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**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

# COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SUSTAINABILITY OF THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

**BY**

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

**AUGUST, 2015**

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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.

Candidate's Name: Jacinta Martina Annan

Signature ……. Date ……

## Supervisor's Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor's Name: Dr Angela Akorsu

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Co-Supervisor's Name: Dr David Wellington Essaw

Signature ……. Date ……



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## ABSTRACT

The main purpose for this study was to explore community participation and sustainability of the School Feeding Programme (SFP), examine the existence of community participation within the implementation of the SFP, examine the essence for the sustainability of the programme and assess how community participation contributes to the sustainability of the SFP in CCMA.

The study design adopted was qualitative with focus group discussion guide and key informants interview guide as instruments to collect data from key informants and community members.

The study revealed that not much was done at the grass roots level by communities in the implementation of the intervention. Communities recognise prospects for the sustainability of the programme but their deprivation had prevented them from benefiting from the intervention. Besides, communities recognised that their participation could largely contribute to the sustenance of the SFP in CCMA. The findings indicate that basic amenities to start the programme was lacking and regular monitoring and supervision will sustain the programme. Based on the findings, it is recommended that, programme planners engage in serious field work and regular supervision to ensure that policy guidelines were complied with. Also, community members should support the programme managers since active participation by communities could lead to the sustenance of the programme. The programme significantly provided prospects for sustainability in two ways which are sustainability in relation to community participation and financial sustainability from government.




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## DEDICATION

To my parents, Mr John Jude Kwamena Annan, Mrs Monica Annan and all men and women interested in changing the standard of living of the poor in our society.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| ADB | African Development Bank |
| ADRA | Adventist Development and Relief Agency |
| ANC | African National Congress |
| BA | Beneficiary Assessment |
| BFPP | Bangladesh Food Policy Project |
| CAADP | Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme |
| CCMA | Cape Coast Metropolitan Area |
| CDD | Community Driven Development |
| CRS | Catholic Relief Services |
| CSO | Civil Society Organisation |
| DA | District Assembly |
| DCD | District Co-ordinating Director |
| DCE | District Chief Executive |
| DDO | District Desk Officer |
| DFO | District Finance Officer |
| DIC | District Implementation Committee |
| EFA | Education For All |
| FAA | Financial Administration Act |
| FFE | Food For Education |
| FPEI | Free Primary Education Initiative |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GES | Ghana Education Service |
| GET Fund | Ghana Education Trust Fund |
| GOB | Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh |



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| | |
|---|---|
| GOG | Government of Ghana |
| GSFP | Ghana School Feeding Programme |
| GSS | Ghana Statistical Service |
| HGSF | Home Grown School Feeding |
| HGSFHP | Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme |
| HGSFP | Home Grown School Feeding Programme |
| IFPRI | International Food Policy Research Institute |
| MCNP | Mother and Child Nutrition Policy |
| MDGs | Millennium Development Goals |
| MDO | Metropolitan Desk Officer |
| MEO | Metropolitan Education Office |
| MMDAs | Metropolitan Municipal District Assemblies |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |
| MoEYS | Ministry of Education Youth and Sports |
| MoFA | Ministry of Food and Agriculture |
| MOF's | Ministry of Food's |
| MoFEP | Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning |
| MoH | Ministry of Health |
| MoLGRD | Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development |
| MoWAC | Ministry of Women and Children |
| MP | Member of Parliament |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| NS | National Secretariat |
| PCD | Partnership for Child Development |
| PLP | Presidential Lead Project |



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| | |
|---|---|
| PRA | Participatory Rural Appraisal |
| PSC | Programme Steering Committee |
| PSNP | Primary School Nutrition Programme |
| PTA | Parent Teacher Association |
| RCC | Regional Co-ordinating Council |
| RCOs | Regional Co-ordinating Offices |
| RDP | Reconstruction and Development Programme |
| SA | Social Analysis |
| SSA | Sub-Saharan Africa |
| SSC | Social Service Committee |
| SEND | Social Enterprise Development Organization |
| SFC | School Feeding Committee |
| SFL | Schools For Life |
| SFP | School Feeding Programme |
| SIC | School Implementation Committee |
| SIF | Social Investment Fund |
| SIGN | School Feeding Initiative Ghana Netherlands |
| SMC | School Management Committee |
| SNV | Netherlands Development Agency |
| THR | Take Home Ration |
| UNICEF | United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund |
| WFP | World Food Programme |
| WGTFI | Working Group on Targeted Food Interventions |
| WVI | World Vision International |



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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## Background to the study

Development has been one of the most ambiguous terms in social sciences discourse and it continues to generate debate among scholars as a result of various viewpoints. From the perspective of Schumacher (1973), development does not start with goods; rather it starts with people, their education, organization and discipline. According to Schumacher, without these three dimensions, all resources remain latent, untapped and potential. Pieterse (2001) defines development as the organised intervention in collective affairs according to a standard of improvement. Anyidoho (2010) writes that in the quest for paradigms of development, policymakers and practitioners agree on the basic principles that development should be fundamentally about people.

According to Chambers (1983), policy making in development involves actors positioned in social, economic and political systems with various amounts of resources to push their interests. Sen (1999) states that policy debates on development have over-emphasized income poverty and income inequality, to the neglect of deprivations such as unemployment, ill health, lack of education and social exclusion. Sen indicates that greater freedom enhances the ability of people to help themselves through participation which is central to the process of development. The purposes of



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development policy initiatives are to improve the socio-economic well-being of people so that they live healthier and fuller lives within any given political entity (Morvaridi, 2008). The over emphasis on economic development has resulted in other paradigms of development which looks at other phases of development.

Participation is a process of involving socially and economically marginalised people in decision-making over their own lives. Soussan (2004) indicates that at the heart of the participatory approach to development is the notion that individual communities can create their own development in a way that meets their specific needs. According to Cooke and Kothari (2007), the aim of participation is to make "people" central to development by encouraging beneficiary involvement in interventions that affect them and over which they previously had limited control or influence. Anyidoho (2010), states that it is an attempt to correct the traditional top-down approach from centralised to decentralised units. Participation is emerging out of the recognition of the shortcomings of early development approaches where beneficiaries had the least say in policy making and implementation.

There are various levels of participation within the development process. Cleaver (1999) conceptualizes participatory levels more broadly with regards to empowerment and efficiency. According to Cleaver, levels of participation involves not only the relationship between differently placed individuals and spatially specific social structures, but also the role of individuals, households, communities, development agencies and the state. The African Development Bank (ADB) (2001) indicates that levels of participation can take different forms, depending on the breadth of



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stakeholders involved and the depth of their participation. The ADB identifies six progressive levels where the first three constitute consultation and the last three constitute deeper and more meaningful levels of participation.

Oakley (1991) defined community participation as the process by which individuals, families, or communities assume responsibility for their own welfare and develop a capacity to contribute to their own and the community's development. In the context of development, community participation refers to an active process whereby beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of development projects rather than merely receive a share of project benefits.

Substantial measures have been introduced with the aim of promoting community participation. The question is not solely one of how to promote community participation, who should participate or why the need for bottom-up approach and why increased community participation is seen as desirable. Community participation plays significant role in community development. The evidence is that as communities engage in development programmes, they tend to own the programme and it has been reported that it leads to sustainability of development interventions (Del Rosso, 1999). According to Pieterse (2001), community participation plays significant role in mainstream development and makes development people-centred as people become part of their own development process. Pieterse asserts that it is now generally accepted that development efforts have been successful where communities are involved and are allowed to participate.

Community participation is justified in terms of sustainability, relevance and empowerment (Cooke & Kothari, 2007). According to



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conservative calculations, the World Bank's lending for Community Driven Development (CDD) projects has gone up from $325 million in 1996, to $2 billion in 2003. This trend is supported by empirical evidence suggesting community participation is an unqualified good in terms of project outcomes and sustenance (Khwaja, 2004). Community participation and sustainability of projects have become central to the repertoire with which the World Bank has sought to remake public face (Francis, 2007).

There is evidence that community participation to development interventions can largely lead to the sustainability of development projects. Similarly, referring to the experience of rural development programmes, Shrimpton (1989) states that community participation in the design and management of projects greatly enhances the likelihood of project success due to improved goodness of fit and increased sustainability. Cleaver (1999) indicates that it ensures a more efficient delivery of development and inculcation of desirable attitudes such as responsibility, ownership, co-operation, collective endeavour and empowerment. The issue of sustainability cannot be detached from the ongoing process of community development and participation (Kendie & Martens, 2008).

Programme sustainability has been an issue of growing concern in recent time. According to Oakley (1991), sustainability underlines the maintenance of its effects and the continuance of its purposes even after the withdrawal of the intervention. Oakley declares that for sustainability to be achieved, the primary stakeholders must own the project and support it in the long term. Kendie and Martens (2008) indicate that attention should be given to local culture and community-based decision-making, where beneficiaries



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play significant roles from the start to the end of the programme. Sustainability is also a community capacity building strategy where models such as community-level change and community development can provide appropriate conceptual perspective to build problem-solving abilities of beneficiaries.

Attention is currently placed on the long-term viability of development intervention as policy makers and funding agencies have become increasingly concerned with allocating scarce resources towards programme sustainability (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998). Kendie and Martens (2008) indicate that sustainability looks at the maintenance of the world resources for the betterment of people in the community. They argue that for development to be sustainable, the socio-political well-being of the individual must become central to the development policy and practice. Strategies to attain sustainable development are also changing as a result of the emphasis placed on the industrial development planning. Strategies such as good governance with attributes like participation and responsiveness are now seen as the path to sustainable development.

The sustainability of any intervention depends largely on the structures society put in place. The theoretical underpinning of the study consists of the institutional theory and collective action theory. The institutional theory is of relevance in order to achieve sustainability. Institutions are the concrete pillars of organised behaviour with system of values to enter existing organisations. Ostrom (1990) defines institutions as the set of working rules to determine who is eligible to make decisions, actions to be allowed or constrained, rules to be applied, procedures to be followed, information to be provided and the



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payoffs assigned to individuals upon their actions. Garson (2008) declares that institutions are embedded with values and social structures sanctioned by structures, norms and values of society. The relevance of the theory is that it creates checks and balances to facilitate cooperation, reduce transactional costs and political uncertainties as it provides avenues upon which interventions could be sustained.

The perspective known as institutional theory addresses the question of whether the presence of institutions is important for the sustainability of interventions. The theory provides a rich, complex view as organizations are influenced by normative pressures arising from external sources such as the state or within the organization itself (Zucker, 1987). In this context the study identified that community level sustainability is underpinned by the collective bargain whilst the Government role as far as sustainability is concerned has to do with its theoretical base from the institutional theory.

Theory of collective action emerged from dissatisfaction and failures of many of the rural development programmes of the 1960s and 1970s. The development paradigms of this period assumed that communities would wilfully engage in collective activities, with little time and scrutiny to understand the conditions that action could be sustained. According to Barham and Chitemi, (2008), conditions that bring collective action include small group size, clearly defined boundaries, shared norms, past successful experiences, appropriate leadership, interdependence among group members, homogeneity of identities and interests and low levels of poverty.

The Government of Ghana (GOG) has introduced various interventions such as the Capitation Grant, the SFP and provision of Free School Uniforms



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to encourage children to attend school (Etsey, Smith, Gyamera, Koka, De Boer, Havi & Heyneman, 2009; Offei-Ansah, 2010). The GOG in its bid to improve human capital development through education require children of school going age to be educated to have a certain frame of mind. The SFP is a GOG poverty intervention to achieve development through community participation. The purpose is to provide a ready market for local farm produce, leading to wealth creation for rural households (GSFP, 2005). The SFP strategy falls within the ambit of the United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), namely MDG 1 which aims to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger among deprived communities and MDG 2 to achieve universal primary education (Tomlinson, 2007).

