabled and or constrained movement towards a desired decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus. The results

are presented and discussed from the perspectives of the respondents at the regional, district and community levels whose socio-demographic characteristics are firstly discussed in the next sub-section.

### **Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents**

In order to facilitate understanding of the perspectives of the respondents, their socio-demographic characteristics were elicited. Table 11 gives an overview of the characteristics of the respondents regarding their sex composition, educational background and years of work or stay in their current positions. The results indicate that the majority (60.3%) of the 934 respondents were males, with similar proportions of the respondents across the three study districts. This is not surprising as males have over the years dominated leadership positions in the governance structures in Ghana across the national, regional, district and community levels (Boateng, 2009). Table 11 also reveals that the majority (72.6%) of the respondents had been in their current positions for six years and above. The remaining 27.4 percent had been in their positions for up to five years.

Most of the respondents were, therefore, better placed in providing informed perspectives on the issues investigated as they had experienced them for at least six years. Over 70 percent of those who had been in their current positions for up to five years were the leadership of the central administration and other departments of the MMDAs, and confirms the frequent changes in the leadership of the MMDAs (Ahwoi, 2010). About 49 percent (48.5%) of the respondents had either no formal education or were educated up to the basic level. As noted by Cheema and Rondinelli (2003), and discussed under the conceptual framework,

these characteristics have implications for responsiveness of the leadership process to performance requirements in the MMDAs in terms of participation in decision-making, implementation of development interventions and accountability.

**Table 11: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents at various levels**

Background	Regional Staff	CCMA	Effutu	AOB	Total
<i>Sex</i>					
Males	2(100.0)	206(59.8)	195(58.6)	161(63.3)	564(60.3)
Females	0(0.0)	139(40.2)	138(41.4)	93(36.7)	370(39.7)
<i>Years in position</i>					
0-5	2(100.0)	124(36.0)	87(26.0)	43(17.0)	256(27.4)
6-10	0(0.0)	138(40.0)	143(43.0)	127(50.0)	542(58.0)
10+	0(0.0)	83(24.0)	103(31.0)	84(33.0)	126(14.6)
<i>Educational level</i>					
Nil	0(0.0)	62(18.0)	57(17.0)	44(17.0)	163(17.5)
Basic	0(0.0)	93(27.0)	113(34.0)	84(33.0)	290(31.0)
Secondary	0(0.0)	93(27.0)	50(15.0)	63(25.0)	206(22.1)
Post Sec./Graduate	2(100.0)	97(29.0)	113(34.0)	63(25.0)	275(29.4)
No. of respondents	2(0.2)	345(36.9)	333(35.7)	254(27.2)	934(100.0)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)

The more educated and informed the leaders and followers, irrespective of their sex orientation, the better they would be able to ensure response to performance requirements and demand accountability in the leadership process. In addition, the more familiar leaders and followers are with issues, the better they were able to make informed judgements about the leadership process and its influence on participation and performance (United Nations, 2007a; 2007b). These characteristics are further discussed as they relate to the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus, as well as the conceptual framework for this study.

### **Leadership approaches to the management of development interventions**

Leadership involves leaders and followers, with leaders influencing the followers to see the worth and potential in themselves and mobilising these innate abilities for action to achieve shared purposes (Daft, 1999). It is reciprocal and multidirectional, with followers also having the opportunity and choice to influence the leaders to achieve a shared purpose. The approach to leadership focus on the leaders' ability to influence the followers in terms of behaviours, complemented by the qualities, as well as management of the complex relationships, interrelationships, interdependence and interconnectedness among the leaders and followers (Beerel, 1998).

The first research question focused on the leadership approaches adopted in the decentralised system of local government in the Central Region of Ghana. The analysis, therefore, sought to establish respondents' perceptions about the leadership approaches of the MMDCEs, MMDCDs, heads of department,

Assembly persons as well as sub-district structures and civil society leaders. Issues addressed included those that constituted the leadership in the MMDAs, leadership behaviours, qualities of the leaders and interrelationships among leaders and followers. They are discussed in relation to how they influenced participation, performance, as well as commitment and ownership of followers in managing development interventions in the MMDAs. Perceptions of the 105 district level respondents cut across the various levels of the Assemblies, whilst those of the 827 sampled community level respondents focused only on the Assembly persons.

#### Leadership in the local authorities

The way leadership is perceived influences participation, ownership, commitment and performance in the management of development interventions. Table 12 presents responses of the 105 district level respondents made up of the political and administrative leadership and the HoDs who constituted the leadership in the MMDAs. Around 35 percent, 21.7 percent and 27.2 percent of the 180 responses indicated that the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and Presiding Members, respectively, constituted the leadership in the MMDAs. Similar proportions were observed in the MMDA-specific responses. For example, 37.3 percent in CCMA, 32.7 percent in Effutu Municipal, and 33.9 percent in AOB District Assembly perceived the MMDCEs as constituting the leadership, whilst 26.7 percent, 28.5 percent and 26.8 percent in CCMA, Effutu Municipality and AOB District respectively, perceived the Presiding Members as the leadership.

About 38 percent (37.5%), 14.8 percent and 28.1 percent of the 128 responses from the 105 respondents on who provided vision and direction for

development also perceived the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and Presiding Members, respectively, as providing vision and direction for development in the MMDAs. Figure 12 on the MMDA-specific responses also revealed similar proportions, for example 35.8 percent, 13.2 percent and 32.1 percent in CCMA, as perceiving the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and Presiding Members respectively as providing vision and direction for development in the Assemblies.

**Table 12: Perceptions on who constitute the leadership by Assembly**

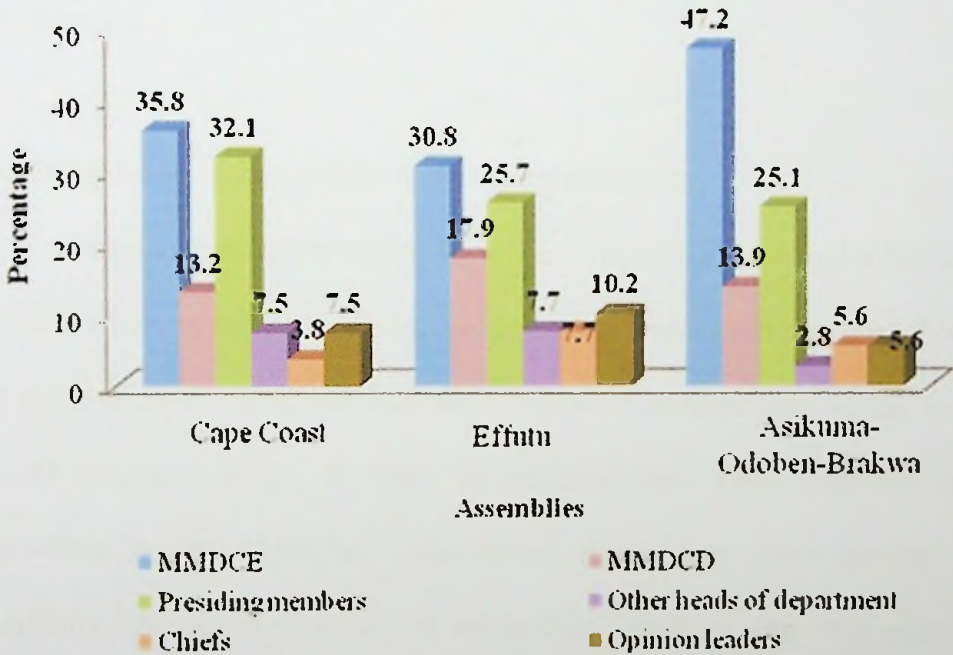
Leadership	District responses							
	Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly		Effutu Municipal		Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
MMDCE	28	37.3	16	32.7	19	33.9	63	35.0
MMDCD	15	20.0	10	20.4	14	25.0	39	21.7
Presiding Members	20	26.7	14	28.5	15	26.8	49	27.2
HoDs	6	8.0	4	8.2	4	7.2	14	7.8
Chiefs	4	5.3	4	8.2	4	7.1	12	6.7
Opinion leaders	2	2.7	1	2.0	0	0.0	3	1.7
Total	75	100.0	49	100.0	56	100.0	180*	100.0

*f* = frequency

\*The total number of responses (180) is more than the number of respondents (105) due to multiple responses.

Source: Field survey (2011)

The results suggest that leadership was perceived as the exclusive preserve of the administrative and political top hierarchy of the MMDAs due to the positions they held. The technocrats within the various departments including health, education, agriculture, planning, finance and works departments who were heads of departments and were in positions to influence decisions and implementation of development interventions in their sectors were not perceived as core members of the leadership. Similarly, chiefs and opinion leaders, including religious leaders, queen mothers, market queens, community and civil society leaders were not perceived as core members of the leadership.



**Figure 12: Perceptions on who provides vision and direction for development by Assembly**

Source: Field survey (2011)



These perceptions tend to confirm the relegated role of chiefs in the local government system (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999). They also confirm Covey's (2004) assertion that both leaders and followers had the tendency to see leadership as a position and not an influence relationship between the leaders and followers. In addition, they support Chambers' (2005) view of the followers looking up to persons in position to provide direction. There is, therefore, the tendency for the followers to look up to the leaders to initiate, provide direction and ensure compliance with set agenda without the followers being involved in deciding on the way forward for development interventions. As noted by Litvack and Seddan (2002), this limits participation and, therefore, the level of commitment, ownership, performance and sustainability in the management of development interventions.

#### Leadership behaviours, qualities and inter-relationships

To achieve effective leadership requires an integrative leadership approach that aligns human and other resources, creates an organisation culture that fosters free expression of ideas, and empowers followers to participate in the leadership process (Bennis, 1993). In order to examine how these elements revealed themselves in the MMDAs, respondents' perceptions were elicited on the leadership approaches in terms of behaviours, qualities and inter-relationships between leaders and followers. Issues elicited on the leadership behaviours related to whether the leaders were autocratic, democratic and/or laissez faire.

The leadership qualities focused on the competence in relation to the qualifications, experience and capabilities; concern for others; integrity; self

confidence; as well as performance of the MMDAs. The inter-relationships examined the leaders' interactions with, communication and information sharing and interdependence between the leaders and followers. Table 13 presents the perceptions of the 107 respondents made up of the Regional Coordinating Director, Regional Economic Planning Officer, the MMDCEs, HoDs and Assembly persons on the leadership behaviours at the various levels. It indicates that the respondents perceived the leadership as exhibiting a mix of autocratic, laissez faire and democratic behaviours. Of the 731 responses, 36.1 percent, 17.7 percent and 46.2 percent indicated that the leadership behaviours were autocratic, laissez faire and democratic respectively.

Table 13 also reveals that each group of leaders at the various levels were perceived as exhibiting mixed leadership behaviours. The majority, 54.4 percent and 51.7 percent of the sampled respondents reported that the leadership behaviours of the Assembly persons and heads of civil society organisations respectively, were democratic. About half (50.6%) of the respondents also perceived the heads of the central administration as autocratic. The leadership behaviours of the MMDCEs, MMDCDs, heads of decentralised departments and sub-district structures were perceived as skewed towards autocratic and democratic tendencies.

**Table 13: Perceptions of the leadership behaviours at the various levels in the Assemblies**

Level	Leadership behaviours			Total
	Autocratic	Laissez faire	Democratic	
Assembly persons	24(23.3)	23(22.3)	56(54.4)	103(100.0)
MMDCEs	40(37.0)	20(18.5)	48(44.4)	108(100.0)
MMDCDs	42(37.8)	19(17.1)	50(45.1)	111(100.0)
Heads of Central Adm.	47(50.6)	11(11.8)	35(37.6)	93(100.0)
Heads of Decentralised Departments	42(43.2)	12(13.4)	43(44.3)	97(100.0)
Heads of Sub-structures	35(34.0)	22(21.3)	46(44.7)	103(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	34(29.3)	22(19.0)	60(51.7)	116(100.0)
Total	264(36.1)	129(17.7)	338(46.2)	731*(100.0)

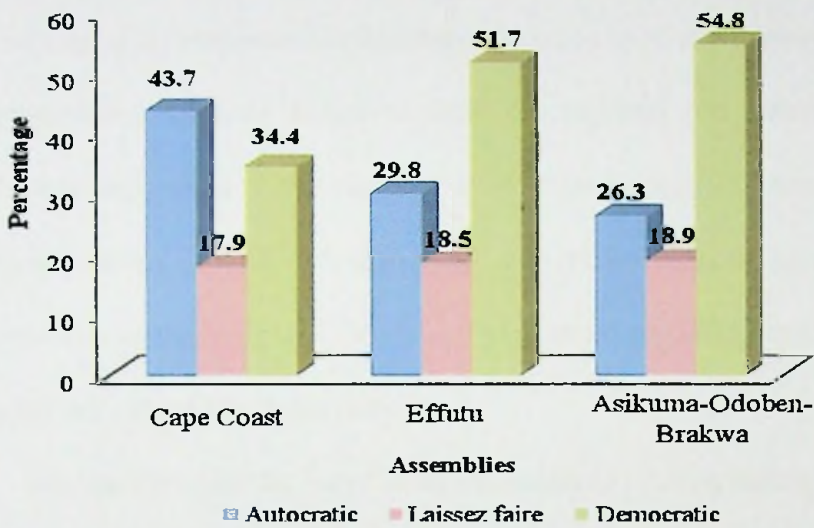
Percentages are in parentheses

\*The total number of responses (731) is more than the number of respondents (107) due to multiple responses

Source: Field survey (2011)

There were, however, variations in the district-specific responses among the three study districts as indicated in Figure 13. Whereas in CCMA, the responses of the 50 respondents suggest that the leadership behaviours were perceived as autocratic by 43.7 percent of the responses, 51.7 percent and 54.8 percent of the responses of the 25 and 30 respondents in Effutu and AOB respectively, perceived the leadership behaviours as democratic. Appendix F provides further details. In all the districts, however, the majority, 61.1 percent in

CCMA, 60.9 percent in Effutu and 56 percent in AOB, of the 50, 25 and 30 respondents respectively, perceived the leadership behaviours of the Assembly persons as democratic. Although the majority (58%) of the 827 sampled community level respondents perceived the leadership behaviours of the Assembly persons as democratic, the MMDA-specific responses varied.



**Figure 13: Perceptions of district-specific leadership behaviours**

Source: Field survey (2011)

Whilst in CCMA 67.9 percent of the sampled community level respondents perceived their Assembly persons as democratic, in Effutu 47.7 percent and AOB 48.8 percent of the sampled respondents perceived their Assembly persons as democratic. The respondents at the regional level and in CCMA attributed the predominant autocratic leadership behaviours perceived in CCMA to its location within the regional capital. This had implications for their vertical accountability and demanded that the leadership responded to the dictates of the political and administrative leadership in the region and the headquarters in Accra more

promptly than the other districts outside the regional capital. They intimated that: “decisions in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions were, therefore, more likely to be implemented by the leadership without recourse to democratic and laissez faire leadership behaviours.”