The effort of community members can significantly lead to the implementation and sustainability of development interventions and the SFP is not an exception. The indication is that since community members are the direct beneficiaries and stakeholders of social protection interventions, their roles towards its sustenance is of essence. Pieterse (2001) reiterates that community participation makes development participatory and people-centred as people become part of their own development process and work towards owning the programme. These and other reasons have prompted the need to conduct a study that will explore how community participation can lead to the sustainability of the SFP in the Cape Coast metropolis.

**Problem statement**

Various studies have been conducted on the SFP with specific focus such as school enrolment, nutrition and health, and educational outcomes.



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Some of these studies include that of Martens (2007), on the impact of the Ghana School Feeding Programme (SFP) in four districts in the Central Region of Ghana, Offei-Ansah (2010), on the attitude of children toward formal education in fishing communities in Cape Coast Metropolis, Bondzi-Simpson (2012), on food as a conduit for poverty reduction in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area. Though there are studies on community participation, very little has been done as far as the sustainability of the intervention is concerned.

Meanwhile, community participation can arguably aid in the long term objectives of the SFP which are to reduce poverty among deprived communities, boost agricultural production in beneficiary communities and improve food security in deprived communities (GSFP, 2005). The returns of community participation and sustainability of the SFP outcomes cannot be undervalued. According to Del Rosso (1999), it provides local employment for farmers, increase household incomes for school food vendors, cooks and programme administrators.

Del Rosso adds that direct community participation in SFP is very beneficial given that as community members engage in food production, preparation and serving, they become educated on good health and sanitation practices without laying much emphasis on sustainability. Pieterse (2001) also reiterates that, it makes development participatory and people-centred as people become part of their own development process. These and other reasons have prompted the need to carry a study on community participation and the sustainability prospects of the SFP in the Cape Coast Metropolis.



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**Objectives of the study**

The general objective of the study is to explore community participation and the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area (CCMA) in the Central Region of Ghana.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

1. Examine the existence of community participation within the implementation of the School Feeding Programme.
2. Examine the essence for the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in Cape Coast Metropolitan Area.
3. Assess how community participation contributes to the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in Cape Coast Metropolitan Area.
4. Recommend measures for improving community participation within the School Feeding Programme in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area.

**Research questions**

In order to address the problem, the following research questions were addressed.

1. To what extent does community participation exist within the implementation of the School Feeding Programme?
2. What is the essence for the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in Cape Coast Metropolitan Area?
3. How does community participation contribute to the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in Cape Coast Metropolitan Area?



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**Scope of the study**

The study examined community participation and the sustainability of the SFP within the CCMA. The study specifically looked at conceptual issues such as participation and its principles. Special reference is given to the concept community participation and levels of participation with regard to the four selected communities for the study. The study also considered the levels of community participation as identified within the school feeding programme. The sustainability of development interventions and how community participation contributes to the sustainability of programmes was also discussed.

**Significance of the study**

The SFP is anticipated to have various benefits for the people in the metropolis. The programme is expected to curb the incidence of school drop-out and children who refuse to go to school because of their ideological perception that the schools have nothing to offer in terms of job opportunities, a common idea among the fishing communities in the urban areas of the metropolis (CCMA, 2012; Offei-Ansah, 2010). There is also the expectation that hunger and mal-nutrition among children who do not eat when they attend school would be reduced as a result of benefits derived from the programme. One significant benefit to the community is reduction in poverty levels.

Based on the findings, significant recommendations will be made to authorities, institutions and organizations that are involved in the SFP in the study area towards improving the programme. Specifically, the Metropolitan Education Office under the Ministry of Education, the Regional Co-ordinator



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for the SFP, the Metropolitan Desk Officer and development practitioners located in the metropolis will benefit from the findings. Although the study will be conducted in the CCMA, the findings may be relevant to other districts, municipal and metropolitan assemblies in the country. The study will also provide useful information for policy makers, researchers and non-governmental organizations interested in the SFP. It will add to existing knowledge on the SFP in the metropolis.



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# CHAPTER TWO

# REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the literature as identified in the conceptual orientation and background of the study outlined in Chapter One. The purpose is to bring to focus a fair knowledge about the concept of community participation and sustainability issues. The first part looks at definitions, meanings, conceptions of development. This section also reviews theories and approaches on community participation and sustainability in order to understand the theoretical underpinnings of these concepts in the SFP. The second part deals with concepts of the SFP and other emerging issues. The third aspect looks at empirical evidence and finally a conceptual framework that show the linkages between the main concepts of the study.

## Conceptions and approaches of development

Pieterse (2001) defines development as the organised intervention in collective affairs according to a standard of improvement. Pieterse reiterates that what constitutes improvement and appropriate intervention varies according to class, culture, historical context and relations of power. According to Porter, Binns, Elliot and Smith (2008:183), development is conceptualised as not only capital accumulation and economic growth but also



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the "condition in which people in a country have adequate food, job and income inequality greatly reduced". The process includes sustainable changes in the society. It encompasses growth, social justice, equal opportunity for citizens, equitable distribution of income and importantly the capacity of communities to participate keenly in the social engineering of their life and destiny.

Development is also the process by which a type of social change is introduced into a system in order to produce a better production method and improved social arrangement. It involves structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of a country such as the political culture, leadership and corruption **(**Rudolph & Moeti-Lysson, 2011). An operational definition is adopted from Morvaridi (2008), as the progressive improvement in the socio-economic well-being of people so that they live longer, healthier and fuller lives within any political entity.

The literature gives various conceptions of development which influenced how the various writers have defined the concept. One vital fact is that the concept has been stretched, modified and reasserted to suit different purposes (Soussan, 2004). Enu-Kwesi (2008:72) argues that "political, economic and social changes are undeniable realities of various conceptions of development". According to Potter et al. (2008:80), "ideology within academic literature has changed to emphasise political, social, ethnic, cultural and other dimensions of the wider process of development". Potter et al term the conceptions broad sets of ideas about development.

Some of the conceptions include economic conception, community development conception, alternative development and sustainable



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development (Potter et al., 2008).Economic conception of development mainly seeks the improvement in the material conditions of life. Among the material conditions include increase in the annual per capita income and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Soussan, 2004). Economists are criticised for concentrating much on efficiency and too little on equity. Although inequity had received some attention from economist throughout history, Adam Smith, "the father of Modern Economics" was deeply concerned with the gulf between the rich and the poor (Sen, 1999).

Development with time has shifted to a position conceived as community development. Development in this conception is seen as a community's problem that should be tackled as such (Soussan, 2004). Community development integrates local institutional inclusion as an integral strand of participatory approach. This is a process that is assumed to ensure a more efficient delivery of development through the inculcation of desirable characteristics among participants. The characteristics include ownership, collective endeavour and empowerment, which encourage local people to take active part in their own development process (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

Human centred conception of development places human priorities at the very heart of the development process. Sen (1999) classifies this conception of development to involve the need to assess the requirements of development in terms of removing the unfreedoms from which members of the society may suffer from. Sen is of the view that development should include social safety nets that protects the very poor by providing social services. The main objective of this conception is to develop human capacities



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and enlarge the range of people's choices to make development more democratic and participatory (Morvaridi, 2008).

One paradigm of development that is gaining much attention is alternative development. This conception deals with the introduction of practices that redefines the goals of development (Pieterse, 2001). Part of the success of this conception is that key elements have been adopted in mainstream development through participation and people-centred strategies. Also, it looks at development from below, which is geared towards basic needs, an adequate way of redefining development with emphasis on community development (Potter et al., 2008).

Finally, sustainable development was originally proposed in the World Conservation Strategy in 1980 by the Brundtland Commission (Carley & Christie, 2002). The concept has two broad groups with one advocate considering economic growth as environmentally sensitive to raise living standards globally to break the links between poverty and environmental degradation. The second option calls for radical changes in economic organization, producing much lower rates of growth (Carley & Christie, 2002). The term looks at improvement that meets the needs of the present without compromising the needs of future generations (Soussan, 2004).

**Theoretical perspectives**

Development theories are analyses that sum up past knowledge and the fusion of diverse views which are partial knowledge in general frameworks of explanations (Potter et al., 2008). Basically, two theories which are the institutional theory and collective action theory are reviewed in this section.



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**Institutional theory**

The creation of institutions that mediate between the demands in government structure is significant for the sustenance of development interventions. According to North (1990), institutions are the rules, structures and devised constraints to reduce uncertainty as they provide structures for everyday life and shape human interactions. Institutions also serve as guiding principles to control, conform and help various sectors to perform as expected for the collective benefits of all sectors.

The underlying logic according to Peters (2000) is that institutions are arrangements of rules and incentives that guide behaviour. Scott (2004) states that institutional theory attends to the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure and considers the processes by which rules become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour. Amenta and Ramsey (2010) declare that institutions can be superimposing conditions that limit some forms of action and facilitate others. In effect, institutions are systems of decision-making procedures that assign roles to participants and guide interactions among the occupants (Agyenim, 2011).

The core purpose of the theory is to positively influence long-term impacts on how decisions and policies are implemented. According to Agyenim (2011), the theory looks at the procedures, structures and systems put in place towards how policies and decisions are taken for development projects and interventions to start. The theory aims to bring policies into fruition as institutions are the scaffold upon which the survival of programmes is built. The theory is significant for interventions such as the SFP as it



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promotes compliance by building trust and creating enforcement mechanisms in circumstances where trust is weak or absent.

The characteristics of institutions according to Agyenim (2011) comprise rules that define roles and provide a social context for action with time to develop. Once the rules are developed, they have a degree of permanence. The theory also looks at plans, systems, mechanisms and procedures to stabilise society and shape the actions of individuals affected by collective choices. Agyenim states that the linkage between institutions and sustainability is significant as it affects performance of individuals and groups and serves as a guide to the actions and behaviours of groups of people whose actions are controlled by institutions.

The central idea with regards to the characteristic of the theory is that it helps to shape and sustain the direction of policy. The theory provides a stable structure for human interactions (Peters, 2000). Peters maintains that individuals come and go while the structure persists. The established structures are to satisfy the needs expressed in order to regulate societal behaviour and ensure that lay down regulations are complied with which eventually leads to the achievements of objectives set. The society will be chaotic without the structures to moderate and coordinate the interactions among the numerous needs and the limited resources. It is the structures that ensure the stability of society as it considers the needs of society against the few (limited) resources available.

According to Amenta and Ramsey (2010), institutions come in different forms which are political, historical and sociological. Political institutions focus more on processes and interaction at the meso level although



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the main theoretical framework is at the macro level where political institutions shape actors whereas historical institution considers ways in which institutions prevent change. Sociological institution is a cultural theory that focuses on the diffusion of ideas and cultural forms as organizations search for legitimacy. Agyenim (2011) indicates that sociological institutionalism is seen in every aspect of human life. They can be habits and social protocols right through to cultural templates.

In assessing institutional theory, Peters (2000) mentions four factors to be considered which are adaptability, autonomy, coherence and complexity. Adaptability concerns the extent to adapt to changes with the external environment to ensure survival. Autonomy deals with the capacity to implement decisions and the level at which the institution is independent on others for survival with resources to implement policies. Coherence is the ability to manage the core functions and develop procedures for carrying out duties without looking at other institutions for direction. Complexity is where internal structures are developed to implement various tasks to be undertaken and the structural differentiation within the institution.

Zucker (1987) reiterates that institutional theory increases the probability of survival of development interventions and programmes. The argument is that the theory has a rule-like structure which is tied to standard operating procedure. Scott (2004) also supports the above assertion and states that the theory shapes organizational systems due to its rule-like systems and efficacy to provide positive results about sustenance of programmes. From the perspective of Burch (2007), the theory considers how organizations adapt to changing conditions with regards to design and practice. The theory also aims



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at bringing better standard of living to beneficiaries through the structures put in place for now and the future through its rule-like structure which aims at producing considerable results.

There are various issues, critiques and advantages to be addressed regarding the theory. Scott (2004) admonishes that institutional arrangements are subject to forces that require the continuing resources to prevent decay and decline. The writer declares that just the presence of the structures and rules do not on their own provide results. There is therefore the need for assessment and performance of institutions that requires proper monitoring and enforcement of well set rules. The mechanisms for assessing institutional performance should also include the distribution of financial and human resources to get institutions right for sustainable development to be realised. The institutions must also be susceptible to change in order to meet the changing needs of society.

Another significant effort is the need to move beyond the functional focus to a combination of extra-institutional factors such as knowledge, skills, strategies and coordination which are essential for performance and sustainability of interventions (Agyenim, 2011). These factors when well addressed will place greater effort into the knowledge and skills needed for institutions to perform as expected for the needed results to be achieved. Just the established structures and the laid down rules and regulations alone cannot provide the needed results expected but the combination of the rules in addition to proper monitoring with dedicated leadership.

Consequently, the theory appears well positioned to make sense of and better guide the course of important development interventions. One



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significant advantage is that institutions provide policies and objectives which are rules, regulations operational plans and procedures which serve as mechanisms for the institutions. It is composed of norms, traditions, practices and customs which are in the form of by-laws as core values of organizations (Scott, 2004). Additionally, institutions define what is expected and what is regarded as rational or appropriate in a given situation. They also have dual function to both constrain and liberate individuals and group action by indicating what individuals' must or must not do to shape the vision of the world and define the identity of the actors involved.

One significant factor that matters in assessing institutional performance is to establish how well set rules are monitored and enforced. The existence of credible mechanisms for establishing monitoring and enforcing priorities and rules and the distribution of financial and human resources are necessary to get institutions right for sustainable development. Agyenim (2011) is of the view that proper monitoring of laid down rules and regulations provide positive results for the benefit of society of which the SFP, a development intervention is not an exception. Added to the above, proper allocation of human and material resources where societal priorities are not relegated to the background is of much essence.

Finally, though institutions have their own limitations, they are meant to bring about stability in any human endeavour. One significant fact is that the working document of the SFP and the laid down responsibilities at various levels from the national to the grassroots level guide the activities at various levels. Also, the laid down regulations create checks and balances which facilitate the activities and functions at the various levels. The institutional



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theory provides a guideline for compliance in relation to the SFP and its sustenance. The stabilizing effects of institutions do not mean that they are not subject to change but that as society and its priorities change, institutions codes of conduct and norms of behaviour, laws and contracts evolve and continually change the choices available to the individual. The presence of the SFP policy determines and reduces uncertainty of everyday life and shapes the actions of individuals for the success of the intervention.

**Collective action theory**

The theory of collective action emerged from dissatisfaction and failures of many of the rural development programmes of the 1960s and 1970s. The development paradigms of this period assumed that communities would wilfully engage in collective activities, with little time and scrutiny to understand the conditions that action could be sustained. According to Barham and Chitemi, (2008), conditions that bring collective action include small group size, clearly defined boundaries, shared norms, past successful experiences, appropriate leadership, interdependence among group members, homogeneity of identities and interests and low levels of poverty.

Social psychology has become interested in problems posed by social dilemma where individuals acting in their own self-interest end up being worse off than if they had considered the interest of the community. The view of Calvert (2001) is that rational choice analysts have given attention to specifying self-interest of developed democracies which is narrowly self-interested intention. Collective action theorists on the other hand argue against the rational choice models which specifically speak of the role of individual



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actions to group identity. The evidence is that power in cooperative relationships depends on the control of resources whereas bringing together offers opportunities to accomplish things as an organized group which individuals could never accomplish.

One pre-requisite is that ethnic identification requires members to contribute to the group's collective action. It also requires that each member participates in symbolic expression indicating that he or she upholds the prescribed behaviours which require that members follow prescribed ways of interacting with others to facilitate group cooperation. In addition to expressing an opinion or cooperating as a group, the identification of cultural or psychological processes are either seen as basic to human motivation or derived immediately from some form of built-in human orientation toward social groups. Such processes are often regarded as irreconcilable with rational choice accounts of human behaviour (Calvert, 2001).

Collective action theory looks at the benefits of groups than individuals and turns to change the standard of living of people. The reason why an individual would engage in collective action is that its impact and benefits are public and free with collective benefits to society. According to Offe and Wiesenthal (1980), the benefits of collective action consider equality both as logical and sociological. Moreover, the two dimensions of equality are connected in measuring social equality/inequality of income, wealth, power and prestige. The early liberal philosophers argue that an alternative set of norms would lead to greater happiness of the community as they participate in development programmes which are the purpose of collective action.



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Also, collective action at the social level is instrumental and has significant impact on the individual's well-being and they are subject to change over time even if the actors behave out of habit rather than out of calculation. Although rational choice rest on individual preferences, where the individual as a rational being would prefer their own benefits, the end results bring development to society. The emphasis here is that collective action brings development to society where the concentration of living standards is not centred on individuals but the general society. This concept is very significant as community members engage in the SFP, it benefits the larger community and also promotes community participation (Del Rosso, 1999).

It is assumed that people will find it in their rational interest to participate due to the assurance of benefits to ensue in relation to productive projects because they perceive such projects as socially responsible and in the interest of the community. Interestingly, many policy approaches make significant efforts to link collective action to social responsibility to characterise non-participation as irresponsible, and at the same time to define benefits which may in fact be long term, cumulative and community-wide (Cooke & Kothari, 2007). Collective action is vital for grassroots development, because it seeks to move the focus away from elite perspectives to those of the marginalised of which the SFP supports to raise the standard of living of the poor and make living conditions conducive for the indigent. It also opens up the question that if we can hear non-elite voices, will new social forms unfold (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

Collective action makes development meaningful to the beneficiaries of which they support fully as it meets their needs and also addresses their



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challenges. Beneficiaries also see themselves playing active roles in their own development planning. A bottom-up approach to development is more realistic in that it delivers the required outputs. Furthermore, a bottom-up approach is also seen as morally superior. Collective action is therefore planned and implemented by the beneficiaries through collective efforts which are not imposed on the people; also, beneficiaries are seen as morally bound to participate (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

One criticism is that, conflict due to distribution and ones level of contribution is assured. The question of politics is thus reduced to how much each group gets to be defined as desirable whilst the notion of collective identity embraces the totality of those who want to get it (Offe & Wiesenthal, 1980). Cooke and Kothari (2007) criticize that a public good once provided, can be consumed by everybody, regardless of whether they contributed towards it or not. This non-excludability of consumption induces free-riding without contributing to its provision. The writer argues that the approach embraces the attitude of laziness and irresponsibility among people who may not be involved in the planning and implementation of development programmes but may end up enjoying the full benefits of such interventions to the disadvantage of those who may have participated fully.

Added to the above, the economic distinction between private and public goods centres on the issue of excludability of consumption, in contrast to private goods, which can only be consumed by the purchasers. A public good once provided, can be consumed by everybody, regardless of whether they contributed towards it. This non-excludability of consumption induces free-riding without contributing to its provision. It is argued that each of these



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situations involves the provision of a public good and evidence of free-riding as well as support for the relationship between free-riding and group size is presented. Collective action stresses on solidarity within communities' processes of conflict and negotiation, inclusion and exclusion are occasionally acknowledged. The solidarity models of community upon which much development intervention is based, may acknowledge social stratification but nevertheless assume some underlying commonality of interest (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

The relevance of institutional theory and collective action theory provides a significant platform towards the realisation of development interventions. Institutional theory serves as a springboard upon which laid down structures put in place addresses the challenges at stake and also provides procedures and strategies towards the realisation of those challenges. The theory shapes human interaction and specifically addresses the question of whether the presence of institutions is important for the sustainability of interventions. The theory looks at systems of decision-making procedures through its rule-like process that assigns roles to participants and guide interactions among the beneficiaries.

In conclusion, the collective action theory specifically considers the totality of the good of a group of people classified as people with some levels of poverty and their involvement or participation in issues that affect them. The purpose of the theory is to involve beneficiaries through participatory activities. Collective action is also vital for grassroots development as it seeks to move the focus of development away from elite perspectives to those of the marginalised and stress bottom-up approach to development. Collective action



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is planned and implemented by the beneficiaries and not imposed on the people and therefore beneficiaries' participation is enhanced and also community ownership is made possible as the people are seen to be morally bound to participate fully.

## Conceptual discourses

### The concept participation

Participation in development is defined as the process through which people with an interest (stakeholders) influence and share control over development initiatives in the decisions and resources that affects them (Cleaver, 1999). In practice, this involves employing measures to identify relevant stakeholders, share information with them, listen to their views, involve them in the processes of development planning and decision-making, contribute to their capacity-building and ultimately empower them to initiate, manage and control their own self-development (African Development Bank, 2001).

Cooke and Kothari (2007) are of the opinion that participation planning may more accurately be viewed as the acquisition and manipulation of a new planning knowledge rather than the incorporation of people's knowledge by projects. The writers' argument in supporting participation are many and include the notion that development policies and practices are based on the intended beneficiaries of development that are more likely to meet the interests and needs of primary stakeholders, and that those development interventions based on local knowledge and experience are more likely to be relevant, home grown and therefore sustainable. Furthermore, the fundamental



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concern for many proponents of participatory development is that the methods used should encourage a process of empowerment (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

According to Anyidoho (2010), participation designates human beings, their priorities, knowledge, assets and well-being as the focal point of development. The concept also encourages the recognition of ordinary people as social actors, who exercise agency in cognition and behaviour and who, to a large extent, determine the success or otherwise of any policy intervention. The argument is that the concept significantly considers the end users of an intervention who are the beneficiaries whose participation to a very large extent leads to the success of planned programmes.

The term participation is operationalized depending on the context and field in which it is studied. Mohammad (2010) gives various perspective of the concept that in ancient Greece, participation was viewed as a matter of voting, holding offices, attending public meetings, paying taxes and defending the state. In modern times, participation is about sharing and it is closely linked with the concept of empowerment. The process empowers the deprived, marginalized and the excluded. Participation means partnership and active involvement of local people in the planning and implementation of projects. The process involves decision making in implementing programmes, sharing the benefits and in evaluating programmes.

Mohammad (2010) identifies four types of participation. The first type is participation in decision making, in identifying, formulating alternatives, planning activities and allocating resources. The second type is participating in implementation, in carrying out activities, managing and operating programmes and partaking in services. The next is participating in evaluation



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of the activity and outcomes and finally participation in economic, social, cultural or other benefits, individually or collectively. The four types indicate the level of participation of beneficiaries where people's involvement indicates the kind of activities to be undertaken at each level of the participatory process.

There are various levels in the participatory process which indicate the roles of participants. It is suggested that participation should start from the planning, management, delivery and evaluation stages of the project cycle. Pretty, Guijt, Thompson and Scoones (1995) distinguish seven processes ranging from low to high level. The processes begin with passive participation, participation in information giving, participation by consultation, participation for material incentives, functional participation, interactive participation and self-mobilisation. According to Cleaver (1999), participatory processes are often dichotomized into means/ends classifications. Cleaver identifies effectiveness, efficiency and available resources needed in development efforts as pre-requisites for a successful process. Also, the relevance of participatory processes is to be of low cost and high benefit to poor people with structures that protect and secure their interest.

Schilizzi (2003) identifies four processes which are termed dimensions of participation. They include participation in decision-making, participation in implementation, participation in benefits and harmful consequences and finally participation in evaluation. The writer indicates that these four processes are logically arranged and each particular stage determines the actual role to be played by the beneficiaries. Participation in decision-making focuses on the generation of ideas, the formulation and assessment of options



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and making choices about them as well as the formulation of plans for putting selected options into effect. In this process, the different stakeholders can either have the authority to make binding decisions, the possibility to influence the decision-makers, or neither. Three types of decisions to be made can be distinguished as initial, ongoing, and operational decisions.

The ongoing decisions according to Schilizzi (2003)may concern the same kinds of decisions as the initial decisions, such as the continuing search for other needs and priorities that the project might respond to, an evaluation of whether a project should continue or be terminated, and a continuing evaluation of the structure and content of established activities to best meet participants' needs. This may concern where decisions on the relocation or location of new facilities, how decisions on implementation with respect to financing, staffing, standards and enforcement, and continuing decisions on who will be required to contribute are looked at. The operational decisions relate to the specific local organisations which have been established by the project or linked to the project and focus on questions concerned with membership composition, meeting procedures, leadership selection, and influence of such organisations.