The respondents at the MMDAs and regional levels also indicated in their responses to the reasons for their perception that districts located further from the regional capital and national headquarters tended to have some leeway in terms of timely implementation of directives from the regional and national levels. As noted by a respondent at the regional level: “the leadership, therefore, had the opportunity to experiment with democratic behaviours before adopting autocratic behaviours to get the directives implemented to avoid reprisals from the authorities who appointed them into those positions.”

The context-specific ways in which leadership behaviours were perceived is consistent with Fielders’ (1957) contingency theory of leadership which indicates that the most productive leadership behaviour is contingent upon situational variables. It also corroborates Manning and Curtis’ (2007) view that conceptions of the characteristics of leadership are culturally determined and differ from time to time and from one culture to another. In addition, it confirms the complex nature of the leadership process and corresponds to the conceptual framework of this research. There is, therefore, the need to view the leadership process from a structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives in order to understand and appreciate the dynamics in meeting decentralisation and performance challenges (Checkland, 2000; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002).

These perspectives on the leadership behaviours in the MMDAs resonate with the integrative leadership behaviours expounded by Bennis (1993). It also suggests that although the leadership at the various levels adopted varied leadership behaviours in order to align, create and empower followers, the perception of followers of the leadership behaviours varied from one leadership group to another. Generally, the Assembly persons and civil society leaders were perceived as democratic rather than autocratic. The MMDCEs, MMDCDs and other heads of departments, on the other hand, were perceived as autocratic in their leadership behaviours.

Reasons assigned by the respondents to their perceptions focused on the fact that the Assembly persons had horizontal accountability in terms of political accountability towards their constituents. They were elected into office by their constituents and were, therefore, directly accountable to them. Skewing their leadership behaviours towards the autocratic approach could make them unpopular and result in their failure to be re-elected. In a similar vein, the respondents indicated that civil society leaders by their mandate were expected to appear democratic in their approach in order to secure buy-in from the people and to ensure ownership and commitment to development interventions.

The respondents also indicated that the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and other heads of departments, on the other hand, had vertical accountability requirements and were, therefore, not directly accountable to the people they served. Consequently, they would always ensure that they responded to the dictates of those who appointed them to those positions. As a result, they were more inclined to adopt autocratic behaviours to ensure that their constituents abided by their

instructions to enable them respond to the agenda of the headquarters of their political and administrative hierarchy. This autocratic behaviour confirms Chambers' (1997) assertion that leaders of development interventions in developing countries tended to be directive and instructive in their approach to leadership.

The autocratic behaviours contravene the second principle of Stigler's (1957) menu which required people to have the right to vote for the kind and amount of public services they want. It also goes contrary to the demand responsive approach in which development interventions are provided based on demands of the beneficiaries and followers to ensure sustainability (Litvack & Seddan, 2002). The followers, therefore, failed to successfully continue and pursue the development agenda initiated by the leaders as they had not been adequately involved in the decision-making process.

Since by their mandate the administrative and political heads of the MMDAs were the ones to drive the development agenda in the decentralised local government system, their autocratic behaviours were likely to undermine the initiative, ownership and commitment of followers to the development process as are discussed in subsequent sections. A move towards a more integrative approach by the leadership at all levels may, therefore, be necessary to facilitate alignment, creation and empowerment of followers in the leadership process.

The perceptions of the 107 respondents at the regional and district levels were elicited on the capabilities of the leadership at the various levels of the MMDAs on a scale of very good, good, fair, poor or very poor. Table 14 shows the perceptions of the respondents. Overall, 13.5 percent and 48.3 percent of the

respondents perceived the capabilities of the leaders as very good and good respectively. The majority (50.6%) of the respondents perceived the capabilities of the Assembly persons as at least good. On the other hand, less than 50 percent of the respondents perceived the heads of CSOs and sub-district structures as capable.

**Table 14: Perceptions of the regional and district level respondents of the capabilities of the leadership at the various levels**

Leaders at various levels	Capabilities					Total
	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor	
Assembly persons	14(13.3)	40(37.3)	43(40.0)	10(9.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
MMDCE	29(26.7)	60(56.0)	17(16.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
MMDCD	27(25.3)	66(61.3)	13(12.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of central adm.	16(14.7)	60(56.0)	27(25.3)	4(4.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Decentralised Departments	11(10.6)	56(52.0)	37(34.7)	3(2.7)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Sub-structures	1(1.3)	51(48.0)	32(29.4)	19(17.3)	4(4.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	3(2.6)	29(26.7)	60(56.0)	15(14.7)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>362</b>	<b>229</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>749</b>
	(13.5)	(48.3)	(30.6)	(6.9)	(0.7)	(100.0)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)



The MMDA-specific perceptions followed similar trends with the MMDCEs, MMDCDs, other heads of central administration and decentralised departments being rated higher than the Assembly persons, heads of sub-district structures and CSOs (Appendix G). In the AOB District, none of the leadership's capabilities were perceived either as very good or very poor. Reasons assigned by respondents for perceiving the leadership as being capable focused mainly on their academic and professional qualifications, depth of experience in their various fields as well as their ability to respond to legal and regulatory requirements. In the case of the Assembly persons their ability to mobilise the communities for development activities was given as the main reason.

Contrary to the relatively higher ratings given to the capabilities of the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and HoDs than the Assembly persons by the respondents at the regional and district levels, the 827 sampled respondents at the community level rated their Assembly persons higher. About 72.5 percent of the community level respondents rated the Assembly persons as at least good compared to the 50.6 percent of the respondents at the regional and district levels that rated them as at least good. Similar proportions in rating of the Assembly persons by the community members were observed in the district-specific situations with 78.8 percent of the respondents in CCMA rating their Assembly persons as at least good. In Effutu, 70 percent of the respondents rated their Assembly persons as at least good, whilst in AOB 62.5 percent of the respondents rated them as at least good.

The respondents at the regional and MMDAs levels attributed their rating of the capabilities of the Assembly persons to their inadequate academic and

professional qualifications, inadequate experience in their various fields as well as their inability to respond to legal and regulatory requirements and other mandates. However, the community level respondents rated the Assembly persons higher because they found them responsive in mobilising the community members for development activities and involving them in the decision-making, planning and implementation processes. As was seen from the characteristics of respondents, most of the community members had directly experienced the leadership of the Assembly persons for more than six years and were, therefore, better placed in sharing what they had experienced in reality rather than what they imagined the capabilities to be.

The respondents at the MMDAs level attributed their lower ratings of the heads of sub-district structures and CSOs to the non-existence and non-functional sub-district structures and CSOs across the three study areas. The varied perceptions about the capabilities of the leadership at the various levels agree with the perception and attribution theories as well as the systems thinking perspective of multiple realities with different people perceiving their realities as a range of diverse relationships (Checkland, 2000; Saal & Moore, 1998; Starbuck & Mezias, 1996).

Apart from the community level respondents across the three study areas who indicated that the Assembly persons' leadership behaviours enabled them to mobilise the followers, none of the reasons focused on the leaders' behaviours, and other qualities and skills needed for meeting both leadership and management challenges to achieve sustained local level development. The focus of the respondents on the academic and professional qualifications, as well as response to

legal and regulatory requirements as the basis for rating their capabilities confirms the tendency for both leaders and followers to overlook the leadership behaviours, qualities and skills necessary for achieving higher levels of performance in the decentralised system of local government (Manning & Curtis, 2007).

Although followers may be uncomfortable with the behaviours of leaders, once they had the qualification and experience and were able to deliver results as mandated by the legal and regulatory requirements and as expected by the political and administrative leadership at the headquarters, they were seen as capable. Thus the initiative, ownership and commitment of followers to the development agenda were undermined with followers living with the perception that the leader was capable of initiating, implementing and following up on the development agenda without their involvement.

In addition, views expressed by the 934 respondents as to whether the leadership were competent in managing the MMDAs indicated that the majority (79.1%) perceived them as competent. The MMDA-specific responses also reflected that the majority, 80.6 percent of the 345 respondents in CCMA, 72.3 percent of the 255 respondents in Effutu and 82 percent of the 332 respondents in AOB, perceived them as competent. Reasons assigned to this high level of competence rating included their qualifications and experience, good performance in the FOAT assessment and responsiveness to aspirations of their constituents. As noted in the preceding paragraphs, these perceptions limit the reasons for the competence to qualifications, experience and ability to respond to legal and regulatory requirements and do not take into consideration the behaviours and other qualities of the leadership.

However, the respondents who gave lower ratings for the competence of the leadership at the various levels attributed it to their inadequate response to reporting requirements, poor response to enquiries made by constituents and slow pace in operationalising systems and structures. Other reasons were over-dependence of the leadership on the centre (Accra) for instructions and direction, poor performance in the FOAT administration as in the case of Effutu, autocratic leadership behaviours, politicisation of issues as well as inadequate involvement of followers in pursuing development interventions. These views resonate with those shared by Ahwoi (2010), Asante (2009), Gyimah-Boadi (2009) and Offei-Aboagye (2009) on the challenges confronting the decentralised local government system in Ghana.

Notwithstanding the fact that the respondents overlooked other critical issues in assessing the capabilities and competence of the leadership, the positive view held by the majority (79.1%) of the respondents on the capabilities and competence of the leadership had the potential of building the foundation for mobilising the followers to enhance participation. This is especially so if it is complemented by integrative and transformational leadership behaviours that ensure the adoption of appropriate mix of leadership behaviours, qualities and skills in response to the given contexts that the leaders find themselves. It will help align, create and empower the followers to take initiative, own and commit themselves to achieve sustained local level development in accordance with Covey's (2004) view that enthusiasm shown by a leader generates enthusiasm in followers.

Higher ratings were also given to concern for others, integrity, and self confidence of the political and administrative leadership of the MMDAs on the scale of very high, high, neutral, low and very low by the respondents across the regional, district and community levels as indicated in Appendices H to N. About 26 percent (25.9%) and 38.1 percent rated concern for others as very high and high respectively, integrity with 19.6 percent and 45.4 percent as very high and high respectively, and self confidence with 34.6 percent and 36.5 percent as very high and high respectively.

The ratings were also higher for the Assembly persons at the community level, with 76.9 percent of the community members rating concern for others by the Assembly persons as at least high. Integrity and self-confidence were rated by 65.1 percent and 72.6 percent respectively, as at least high. These ratings give a positive view of these aspects of the qualities of the MMDAs' leadership. As noted by Covey (2004), enthusiasm shown by a leader generates enthusiasm in followers. They should, therefore, be seen as enabling factors that should be promoted and directed at encouraging the leaders to adopt integrative and transformational leadership behaviours and approaches to influence better performance in responding to the development aspirations of constituents and achieving sustained local level development.

The perceptions were mixed regarding the inter-relationship among leaders and followers on the scale of very strong, strong, neutral, weak and very weak as presented in Table 15. Across the regional and MMDAs levels, 25.6 percent, 36.6 percent and 34.6 percent of the 107 respondents perceived the inter-relationships as very strong, strong and neutral respectively. Similar perceptions were held by

the 827 respondents at the community level about the interrelationships between the Assembly persons and their followers with 37.5 percent, 36.9 percent and 18.8 percent perceiving the interrelationship as very strong, strong and neutral respectively.

**Table 15: Regional and district level respondents' perceptions of the inter-relationships between leaders and followers at the various levels**

Level	Interrelationships					Total
	Very strong	Strong	Neutral	Weak	Very Weak	
Assembly persons	40(37.3)	40(37.4)	26(24.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
MMDCE	45(41.3)	45(41.3)	15(14.8)	1(1.3)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
MMDCD	39(36.0)	50(46.7)	17(16.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Other Heads of central admin.	24(22.7)	47(44.0)	30(28.0)	6(5.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of decentralised departments	24(22.7)	45(41.3)	37(35.0)	1(1.3)	0.0	107(100.0)
Heads of sub-structures	10(9.3)	23(21.3)	68(64.0)	6(5.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	10(9.3)	24(22.7)	66(61.4)	6(5.3)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
Total	192 (25.6)	274 (36.6)	259 (34.6)	22 (29.4)	2 (0.3)	749 (100.0)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)

In proportionate terms, the inter-relationship among the Assembly persons, MMDCEs, MMDCDs, heads of central administration and other HoDs and their followers were perceived as strong, ranging between 22.7 percent and 41.3 percent for very strong, 37.4 percent and 46.7 percent for strong, and 14.8 and 28 percent for neutral. However, the majority, 64 and 61.4 percent respectively, perceived the interrelationship among the leaders of sub-district structures, CSOs and followers as neutral. The respondents attributed their perceptions to the non-existent and non-functional nature of the sub-district structures and CSOs in the study areas. The inter-relationships were further explored by eliciting the perceptions of the political and technocratic heads of the MMDAs on the scale of very cordial, cordial, neutral, not cordial or not at all cordial regarding the relationships between the central administration and other departments of the MMDAs.

The majority (71.4%) of the 105 respondents across the three study areas perceived the relationship as at least cordial. Similar proportions perceived the relationships as cordial in the MMDA-specific situations with 71.43 percent of the 50 respondents in CCMA, 72.7 percent of the 25 respondents in Effutu and 80 percent of the 30 respondents in AOB indicating that the relationship was very cordial. Although the responses suggest that the relationships were perceived as cordial, challenges the respondents enumerated as confronting the districts in their working relationships pointed to the contrary. A review of the responses suggests that most of the challenges were externally motivated. This reflects the interactions between the internal and external environments and the multiple and complex factors that determine achievement of local level development as advanced by the endogenous and exogenous development theories (Rigoberta, 2007).

Moreover, the leader-follower perceptions and relationships, as well as their implications for participation and performance appear so inter-related and interconnected that it was difficult to isolate any of them. They needed to be examined holistically. A look at the leadership behaviours, qualities and skills also calls for an examination of the follower perceptions and behaviours as envisaged in the leadership process and the conceptual framework of this study.

The leadership behaviours and follower expectations together ultimately impact on the leader-follower relationships and interrelationships in achieving enhanced performance in the decentralised local government system as envisaged in the conceptual and analytical frameworks of this research. The variations in perceptions also have the tendency to yield differing responsiveness in eliciting participation and performance in the management of development interventions (Manning & Curtis, 2007). It corroborates Beerel's (1998) view of multiple, equally valid realities about perceptions in the leadership process and, therefore, the need to view them from structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives.

### **Influence of leadership approaches on participation and performance**

As envisaged in the conceptual framework, leadership behaviours go a long way in aligning leadership qualities and skills as well as the complex relationships, interrelationships, interdependence and interconnectedness among the leaders and followers to influence participation and performance (Beerel, 1998; Checkland, 2000; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002). In response to the second research question, this section examines how the leadership approaches in



terms of the composite of behaviours, qualities and interrelationships influenced participation and performance in the management of development interventions as presented in the following sub-sections.

#### Influence of the leadership approaches on participation

The 105 MMDA level respondents were asked whether the leadership approaches promoted participation, enabled followers to feel enthusiastic about contributing to the management of development interventions, assume responsibility for and ensure sustainability of the interventions. Their perceptions are presented in Table 16. The majority, 88.5 percent, 73.3 percent, 69.5 percent and 69.5 percent, of the respondents perceived the leadership approaches of the Assembly persons, central administration, other departments and community leaders respectively, as promoting participation.

It was only at the sub-district structures level that 41.9 percent of the respondents perceived that the leadership approaches promoted participation. The respondents in all the three study areas attributed their perceptions relating to the sub-district structures to their inadequate establishment and non-functioning in the MMDAs. Similar perceptions were held about the leadership approaches and participation at the district-specific level with the majority, 53.1 percent and over, in each case, except the sub-district structures level, indicating that the leadership approaches at the various levels promoted participation. From a structural functionalist perspective, the absence or non functional substructures is dysfunctional (Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002) and would not enable the

MMDAs to reap the full benefits of the decentralised local government system as advanced by Oates (1972) in the decentralisation theory.

**Table 16: Influence of leadership approaches at the various levels on participation**

Level		Assemblies								$\chi^2$ (p-value)
		CCMA		Effutu		AOB		Total		
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	
Assembly persons	Yes	41	81.3	22	88.9	26	85.0	89	85.5	0.518 (0.772)
	No	9	18.8	3	11.1	4	15.0	16	11.5	
Central administration	Yes	39	78.1	18	72.2	20	65.0	77	73.3	1.077 (0.584)
	No	11	21.9	7	27.8	10	35.0	28	26.7	
Sub-district structures	Yes	16	31.2	13	52.0	15	50.0	44	41.9	2.517 (0.284)
	No	34	68.8	12	48.0	15	50.0	61	58.1	
Other departments	Yes	38	75.0	17	66.7	18	60.0	73	69.5	1.326 (0.515)
	No	12	25.0	8	33.3	12	40.0	32	30.5	
Community	Yes	27	53.1	18	72.2	18	60.0	73	69.5	1.751 (0.417)
	No	23	46.9	7	27.8	12	40.0	32	30.5	

*f* = Frequency

Source: Field survey (2011)

The community level responses also indicated that the majority (61.5%) of the total respondents perceived that the leadership approaches of the Assembly persons promoted participation. The MMDA-specific community responses were similar with about 73.8 percent of the respondents in CCMA and 63.4 percent of

the respondents in AOB, indicating that the leadership approaches promoted participation. However, in the Effutu Municipal Assembly, 47.7 percent of the respondents indicated that the leadership approaches of the Assembly persons promoted participation. The respondents in Effutu Assembly attributed their perceptions to the intense chieftaincy dispute and politicisation of issues in the municipality. This confirms Manning and Curtis's (2007) view that conceptions of the characteristics of leadership are culturally determined.

A chi square test of independence was used to explore association between the leadership approaches and participation for the various leadership levels among the three study areas. With the Assembly persons, a significance value of 0.772 was obtained, for central administration it was 0.584, sub-district structures 0.284, other departments 0.515 and community level 0.417. Since all the values of significance for the various leadership levels were larger than the alpha value of 0.05, they imply that the results were not statistically significant.

The results confirm Marriner's (1994) view that leaders exhibit different leadership behaviours and qualities in response to given situations. Followers also expect the leaders to respond to their follower needs in given contexts thus affirming the need to adopt integrative leadership behaviours that combine with the appropriate mix of qualities and skills to achieve influence relationships (Bennis, 1993). This is congruent with the systems thinking perspective of the leadership process and the conceptual framework of this research.

To further confirm the respondents' views on how the leadership approaches promoted participation, they were asked whether the followers were made aware of the vision and goals of the districts. The results indicated that the

majority (60%) of the 105 respondents across the three districts perceived that the followers at the various levels of the district structures were made aware of the vision and goals of the MMDAs. The district-specific responses also indicated that the majority, 59.4 percent in CCMA and 80 percent in AOB, perceived that the followers were made aware of the vision and goals. It was only in Effutu that 39 percent perceived that the followers were made aware of the vision and goals, with the respondents attributing their perceptions to the intense chieftaincy dispute and politicisation of issues in the municipality.

The different ways in which respondents perceived the leadership approaches as promoting sharing of vision, goals and participation included informing them at meetings, consulting them, involving them in the vision and goal formulation, as well as the implementation processes. These modes of promoting participation appear consistent with the lower rungs of Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation, Oakley's (1989) contribution and organisation, Chambers' (2005) first three levels of participation, as well as Pretty's (1995) passive, functional, consultative and interactive participation. They suggest that the approach to leadership at all levels of the MMDAs required further strengthening to enable the leadership process integrate other rungs such as partnership, delegated power and citizen control to adequately empower followers to strengthen commitment, ownership and sustainability.

The fact that the majority (61%) of the respondents in Effutu and a fair proportion, 40.6 percent in CCMA and 20 percent in AOB perceived that the followers were not made aware of the vision and goals is indicative of how the followers were inadequately involved in or participated in the management of

development interventions in the MMDAs. Without awareness about the vision and goals, it becomes difficult for the followers to appreciate where the leadership was taking them and, therefore, the need for them to own and commit themselves to performance requirements (Covey, 2004).

Those who responded that the followers were not made aware of the vision and goals attributed their responses to politicisation of issues by the leaders, inadequate communication, information sharing and dissemination, as well as the tendency for the leaders to impose interventions on the followers. In addition to the aforementioned, respondents in Effutu attributed their response to chieftaincy disputes and the Municipality's failure to qualify for the DDF. These factors resonate with the challenges confronting decentralisation in Ghana discussed in Chapter Two and the current situation of the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in the conceptual framework. They preclude participation and accountability and do not facilitate effective performance (Rondinelli et al., 1989). They also go contrary to the second principle of Stigler's (Shah, 2006) menu that people should have the right to vote for what they want.

The preceding observations corroborate the results provided by the respondents at the MMDAs and community levels on whether the leadership approaches enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic, take responsibility and ensure sustainability in the management of development interventions in the MMDAs. Table 17 presents the results. The majority, 63.8 percent and 51.4 percent, of the 105 respondents comprising the political leadership, HoDs and Assembly persons across the three study areas perceived that the leadership approaches enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic about contributing and taking

responsibility, respectively. However, 36.2 percent perceived that the leadership approaches enabled followers to ensure sustainability of development interventions.

**Table 17: Influence of leadership approaches on enthusiasm, responsibility and sustainability by Assembly**

		Variables								
		Enthusiasm			Responsibility			Sustainability		
		Yes	No	$\chi^2$ (p-value)	Yes	No	$\chi^2$ (p-value)	Yes	No	$\chi^2$ (p-value)
MMDA										
CCMA	<i>f</i>	28	22		19	31		13	37	
	%	56.3	43.8		37.5	62.5		25.0	75.0	
Effutu	<i>f</i>	19	6	2.332	14	11	5.369	11	14	2.949
	%	77.8	22.2	(0.312)	55.6	44.4	(0.068)	44.4	55.6	(0.229)
AOB	<i>f</i>	20	10		21	9		14	16	
	%	65.0	35.0		70.0	30.0		45.0	55.0	
Total	<i>f</i>	67	38		54	51		38	67	
	%	63.8	36.2		51.4	48.6		36.2	63.8	

Source: Field survey (2011)

The results suggest that even though the leaders may adopt leadership approaches that would push the followers to contribute and take responsibility for implementing interventions, if the approach does not respond to the followers' motivational needs as advanced by Maslow (1943), it would not engender the followers to ensure sustainability of the interventions. The district-specific responses provided varied results in terms of enthusiasm, responsibility and

sustainability. While the majority (56.3%) of the 50 district level respondents in CCMA perceived that the leadership approach enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic about contributing to the management of development interventions, 37.5 percent and 25 percent respectively, perceived that it enabled the followers to take responsibility and sustain the interventions.

In Effutu Assembly, 77.8 percent of the 25 respondents indicated that it enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic, 55.6 percent to take responsibility and 44.4 percent to ensure sustainability. The AOB had 65 percent of the 30 respondents perceiving that it enabled followers to feel enthusiastic, 70 percent to take responsibility and 45 percent to ensure sustainability of development interventions. The results in CCMA align with the predominant autocratic leadership behaviours perceived by the followers which did not motivate them to take responsibility and sustain the interventions. Similarly, at the community level, the majority, 98 percent and 65 percent, of the 827 respondents across the three study areas perceived that the leadership approaches of their Assembly persons enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic and take responsibility, respectively, whilst 45 percent perceived that it ensured sustainability of development.

The community level MMDA-specific responses also indicated that the majority, 67.5 percent of the 295 respondents in CCMA, 70 percent of the 230 respondents in Effutu and 52.5 percent of the 302 respondents in AOB perceived that the leadership approaches of the Assembly persons enabled the followers to feel enthusiastic to contribute to development interventions. The majority of the community level respondents, 65 percent in CCMA, 60 percent in Effutu and 72.5 percent in AOB also perceived that it enabled the followers to take responsibility.

About 43 percent (42.5%) in CCMA, 45 percent in Effutu and 47.5 percent in AOB perceived that the leadership approaches enabled the followers to ensure sustainability of development interventions.

A chi square test of independence was used to explore association between the leadership approaches and feeling enthusiastic in contributing to management of development interventions, taking responsibility for development of the MMDAs and ensuring sustainability of development interventions in the three study areas. For the enthusiasm, a significance value of 0.312 was obtained, for responsibility the value was 0.068, whilst sustainability had a value of 0.229 as presented in Table 17. Since the values of significance for enthusiasm, responsibility and sustainability were all larger than the alpha value of 0.05, they imply that although variations exist as far as the MMDA-specific responses were concerned, they were not statistically significant.

Despite the results, the lower proportions of respondents across the three study areas, between 25 percent and 47.5 percent, that perceived the leadership approaches as not enabling followers to ensure sustainability should be of concern to the MMDAs. Otherwise, achievement and sustenance of local level development will continue to be a mirage (Osei-Ababio, 2007). The respondents, who perceived that the leadership approaches made followers feel enthusiastic to contribute, take responsibility and ensure sustainability attributed their responses to the fact that it created a sense of ownership among followers, elicited commitment, ensured involvement of all, motivated followers and addressed development aspirations of constituents.



This suggests that for followers to feel enthusiastic, take responsibility for initiating development interventions and sustain them, actors in the leadership process should have the skills and ability to empower, involve and motivate the followers in ways that enable the followers to own, commit themselves and ensure sustainability, even in the absence of the leaders who initiated such interventions (Covey, 2004; Litvack & Seddan, 2002; Manning & Curtis, 2007).

#### Influence of leadership on performance

From the structural functionalist and systems thinking perspectives, leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system are interrelated, interconnected and interdependent (Beerel, 1998; Checkland, 2000; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002). To achieve the desired level of performance, therefore, requires leadership approaches that influence response to performance requirements. Accordingly, the influence of the leadership approaches comprising the composite perceptions about the behaviours, qualities and interrelationships on performance was explored by examining the perceptions of respondents on whether the leadership approaches enabled the MMDAs to respond to performance requirements regarding mandates and development aspirations of constituents. In addition, respondents' views were sought on whether the leadership approaches ensured accountability, openness and transparency.

The results presented in Table 18 indicated that the majority (55.2%) of the district level respondents across the three study areas perceived that the leadership approaches at the various levels did not elicit responsiveness to the MMDAs' performance. The MMDA-specific responses also indicated that whilst the

majority, 59.4 percent and 52 percent, of the respondents in CCMA and Effutu respectively, perceived that the leadership approaches did not elicit responsiveness to the MMDAs' performance, the majority (55.6%) of the respondents in AOB perceived that it elicited responsiveness to the MMDAs' performance.

**Table 18: Influence of leadership approaches on performance by Assembly**

Response	Assembly							
	CCMA		Effutu		AOB		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Yes	20	40.6	12	48.0	17	55.6	49	44.8
No	30	59.4	13	52.0	13	44.6	56	55.2
Total	50	100.0	25	100.0	30	100.0	105	100.0

$$\chi^2 (2, N = 70) = 1.122, p = 0.571$$

Source: Field survey (2011)

The respondents in AOB attributed their positive view to the district's qualification for the DDF in the FOAT administration in 2008 and 2009. A chi square test of independence was used to explore association between the leadership approaches and performance in the three study areas. Since the significance value of 0.571 was larger than the alpha value of 0.05, it implies that although variations exist as far as the district-specific responses in the three study districts were concerned, they were not statistically significant.

The reasons assigned for the positive view of the respondents were similar across the three study areas. They included the MMDAs' response to legal and regulatory requirements; localisation of national goals, policies and strategies at

the MMDA level and collaboration and commitment among actors. Others were increased internally generated revenues, ability of the leaders to instruct the followers to perform their functions, as well as effective planning and implementation of activities aimed at responding to performance requirements.

The above perceptions tend to support the current situation of the leadership, decentralisation and performance nexus envisaged in the conceptual framework of this thesis that performance of the leadership of the MMDAs had hitherto been focused mainly on the ability of the leadership to respond to policy, legal and regulatory requirements. It also focuses on the dictates of the political and administrative hierarchy without paying attention to how the leadership approaches influenced followers' responsiveness to performance requirements to achieve sustained local level development (Ahwoi, 2010; Ayee, 1999; Kisseih, 2007). The followers were, therefore, likely to feel alienated from actions that needed to be taken in order to respond to performance requirements (Litvack & Seddan, 2002).

Those who responded that the leadership approaches did not facilitate response to the MMDAs' performance requirements ascribed it to poor leadership, autocratic tendencies of the leaders, as well as widespread apathy resulting from inadequate participation and collaboration among the departments and other actors. Other reasons were politicisation of issues, inadequate motivation, non-functioning sub-district structures, unmet expectations of constituents, and poor communication and information flow. In addition, respondents in Effutu attributed their response to the failure of the leadership to mobilise actors to work to qualify

for the DDF in 2008 and 2009, as well as the intense chieftaincy disputes fuelled by partisan politics.

Perceptions of the respondents regarding whether the leadership approaches at the various levels promoted transparency, openness and accountability indicated that the majority (68%) of the total respondents at the regional and district levels had positive perceptions. The MMDA-specific perceptions also indicated that the majority, 71.9 percent in CCMA, 60 percent in Effutu and 88.9 percent in AOB held positive views. Responses to ways in which the leadership approaches were seen to be facilitating accountability, openness and transparency included information sharing, creating platforms for holding duty bearers accountable, regular reporting and feedback to followers as well as involvement of followers in monitoring and evaluation.

In response to interview items on how performance could be improved, the respondents provided suggestions some of which cut across the various levels of the MMDA structure, with others being addressed to specific levels. Those that cut across levels included the need to improve leadership behaviour, participation, communication and information flow; build capacities in knowledge and skills of all leaders and followers; avoid political interference and politicisation of issues; as well as ensure adequate resourcing of the various structures of the MMDAs.

In addition to the cross-cutting issues, the Assembly persons were to strengthen links with their electorate in the performance of their roles and undertake public education and sensitisation in pursuing development interventions. The central administration was to enhance transparency and accountability and strengthen collaboration with other departments, whilst the sub-

district structures were to be established and made functional. The other departments were to strengthen collaboration with the central administration, while community leaders were to improve collaboration with traditional authorities.