The second process according to Schilizzi (2003) is participation in implementation. The rural poor can participate in the implementation aspects of a development project in three principal ways, through resource contributions, administration and coordination and enlistment in programmes. The resource contributions refer to the question of who contributes the various kinds of inputs needed to carry out a project and how these contributions are



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made. One type of input is the provision of labour. Some construction projects may require the input of labour from local residents for their completion.

According to Schilizzi, where labour inputs are fully compensated by a salary, they can still be referred to as participation, but more as participation in an income-generating project than in a construction project. Other input types are the contribution of material inputs, such as cash or in-kind, and the provision of information about for example the tenancy status and economic capabilities to gather knowledge about local conditions and possibilities. Participation in project administration and coordination also entail participating as locally hired employees or as members of various project boards. This may increase the self-reliance of local people through training in project implementation skills and it may provide valuable inside information and advice about local problems and constraints affecting the project.

The third process is participation in benefits which includes enlistment in a project that can lead to at least three kinds of benefits such as material, social, and personal or group benefit. Material benefits are essentially private goods and are concerned with an increase in consumption, income or assets through for example a more equitable distribution or security of income or assets. Social benefits are basically public goods, such as an increase in education as it can increase productivity, welfare and power for the urban poor. Other services concern for example health services, water supply, roads or better housing.

The writer is of the view that attention should be given to the amount, distribution, relevance and quality of these services. The third benefit is that of the personal or group benefit (collective action) which focus attention on



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issues as self-esteem, as an improvement of an individual's status. Other benefit include political power which is an enhancement of a person's ability to influence authoritative decisions and a sense of efficacy, as an increase in the individual's recognition that he can play a role in the development process. These benefits are not necessarily individual in their causes or effects, but come rather to members of groups or sectors.

The final stage according to Schilizziis participation in evaluation where donors and local people may perceive participation in very different ways. The same holds true for project successes and failures. Perceptions, preferences and expectations of the project by local residents need to be compared to those of donors and project managers. The rural poor can participate in project evaluation through project-centred evaluation, political activities, and public opinion efforts. Project-centred evaluation concerns the direct or indirect participation in a formal review process or an informal consultation. Evaluation through political activities concerns voicing complaints and suggestions through elected officials, lobbying activities or demonstrations and protests. Participation in evaluative activities aim at influencing public opinion in order to achieve continuation or modification of a project.

Three significant participatory processes have currently gained much currency with regard to levels of participation. These are Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Beneficiary Assessment (BA) and Social Analysis (SA). These three approaches may be broadly distinguished and these stress on the importance of incorporating the beneficiary populations view, perception, values and priorities. These approaches have several characteristics in



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common and are justified in terms of the shortcomings of conventional development planning methods which are seen as lacking in a human or social dimension (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).

According to Chambers (1983), PRA is a method that enables rural people to share and analyse their knowledge and conditions to plan and act. PRA is a means of validating local knowledge and empowering local people to share information and stimulate discussion. According to Mensah, Enu-Kwesi and Akorsu (2008), PRA is a family of approaches that enable people to express and analyse their lives. According to Mensah et al, PRA has been found to be of great value in the way they empower communities and build their capacity to serve their needs. The approach provides a voice for the poor to express and analyse their problems and priorities.

Cooke and Kothari (2007) provides six approaches of PRA which are sitting, asking and listening, learning from the poor, learning indigenous technical knowledge, joint research dissemination, learning by working and finally stimulation games. PRA enables practitioners to learn from the many below and not just from the few above. Communities give a detailed picture of the complexity and diversity of local people's realities and provide an opportunity to gain quick and accurate assessments of the impact of policies. PRA stresses the sharing of data, offers ownership and control to respondents with appropriate measures for poverty reduction programmes. It privileges the emic or actors over the etic or observers view and use credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability to establish trustworthiness of findings and privileges visual over verbal data (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).



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Beneficiary Assessment (BA) is most associated with Salmen (1995) who defines the concept as an information gathering process which assesses the value of an activity as it is perceived by its principal user. It is a systematic enquiry into local people's values in relation to a planned or ongoing intervention for socio-economic change. BA seeks to close the gap by obtaining views from the grassroots and assessing the voice of the beneficiaries in a way which is simple. In this approach, planners extend their eyes and ears into the communities where they are carrying out projects and emphasize on the benefits associated to beneficiaries. Salmen states that the socio-political dynamics of a community are as important as the technical aspects and design of projects and may affect the sustenance of a project.

Social Analysis (SA) according to Cooke and Kothari (2007) considers the people, their society, culture and sociological involvement in development projects. The approach stresses on a missing domain being the social dimension of which people's economic activities are embedded. The role of social analyst is to identify, conceptualize and deal with the socio-cultural variables that makeup this missing domain. The caution is that even if financial aspects of the project are proceeding smoothly, socio-cultural factors work under the surface and if not addressed, the project will fail no matter which agency promotes it. The purpose is to formulate efficient social construction strategies and methods which are the social scaffolding without which the new edifice is not durably constructed.



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**Community participation**

The literature indicates that theorists formally saw development as the replacement of a traditional agriculture-based society by a modern industrial society, an approach that only included the educated elite. The mass of the population, who lacked knowledge of modern ways were excluded on the assumption that they could contribute nothing to the process. National policies were formulated and state institutions implemented them by passing instructions down their chains of command from headquarters to the grassroots (Soussan, 2004). According to Khwaja (2004) the possible reason for the failures of former programmes are attributed to the failure of top-down approaches to development and lack of community participation. Khwaja reiterates that since the 1980s, the new development slogan has been community-led development and there has been a rush to jump unto the participatory bandwagon.

From the mid-1980s, words such as participation, empowerment, bottom-up planning and indigenous knowledge have become common in development practice. The importance of indigenous knowledge and the claim to empower local people cannot be undervalued (Cooke & Kothari, 2007).The opinion of Anyidoho (2010) is that community participation is a process through which stakeholders share control over development initiatives that affect their lives. Taragon and McTiernan (2010) suggest it is about involving people in the development of the services and sites that they are affected by. The concept means beneficiaries playing active roles in projects and taking part in decision-making and delivery.



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Taragon and McTiernan (2010), further indicate that the pre-requisite for community participation should be built in from the start of a project and through to its planning, management, delivery and evaluation. Community participation can also enhance any project and should be considered as part of activities for development programmes. These activities may include learning programmes, interpretation and events to the conservation and management of heritage assets including historic buildings and also in social intervention programmes like the SFP.

The purpose of community participation in development programmes at local communities is very significant. The reason is that it provides avenues that allow the poor to be active participants in development with external agents acting mainly as facilitator and financiers. Arguments for participatory development as advocated by Chambers (1997) have led to the inclusion of participation as a crucial means of allowing the poor to have control over decisions. Furthermore, there is an emerging understanding within the development literature of the less formal institutions that operate often at the local and community levels to shape livelihoods and outcomes (Pieterse, 2001). Also, the inclusion of participatory elements in large scale development assistance came quickly at the World Bank, in Social Investment Funds (SIF) and other forms of assistance (Anyidoho, 2010).

The literature on community participation provides evidence that it leads to development projects that are more responsive to the needs of the poor. It is also responsive to government projects and better delivery of public goods and services. According to Khwaja (2004), the concept leads to better maintained community assets and a more informed and involved citizenry. An



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obvious aspect highlighted in these benefits is the role of participation as a means of providing and accessing information. When a community participates, it provides information about its preferences and gains information that may influence its optimal choice which are likely to lead to increased welfare for the community and better development projects (Khwaja, 2004).

According to Olukotun (2008), communities that are the beneficiaries of the projects should not be seen as targets of poverty reduction efforts but assets and partners in the development process. Olukotun reiterates that experience has shown that given clear rules of the game, access to information and appropriate support, poor communities can effectively organize to provide goods and services that meet their immediate priorities. This is because communities have considerable capacity to plan and implement programmes when empowered to decide and negotiate. Taragon and McTiernan (2010) also talks of transferring skills and experience which individuals gain through community participation. Other benefits include strengthening local pride, sense of community and increased quality of life.

One essential reason is that community members having enjoyed so much working and living together, having enjoyed each other's confidence and relationships, having sat together to jointly take decisions for their common goals and benefits, it is logical and reasonable to think that any attempt at breaking this bond would be minimally resisted or maximally broken and destroyed. No wonder the failure of many projects that have no element of consultation from the local people (Olukotun, 2008). The indication is that community participation can help provide positive results



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which will eventually lead to sustainability of development interventions due to the long standing bond that had existed among local people.

In conclusion, community participation creates prosperity and project sustainability. It also empowers the communities to shape their future by giving them resources and authority. The concept according to Olukotun (2008) is a new vision that seeks to put the rural people in the driver seat with a new set of powers, rights and obligations. One significant reason is that when communities are involved in project formulation, design and implementation, they are likely to be sustained and more cost effective as a result of equitable distribution of project benefit which leads to better designed projects.

Levels of community participation

There are various levels of community participation. The suggestion is that these levels should be built in from the start of a project to the end of the project cycle. These levels can enhance any project and should be considered as part of all activities, from learning programmes, interpretation and events, to the conservation and management of heritage assets, including historic buildings and parks. From the perspective of Taragon and McTiernan (2010), they outline five levels in which people within a community could participate in a project. The five levels offer increasing degrees of influence or control to the people involved. The levels are informing, consulting, deciding together, acting together and supporting others to take the lead.

The first level of community participation according to Taragon and McTiernan is informing. This level involves telling the people (beneficiaries)



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about the project to be undertaken. This might be one of the first things development practitioners do which should be viewed as preparation for more active involvement. This level is the starting point for any intervention. Informing the people who are the beneficiaries of any development project is an appropriate way of involving them. Informing the people can also be used as an introduction to consultation and more active participation as they feel valued. It is imperative to start informing the people at the planning stage of any project and give regular updates so that the people may know what is happening at each stage of the project and understand changes to the original plans.

The second stage is consulting, where the people are given choices about what will happen in the project and a chance to shape it. The first two levels of informing and consulting are important steps in any project. They are however passive ways to involving people in any project which does not fully meet the aim of participation if it only includes the first two levels. The aims of participation include informing and consulting activities alongside more substantial participation. Real participation is active and gives people a meaningful personal stake in a project. The consultation stage is when the project offer beneficiaries some say on what they are going to do. At the basic level, one might seek opinion on a limited number of options for one element of a project and at a more in-depth level one might be asking for new ideas and options by involving local communities in planning projects.

It is important that as programme planners consult, they listen to the opinions given and redraft the plans or make decisions based on the views of the beneficiaries. Beneficiaries should be consulted early enough particularly



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where decisions need to be made that will have an impact on the community. The benefits of effective and timely consultation play vital roles where the people feel they have a say and have been heard. Consultation also reduces the risks of conflict with people later in the project, provide avenue for the people to learn new information and ideas or gaining advice that will improve the project.

The next stage is deciding together and creating opportunities for people to make decisions about and influence the direction of projects. At this level, the people are to be involved in managing and organising the project and making decisions about what and how things happen throughout the project. The people can take part in a number of ways, for example, by becoming a Trustee of the organisation (with the associated legal responsibilities) or by becoming a member of a working or advisory group for the project, which is a more specific and time-limited commitment. For small community groups, this type of participation will be core to their organisation and for a community based project, most of the management will be done by members of the local community. Larger organisations may have to make changes to their governance in order to involve community representatives.

The benefits of deciding together are enormous as local people know their community best, and how decisions will affect the community. One significant benefit of involving beneficiaries in development interventions is that it brings new skills and experience to the management of the project and organisation. Including a wider range of communities and more diversity brings different points of view and new ways of looking at issues. Community participation in management is more likely to implant the project within the



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community, helping its future success and increasing the likelihood of getting more local support.