The responses suggest that although the leadership approaches influenced participation in the three study areas, the influence of the leadership approaches on performance in the decentralised local government system needed to be strengthened. In addition, the results revealed that every issue raised in the leadership and performance processes in the MMDAs was connected to others, reflecting the systemic relationships among the issues. These interrelationships are consistent with the conceptual framework of this research that look at leadership, performance and decentralised local government from a systems thinking and structural-functionalist perspectives (Beerel, 1998; Checkland, 2000; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002).

## **Summary**

The chapter has discussed the key findings of the study in response to the first and second research questions. In relation to the first research question, it revealed that leadership in the MMDAs was perceived as a position and not an influence relationship and mixed leadership behaviours were exhibited at the various levels. However, the MMDCEs, MMDCDs and HoDs were perceived as autocratic and the Assembly persons democratic due to differences in their administrative and political accountability requirements. Discussions on the second research question suggested that although the leadership approaches influenced participation, they did not influence performance.

**CHAPTER SEVEN**  
**MAKING THE FUNCTIONAL ORGANISATIONAL ASSESSMENT**  
**FRAMEWORK WORK FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENTS: EVIDENCE**  
**FROM CENTRAL REGION**

**Introduction**

The second part of the results and discussion is presented in this chapter and focuses on the third, fourth and fifth objectives and research questions as follows:

1. Leadership, the FOAT framework and how to improve the framework from a leadership perspective; and
2. Improving leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system.

**Leadership and the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool framework**

The third research question related to whether the FOAT framework elicited leadership approaches that enhanced performance in the management of development interventions in the MMDAs, while the fourth research question elicited data on how the FOAT framework could be improved. The analyses, therefore, centred on the FOAT framework, relevance and appropriateness of the criteria and indicators in eliciting responsive leadership behaviours and qualities, participation and accountability. The challenges and ways to improve on the assessment framework to enhance the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus are also discussed.

## The Functional Organisational Assessment Tool framework

To enhance one's understanding of the FOAT framework, it is important to examine the contextual factors that influenced the framework and its operationalisation. This section, therefore, presents the findings and discussion on the background to the FOAT, the processes as well as the results of the 2008 and 2009 assessments. The Government of Ghana (GoG) and its development partners introduced a performance based grant system for MMDAs called the District Development Facility (DDF) in 2008. The aim was to ensure efficient provision of basic community infrastructure and service delivery through judicious use of resources.

The DDF is to mobilise additional financial resources for MMDAs, provide incentives for complying with policy and legal mandates, establish a link between assessments and capacity building support, and ensure harmonised systems for investment funding and capacity building support to MMDAs (MLGRD, 2010a). The assessment which was designed to be conducted annually uses the FOAT as a set of indicators covering five thematic areas namely, management and organisation, planning and budgeting, human resource management, financial management and administration, and accounting and auditing.

The first assessment covered assessment of performance of the 138 MMDAs in 2006 and was conducted in 2008. The second assessment was conducted in 2009 and assessed the 2008 operational responsiveness of 169 out of the 170 MMDAs. One of the new districts in the Volta Region, Biakoye District Assembly, had not been inaugurated at the time of the assessment and was,

therefore, not included in the assessment. The criteria and related indicators provide the framework for the FOAT.

Under the FOAT, MMDAs are assessed against their legal obligations and other mandates. The indicators focus on the legal, political, administrative and fiscal environment in which MMDAs operate and capture both the technocrats and elected representatives in the MMDA structure. In order to minimise discretion in the assessment process, the indicators were made objectively verifiable and the assessment evidence-based. The assessment process facilitates identification of capacity building needs and corresponding institutional strengthening requirements and ensures that capacity building is fully integrated into the budgeting cycle of the MMDAs (MLGRD, 2010a).

The assessment is categorised into two main requirements namely, the Minimum Conditions (MCs) and Performance Measures (PMs). The MCs are those conditions that an MMDA needs to fulfil in order to qualify to access the basic grant component of the DDF. The MCs are fulfilled under five sub-themes as indicated in Table 19. The PMs are those conditions that would be used to determine each MMDA's allocation of DDF's performance grant. The PMs involve detailed indicators that build on the MCs to measure performance. They are classified and scored under nine sub-themes as indicated in Table 20.



**Table 19: Minimum conditions of performance and indicators to fulfil**

Minimum condition	Indicators to fulfil
1. Development planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Functioning District Planning Coordinating Unit</li><li>• Annual Action Plan (AAP) formulated</li></ul>
2. Financial management and accounting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Annual statement of accounts prepared.</li><li>• No adverse audit comments bordering on dishonesty</li></ul>
3. Public procurement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Procurement plan prepared</li></ul>
4. Implementation capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Progress reports submitted on AAP implementation</li></ul>
5. Functioning of the General Assembly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Minimum number of General Assembly meetings held</li></ul>

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (2010a)

**Table 20: Performance measures, indicators and maximum score**

Performance measures	Indicators	Maximum score
1. Management & organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Mandatory meetings and follow ups, accessibility of offices to the physically challenged, etc.</li></ul>	10
2. Transparency, openness and accountability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Functionality of Public Relations and Complaints Committee, publication of accounts, budgets, availability of external auditor's report, submission of monthly financial statements, etc.</li></ul>	12
3. Planning system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Involvement in plan implementation and monitoring, level of plan implementation, linkage between planning and budgeting, socio-economic data management, gender mainstreaming, etc.</li></ul>	15
4. Human resource management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Overall vacancy level, staff development, training and capacity building.</li></ul>	7
5. Relationship with SDS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Revenue sharing and extent to which SDS have been mandated to perform mandated functions.</li></ul>	6
6. Financial management and auditing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Functionality of Budget Committee, compliance with legal and regulatory requirements, responsiveness to audit requirements, etc.</li></ul>	15
7. Fiscal capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Absolute size of Internally Generated Fund (IGF), efforts to improve IGF, collection cost, share of IGF used for development, operation and maintenance plan, preparation of assets register.</li></ul>	15
8. Procurement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Meetings of procurement entities, record on procurement processes, quarterly updates, contract mobilisation, management and retention.</li></ul>	12
9. Environmental sanitation management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Development of Environmental Sanitation Sub-Sector Strategy and action plan, data on environmental and market facilities, etc.</li></ul>	8
Total score		100

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (2010a)

## Leadership, participation and accountability under the FOAT framework

A review of the assessment framework reveals that the thematic areas, sub-themes, and indicators for fulfilling the MCs and PMs focus on the key elements of the MMDAs' performance model, criteria and indicators adopted in this research. In addition, they address issues pertinent to the conceptual framework of this research that envisages a desired decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus to achieve sustained local level development. The indicators are also interdependent, interconnected and inter-linked and respond to the systems thinking and structural-functionalist perspectives of this research.

The elements of the themes and sub-themes appear to flow into one another. Requirements in one theme and or sub-theme reinforce and complement requirements in other themes and or sub-themes. This reveals the systemic nature of the issues involved in assessing performance of MMDAs under the FOAT. For example, under the MCs, effective development planning could facilitate responsive financial management, accounting and public procurement. These in turn could contribute to providing the enabling implementation capacity and inputs for effective deliberations of the General Assembly (Cheema & Rondinelli, 2003).

In a similar vein, the elements under the thematic areas in the PMs appear to complement one another. Effective management and organisation, for example, could facilitate transparency, openness and accountability, which in turn would contribute to a responsive planning system. Together, they would contribute to providing the enabling environment for effective human resource management, good working relationships with the sub-district structures, responsive financial

management and auditing, fiscal capacity, procurement and sound environmental sanitation management (United Nations, 2007a, 2007b).

However, as noted in the preceding chapters, the focus is largely on responding to policy, legal and regulatory mandates, as well as efficiency and effectiveness requirements (Sanbakken, 2006). There appears to be little focus on leadership and how the leadership process influences and elicits responsiveness to the performance requirements. The requirements that appear to focus on assessing the leadership's responsiveness to influence relationships in the decision-making and implementation of development interventions are in the areas of mandatory meetings, MMDCEs' chairing of management meetings, and the extent of participation of required actors in the planning process. The meetings include the mandatory meetings of the General Assembly, Executive Committee and Sub-committees of the Assembly, District Planning Coordinating Unit, and management meetings, including heads of departments (GoG, 1993).

About 80 percent of the MMDA level respondents indicated that outcomes of these meetings stay with the leaders and do not filter through to their constituents. Although Act 462 mandates the Assembly persons to elicit views of their constituents before Assembly meetings and to feed outcomes of meetings to their constituents, this was not the case as confirmed by the majority (75%) of the 827 community level respondents from the electoral areas of the Assembly persons. A respondent remarked that: "the Assembly persons hardly met with their constituents before and after Assembly meetings." Similarly, the majority (80%) of the MMDA level respondents indicated that they failed to give feedback on meetings to their staff. The FOAT framework also fails to sufficiently include

indicators that elicit compliance as there were no indicators requiring input and feedback from constituents.

In addition, responses to whether the framework elicited participation and accountability on the scale of very strong, strong, neutral, weak and very weak, indicated that the majority (72% and 70.7%), of the regional and district level respondents perceived that it very strongly elicited participation and accountability, respectively. However, its operationalisation pointed to the contrary. A review of the framework suggests that it does not provide for the constituents to demand accountability for the performance of their MMDAs in the FOAT. Information sharing, communication and publicity about the FOAT to the general public were very low as less than 30 percent (27.8%) of the 934 respondents indicated that they were aware of the FOAT administration.

About 95 percent (94.6%) of the respondents at the regional and MMDA levels indicated that apart from publication of the results in the national newspapers, not much was known about the FOAT to serve as basis for the public to question the performance of the leadership. Those who were aware of the FOAT administration were the leadership of the central administration, HoDs and the Assembly persons. Six of the Assembly persons, two in each of the three study districts and all the 827 community members interviewed indicated that they were not aware of the FOAT administration and its results. They were, therefore, not in a position to demand accountability for the performance of their leadership. The regional level respondents indicated that:

Apart from explicitly mandating the MMDCDs to provide relevant documentation as evidence of fulfilment of an indicator, no mention

is made in the FOAT framework of who should provide leadership and how the performance of the leadership would be assessed.

A review of the framework also revealed that it does not establish persons to hold accountable and or sanctioned for poor performance and how it should be done. The regional level respondents indicated that accountability for the assessment outcomes seemed blurred, as neither the leadership nor the followers felt fully responsible. They intimated that “the followers looked up to the leaders to provide direction, while the leaders looked up to the followers to perform as expected of them.” As noted by Covey (2004), this disposition has the tendency to perpetuate the dependency and co-dependency inclinations in the leadership process. The blurred nature of accountability for the FOAT performance is compounded by a district level respondents’ perception that: “the two assessments had been based on actions and omissions of actors outside the regime of the leadership at the time of the assessments.”

The regional and district level respondents indicated that the 2008 assessment had 2006 as its base year, while the 2009 assessment was based on 2008. Most of the leadership in each of the MMDAs under whose regime the Assemblies experienced the performance were not at post due to transfer in the case of administrative leadership, or had been relieved of their post as a result of change in government in the case of the political leadership. This, coupled with the frequent and uncoordinated transfers and changes in the leadership namely MMDCEs, MMDCDs and HoDs (Ahwoi, 2010), did not make the real actors accountable for the MMDAs’ performance.

The MMDCEs, MMDCDs, MMDFOs and others were reshuffled as soon as there was a change of government and or change in MMDCE (Ahwoi, 2010). This makes it difficult to place the onus of accountability on the appropriate leadership as the actual leaders under whose regime the performance was experienced were not the ones assessed, but the current leaders, irrespective of their level of involvement in responding to performance requirements. This situation has the tendency to alienate both leaders and followers from the accountability process as both leaders and followers were likely to accept responsibility for good performance and shun responsibility for poor performance (Beerel, 1998; Covey, 2004). Perspectives shared by respondents at the district level and discussed in detail in subsequent sub-sections confirm this notion.

#### Functional Organisation Assessment Tool Performance Results

Table 21 presents the regional distribution of districts fulfilling the MCs in 2008 and 2009. In 2008, a total of 36.2 percent of the 138 MMDAs in Ghana fulfilled all the MCs and thus qualified for the basic grant component of the DDF as well as the capacity building grant. In the Central Region, only two districts, AOB and Gomoa District Assemblies, out of the 13 MMDAs qualified. The performance nationwide improved in 2009 with 79.3 percent of the eligible 169 MMDAs qualifying for the basic and capacity building grants, while in the Central Region, all the 17 MMDAs, but Effutu Municipal Assembly qualified. In all cases, the failure to fulfil the MCs was due to the MMDAs' inability to respond to the policy, legal and regulatory requirements under the thematic areas.

**Table 21: Regional distribution of districts fulfilling the minimum conditions of performance in 2008 and 2009**

Region	2008			2009		
	No of districts	No of districts fulfilling all MCs	% of districts meeting MCs	No of districts	No of districts fulfilling all MCs	% of districts meeting MCs
Ashanti	21	9	43.0	27	22	81.5
Brong Ahafo	19	10	53.0	22	8	36.4
Central	13	2	15.0	17	16	94.1
Eastern	17	7	41.0	21	14	66.7
Greater Accra	6	0	0.0	10	9	90.0
Northern	18	6	33.0	20	17	85.0
Upper East	8	4	50.0	9	9	100.0
Upper West	8	4	50.0	9	8	88.9
Volta	15	5	33.0	17	14	82.4
Western	13	3	23.0	17	17	100.0
Total	138	50	36.2	169	134	79.3

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (2010b)

This focuses the assessment requirements on efficiency and effectiveness issues with little attention to responsiveness of leadership to performance requirements. The mandatory meetings to ensure participation in the decision-making and implementation processes were also intended to ensure responsiveness to legal and regulatory requirements and not the self-motivated inclinations of the leadership to put in place mechanisms to facilitate participation in responding to



the assessment requirements (MLGRD, 2010a). The results of the performance measures in 2008 and 2009 are presented in Table 22.

**Table 22: National average and study districts' scores on performance measures (2008–2009)**

Performance measures	Maximum score*		Average scores		Actual scores of study districts					
	2008	2009	2008	2009	2008			2009		
					CCMA	Effutu	AOB	CCMA	Effutu	AOB
1. Management and organisation	15	14	6.1	8.0	10	7	6	13	6	10
2. Transparency openness and accountability	10	10	5.1	7.0	5	10	9	6	8	7
3. Planning system	16	15	7	8.5	1	5	5	11	7	8
4. Human resource management	10	9	4.1	4.5	3	1	5	6	6	3
5. Relationship with SDS	9	4	2	1.6	0	0	0	0	2	2
6. Financial management and auditing	20	18	10.2	10.8	2	7	7	13	8	9
7. Fiscal capacity	10	9	4	5.4	6	4	1	6	6	6
8. Procurement	10	8	6.8	5.7	6	6	6	7	6	4
9. Environmental sanitation management	0	14	0	9.8	0	0	0	12	15	11

\*The maximum scores increased from 100 in 2008 to 110 in 2009, but the final results were adjusted to 100 to conform to the current base.

Source: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (2010b)

The performance in 2009 was also better than 2008 with corresponding improvements in the performance of CCMA, Effutu and AOB. The least performing thematic area in 2008 was the relationship with sub-structures, with each of the three study areas scoring zero out of the maximum score of nine, while the best performing area was procurement with each of the study areas scoring six, higher than the national average score of 5.7 out of 10. The results were similar in 2009 with the relationship with sub-district structures as the worst performing thematic area and a national average score of 1.6 out of four. The CCMA scored zero, while Effutu and AOB scored two each. The best performing thematic area in 2009 was environmental sanitation management with each of the three study areas scoring higher than the national average score of 9.8 out of 14. Cape Coast Metropolis scored 12, Effutu Municipality 15 and AOB District 11.

In procurement, CCMA and Effutu scored seven and six respectively, higher than the national average score of 5.4, while AOB scored four. The three districts scored higher than the national average of 4.1 out of nine in human resource management. The performance is not surprising as the requirement for procurement, openness and accountability, as well as environmental sanitation management and other related thematic areas serve as preconditions for the MMDAs' access to funds from the District Assemblies' Common Fund (DACF) and other GoG and development partners' funding as alluded to by the two regional level respondents.

Responses to the factors accounting for improvements in performances from 2008 to 2009 across the three MMDA level respondents included enhanced response to legal mandates, increased involvement of staff of the Assemblies, as

well as the motivation of the leadership to access additional funding. However, their responses to challenges confronting the MMDAs in responding to the assessment criteria and indicators revealed that a lot more had to be done by the leadership to ensure responsiveness to the performance requirements on sustainable basis. These are discussed in the sub-section that follows.

### Challenges in responding to performance requirements

The study revealed inadequate knowledge about the FOAT process and the DDF across the three study areas, especially at the community level. The majority (72.2%) of the 932 respondents across the three areas and their respective communities indicated that they were not aware of the FOAT administration and its results. The MMDA-specific level of awareness was similar in the three study areas. In CCMA, it was 75.9 percent of the 345 respondents, in Effutu, 70.7 percent of the 255 respondents and in AOB, 66.7 percent of the 332 respondents who were not aware of the FOAT assessment. This undermines transparency, openness and accountability in the leadership and performance process as followers would not be in a position to hold the leadership accountable for their performance due to lack of awareness (United Nations, 2007b).

Additionally, the lack of awareness may not enable the FOAT framework to optimise its inherent benefits of participation, transparency, accountability and enhanced performance of MMDAs in responding to mandates and development aspirations of constituents. Owing to the interdependence and interconnectedness among the criteria in the performance assessment model, and in conformity with the structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives, the lack of

awareness has the potential of limiting the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in achieving and sustaining local level development. It also has the potential of making the nexus dysfunctional (Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002). Moreover, it would limit the benefits that could accrue to the MMDAs as advanced by the decentralisation theory (Oates, 1972) and envisaged in the conceptual framework of this research.

District level responses on the challenges confronting the MMDAs in responding to the performance requirements were similar across the three study areas as indicated in Table 23. The key challenges with over 70 percent of the respondents in each MMDA citing them included inadequate accountability and commitment of actors, politicisation of issues and non-functional sub-district structures. In Effutu Municipality, chieftaincy disputes was one of the key challenges, while in AOB District, inadequate accountability on FOAT was not perceived as a challenge because the leadership provided feedback on the FOAT to the General Assembly and heads of departments.

All the two regional level respondents corroborated the perceptions of the MMDA level respondents regarding the key challenges by citing similar issues in their responses to interview items. As noted in the preceding sub-sections, these challenges have the potential of making the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus dysfunctional (Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2002).

**Table 23: Challenges in responding to the FOAT performance requirements by Assembly**

Challenges	Assembly			
	CCMA <i>n=50</i>	Effutu <i>n=25</i>	AOB <i>n=30</i>	Total <i>n=105</i>
Non-functional SDS	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	28 (93.3)	96 (91.4)
Politicisation of issues	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	26 (86.7)	94 (89.5)
Inadequate commitment of actors	40 (80.0)	22 (88.0)	22 (73.3)	84 (80.0)
Inadequate communication and information flow	35 (70.0)	19 (76.0)	20 (66.7)	74 (70.5)
Inadequate central government funding	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)
Low revenue base	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)
Inadequate accountability	47 (94.0)	23 (92.0)	0 (0.0)	70 (66.7)
Inadequate understanding of the FOAT requirements	32 (64.0)	17 (68.0)	18 (60.0)	67 (63.8)
Poor documentation and record keeping	28 (56.0)	13 (52.0)	15 (50.0)	56 (53.3)
Chieftaincy disputes	0 (0.0)	24 (96.0)	0 (0.0)	24 (22.9)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)

### Improving the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool framework

Suggestions elicited from the respondents across the regional and MMDA levels to improve the MMDAs' responsiveness to the FOAT requirements yielded results that could enhance the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus as envisaged in the conceptual framework. Table 24 presents the suggestions which were similar across the three study areas.

**Table 24: Suggestions for improving the FOAT framework by Assembly**

Suggestions	Assembly			
	CCMA <i>n=50</i>	Effutu <i>n=25</i>	AOB <i>n=30</i>	Total <i>n=105</i>
Strengthen education and sensitisation of actors	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	28 (93.3)	96 (91.4)
Avoid politicisation of issues	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	26 (86.7)	94 (89.5)
Strengthen accountability	47 (94.0)	23 (92.0)	22 (73.3)	92 (86.6)
Strengthen commitment of leaders and followers	40 (80.0)	22 (88.0)	22 (73.3)	84 (80.0)
Empower followers to demand accountability	40 (80.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	80 (76.2)
Establish and make sub-district structures functional	35 (70.0)	19 (76.0)	26 (86.7)	80 (76.2)
Assess of utilisation of FOAT capacity building interventions	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)
Assess the ability of leaders to motivate followers	32 (64.0)	17 (68.0)	18 (60.0)	67 (63.8)
Assess the impact of the RCC and national level support to MMDAs	32 (64.0)	17 (68.0)	18 (60.0)	67 (63.8)
Involve MMDAs in reviewing FOAT criteria and indicators	28 (56.0)	13 (52.0)	15 (50.0)	56 (53.3)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)

The major suggestions made by over 70 percent of the respondents in each study area focused on strengthening accountability by adopting mechanisms to hold leaders accountable for their performance, empowering the followers to demand accountability, and avoiding politicisation of issues to enhance

commitment of leaders and followers. Others were strengthening education and sensitisation of leaders and followers on their roles and responsibilities, and establishing, resourcing and making the sub-district structures functional to provide opportunities for participation and accountability at the local level.

All the two respondents at the regional level corroborated the responses at the MMDA level and further suggested the need to strengthen involvement of the RCC in addressing the capacity gaps of the MMDAs in the FOAT administration. These suggestions by the respondents have the potential of enhancing the responsiveness of the decentralised local government system to leadership, participation and performance as envisaged in the conceptual framework (Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, 2006; Kendie & Mensah, 2008; Shah, 2006; United Nations, 2007a; 2007b).

### **Improving leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system**

Consistent with the force-field model (Lewin et al., 1939) and the conceptual framework, the interview items elicited data on the perceptions of respondents about challenges confronting the leadership of the MMDAs in the management of development interventions and to suggest ways to overcome the challenges. Similar challenges were perceived by the respondents across the three study areas as indicated Table 25.

**Table 25: Challenges facing leadership in managing development interventions by Assembly**

Challenges	Assembly			
	CCMA <i>n=50</i>	Effutu <i>n=25</i>	AOB <i>n=30</i>	Total <i>n=105</i>
Non-functional sub-district structures	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	28 (93.3)	96 (91.4)
Politicisation of issues	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	26 (86.7)	94 (89.5)
Inadequate commitment, ownership and sustainability of interventions	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Weak linkage and coordination between central administration and other departments	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Continued allegiance of departments to sector ministries and departments	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Inadequate resources	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Slow progress in fiscal decentralisation	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Development needs of constituents inadequately addressed	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Inadequate skills and knowledge of MMDCEs and MMDCDs to administer policies & programmes	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79 (75.2)
Duplication of functions	35 (70.0)	19 (76.0)	20 (66.7)	74 (70.5)
Inadequate follower participation and transparency in decision making and implementation of interventions	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)



The key challenges were similar to those accounting for the inadequate performance of MMDAs under the FOAT administration. They included non-functional sub-district structures, weak linkage and coordination among the central administration and other departments leading to duplication of functions, inadequate resources, slow progress in fiscal decentralisation, and politicisation of issues. Other key challenges were unmet expectations of the constituents, inadequate participation and commitment, as well as inadequate skills and knowledge of MMDCEs and MMDCDs to administer development policies and programmes. These challenges corroborate those provided by the regional level respondents and enumerated by Ahwoi (2010), Asante (2009), Gyimah-Boadi (2009), Offei-Aboagye (2009) and Kendie and Martens (2008).

However, the inadequate skills and knowledge of the MMDCEs and MMDCDs cited by 75.2 percent of the respondents contradicts the earlier response by over 80 percent of the same respondents that the MMDCEs and MMDCDs were capable and competent due to their good knowledge and skills. A key factor attributed to the dissatisfaction with the leadership capabilities by about 80 percent of the regional and MMDA level respondents was the behaviour of MMDCEs in politicising issues. A respondent at the district level noted that: “the MMDCEs mostly politicised issues and had the tendency to politically interfere with operations of the Assemblies.” This confirms the context-specific nature of perception and multiple realities expounded in the perception theory (Saal & Moore, 1998; Starbuck & Mezias, 1996).

The two regional level respondents reported that:

Implementation of the decentralised system of local government in Ghana has stagnated as there have not been any significant shifts in key areas for operationalising the systems and structures. Establishment and functioning of the sub-district structures and fiscal decentralisation continue to be major challenges to the reform process.

The inadequate establishment of systems and structures confirms the United Nations' (2007) assertion that decentralisation policies were initiated within an integrated and holism perspective, but the principles were not carried through to implementation. However, the regional level respondents stated that: "in a bid to operationalise fiscal decentralisation, the executive has directed MMDAs to prepare composite budgets for 2012. This required that MDAs which had been decentralised were not to budget for their district offices for 2012."

As envisaged in Local Government Act 1993, Act 462, and grounded in the systems thinking perspective and structural-functionalist paradigm of this research, the District Assembly was meant to operate as an integrated whole. It was intended that the decentralised departments and agencies of central government would work directly under the supervision of the District Assemblies for the purposes of day-to-day administration, recruitment, performance appraisal, training and promotion (Ahwoi, 2010; Kendie & Mensah, 2008). However, in the three study areas, it was observed that the expected integrated system was still in its embryonic stage. About 75.2 percent of the district level respondents indicated that there were weak

linkages and coordination between the central administration and other departments in the management of development interventions.

Similarly, 75.2 percent of the district level respondents indicated that many departments continued to respond more to the instructions of their national headquarters than to those of the MMDAs due to the absence of clearly defined linkage and coordination arrangements between the central administration and the departments. They explained that some heads of departments failed to attend meetings when invited to do so. The NGOs and Community Based Organisations (CBOs) also operated in isolation with very limited linkages to the activities of the MMDAs. This is an affirmation of Kendie and Mensah's (2008) concern about inadequate integration and coordination of the activities of the departments of the MMDAs. The implications of this weak linkage and coordination include lack of direction and control, and duplication of efforts (United Nations, 2007a).

The two regional level respondents indicated that there were inconsistencies in the legislations governing the local government systems and as a result, decentralisation had encountered conceptual difficulties in terms of misinterpretation by the sectors. They noted that before the review of the Decentralisation Policy in April 2010, education and health as key sectors of the district economy were not part of the local government system. They rather operated as deconcentrated bodies at the district level. The revised policy, therefore, sought to bring education and health under the direct control of the MMDAs. However, the respondents raised concerns about inherent challenges regarding the prerogative to hire and fire, the impossibility of merging services

which were both established by law, and the limited clarity on fiscal decentralisation.

The perception of the regional level respondents was that implementation of decentralisation by sectors, including education and health and how they were framed by their respective Acts namely, Education Act, 2008, Act 778 and Ghana Health Service and Teaching Hospitals Act, 1996, Act 525, was fraught with challenges. The respondents indicated that the current structure of reporting by district education and health directorates was both horizontal and vertical in nature and was likely to remain the same. However, the horizontal reporting happened only when request was made by the Assemblies. They indicated that the situation was likely to undermine the influence of leadership at the central administration of the Assemblies and make the education and health departments still tied to the regional and national authorities as asserted by Ahwoi (2010), Kendie and Mensah (2008) and Kessieh (2007).

The regional level respondents reported that in a bid to expedite the decentralisation process, the Government of Ghana had shown commitment by reviewing the policy and setting up an Inter-ministerial Coordinating Committee (IMCC) and Decentralisation Task Force, tasked with the responsibility to provide guidance in addressing unfinished business. Nonetheless, the respondents stated that in practice not much had happened in terms of the inter-ministerial engagement to coordinate implementation efforts to address pertinent issues to effectively propel the decentralisation process.

The main objective of local level development policy is to facilitate improvement in the living conditions of the people by enhancing accessibility to a

wide range of services (Kendie & Martens, 2008). This is to be achieved by promoting accelerated development in specific areas to enhance productivity and quality of life, providing socio-economic infrastructure and achieving spatial equity in rural-urban development in the allocation of public investment. In addition, adequate infrastructure and services were to be provided in deprived areas.

However, the majority (77.9%) of the total respondents across the regional, MMDA and community levels indicated that development needs of the constituents had not been adequately identified and addressed by the MMDAs. The respondents attributed the inability to respond to the development needs of constituents to inadequate resources, poor follower participation and performance of the leadership. They explained that there was inadequate transparency in the decision-making and implementation of development interventions, inadequate information sharing and dissemination and politicisation of issues in the leadership process.

In order to improve the management of development interventions, 85 percent of the total respondents advocated the need to address development needs, avoid political interference and improve participation, information sharing and communication. In addition, they stressed the need for adequate resourcing of the various structures of the MMDAs, and enhanced commitment, ownership and sustainability of development interventions. Table 26 further outlines suggestions made by the district level respondents to improve the management of development interventions.

**Table 26: Suggestions for improving management of development interventions by Assembly**

Suggestions	Assembly			
	CCMA <i>n=50</i>	Effutu <i>n=25</i>	AOB <i>n=30</i>	Total <i>n=105</i>
Share vision and direction for development	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	28 (93.3)	96 (91.4)
Avoid politicisation of issues	45 (90.0)	23 (92.0)	26 (86.7)	94 (89.5)
Strengthen commitment of actors	40 (80.0)	22 (88.0)	22 (73.3)	84 (80.0)
Strengthen the capacity of MMDCEs to deliver	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79(75.2)
Strengthen involvement of actors	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79(75.2)
Strengthen relationship between departments	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79(75.2)
Strengthen team work	38 (76.0)	20 (80.0)	21 (70.0)	79(75.2)
Establish, resource make sub-district structures functional	35 (70.0)	19 (76.0)	20 (66.7)	74 (70.5)
Improve information sharing and communication	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)
Empower followers to use their initiatives and demand accountability	32 (64.0)	18 (72.0)	22 (73.3)	72 (68.6)
Improve participation	32 (64.0)	17 (68.0)	18 (60.0)	67 (63.8)
Strengthen capacity of actors	32 (64.0)	17 (68.0)	18 (60.0)	67 (63.8)
Address development needs	28 (56.0)	13 (52.0)	15 (50.0)	56 (53.3)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey (2011)

The key suggestions cited by over 70 percent of the respondents in each district included sharing the vision and direction for development, strengthening the capacity of the MMDCEs to deliver, strengthening participation and commitment of both the leaders and followers as well as avoiding politicisation of issues. Other key suggestions were establishing, resourcing and making sub-district structures functional, strengthening the relationship between the central administration and other departments, strengthening involvement of followers and team work.