The fourth stage is acting together which creates opportunities for people to develop and deliver project while taking a role in heritage conservation and or learning activities. At this level of participation, the people contribute to the delivery of the project in practical hands-on ways. It involves deciding together and then working together to carry out the activities planned. Taragon and McTiernan (2010) term it as collaboration, co-production or co-creation. Acting together transforms people from audiences or consumers of heritage to partners in the development and delivery of heritage activities. Deciding together makes participants bring knowledge, ideas and insight to projects of how people's experience of heritage could be improved. Acting together further blurs the distinction between professionals that maintain and interpret heritage and users that learn from and enjoy it.

The benefits of acting together leads to participants increased commitment to projects. Working together brings additional resources such as time and expertise. Furthermore, new ideas and different approaches to delivering activities can motivate and inspire existing staff and volunteers and increase the success of projects. The people involved can engage directly with the target audiences, helping to build their trust, attract first timers and ensure that they have a good experience. The community also becomes a visible part of the project, generate wider interest from media and other local and or community organisations and participants build the knowledge and skills to maintain and share their heritage.



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Finally, Taragon and McTiernan, (2010) give the last level of community participation as supporting others to take the lead. The purpose is to empower the people to take ownership of the project, make final decisions and deliver activities with some independence. At this level, the balance of control tips giving a greater degree of influence to the community based organisations or people involved. This is about supporting participants to take ownership of the project or a specific part of it. The purpose is to help the people develop and carry out their own plans. As much as possible, decision-making and delivery are undertaken independently, while mentoring and professional assistance are provided where it is needed.

In conclusion, supporting others to take the lead is, however, the most empowering level for participants. Projects involving young people, in particular, often work best when they have the opportunity to lead. Some projects will start on a lower level of participation and build up to a point where participants have greater control. Community participation can involve a significant shift from providing activities for existing and potential audiences, to involving them in the development of activities. Taragon and McTiernan admonish that the level you use and the amount you are able to involve people will vary from project to project, depending on the size of your organisation, the type of project you are undertaking and your previous experience of community participation.

**Community participation within the school feeding programme**

There are various levels of participation within the participatory process of the programme. The GSFP is centralised at the national level and



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decentralised at the local level with institutional structure categorised into four main levels which are national, regional, district and local. The national level is made up of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MoLGRD), Programme Steering Committee (PSC) which is the Board and the GSFP National Secretariat (NS). The regional level is made up of the GSFP Regional Co-ordinators and Monitors. That of the district is the District Implementation Committee (DIC) chaired by the District Chief Executive (DCE) and the District Desk Officer (DDO). The last is at the local level, made up of the School Implementation Committee (SIC) chaired by the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) representative (GSFP, 2005).

Ghana faces a number of challenges within the education sector. Towards the end of the 20th Century, the GOG embarked on a review of the education sector to shape the programmes and policies in order to meet the demands of the 21st Century. Some of the outcomes were the establishment of the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GET Fund) and in recent times the SFP (Republic of Ghana, 2011). Getting children in school is one thing, but keeping them there and making sure they learn is another (UNICEF 2007).The GSFP was a mechanism to target children most in need and to curb some of the challenges identified through the educational review.

In an effort to boost enrolment rates and ensure that children were well fed, the GOG initiated two types of feeding programmes which are the Take Home Rations (THR) for girls in the three Northern regions and the provision of meals per school day in selected schools in the other seven regions. The THR was piloted as part of a NEPAD and WFP Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme (HGSFHP). The THR was designed to link SF to



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agricultural development through the purchase and provision of domestically grown food to generate a stable demand for products from local farmers (GCNF & PCD, 2011 / Buhl, n.d).

The implementation of GSFP has moved from externally-driven SF to Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF). The Partnership for Child Development (PCD) launched a new programme "PCD-HGSFP" that support government action to deliver sustainable, nationally-owned SFPs sourced from local farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). The PCD-HGSFP is supported in part by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. The purpose was to provide direct, evidence-based and context-specific support and expertise for the design and management of SFPs linked to local agricultural production (Republic of Ghana, 2011).

The literature gives indication of the enormous benefits to beneficiary communities captured under the SFP. According to the GSFP (2005), the strategy to feed school children with locally prepared food which is nutritionally adequate and focus spending on local foodstuffs. The purpose is the provision of a ready market for local farm produce which leads to wealth creation for rural households. The ready market leads to increased household incomes which also increases wealth of rural community members. This will eventually help break the cycle of rural household and community poverty.

Another argument in favour of nutrition programmes that focus on younger children is the evidence that children in poor health start school later in life, and in many cases not at all (Del Rosso, 1999). SFPs therefore serve as a bait to encourage early schooling among deprived communities. SFP also leads to development and community participation at the school level as



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members of the community become part of their own development process. The programme aids to sensitize communities on the importance of education and schooling. SFP should if given a priority in the rural schools and investments in the agricultural sector in the rural communities, would provide additional employment for the parents so that they could have additional income to supplement the seasonal agricultural income (Etsey et al., 2009).

According to Offei-Ansah (2010), the gains in participation are central to long term improvements in productivity at the community level. The benefits of community participation include reduction in inter-generational cycles of poverty, demographic transition, preventive health care and reduction in inequality. Involving community members in educational, health and nutritional programmes leads to better health and learning outcomes.Also, when community members educate their children, health and hunger must be given the same level of consideration as teacher quality and school facilities (GCNF & PCD, 2011).

SFPs also provide a safety net to families and communities such as the nomadic people in North Kenya's arid and semi-arid regions. In these locations, low-cost mobile schools have been established with feeding programmes. Children are also given food rations to take home. In this way, children provide families with access to food, resulting in a broader social safety net. WFP has been particularly active in this area. There is also empirical evidence that education and food can combat violence. In recent armed conflicts, African children have been recruited as soldiers. School-based feeding programmes are a way to bring children back to the classroom



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and keep them there. Peace can only come about when the stomach is full which eventually leads to community development (GCNF & PCD, 2011).

As SFPs run for a fixed number of days or a year and have a pre-determined food basket that provides opportunity to benefit farmers and producers. It generates a structured and predictable demand for their products, thereby building markets and the enabling systems around it. This is the concept behind HGSF, "as a quick win in the fight against poverty and hunger" (Republic of Ghana, 2011:14). According to Osei-Boateng (2011), in Africa, social benefits like the SFP have a trickle down impact on the extended family, if not the larger community. This has significant benefits for the individual, the family and the community.

According to Adow-Obeng (2012), strong family support systems are needed to enable children to achieve their dreams of which community participation and SFP can play a role. In the home and at the community level, parents must take keen interest in the education of their children through the provision of basic needs such as love, care and security for the pursuant of their academic dreams. This statement reveals the relevance and theroles of members of the community towards the attainment of educational goals at the community level. In conclusion, the relationship between community participation and SFP should be looked at especially in communities where poverty thrives, for such families to benefit from the poverty intervention in addition to helping the community to raise their standard of living.



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**Sustainability of development interventions**

The literature on the conceptual and operational definitions of sustainability yields varied opinions. According to Shediac-Rizkallah and Bone (1998), several terms have been used to refer to sustainability as programme continuation, programme maintenance, institutionalization, incorporation, integration, routinization, local or community ownership and capacity building. In the Bruntland report, Carley and Christie (2002) state that sustainability is the proper maintenance of the world resources for the betterment of its inhabitants. It is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising it for future generations.

Sustainability can be categorised into three concerns, which are project sustainability, social sustainability and environmental sustainability (Oakley, 1991). Project sustainability is the maintenance and the continuance of projects even after its withdrawal. Social sustainability looks at equitable distribution of power and resources that promotes social learning and social mobilization. It ensures that the benefits of development are fairly distributed within the society. Environmental sustainability comprehends the use of natural resources without compromising the access of future generations and the maintenance of environmental assets.

Sustainability is also the capacity of a project to continue to deliver its intended benefits over a long period of time (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998). Kendie and Martens (2008) state that sustainability is the ability to deliver an appropriate level of benefits for an extended period of time after major financial, managerial and technical assistance is terminated. The definitions provide three perspectives which are maintaining benefits achieved



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through the initial programme, continuation of programme activities within an organizational structure and building the capacity of the recipient community.

The categories of definitions reviewed above provide three sharply different perspectives of sustainability. These include maintaining benefits achieved through the initial programme, continuation of the programme activities within an organizational structure and building the capacity of the recipient community. From the perspective of sustainability as community capacity building, models such as community-level change and community development can provide appropriate conceptual perspective from which to build problem-solving abilities of individuals and the larger community (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998).

In recent years, programme sustainability has been an issue of growing concern, both in the US and abroad. Attention is placed on the long-term viability of health intervention is likely to increase everywhere, as policy makers and funding agencies become increasingly concerned with allocating scarce resources effectively and efficiently (Shediac-Rizkallah and Bone, 1998). As determined by the Bruntland report, Carley and Christie (2002) declare that sustainable development is for continuous growth, necessitating the revitalization and maintenance of the world economy. The emphasis is on the proper maintenance of the world resources for the betterment of people in the community.

According to Kendie and Martens (2008), the Bruntland report further advocate that sustainable development is the only viable route to global, political and ecological stability. The report describes sustainability as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the



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ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It is a positive socio-economic transformation or change that does not undermine the ecological and social systems upon which communities and societies are dependent. It is an approach to development, which seeks to increase the long-term wealth of the earth's inhabitants.

Kendie and Martens further state that in order to make development sustainable, the socio-political well-being of people must become central to the development discourse. As a result of the human face now required in development programming, strategies to attain development goals are also changing. They mention good governance which has attributes of participation, equity, accountability, transparency and responsiveness to the needs of people is now seen as the path to sustainable development. The writers are of the view that the concept sustainability cannot be attained in communities where human face is not considered and where the role and needs of beneficiaries are not looked.

There is an indication that while not all programmes should endure, there are at least three reasons why the failure to sustain programmes over the long term may present serious problems. Firstly, programme termination is counter-productive when the reason for establishing programmes fails to address the issues at stake and the problems remains or recurs. Second, sustainability is a concern common to many community health programmes, and finally, having incurred significant start-up costs in human, fiscal and technical resources, many programmes see their funds withdrawn before activities have reached full fruition (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998).



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The purpose of sustaining development interventions is vital if current concern for development efforts will be achieved. The rationale for sustaining development interventions is to empower the people and make development meaningful as it fulfils the basic needs of the indigent. According to Oakley (1991), the involvement of stakeholders can avoid the shortcoming influencing the sustainability of development interventions thereby enhancing the sense of local ownership and responsibility. It also leads to tapping the needs of the poor, leading to project that are likely to be used. Oakley declares that the purpose is to use resources of local people thereby creating local control of investments and improving the maintenance of assets and infrastructure through local resource contribution and management.

Kendie and Martens (2008) raise varied views about the purpose and urgent need for development interventions to be sustained. The writers are of the opinion that the goal of governance and sustainable development should be to create conditions that will enable beneficiaries to realise their potential for social, economic and political fulfilment in a manner consistent with the common good. They indicate that one fundamental reason towards programme sustainability include the creation of jobs to provide stable incomes, frequent water supply, proper sanitation, conducive schools environment, proper health facilities and the creation of opportunity for the discussion of local problems. It provides opportunity for local people to serve as significant informants to problems that affect them and when such challenges are addressed, they are likely to see to the sustenance of such interventions.

One significant need for sustaining development interventions is to influence the development of people and societies in such a way that justice,



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living conditions and health play important role. The focus is on the development of the economic infrastructure and on an efficient management of natural and social resources. The sustainability of development programmes also looks at growth and development which, if seriously analysed will lead to more productive and realistic policies for development (Kendie & Martens, 2008). The purpose is to identify ways and means of adopting prudent measures that will involve the beneficiaries and provide adequate and long term measures that will ensure that projects last.