The regional level respondents corroborated the suggestions of the district level respondents and further suggested the need to raise the standard of qualification for the MMDCE and MMDCD positions to infuse some level of professionalism into the positions. They expressed concern about the tendency of some MMDCEs to request the transfer of some heads of departments on the pretext that they were unable to work with them and noted that professionally competent leaders would be circumspect in exercising such powers.

The respondents at the regional level also suggested that decentralisation had to be viewed as an on-going process to be refined overtime and not as an event. They noted that efforts at deepening implementation of the policy was partly addressed by adoption of the National Decentralisation Action Plan (NDAP I) from 2004 - 2008. Following implementation of NDAP I, government set in motion a large-scale popular consultation process in 2009, reviewed the policy and prepared an NDAP II covering the period 2010 – 2013. However, they noted that there had not been any systematic programme to drive the pace of implementation to achieve specific milestones within stipulated time periods.

The regional level respondents further suggested that implementation of the decentralisation process required revitalisation as there had been slow operationalisation of the systems since its inception. They cited Local Government Service Act, 2003 (Act 656) as an example of a law that had been in place without operationalisation until the coming into force of the Local Government Instrument, 2009, LI 1961. Subsequently, 30,000 civil servants were offloaded to the LGS and deployed to the MMDAs on 22<sup>nd</sup> March 2011. Operationalisation of LI 1961 had also made the appointment of MMDCDs open and would no more be the preserve of the administrative class. Thus, the opportunities for the MMDAs to recruit and retain more responsive leadership had been broadened.

## **Summary**

The chapter has discussed the key findings of the study in response to the third, fourth and fifth research questions. In relation to the third research question, it was found that the FOAT framework focused more on MMDAs' response to policies, legal and regulatory requirements and paid less attention to leadership approaches. Discussions on the fourth and fifth research questions provided suggestions for improving the FOAT framework, leadership and performance that centred on enhancing accountability, avoiding politicisation of issues in the leadership process and strengthening interrelationships between the central administration and other departments.



## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMENDATIONS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter brings the research journey to its logical conclusion by first revisiting the research process by way of survey. Secondly, it presents the major findings of the study, and thirdly draws the relevant conclusions. Fourthly, it makes appropriate recommendations based on the findings and conclusions, and fifthly outlines contributions to knowledge and the literature. Finally, it suggests areas for further research.

#### **Summary**

This study set out to examine leadership and performance in the decentralised system of local government in the Central Region of Ghana. It examined the leadership approaches in terms of behaviours, qualities and interrelationships with followers. It also examined how the leadership approaches influenced participation and performance and analysed the FOAT framework from a leadership perspective. In addition, the study has discussed ways of improving the FOAT framework and enhancing leadership and performance.

The research philosophical foundations was built on broad theoretical perspectives, including structural functionalism, systems thinking, decentralisation, leadership and participation to underscore the interrelationships between decentralisation, leadership and performance. The mixed-methods

research and descriptive study designs were adopted. Multi-stage sampling procedures were used to select a sample of 989 respondents.

The sample comprised the Regional Coordinating Director and the Economic Planning Officer at the regional level, the political and administrative leaders at the district level as well as community members. Cape Coast Metropolis, Effutu Municipality and Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa District were purposively selected. Both primary and secondary data sources were used in the study. Interview schedules were employed for collecting the primary data and content analysis, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

#### Main findings of the study

The main findings of the study are presented in line with the specific objectives as follows:

#### Leadership approaches in the management of development interventions

1. About 84 percent (83.9%) of the respondents at the regional and district levels perceived the leadership of the Assemblies as the exclusive preserve of the administrative and political top hierarchy of the Assemblies due to the positions they held. Other key actors, including HoDs and community leaders such as chiefs, queen mothers, opinion leaders and CSO leaders who were in positions to influence the planning and implementation of development interventions were not considered as part of the leadership;
2. Mixed leadership behaviours were exhibited by the leadership of the MMDAs. However, MMDCEs, MMDCDs and HoDs were generally

perceived by respondents as autocratic rather than democratic and the Assembly persons democratic rather than autocratic;

3. MMDCEs, MMDCDs and HoDs were rated relatively higher in capabilities and competence than the Assembly persons by the district level respondents. This was based on their academic and professional qualifications, depth of experience, ability to respond to legal and regulatory requirements, as well as their performance in the FOAT administration. The leadership approaches in terms of behaviour, qualities and interrelationships were not considered.
4. The ratings of the Assembly persons were attributed to their lower academic and professional backgrounds and inadequate response to mandates. However, the community level respondents rated the competence and capabilities of their Assembly persons higher due to their ability to mobilise and involve community members in decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation activities; and
5. Although the majority (71.4%) of the respondents at the district level perceived the interrelationships among the leadership and between the leaders and followers as at least cordial, a number of challenges were encountered. They included inadequate involvement of decentralised departments in the planning and implementation of projects, inadequate resources to facilitate collaboration, inadequate coordination and dual allegiance of the departments to the Assemblies and their regional and national headquarters.

## Leadership approaches, participation and performance

1. Between 60 percent and 89 percent of the respondents at the district level perceived that the leadership approaches at the various levels promoted participation. Although variations existed in responses by district, there were no statistically significant differences as indicated by chi-square test results;
2. The modes of participation included information sharing, consultations and involvement in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. These are at the lower rungs of the ladder of participation. Between 11 percent and 40 percent of the respondents at the district level who indicated that the leadership approaches at the various levels did not promote participation attributed this to politicisation of issues, inadequate communication, information sharing and dissemination, and the tendency to impose development interventions on the followers. In the Effutu Municipality, it included chieftaincy disputes and the failure to qualify for the DDF; and
3. Over 55 percent (55.2%) of the respondents at the district level indicated that the leadership approaches did not influence performance. This was attributed to politicisation of issues by both the leaders and followers, inability of the leaders to mobilise adequate resources for development activities and low levels of involvement of followers in the decision-making and implementation processes. Although variations existed in the responses by district, there were no statistically significant differences as indicated by chi square test results.

## Leadership and the FOAT framework

1. The FOAT framework focused largely on response to policy, legal and regulatory requirements. There was little focus on leadership and how the leadership approaches elicited participation and responsiveness to performance requirements; and
2. The majority (72% and 70.7%), of the district level respondents respectively perceived the FOAT framework as eliciting participation and accountability. However, the leadership was not held accountable for the MMDAs' performance. Awareness about the FOAT was very low, less than 30 percent (27.8%) of the respondents were aware of the FOAT and there were no mechanisms and avenues for holding leaders accountable for performance.

## Improving the FOAT framework from a leadership perspective

1. According to the respondents at the regional and district levels, the FOAT framework should be improved by encouraging the commitment of the leaders and followers through increased participation, capacity building, information sharing, as well as education and sensitisation of the actors at all levels on the FOAT framework. They also suggested that the MMDAs should be adequately resourced at all levels to enhance performance; and
2. The regional and district level respondents also suggested that the leadership should be held accountable for the performance of the MMDAs in the FOAT administration. In addition, they suggested that the followers should be empowered to demand accountability from the leaders, while

avoiding politicisation of issues in the management of development interventions.

### Improving leadership and performance in the decentralised local government system

In order to improve leadership and performance, the regional and district level respondents recommended that the leadership, including the MMDCs, MMDCDs, HoDs and Assembly persons should develop and share vision and direction for development in the MMDAs by increasing involvement of followers in the decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions. They should develop the skill to empower the followers to use their initiatives, as well as strengthen the relationships between the central administration and other departments of the Assemblies; and

The regional and district level respondents also suggested that the MMDAs should be adequately resourced to enable them establish and make the sub-district structures functional to enhance participation, leadership and performance.

### Conclusions

The primary objective of the decentralised system of local government is to ensure development with focus on growth and equity. This largely depends on leadership and performance of the various actors at the local level. The key

findings from the study point to relevant conclusions that could be drawn. They include the fact that:

1. Leadership was perceived as a position and not an influence relationship. This limited commitment and ownership in pursuing development interventions. Also mixed leadership behaviours were exhibited by the leaders depending on the accountability expectations of the leaders and followers, as well as other situations and circumstances under which the leaders operated;
2. Leadership qualities were perceived in terms of the academic qualifications, professional backgrounds, depth of experience of the leaders and not the extent to which the leaders were able to motivate followers to enhance performance. Furthermore, the interrelationships between the leadership of the central administration and other departments were found to be weak as a result of the dual allegiance of the departments to the MMDAs and their regional and national headquarters;
3. The leadership approach in terms of behaviour, qualities and interrelationships influenced participation as they elicited involvement, commitment and ownership by the followers. However, followers were engaged at the lower rungs of the ladder of participation precluding delegated power, partnership and citizen control.
4. Leadership was not perceived as a key element in the performance of MMDAs. The focus was more on response to the legal and regulatory requirements, as well as the dictates of the political and administrative hierarchy;

5. The FOAT framework focused on efficiency and effectiveness issues with little focus on leadership regarding accountability for performance of the MMDAs. Mechanisms and opportunities for holding the leaders accountable had not been provided and awareness about the FOAT, especially at the community level was very low. This limited the inherent benefits of transparency, openness and accountability of the FOAT framework;
6. There was general inadequate appreciation of the interrelationships, interconnectedness and interdependence between leadership and performance in the study areas. Leadership and performance issues were pursued independently of each other without addressing them holistically; and
7. Elements in each of the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus were pursued as individual issues and not from a holistic perspective. This precluded the achievement of enhanced decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus.

## **Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

1. The Institute of Local Government Studies (ILGS), Local Government Service Secretariat (LGSS) and the Decentralisation Secretariat of MLGRD should undertake capacity building, awareness creation and sensitisation of the leadership of the Assemblies (MMDCEs, MMDCDs,



Assembly persons and HoDs) to appreciate leadership not as a position, but an influence relationship and to employ appropriate mix of leadership behaviours in given contexts to enhance participation and performance. They should also create awareness among the leadership of the MMDAs to perceive leadership as a key element in the performance of the Assemblies and to appreciate the interdependence, interrelationship and interconnectedness among leadership, decentralisation and performance;

2. The MMDCEs, MMDCDs, HoDs and Assembly persons should undertake capacity building, awareness creation and sensitisation of followers at all levels to enable them appreciate the interdependence, interrelationship and interconnectedness among leadership, decentralisation and performance. This would enable both the leaders and followers to pursue development interventions holistically and in an interdependent and interconnected manner;
3. The ILGS, LGSS and Decentralisation Secretariat of MLGRD in collaboration with the National Commission on Civic Education (NCCE), the media and governance related CSOs should design mechanisms such as awareness creation, sensitisation and capacity building of the general public to hold leaders accountable for MMDAs' performance in responding to mandates, development aspirations of constituents and the FOAT administration;
4. In order to enhance participation, the MMDCEs, MMDCDs, HoDs and Assembly persons should engage the followers at the higher rungs of the ladder of participation such as involvement in decision-making,

- empowerment, delegated power, partnership and citizen control in addition to the lower rungs of the ladder of participation. This could be done by increasing the followers' involvement in the decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions;
5. The MMDCEs, MMDCDs, HoDs and Assembly persons should provide leadership in strengthening collaboration between the central administration and other departments. This should be done through regular meetings and follow-ups, as well as involvement of all HoDs in decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development interventions in the MMDAs. In collaboration with the LGSS and ILGS, the leadership of the MMDAs should develop standard organisational structures with clear mandates and accountability requirements for operationalisation by the MMDAs to strengthen linkage and coordination among departments and their Assemblies;
  6. The Decentralisation Secretariat of MLGRD in collaboration with the Central Regional Coordinating Council and the MMDAs should review the FOAT framework to include assessment of the performance of the leaders in evolving mechanisms to increase participation and motivate followers to respond to performance requirements;
  7. The ILGS, LGS, NCCE and the MMDA leadership, in collaboration with the media and CSOs, should undertake awareness creation and sensitisation of the leaders and followers in the Assemblies to enable them eschew politicisation of issues and chieftaincy disputes in order to strengthen collaboration among actors at all levels to enhance performance; and

8. The MLGRD in collaboration with the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning and the MMDAs should develop and operationalise revenue generation and fund allocation mechanisms to ensure that resources are committed to establishing and making functional the sub-district structures (Area, Zonal, Town Councils and Unit Committees). This would bridge the leadership gap at the sub-district level, as well as enhance participation and performance.

### **Contributions to knowledge and literature**

The study has demonstrated the relevance of the theoretical underpinnings of decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus as expounded in Chapters Three and Four and informed by the structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives. The relevance is also grounded in the decentralisation theory, dependency, co-dependency and participation in the leadership process. In their broadest sense, an appreciation of the perspectives informing each theory was revealed. The structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives were central to understanding the interrelationships, interconnectedness and interdependence among the leadership approach, participation and performance in the decentralised local government system.

The theoretical bases are consistent with the broad framework of decentralised local government system, leadership and performance in responding to the development aspirations of the people and achieving sustained local level development. Decentralisation as a policy is based on the assumption that decisions made at the local level better reflect the needs of the local population. As

has been discussed in Chapters Three and Four, decentralisation, leadership and performance issues have been approached as separate and fragmented and not interrelated, interdependent and interconnected components that form a complex unified whole.

The use of structural-functionalist and systems thinking perspectives provided the background to understanding that decentralisation issues are as important as leadership and performance requirements. With this in view, the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus provided the means for utilising systems thinking and structural-functionalist paradigms. Subsequently, this research contributes to the existing literature by demonstrating the applicability of the structural-functionalist and systems thinking paradigms into designing a framework for improving leadership to elicit participation in enhancing performance to achieve the objectives of decentralisation and local level development. The insights from this research demonstrate the theoretical application of this study and its relevance.

Furthermore, there appears to be little empirical studies in the decentralisation, leadership and performance arena that have used the structural-functionalist and systems thinking paradigms to establish the interrelationships, interdependence and interconnectedness among them. Additionally, the decentralisation, leadership and performance model used in the conceptual framework with the aid of the force-field model have enabled the identification of the enabling and constraining factors in the decentralised local government system to inform policy and practice. This crucial information has provided insights into the current decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus.

Empirical evidence provided by this study contributes to informing and supporting identification of leadership and performance requirements that should enhance the FOAT framework. It seeks to promote responsiveness of leadership in the decentralised local government system in Ghana in achieving sustainable local level development. It is hoped that by applying the systems thinking approach, this study would become a reference point to overcome the difficulties in achieving sustainable local level development.