According to Shediac-Rizkallah and Bone (1998), sustainability yields pre-requisites that serve as starting point and include planning which requires, first, a clear understanding of the concept. The influence on sustainability is derived from three major factors which are project design and implementation, factors within the organizational setting, and factors in the broader community environment. Another pre-requisite is consultation which Olukotun, (2008) explains that without it, most development programmes cannot be sustained. The argument is that since community members have enjoyed so much working and living together and collaborated for so long to achieve common objectives, it is ideal to consult them. Olukotun explains that development practitioners in most occasions plan projects without consultation which has resulted in the failure of many projects while others remain abandoned.

Participant's involvement is another pre-requisite where beneficiaries play active roles which mostly result in the sustenance of the programme. When communities are involved in project initiation and implementation, there is the assurance of sustainability, subject to some conditions unlike when they had no idea about the project or when it is imposed on them. Involving



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beneficiaries eliminates the tendency to abandon the projects when they are half-way completed and sustains the interest of the community to maintain and protect the projects. The result is that development is meaningful if it harnesses the potentials of stakeholders.

According to Olukotun (2008), community members were asked about their roles towards the sustenance of projects in their area and they indicated that they just woke up one morning and saw heavy machines making roads which they appreciated, but that was the end of it. Many of such projects have lost their functional utility. The lesson is that participation plays significant roles with regard to the sustainability of development projects and that the people must be involved if there is to be any sustainability. Also, since the people are the beneficiaries of development plans and projects, they have a stake in it and so they must be partners in the process. They must be the key participants whose views, choices, needs and feelings must be taken into account.

Mohammad (2010) also states that community participation is regarded as one of the cornerstones of good governance. It helps enhance accountability, transparency and importantly ensure sustainability of development initiatives. The writer is of the view that so far as projects are undertaken purposely to improve the livelihood of local people, their needs and demands are assumed to be reflected in the selection of development projects as community members are involved in the process. The involvement of beneficiaries through participation in project planning is one essential pre-requisite for its sustenance.



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Another argument advanced as pre-requisite is that for projects to be sustainable, communities must participate. According to Olukotun (2008), through participation, the community develop skills for collective action and maintenance which lead to the sustainability of development interventions of which the SFP is not an exception. This is evident in the community development works undertaken by the Takete-Ide Community in the Mopamuro Local Government Area of Kogi State, Nigeria.

They built schools, health centres, community centres and constructed roads. These activities have strengthened the potentials of the people. The development association formed have been upgraded into local societies with their own initiatives to address the people's needs to strengthen their position and to put forward their case to the local and state governments. The evidence is that development is meaningless if it does not harness the potentials of beneficiaries who are the primary stakeholders.

The purpose of sustaining development projects is basically to eradicate poverty and raise the standard of living of the poor. The discussions above provide evidence that participation is linked to the sustainability of development interventions of which the SFP is not an exception. According to Kendie and Martens (2008), the purpose of sustainability is to create conditions that will enable beneficiaries to meet their socio-economic and political needs. Sustainability also leads to the creation of jobs to provide stable incomes, frequent water supply, proper sanitation, conducive schools environment, proper health facilities and create the opportunity for the discussion of local problems with pragmatic policies in meeting the needs of beneficiaries.



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Finally, the literature provides evidence that participation in development interventions can be linked to the sustainability of such programme. In guaranteeing the sustenance of development programmes, it also requires dedicated leaders who wield the support of the people with realistic and practical policies. The policies should be realisable, getting these act together requires indigenous knowledge and the right prioritization, complemented by resources to execute the policies with very minimal Western interference (Kendie and Martens, 2008).Mohammad (2010) also states that to ensure the sustenance of development projects, a cross-section of the beneficiaries irrespective of gender, educational status and income level have been proved to be very significant.

**Review of empirical discourses on School Feeding Programme**

The third aspect of this chapter looks at empirical evidence from studies conducted and finally a conceptual framework that shows the linkages between the main concepts of the study. The review will basically look at five studies conducted in other countries. Areas to be looked at include the identifications of issues, methods adopted for the studies, what informed the studies and finally lessons learnt. This section of the research work will look at studies conducted in Bangladesh, Malawi, Ghana and South Africa.

Ahmed and Del Ninno (2002) conducted a study on the SFP in Bangladesh. Bangladesh had led innovative programmes notably are the Grameen Bank micro credit programme and the Comilla Model. The Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh (GOB) launched the first-ever Food For Education (FFE) programme in 1993 on a large-scale pilot



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basis. The programme provided free monthly ration of rice or wheat to poor families. The FFE programme became an income entitlement that enabled poor children to go to school. Families could also consume the grain, thus reducing food budget or selling the grain and using the cash to meet other expenses.

Various issues led to the adoption of the FFE programme. Firstly, the programme was designed to develop long-term human capital through education by making the transfer of food resources to poor families contingent upon school enrolment. The programme addressed long-term poverty and development of human resources as well as short-term needs for increased access to food. Under-nutrition persisted in Bangladesh since about half the country's 130 million people could not afford an adequate diet. Pervasive poverty had also kept generations of families from sending their children to school and the future of such children would have been distressing.

The study adopted various methods, among them included the use of primary data collected from multiple surveys from schools, households, communities and food grain dealers. The report indicated that various issues informed the study. According to Ahmed and Del Ninno (2002) from 1989 to 1994, the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) conducted a research on food policy issues under the Ministry of Foods (MOF) Bangladesh Food Policy Project (BFPP). In 1991, IFPRI conducted a comprehensive study of a targeted food subsidy programme known as Palli (rural) rationing. The study found that the GOB was providing subsidies equivalent to US$60 million per year, yet about 70 percent of the subsidized food had gone to non-poor (Ahmed & Del Ninno, 2002).



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The heavy leakage motivated the GOB to abolish the programme in 1992. Moreover, the GOB was concerned about the food security of the 6.1 million households entitled to subsidized rural rations. In 1992 the MOF commissioned a Working Group on Targeted Food Interventions (WGTFI), chaired by IFPRI to undertake the review. The working group introduced the concept of the FFE Programme in August 1992 in its first drafted report. Drawing on the WGTFI's suggestions, the GOB launched the FFE pilot programme in July 1993.

Tomlinson (2007) also conducted a study on the SFP and reported that school feeding started in Southern Africa to supply free milk to white and coloured schools in the early 1940s. Since then, school feeding had broadened to include the provision of fortified biscuits, nutrient supplementation or full meals. According to Tomlinson, there were two main types of SFPs in Southern Africa and were entirely funded by the national government and external sources such as WFP. The South African government started a programme titled Primary School Nutrition Programme (PSNP) in September 1994 as a Presidential Lead Project (PLP).

Issues that informed the programme included the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of South Africa. The RDP was the brainchild of the new government, led by the African National Congress (ANC).There was also the urgent need to redress the inequities of the apartheid era which was a major issue of the time. The South African experience was unique in that it was the only country considered to be food secure although reports indicated that levels of inequity remain particularly high. For example, the



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poorest 20% of the population had 3.5% share of national consumption, while the richest 20% had a phenomenal 62.2%.

The objective was to intervene at two crucial points in the future development of South Africa with regard to nutrition and education. In 1997, the Child Health Unit made three broad recommendations about the programme. Due to poor coverage, it was recommended that fewer schools should be targeted. Feeding should also focus on children that were likely to benefit the most. Fund allocation should be based on infrastructure and location. One significant recommendation was that local needs should be considered and community involvement should be encouraged.

Tomlinson (2007) conducted another study on the feeding programme in Malawi. The study indicated that SFPs were largely operated and funded by external sources. According to Tomlinson, the WFP is the United Nations largest international food aid for Food For Education (FFE) tasked to combat hunger throughout the world. The FFE provides take-home rations targeted at girls, orphans and other vulnerable children who attended school regularly. The intervention also uses food-for-work scheme targeted at teachers and parents to improve schooling outcomes.

The WFP and FFE programme had adopted various operations and strategies in Malawi towards improving schooling outcomes. Among the strategies included planning SFPs according to a design where the nature of government partnerships and the exit strategy were assessed and planned. Another strategy was the promotion of education for girls because of the gender disparities. Also, women played key roles in maintaining the three pillars of food security which were food production, economic access to



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available food and nutritional security were considered. The intervention had a strategy of developing home-grown SFPs which aimed at expanding SFPs to increase enrolment, while at the same time promoted local food production and the incorporation of agriculture into the school curricula.

Among the issues that led to the adoption of SFP in Malawi were the government's Free Primary Education Initiative (FPEI) that had increased school enrolment but had also created a gender gap in favour of boys. Unlike South Africa, Malawi did not have a national government-run SFP. There was no direct financial contribution from the Malawian government although the state provided logistical staff from various government ministries. Targeted schools pupils received a daily midmorning meal of porridge on each school day. A take-home ration of 12.5 kg of maize per month was given to girls and boys that had lost both parents who attended 80% of school.

Martens (2007) also carried a study on the impact of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in four districts in the Central Region of Ghana. Issues that led to the study were to determine the nutrient intake from school meals, the out of school food consumption and the impact on the demand for locally produced foods. The methods adopted for the study were questionnaire administration, structured interview and focus group discussions. Data were collected in four primary schools in four districts. The respondents included cooks, head teachers and class teachers among others. The demand for locally produced foods per district was determined via the production figures of staple foods gathered from the district Agricultural Extension Service and information from the weighed dietary records.



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The main issues that informed the study were the review of the pilot of the GSFP of 2006. Although based on anecdotal evidence rather than objective and quantitative data, a small effect of SFPs on the nutritional status of school children had been demonstrated in a few studies (Martens, 2007). Another issue was that in the Ghana SFP pilot review, increase in school enrolment was indicated but no data was available on the effect on school enrolment rates in the districts. Also, the study aimed at identifying the gender gap between boys and girls which could be that supplementing measures, like take home rations, were needed to attract girls to school.

Uduku (2009) also conducted a study on the SFP in South Africa. The premise of the research was to explore the impact of SFP. Among some of the issues that led to the study were the unique circumstances of the apartheid state. Education in South Africa was both segregated and prescribed by the nationalist government. Compared elsewhere in Africa, some South African township schools did have significantly better facilities planned and built. However, given the apartheid education system that was in place, the effective boycott of such schools and occasional arson by students ensured these schools retained little credibility as edifices for learning.

There are various lessons learnt from the empirical studies above. Some of the major lessons suggested that the feeding programme had been successful in increasing school enrolment, promoting attendance and reducing dropout rates especially among low-income households. It led to high number of students per teacher which had crowded classrooms and caused the quality of education to deteriorate. The increase in enrolment placed additional pressure on teachers, for example in the Malawian context; there was an overall



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increase in the enrolment of girls, which was attributed to the fact that girls, and not boys, were given take-home rations.

Targeting was a particularly contentious issue. There was also the need to improve targeting as a sizeable number of poor households remained excluded from the programme while the most in need remained very poorly covered. For example, there were a number of schools in South Africa that practised individual targeting, as opposed to school targeting. The study identified that individual targeting was unavoidable and led to intimidation, victimisation and stigmatisation. Coverage was poor and inconsistent and most of the food supplied were of dubious quality in nutritional value and did not involve the local people.

Another critical issue was about funding as the studies gave evidence that the intervention received weak funding prioritisation with bureaucratic challenges. In some poorest areas, some schools only received food three days a week due to budget constraints. In other areas, feeding had been cut to Grades 1 to 4 only while others were not fed. Also, the transfer of responsibilities from one department to another brought its own difficulties whereas in others the renaming of the programme brought some difficulties. Another evidence was that the South African context had been beset with corruption and management difficulties.

The impact on the local demand for staple foods was low as a result of low involvement on the part of communities. Also, if all the ingredients that were needed for the programme were bought within the community, a proportional increase in net income for local farmers would be achieved. The results from poor regions indicated that families that were involved in the



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school farming programme benefited enormously although it was not on a large scale to include the local community. The studies indicated that the impact on community involvement would be of immense advantage to beneficiaries.