### **Suggestions for further research**

Although the study found that there was inadequate accountability in the leadership process in the decentralised system of local government, as well as political interference and politicisation of issues in the leadership process, the study could not go further into these issues as they were not its focus. Further insights into these could inform the adoption of leadership processes that can enhance responsiveness of the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in achieving sustainable local level development. Due to time and resource constraints the study focused on only three MMDAs in one region out of the 170 MMDAs and 10 regions.

The insights from this study, therefore, provide avenues for future research into three key areas. First, there is the need for further studies into how political interference and politicisation of issues in the leadership process in the MMDAs impact on participation and performance in the management of development interventions in the decentralised local government system.

Secondly, further research is needed to examine how the accountability processes in the decentralised local government system could be improved. Leadership, accountability and performance relationships are as important as the leadership, decentralisation and performance nexus and need to be analysed empirically.

Finally, this study has to be replicated in the remaining nine regions and other MMDAs so that more comprehensive nationwide picture of the current situation of the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus in achieving sustainable local level development could be obtained. Such analysis, together with the findings of the present study, would provide more robust evidence for developing a national policy on enhancing the decentralisation, leadership and performance nexus.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ASSEMBLY PERSONS**

This interview schedule is being administered as part of a research being conducted for a PhD degree in Development Studies. Information provided would be strictly confidential and would be used for only the purpose intended. Your candid opinion on the issues would be very much appreciated.

**For official use**

Code: ..... Date of interview: .....

Name of interviewer:..... District .....

Community/Electoral areas.....

**Section A: Background information**

- 1. Designation of respondent ..... 2. Number of years in position.....
- 3. Sex         Male         Female
- 4. Educational Background:  Diploma  Bachelor's degree  
 Master's degree  Other (specify) .....

**Section B: Leadership approach and participation**

11. Who provides the vision and direction for development in your district? (Tick {√} as appropriate).
- a ] District Chief Executive         b ] Assembly Persons
  - c ] Coordinating Director         d ] Heads of decentralised departments
  - e ] Chiefs         f ] Other (specify).....

12. Who constitute the leadership in your district? (Tick {√} as appropriate).

- [ a ] District Chief Executive      [ b ] Assembly Persons  
 [ c ] Coordinating Directors      [ d ] Heads of decentralised departments  
 [ e ] Chiefs      [ f ] Other (specify).....

13. Are the leadership competent to manage the district?

- [ a ] Yes      [ b ] No      [ c ] Don't know  
 [ d ] Give reasons for your answer ... ..  
 .....

14. Are the leaders managing the district well?

- [ a ] Yes      [ b ] No      [ c ] Don't know  
 [ d ] Give reasons for your answer.....  
 .....

15. Does the leadership approach at the various levels of your district promote participation by followers?

Level	Responses		If yes, how?
	Yes	No	
a) Assembly			
b) Central administration			
c) Sub-structure			
d) Decentralised departments			
e) Community			

16. Does the leadership approach enable followers to do the following? Use the table below for your responses.

Issue	Yes	No	If yes, how?
a) Feel enthusiastic about contributing to management of development interventions in the district			
b) Take responsibility for development of the district			
c) Ensure sustainability of development interventions			

**Section C: Performance assessment**

17. Is your district performing well in responding to its mandates?

[ a ] Yes                      [ b ] No

[ c ] Give reasons for your answer.....

18. Are you aware of the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool (FOAT) performance assessment?

[ ] Yes    [ ] No

19. If yes, what was the performance of your district in 2008 and 2009 and why?

Year	Performance in Qualifying for District Development Facility			
	Qualified	Failed	Don't Know	Reasons for level of performance
2008				
2009				



3) By informing the followers about the vision and goals.

4) By aligning the vision and goals to the aspirations of the followers.

5) Any other (please specify) .....

24. Does the leadership approach at the various levels facilitate transparency, openness and accountability?

[ a ] Yes

[ b ] No

25. What is your opinion on the following (tick (√) appropriately)?

a. Style of leadership amongst the following:

Leadership	Style of leadership		
	Directive and instructive	Depends on followers for decisions and actions	Involves followers in decisions and actions
Assembly persons			
MMDCE			
MMDCD			
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)			
Heads of decentralised depts.			
Sub-Structures			
Civil Society Organisations			

b. Capabilities of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil Society Organisations					

c. Concern for others by the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

d. Integrity (honesty) of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

e. Self confidence of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

f. Inter-relationships among leaders and followers

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very strong	Strong	Neutral	Weak	Very weak
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

26. Any other comments.....

.....



## APPENDIX B

### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR REGIONAL OFFICIALS

This interview schedule is being administered as part of a research being conducted for a PhD degree in Development Studies. Information provided would be strictly confidential and would be used for only the purpose intended. Your candid opinion on the issues would be very much appreciated.

#### For official use

Code: ..... Date of interview .....

Name of interviewer:..... Region: .....

Name of ministry, department or agency .....

#### Section A: Background information

1. Designation of respondent ..... 2. Number of years in position.....

3. Sex [ ] Male [ ] Female

4. Educational Background: [ a ] Diploma [ b ] Bachelor's degree

[ c ] Master's degree [ d ] Other (specify) .....

#### Section B: Performance assessment

5. What was the overall performance of the MMDAs in 2008 and 2009?

a. Minimum condition for District Development Fund (DDF) qualification

Year	Qualification for DDF	
	Number qualifying	Number failing to quality
2008		
2009		

b. Performance measures

Year	Performance (Number of MMDAs*)				
	Very Good	Good	Average	Poor	Very poor
2008					
2009					

\* Very Good = 80-100%; Good = 61-79%; Average = 50-60%; Poor = 40-49%;  
 Very Poor = Below 40%.

6. How strongly does the FOAT performance assessment requirements elicit the following (Tick √ as appropriate)?

Rating of FOAT	Participation	Accountability
Very strong		
Strong		
Neutral		
Weak		
Very weak		

7. Give reasons for your answer.....  
 .....

**Section C: Leadership and participation**

8. Who provides the vision and direction for development in the MMDAs? (Tick {√} as appropriate).

- [ a ] District Chief Executive      [ b ] Assembly Persons
- [ c ] Coordinating Directors      [ d ] Heads of decentralised departments
- [ e ] Chiefs      [ f ] Other (specify).....

9. Who constitute the leadership at the MMDA level? (Tick {√} as appropriate).

- [ a ] District Chief Executive      [ b ] Assembly Persons
- [ c ] Coordinating Directors      [ d ] Heads of decentralised departments
- [ e ] Chiefs      [ f ] Other (specify).....

10. Are the leadership at the MMDA level able to elicit responsiveness of the district to its mandates to enhance performance?

- [ a ] Yes      [ b ] No
- [ c ] Give reasons for your answer.....

11. Does the leadership approach at the various levels of the MMDAs promote participation by followers? Use the table below for your responses.

Level	Responses		If yes, how?
	Yes	No	
a) Assembly			
b) Central administration			
c) Sub-structure			
d) Decentralised departments			
e) Community			

12. Does the leadership approach enable followers to do the following?

Issue	Yes	No	If yes, how?
a) Feel enthusiastic about contributing to management of development interventions			
b) Take responsibility for development of the district			
c) Ensure sustainability of development interventions			

**Section D: Improving leadership and management**

13. Are the followers at the various levels of the district structures made aware of the vision and goals of your district?

- [ a ] Yes [ b ] No

14. If yes, how are the followers at the various level of the district structure made aware of the vision and goals of your district? (tick {√} as appropriate).

Level	Ways of creating awareness**				
	1	2	3	4	5
a) Assembly					
b) Central administration					
c) Sub-structure					
d) Decentralised departments					
e) Community					

Key: \*\* Ways of creating awareness:

- 1) By consulting the followers in the decision making processes.
- 2) By involving followers in the vision and goal formulation processes.
- 3) By informing the followers about the vision and goals.
- 4) By aligning the vision to the aspirations of the followers.
- 5) Any other (please specify) .....

15. Does the leadership approach at the various levels facilitate transparency, openness and accountability?

- [ a ] Yes [ b ] No

16. What is your opinion on the following (tick (✓) appropriately)?

a. Style of leadership amongst the following:

Leadership Group	Style of leadership		
	Directive and instructive	Depends on followers for decisions and actions	Involves followers in decisions and actions
Assembly persons			
MMDCE			
MMDCD			
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)			
Heads of decentralised depts.			
Sub-Structures			
Civil Society Organisations			

b. Capabilities of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil Society Organisations					

c. Concern for others by the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

d. Integrity (honesty) of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

e. Self confidence of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

f. Inter-relationships among leaders and followers

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very strong	Strong	Moderate	Weak	Very weak
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised depts					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

17. Any other comments.....

.....

**APPENDIX C**

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR POLITICAL HEADS, CORE STAFF AND  
HEADS OF DECENTRALISED DEPARTMENTS**

This interview schedule is being administered as part of a research being conducted for a PhD degree in Development Studies. Information provided would be strictly confidential and would be used for only the purpose intended. Your candid opinion on the issues would be very much appreciated.

**For official use**

Code: ..... Date of interview .....

Name of interviewer:..... District .....

Name of ministry, department or agency .....

**Section A: Background information**

- 1. Designation of respondent ..... 2. Number of years in position.....
- 3. Sex         Male         Female
- 4. Educational Background:  Diploma         Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree  Other (specify) .....

**Section B: Management of MMDAs**

- 5. How would you describe the working relationship between the decentralised departments and central administration in your district?
- a ] Very cordial         b ] Cordial         c ] Neutral
- d ] Not cordial         e ] Not at all cordial



6. What challenges does the central administration encounter in working with the decentralised departments or vice versa to achieve local level development?  
 .....

7. Has this affected implementation of the decentralisation policy?

[ a ] Yes                                  [ b ] No

8. Give reasons for your answer .....

**Section C: Performance assessment**

9. What was your performance in the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool (FOAT) assessment in 2008 and 2009 regarding qualification for the District Development Fund (DDF) and performance measures?

a. Minimum condition for DDF qualification

Year	Qualification for DDF	
	Qualifying	Failed to quality
2008		
2009		

b. Performance measures

Year	Performance rating*				
	Very good	Good	Average	Poor	Very poor
2008					
2009					

\*Very Good = 80-100%; Good = 61-79%; Average = 50-60%; Poor = 40-49; Very

Poor = Below 40

10. How strongly do the FOAT performance assessment requirements elicit the following?

Rating of FOAT Requirements	Participation	Accountability
Very strong		
Strong		
Neutral		
Weak		
Very weak		

11. Give reasons for your answer.....  
 .....

**Section D: Leadership and performance of MMDAs**

12. Are the leadership at the various levels able to elicit responsiveness to the district's mandates to enhance performance?

[ a ] Yes

[ b ] No

[ c ] Give reasons for your answer.....

13. Are the followers at the various levels of the district structures made aware of the vision and goals of your district?

[ a ] Yes

[ b ] No

14. If yes, how are the followers at the various level of the district structure made aware of the vision and goals of your district? (tick {√} as appropriate).

Level	Ways of creating awareness**				
	1	2	3	4	5
a) Assembly					
b) Central administration					
c) Sub-structure					
d) Decentralised departments					
e) Community					

Key: \*\* Ways of creating awareness:

- 1) By consulting the followers in the decision making processes.
- 2) By involving followers in the vision and goal formulation processes.
- 3) By informing the followers about the vision and goals.
- 4) By aligning the vision to the aspirations of the followers.
- 5) Any other (please specify) .....

15. Does the leadership approach at the various levels facilitate transparency, openness and accountability?

[ a ] Yes

[ b ] No

**Section E: Leadership and participation**

16. Who provides the vision and direction for development in your district? (Tick {√} as appropriate).

[ a ] District Chief Executive

[ b ] Assembly Persons

[ c ] Coordinating Directors

[ d ] Heads of decentralised departments

[ e ] Chiefs

[ f ] Other (specify).....

17. Who constitute the leadership in your district? (Tick {√} as appropriate).

- [ a ] District Chief Executive      [ b ] Assembly Persons  
 [ c ] Coordinating Directors      [ d ] Heads of decentralised departments  
 [ e ] Chiefs      [ f ] Other (specify).....

18. Does the leadership approach at the various levels of your district promote participation by followers? Use the table below for your responses.

Level	Responses		If yes, how?
	Yes	No	
a) Assembly			
b) Central administration			
c) Sub-structure			
d) Decentralised departments			
e) Community			

19. Does the leadership approach enable followers to do the following? Use the table below for your responses.

Issue	Yes	No	If yes, how?
a) Feel enthusiastic about contributing to management of development interventions in the district			
b) Take responsibility for development of the district			
c) Ensure sustainability of development interventions			

**Section F: Improving leadership approach and management**

20. What is your opinion on the following (tick (√) appropriately)?

a. Style of leadership amongst the following:

Leadership	Style of leadership		
	Directive and instructive	Depends on followers for decisions and actions	Involves followers in decisions and actions
Assembly persons			
MMDCE			
MMDCD			
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)			
Heads of Decentralised Dept.			
Sub-Structures			
Civil Society Organisations			

b. Capabilities of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil Society Organisations					

c. Concern for others by the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

d. Integrity (honesty) of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

e. Self confidence of the leadership

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

f. Inter-relationships among leaders and followers

Leadership group	Rating				
	Very strong	Strong	Moderate	Weak	Very weak
Assembly persons					
MMDCE					
MMDCD					
Others (DFO, DPO, DBO)					
Heads of Decentralised Dept.					
Sub-structures					
Civil society organisations					

21. Any other comments.....  
 .....

**APPENDIX D**

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNITY MEMBERS**

This interview schedule is being administered as part of a research being conducted for a PhD degree in Development Studies. Information provided would be strictly confidential and would be used for only the purpose intended. Your candid opinion on the issues would be very much appreciated.

**For official use**

Code: ..... Date of interview: .....

Name of interviewer:..... District .....

Sub-District..... Community.....

**Section A1: Background information**

1. Designation of respondent ..... 2. Number of years in position.....

3. Sex [ ] Male [ ] Female

4. Educational Background: [ a ] Diploma [ b ] Bachelor's degree

[ c ] Master's degree [ d ] Other (specify) .....

**Section B: Leadership approach and participation**

5. Is the Assembly person competent to manage the community?

[ a ] Yes [ b ] No [ c ] Don't know

[ c ] Give reasons for your answer .....

6. Is your Assembly Person managing community well?

[ a ] Yes [ b ] No [ c ] Don't know

[ d ] Give reasons for your answer.....





13. What is your opinion on the following (tick (√) appropriately)?

a. Style of leadership of the Assembly Person:

- Directive and instructive
- Depends on followers for decisions and actions
- Involves followers in decisions and actions

b. Capabilities of the Assembly Person:

- Very Good
- Good
- Fair
- Poor
- Very Poor

c. Concern for others by the Assembly Person:

- Very High
- High
- Neutral
- Low
- Very Low

d. Integrity (honesty) of the Assembly Person:

- Very High
- High
- Neutral
- Low
- Very Low

e. Self confidence of the Assembly Person:

- Very High
- High
- Neutral
- Low
- Very Low

f. Inter-relationships between the Assembly Person and followers:

- Very High
- High
- Neutral
- Low
- Very Low

14. Any other comments.....

## **APPENDIX E**

### **INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR RESPONDENTS AT THE REGIONAL AND DISTRICT LEVELS**

#### **Section A: Leadership and participation**

1. How does the leadership approach at the various levels promote participation?
2. In what ways does the leadership approach facilitate transparency, openness and accountability?
3. How can the leadership approach be improved to enhance participation?

#### **Section B: Improving management of development interventions**

4. What challenges confront leadership at the various levels of the MMDAs?
10. What suggestions do you have for improving management of development interventions at the various levels?

#### **Section C: Improving leadership and performance**

11. What informed adoption of the FOAT performance framework?
12. What factors contributed to the level of performance of the districts in 2008 and 2009?
13. What challenges do the districts face in responding to the FOAT performance requirements?
14. What mechanisms are in place to support the districts to improve performance?
11. How can the FOAT performance framework be improved?

**Appendix F: Perceptions of leadership behaviours at the various levels by Assembly**

Behaviour of leadership	Assembly		Levels										Total								
	N	%	MMDCE	N	%	MMDCD	N	%	Others	N	%	DDs	N	%	Sub-stru	N	%	CSOs	N	%	
<b>Cape Coast</b>																					
Autocratic	4	11.1	18	48.6	20	52.6	25	78.1	21	61.8	16	37.2	13	27.1	117	43.7					
Laissez faire	10	27.8	6	16.2	5	13.2	2	6.3	2	5.9	10	23.3	13	27.1	48	17.9					
Democratic	22	61.1	13	35.1	13	34.2	5	15.6	11	32.4	17	39.5	22	45.8	103	34.4					
<b>Total</b>	36	100.0	37	100.0	38	100.0	32	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	48	100.0	268	100					
<b>Effutu</b>																					
Autocratic	3	13.0	8	25.8	8	25.8	8	34.8	9	37.5	6	27.3	11	45.8	53	29.8					
Laissez faire	6	26.1	7	22.6	6	19.4	3	13.0	3	12.5	7	31.8	1	4.2	33	18.5					
Democratic	14	60.9	16	51.6	17	54.8	12	52.2	12	50.0	9	40.9	12	50.0	92	51.7					
<b>Total</b>	23	100.0	31	100.0	31	100.0	23	100.0	24	100.0	22	100.0	24	100.0	178	100.0					
<b>Asikuma–Odoben-Brakwa</b>																					
Autocratic	7	28.0	9	25.7	9	25.0	10	30.3	8	23.5	10	30.3	7	21.9	60	26.3					
Laissez faire	4	16.0	7	20.0	7	19.4	6	18.2	7	20.6	5	15.2	7	21.9	43	18.9					
Democratic	14	56.0	19	54.3	20	55.6	17	51.5	19	55.9	18	54.5	18	56.3	125	54.8					
<b>Total</b>	25	100.0	35	100.0	36	100.0	33	100.0	34	100.0	33	100.0	32	100.0	228	100.0					

The total number of responses is more than the number of respondents due to multiple responses

Source: Field survey (2011)

**Appendix G: Perceptions of the leadership's capabilities at the various levels by Assembly**

Capabilities of leadership	Assembly		MMDC		Others		DDs		Sub-stru		CSOs		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Cape Coast</b>														
Very Good	13	25.0	14	28.1	8	15.6	6	12.5	2	3.1	2	3.1	59	16.9
Good	20	40.6	34	68.8	34	68.8	33	65.6	20	40.6	18	37.5	195	55.7
Fair	15	31.3	2	3.1	8	15.6	11	21.9	20	40.6	25	50.0	81	23.1
Poor	2	3.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	9.4	5	9.4	12	3.4
Very Poor	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	6.3	0	0.0	3	0.9
<b>Total</b>	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	350	100.0
<b>Effutu</b>														
Very good	3	11.1	16	61.1	8	33.3	5	20.0	0	.0	1	5.6	47	26.9
Good	14	55.6	8	33.3	11	44.4	13	52.0	13	52.0	7	27.8	76	43.4
Fair	7	27.8	0	.0	5	16.7	6	22.2	11	44.4	17	66.7	46	26.3
Poor	1	5.6	0	.0	1	5.6	1	5.6	0	.0	0	.0	4	2.3
Very poor	0	.0	1	5.6	0	.0	0	.0	1	5.6	0	.0	2	1.1
<b>Total</b>	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	175	100.0
<b>Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa</b>														
Good	8	26.7	21	70.0	24	80.0	18	46.6	7	23.3	5	16.6	97	46.2
Fair	14	46.6	9	30.0	6	20.0	9	46.6	9	30.0	13	45.0	74	35.2
Poor	8	26.7	0	.0	0	.0	3	5.0	14	46.6	12	40.0	39	18.6
<b>Total</b>	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	210	100.0

The total number of responses is more than the number of respondents due to multiple responses

Source: Field survey (2011)

**Appendix H: Perceptions on the leadership's concern for others at the various levels**

Level	Concern for others by leadership					Total
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low	
Assembly persons	33(30.7)*	43(40.0)	31(29.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
MMDCE	56(52.0)	36(33.4)	14(13.3)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
MMDCD	41(38.7)	47(44.0)	18(16.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Other Heads of Departments	26(24.0)	43(40.0)	37(34.7)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Decentralised Departments	23(21.3)	44(41.4)	36(33.3)	4(4.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Sub-structures	10(9.3)	35(32.0)	57(53.3)	4(4.0)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	6(5.3)	39(36.0)	60(56.0)	1(1.3)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>195 (26.0)</b>	<b>287 (38.3)</b>	<b>253 (33.8)</b>	<b>11 (1.5)</b>	<b>3 (0.4)</b>	<b>749 (100.0)</b>

\*Percentages are in parenthesis

Source: Field survey, 2011

**Appendix I: Perceptions of the leadership's concern for others at the various levels by Assembly**

Concern for others by leadership	Levels															
	Assembly		MMDCE		MMDCD		Others		DDs		Sub-struct		CSOs		Total	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Cape Coast</b>																
Very high	19	37.5	20	40.6	14	28.1	5	9.4	5	9.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	63	17.9
High	17	34.4	22	43.8	28	56.3	26	53.1	23	46.9	20	40.6	23	46.9	161	46.0
Neutral	14	28.1	8	15.6	8	15.6	19	37.5	19	37.5	25	50.0	23	46.9	115	33.0
Low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	6.3	3	6.3	2	3.1	8	2.2
Very low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.1	2	3.1	3	0.9
<b>Total</b>	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	350	100.0
<b>Effutu</b>																
Very high	8	33.3	20	77.8	13	50.0	10	38.9	8	33.3	6	22.2	1	5.6	66	37.7
High	11	44.4	4	16.7	10	38.9	4	16.7	6	22.2	3	11.1	6	22.2	44	24.6
Neutral	6	22.2	0	0.0	1	5.6	10	38.9	10	38.9	15	61.1	18	72.2	60	34.3
Low	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	0	0.0	4	2.3
Very low	0	0.0	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5
<b>Total</b>	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	175	100.0
<b>Asikuma—Odoben-Brakwa</b>																
Very high	8	25.0	18	60.0	16	55.0	12	40.0	11	35.0	5	15.0	5	15.0	73	35.0
High	16	55.0	12	40.0	12	40.0	15	50.0	17	60.0	13	45.0	12	40.0	99	47.1
Neutral	6	20.0	0	0.0	2	5.0	3	10.0	2	5.0	12	40.0	13	45.0	38	17.9
<b>Total</b>	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	210	100.0

Source: Field survey (2011)

**Appendix J: Perceptions of the leadership's integrity at the various levels**

Level	Integrity					Total
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low	
Assembly persons	21(20.0)	41(38.7)	41(38.7)	3(2.7)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
MMDCE	39(36.0)	43(40.0)	24(22.7)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
MMDCD	39(36.0)	47(44.0)	21(20.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Other Heads of Departments	19(17.3)	57(53.3)	27(24.0)	6(5.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Decentralised Departments	19(17.3)	63(58.7)	24(22.7)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Sub-structures	6(5.3)	49(45.3)	47(44.0)	4(4.0)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	6(5.3)	40(37.3)	57(53.3)	3(2.7)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
Total	149 (20.0)	340 (45.04)	241 (32.2)	17 (2.3)	3 (0.4)	749 (100.0)

Percentages are in parentheses

Source: Field survey, 2011



**Appendix K: Perceptions of the leadership's integrity at the various levels by Assembly**

Integrity/honesty of leadership	Levels												Total			
	Assembly		MMDCCE		MMDCD		Others		DDs		Sub-stitu			CSOs		
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		f	%	
<b>Cape Coast</b>																
Very high	12	25.0	11	21.9	13	25.0	5	9.4	3	6.3	2	3.1	3	6.3	49	14.0
High	17	34.4	28	56.3	28	56.3	28	56.3	36	71.9	28	56.3	23	46.9	188	53.7
Neutral	19	37.5	11	21.9	9	18.8	12	25.0	11	21.9	14	28.1	19	37.5	95	27.1
Low	2	3.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	9.4	0	0.0	5	9.4	3	6.3	15	4.0
Very low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.1	2	3.1	4	1.1
<b>Total</b>	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	350	100.0
<b>Effutu</b>																
Very high	1	5.6	14	55.6	13	50.0	6	22.2	6	22.2	1	5.6	0	0.0	40	23.0
High	13	50.0	6	22.2	7	27.8	11	44.4	11	44.4	8	33.3	4	16.7	60	34.1
Neutral	11	44.4	4	16.7	5	22.2	7	27.8	7	27.8	16	61.1	21	83.3	71	40.5
Low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.6	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.6
Very low	0	0.0	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.8
<b>Total</b>	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	18	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	175	100.0
<b>Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa</b>																
Very high	9	30.0	15	50.0	15	50.0	9	30.0	11	35.0	3	10.0	3	10.0	65	30.7
High	14	45.0	12	40.0	15	50.0	21	70.0	19	65.0	15	50.0	15	50.0	111	52.9
Neutral	6	20.0	3	10.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	40.0	12	40.0	33	15.7
Low	1	5.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.7
<b>Total</b>	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	210	100.0

Source: Field survey (2011)

**Appendix L: Perceptions of the leadership's self-confidence at the various levels**

Level	Self-confidence					Total
	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	Very low	
Assembly persons	30(28.0)	43(40.0)	34(32.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
MMDCE	30(28.0)	43(40.0)	32(29.4)	1(1.3)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
MMDCD	60(56.0)	37(34.7)	9(8.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Other Heads of Departments	37(34.7)	47(44.0)	19(17.3)	4(4.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Heads of Decentralised Departments	34(32.0)	53(49.4)	19(17.3)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Sub-structures	6(5.3)	36(33.3)	61(57.4)	3(2.7)	1(1.3)	107(100.0)
Heads of Civil Society Organisations	31(29.3)	26(24.0)	46(42.7)	4(4.0)	0(0.0)	107(100.0)
Total	228 (30.4)	285 (38.0)	220 (29.4)	14 (1.9)	2 (0.3)	749 (100.0)

Percentages are in parenthesis

Source: Field survey, 2011

**Appendix M: Perceptions of the leadership's self-confidence by Assembly**

Self confidence of leadership	Assembly F	Levels										Total f	Total %			
		%	f	MMDCE %	f	MMDCD %	f	Others %	f	DDs %	f			Sub-stru %	f	CSOs %
<b>Cape Coast</b>	16	31.3	25	50.0	25	50.0	11	21.9	13	25.0	0	0.0	17	34.4	106	30.4
Very high	23	43.8	3	6.3	1	3.1	8	15.6	6	12.5	20	40.6	13	25.0	158	45.1
High	0	0.0	2	3.1	0	0.0	3	6.3	0	0.0	3	6.3	1	3.1	9	2.7
Low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.1	0	0.0	2	0.4
Very low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0	350	100.0
<b>Effutu</b>	4	16.7	17	66.7	17	66.7	13	50.0	10	38.9	1	5.6	11	44.4	73	41.3
Very high	11	44.4	7	27.8	7	27.8	7	27.8	8	33.3	4	16.7	3	11.1	47	27.0
High	10	38.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	16.7	6	22.2	20	77.8	11	44.4	50	28.6
Neutral	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	2.4
Low	0	0.0	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.8
Very low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0	175	100.0
<b>Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa</b>	12	40.0	21	70.0	21	70.0	15	50.0	14	45.0	4	15.0	4	15.0	92	43.6
Very high	12	40.0	9	30.0	9	30.0	15	50.0	17	55.0	14	45.0	12	40.0	87	41.4
High	6	20.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	40.0	11	35.0	28	13.6
Neutral	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	10.0	3	1.4
Low	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	30	100.0	210	100.0

Source: Field survey (2011)

**Appendix N: Perceptions of the leadership's interrelationships with followers by Assembly**

Inter-relationship among leaders/ followers	Assembly		MMDCE		MMDCD		Others		DDs		Sub-stru		CSOs		Total	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Cape Coast</b>																
Very strong	17	34.4	14	28.1	17	34.4	6	12.5	3	6.3	2	3.1	3	6.3	62	17.9
Strong	22	43.8	29	59.4	28	56.3	28	56.3	28	56.3	14	28.1	15	28.1	164	46.9
Neutral	9	18.8	5	9.4	5	9.4	13	25.0	19	37.5	29	59.4	29	59.4	110	31.3
Weak	2	3.1	2	3.1	0	0.0	3	6.3	0	0.0	5	9.4	3	6.3	14	4.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>350</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Effutu</b>																
Very strong	13	50.0	17	66.7	11	44.4	11	44.4	10	38.9	3	11.1	1	5.6	65	37.3
Strong	8	33.3	6	22.2	10	38.9	6	22.2	7	27.8	3	11.1	3	11.1	42	23.8
Neutral	4	16.7	1	5.6	3	11.1	7	27.8	7	27.8	18	72.2	19	72.2	58	33.3
Weak	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	1	5.6	7	4.0
Very weak	0	0.0	1	5.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.6	3	1.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>175</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa</b>																
Very strong	12	40.0	15	50.0	12	40.0	8	25.0	12	40.0	8	20.0	6	20.0	70	33.6
Strong	12	40.0	12	40.0	15	50.0	17	55.0	12	40.0	8	25.0	9	30.0	84	40.0
Neutral	6	20.0	3	10.0	3	10.0	4	15.0	6	20.0	14	55.0	14	45.0	53	25.0
Weak	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.0	3	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field survey (2011)

**INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES  
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**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

We write to introduce to you **Adom Baisie Ghartey**, a student pursuing PhD (Development Studies) programme with Registration Number **SS/DSA/09/003** at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast.

He is writing his thesis on the topic: **Leadership and Performance of Decentralized Local Government System in the Central Region of Ghana.**

We shall be grateful if you can accord him all the necessary assistance that he requires for his thesis.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'P.K. Mensah'.

**P.K. Mensah  
(ASST. REGISTRAR)**

**FOR: DIRECTOR**

cc: Director, IDS, UCC.

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