The studies suggested that massive improvement in target criterion and funding would significantly improve the intervention. The study made few recommendations but perhaps the most important was that community participation was absent probably because the intervention was mainly supported by external agencies. The findings suggested that improved design of the SFP would further enhance community focused development. There was also the need to ensure that the intervention was locally supported which would enormously lead to its continued growth and sustenance.

**Conceptual framework of community participation in the SFP**

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), a conceptual framework explains graphically the main issues to be studied and the relationship between them. The framework shows the relationship between the key variables being community participation and sustainability. The framework adopts the input output model with the SFP as the development intervention. The intervening variables include the production of meals from domestic source, regular supply of food, adoption of participatory process and employment of local staff. The adoption of participatory processes of making decisions, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the programme is significant. The evidence is that it leads to community participation and ownership which leads to the sustenance of development interventions.



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The underlying outcomes result in reduction in mal-nutrition, increased school attendance, community ownership and employment for rural people. The development indicators include improved health and educational goals, enhanced community participation and increased standard of living. The framework explains that development is a process which starts from one point to another by involving beneficiaries in the process. The guiding principle is that regular monitoring and evaluation of the process is key at every stage in order to get the desired results. In figure 2, community participation, a SFP policy is a significant input in the development process. The framework indicates that community participation does not in itself cater for sustainability of intervention but rather there should be levels at every stage of the development process for beneficiaries to know their expected roles.



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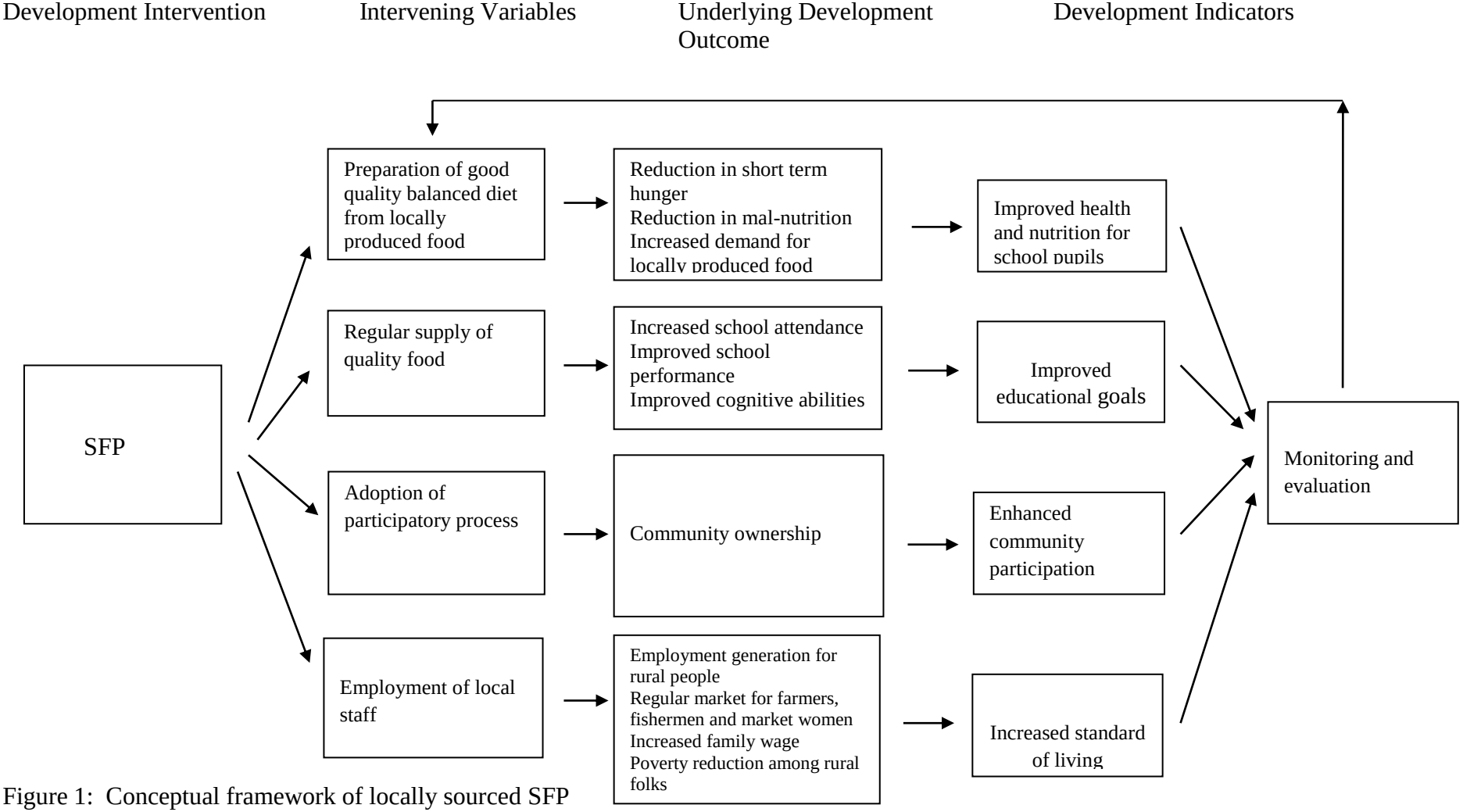


Figure 1: Conceptual framework of locally sourced SFP
Source: Author's Construct, 2012.



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# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY

## Introduction

This chapter contains discussions on the methods adopted for the study. It covers description of the study area being the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area with emphasis on the location, boundaries, population, economic activities and employment situation among others. The chapter also looks at the study design adopted for the study, study programme, target population, sample and sampling procedures, sources of data, methods of data collection, ethical considerations, data processing procedures as well as methods of analysis.

## Study area

This section of the research work describes the study area in terms of location, physical characteristics, population and economic activities. The Cape Coast Metropolitan Area (CCMA) is the only metropolis out of the 17 districts in the Central Region. The CCMA is the metropolitan capital, the seat of the local government administration and also the regional capital. The metropolis is bounded to the south by the Gulf of Guinea, west by Komenda Edina Eguafo Abirem Municipal Assembly at Iture bridge, East by the Abura



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Asebu Kwamankese District, and to the north by the Twifu Heman Lower Denkyira District (CCMA, 2012) (see figure 2).

The population of the Cape Coast Metropolis is 169,894 made up of 82,810 males and 87,084 females (GSS, 2012). Given the present growth rate of the population, it is projected that the metropolis share of the region's population would not change significantly between now and 2013. Major expansion has engulfed certain communities like Pedu, Abura, Nkanfoa, Esuekyir, Ebubonko and Ankaful, which were previously satellite villages that are now almost part of the urbanised area. If the current rate of development of infrastructure continues, the whole of Cape Coast Metropolis would very soon become one compact community. The whole Metropolis is gradually being constrained by unavailability of land for socio-economic development, especially farming and related activities. The situation is worse in core Cape Coast because of its hilly and undulating topography (CCMA, 2012).

The situation with regard to the SFP in the metropolis presents a social protection intervention that is aimed at benefiting the poor communities in the metropolis. The SFP in the CCMA initially covered 8 schools and it was later increased to 14 public basic schools with the addition of 6 more schools which are categorised under rural and urban. The 14 public schools are sub-categorised into special school, boys and mixed schools within the locations of Amanful, Bakaano, Aboom, Ola, Amamoma, Ebobonko, Abakam, Duakor, Bremso and Effutu. The CCMA being the regional capital of the central region has the regional co-ordinator of the SFP who works with two field monitors and a metropolitan desk officer.



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Information from the field indicates that the CCMA was captured under the programme due to high levels of poverty among the rural farming communities and urban fishing communities (CCMA, 2010-2013: 2012). The programme in the CCMA covers public basic school pupils from kindergarten four (4) years to basic six (6). Provision of food for the pupils is mainly from local source. Reports from the regional co-ordinators office states that selection of schools for the programme is based on lay down criteria such as schools with low enrolment, high absentee rates, deprived communities among others (GSFP, 2005). Reports also indicate that from the beginning of the programme the pupils were provided with plates, cups and spoons but pupils took them home, therefore currently, school pupils bring their own plates and cups to school. Pupils are also not provided with water in the CCMA as the schools cannot afford the cost involved.



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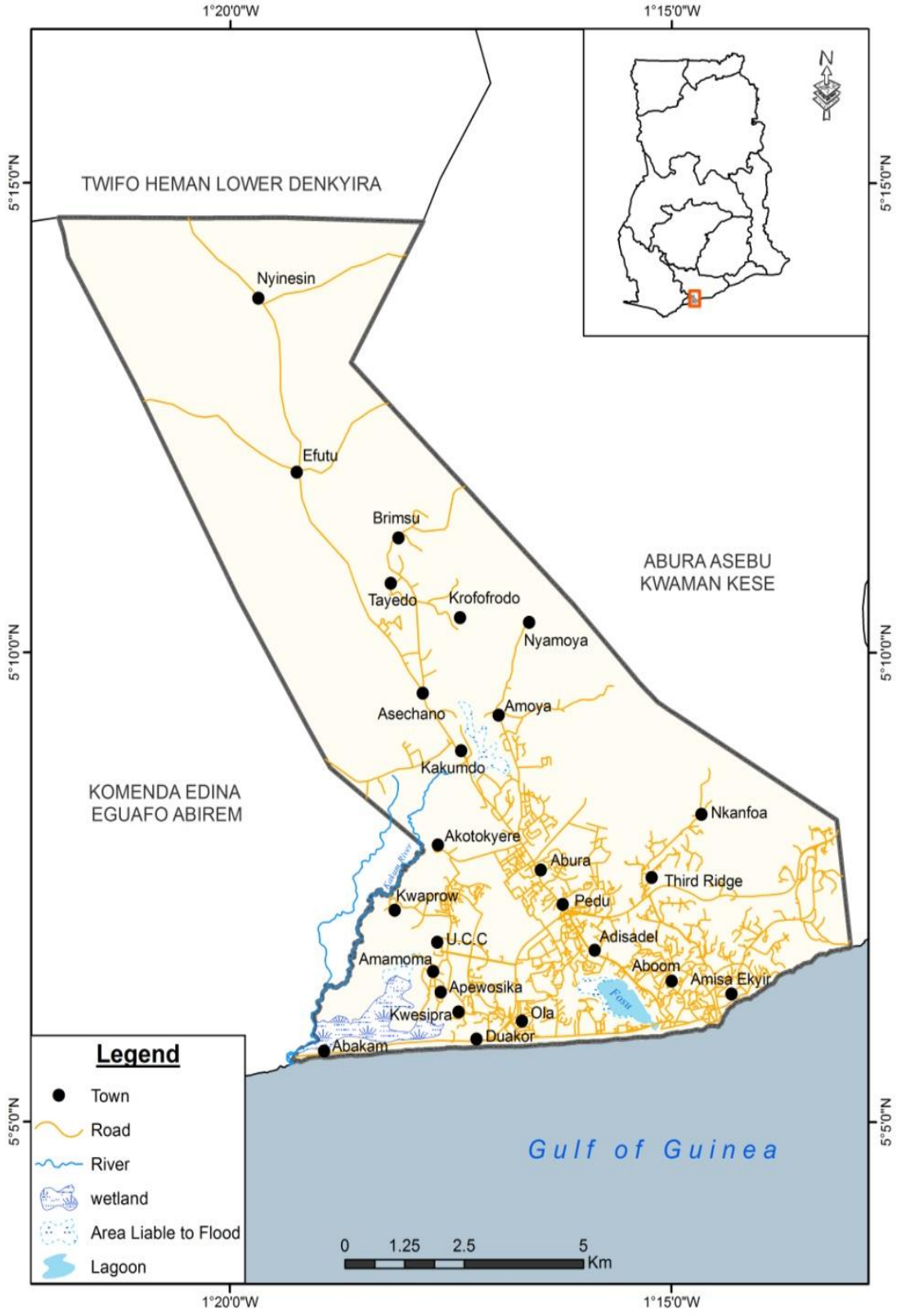


**Figure 2: Map of Cape Coast Metropolitan Area**

Source: Cartographic laboratory, University of Cape Coast, 2012.



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**Study design**

The research design adopted for this research was qualitative. Qualitative research is a process undertaken in a natural setting that focuses on structural characteristics which predominantly entail expressive assessment of the observable fact under study (Sarantakos, 2005). Qualitative research has its philosophical underpinning from the interpretativism which sought to explain the understanding, co-orboration and theme cases of phenomena other than generalisation. This type of research design was adopted in that, it aims at describing a social system, relations and provide background information which will stimulate justification of the concept under study (Sarantakos, 2005). Specifically, the research design will give an overview of the issues that capture reality through intense contact on the field.

Qualitative research also emphasises that all the stages and processes involved in the SFP in the CCMA with special reference to the active partners involved in the programme become part of the study. The approach facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using variety of data sources. This ensures that the issues are not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Specifically, the study design adopted was descriptive. Descriptive study design is concerned with relationships that exist, practices that prevail, beliefs, or attitudes that are held and trends that are developing. It looks at individuals, groups, institutions, methods and materials in order to describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyse and interpret the entities and the events that constitute their various fields of inquiry (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison,



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2007). Importantly, descriptive study design is also used to describe an intervention and the real-life context in which it occurs (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This therefore makes the study design appropriate for the research work.

**Target population**

The study population was made up of the 14 public basic schools captured under the GSFP in the CCMA. These public schools were categorised under rural and urban. The study targeted 14 Head teachers from the 14 Schools, 14 caterers, 1 Regional Co-ordinator, 2Field Monitors, 1Metropolitan Desk Officer and10 members each from four selected communities captured under the SFP.

**Sampling procedures and the sample**

From the field survey, there were 10 communities within the study area which were categorised by the SFP in the CCMA under rural and urban communities. The researcher then adopted the simple random sampling method to select the two rural communities from the study area. The justification for the adoption of the simple random sampling method was that both the rural and urban communities had similar characteristics while the sample had already been stratified by the office of the Regional Co-ordinator as rural/urban.

The researcher then gave two-digit numbers to all therural communities in the form of a code for example 01, 02, 03 and so on. The two digit numbers were written on pieces of paper of same size, same colour and same texture. This was done to prevent biases and to make the selection



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objective and scientific. The papers with the codes were folded in uniform sizes and placed into a bowl and shaken thoroughly. A colleague was blind-folded to pick at random two rural communities. The same process was followed for the selection of the two urban communities.

The simple random sampling method was adopted so that all the urban communities would have equal chance of being selected or drawn into the sample; the same selection process was applied to select the two rural communities from the study area. The four communities which were selected were Ebubonko, Effutu/Kubease (two rural communities) and Bakaano, Ola Okyeso (two urban communities). The schools that fall under these four communities are Pedu/Abura Ebubonko M/A, Effutu St. Andrews Anglican, Bakaano Jacob Wilson Sey Primary and Ola Okyeso Catholic Primary. The target population for the study is presented in Table 1.

Sampling procedures adopted for the study were non-probability, purposive for the key informants and quota for the category of schools (rural and urban). The justification for purposive sample was that the categories of respondents were key informants who were also knowledgeable in their field as well as the intervention and therefore their views were relevant to the study (Creswell, 2008). They were stakeholders who were directly linked to the programme. Quota sampling procedure was adopted for the schools since they were categorised under rural and urban and therefore in order to get both categories the quota sampling procedure was adopted.

The 14 basic schools categorised under six rural and eight urban were identified as direct beneficiaries of the intervention. The study included two schools from the rural and two schools from the urban areas of the metropolis



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that led to the selection of head teachers and caterers of those selected schools. Out of the 14 head teachers, two were selected each from the rural and urban schools because they were a category that see to it that menu prepared by the district was adhered to. They also approve enrolment figures indicated by the caterers and other oversight responsibilities in the school. The caterers (14) were identified as another vital source of key informants for the study as they form the group that engage with the community and also in the preparation of food for the pupils. Two caterers each were selected from the rural and urban areas as part of the study. The regional co-ordinator and two field monitors also supervise the programme both at the regional and district levels also form part of the key informants to be interviewed.

The metropolitan desk officer, a staff of the metropolitan assembly and the focal person in charge of the day to day administration and coordination between the district, schools and GSFP also form part of the key informants for the study. Community members are one significant category that works hand in hand with the caterers. They engage in the production of foodstuffs for the programme, some are also employed as cooks or helpers to support the caterers in food production.

There were various criteria adopted to select community members for the focus group discussion. Among the criteria were farmers and fishmongers who sold to caterers, parents whose wards benefited from the programme, community members employed by caterers as cooks and opinion leaders. There was a total of four focus group discussions, two organised within a rural community and another two within an urban community with a total membership of a maximum of 10.



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The purpose of the categorization of the respondents was to ensure that the sample covered a broader spectrum of the stakeholders. It was also aimed at collecting data from all the active participants and relevant groups that were identified as key informants in the programme to obtain a broader view of the prevailing conditions from all the respondents involved.

**Table 1: Population and sample size for the categories of respondents**

| Category of Respondents | Sample Size/Method |
|---|---|
| **Communities for the study** | |
| 1. Ebubonko{Rural community} | 10{Focus Group} |
| 2. Effutu (Kubease) " | 10 " |
| 3. Bakaano {Urban community} | 10 " |
| 4. Ola (Okyeso) " | 10 " |
| **Key informants for the study** | |
| 1. Head Teachers | 4{Key Informants} |
| 2. Caterers | 4 " |
| 3. Regional Co-ordinator | 1 " |
| 4. Field Monitors | 2 " |
| 5. Metropolitan desk officer | 1 " |
| Total Population | 52 |

Source: Field survey, 2012.



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**Sources of data**

Sources of data for the research work were both primary and secondary data sources. Primary data sources are described as information that are original to the problem understudy and collected from the field. Secondary data sources are information retrieved from both internal and external sources (Sarantakos, 2005). The internal sources were mainly from the office of the regional Co-ordinator of the SFP such as policy documents whereas data from external sources were mainly from journals, books, internet among others.

**Data collection methods**

Two main data collection methods, focus group discussions and key informants interviews, were adopted for the study. While focus group discussion was used to collect data from community members, key informant, in-depth, semi structured interview was used to gather data from key informants.

The justification for adopting focus group discussion was that it enables one to get varied opinion from the category of respondent at the community level. Focus group discussion was convenient for a group interview, though not in the sense of a backwards and forwards between interviewer and group, Sarantakos (2005) terms it as group discussion. The reliance is on the interaction within the group that discusses a topic supplied by the researcher yielding a collective rather than an individual view. The method is a contrived setting that brings together specifically chosen sector of the population to discuss a particular given topic that leads to data and outcomes (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).



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Key informants interviews were adopted as it provided an in-depth description of the phenomenon under study. Also, key informants interviews capture the relevant themes needed for the study. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), key informants interview as a method of gathering data are useful in that the presence of the interviewer can help clarify queries from the respondents and can stimulate the respondent to give full answers to an on-the-spot supervisor rather than an anonymous researcher known through an introductory letter. Also, face-to-face encounters improve response rates.

Furthermore, as interviews can be flexible, interviewers are able both to probe and explain more fully. Moreover, there are greater opportunities to control the environment in which the survey is conducted, particularly in respect of privacy, noise and external distractions. The potential for trust and cooperation between the interviewer and the respondent is strong in face-to-face encounters. Interview surveys, moreover, can guarantee that it was the respondent alone who answers the questions.

**Instrument design**

Two main instruments adopted for the research were focus group discussion guide and key informants interview guide. The focus group discussion guide was adopted for community members such as parents, fishmongers, farmers and support staff for the caterers among others to solicit for their responses regarding specific conceptual themes about the SFP with regard to community participation and the sustenance of the intervention. Key informants interviews guide was also adopted for the key respondents who were purposively sampled. Among the purposively sampled respondents



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included Head Teachers, Caterers, Regional Co-ordinator, Field Monitors and the Metro Desk Officer.

The key informants were identified as proficient with regard to the SFP and that the method adopted provided an in-depth description of the phenomenon under study. Also, key informants interview guide captured the relevant themes needed for the study. The key informants' interview guides were administered because the researcher anticipated key personalities who were knowledgeable in the area of study, vital for the research work and therefore personal contact was of benefit to the research work. The justification was that face to face interview for key informants has been identified to be beneficial in data collection from key informants whose knowledge is of essence to any research work (Sarantakos, 2005).

**Field work**

The field work of the study began with several visits to the Regional Co-ordinating Council of Central Region where the office of the Regional Co-ordinator was located. The officials provided the list of schools that the programme was on-going and further provided other significant document to support the study. The researcher also visited the CCMA office to meet with the Metro Desk Officer. After identifying the various schools, the researcher and her team visited the very first community which was Bakaano to meet the School officials and some community members. In the subsequent weeks the other communities were also visited at the convenience of the respondents. Data gathering from the field started in September, 2013 where the team visited the schools and the communities several times.



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Some caterers asked for confirmation from the regional co-ordinator before availing themselves to be interviewed. Their reason was that some people within the community wanted to use the challenges identified within the intervention to discredit the government of the day and therefore without the permission of the regional co-ordinator they were afraid they might find themselves in a difficult situation later due to the political issues associated with the programme. Others declared that since they were the bread winners of their family, they would not be happy to lose their job as caterers of the intervention. The researcher therefore consulted the regional co-ordinator who intervened for the caterers to respond.

Some community members were also scared that through their comments, their community may be deprived from benefiting from the SFP. Although community members were informed that the discussions would be recorded for reference in data analysis, others thought their voices would be played on radio for people to know their opinion. The researcher explained the purpose of the study where the voluntary participation of the respondents was sought. At Ola Okyeso, one of the communities visited, the head teacher willingly gave the Computer Centre for the school to be used for the focus group discussion as heavy rains nearly disrupted the exercise. A teacher at the school who was an Ewe was consulted by the researcher to explain most of the questions to the community members in their local language/dialect since the researcher not could speak the Ewe language.

Community entry was a big challenge initially since respondents were unfamiliar with data collection, mix feeling of the purpose of the research; the fear that the programme would be taken away after the research had been



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conducted. Also, organizing the focus group was difficult since most respondents failed to turn out for discussions, other respondents also perceived the whole activity as a waste of time. Hence prime purpose of intention fulfilment was undermined.

In resolving the challenge of community entry, permission was sought from community leaders and in some cases caretakers of the communities through the help of the assemblyman. In all the communities visited, the researcher and the team visited the community on two or more occasions to get the community ready for the discussion. Among the fishing communities visited were Ola Okyeso and Bakaano where the community members informed the team that Tuesdays would be very convenient to get them involved in the discussion. There was light refreshment after each of the discussions/interviews and the researcher used the opportunity to thank participants for their time and effort.

**Ethical considerations**

The researcher sought permission from the Regional Co-ordinator through the head of the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast for a field survey to be conducted. Permission was also sought from the Metropolitan Desk Officer (MDO) and the Field Monitors for the same purpose to visit some of the schools. Community leaders were also consulted and permission sought before the researcher met the community members. Time was devoted to painstakingly explain the rationale of the study to all the respondents concerned. In order not to violate the rights of the respondents to free consent, they were given sufficient notification about the objective and



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purpose of the research to enable them to make informed decisions about being part of the research.

**Data processing and analysis**

In view of the fact that the research was a qualitative design, data analysis initially involved organising, accounting for and explaining and making a general sense of the data in terms of the participants definitions of the situation. Coding description and themes about the central phenomenon involved noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities (Cohen, Manion & Morrison**,** 2007; Creswell, 2008).

The data collected from the various respondents were edited first to ensure that they were complete before it was sorted and categorized. Templates were designed in relation to the research questions to serve as a guide in the data analysis (Creswell, 2008). According to Creswell (2008), the primary form of representing and reporting findings in qualitative research is a narrative discussion. A narrative discussion is a written passage in a qualitative study where the author summarizes in detail the findings from data analysis (Creswell, 2008).

Key informants interviews and focus group discussions were categorised under the various themes as indicated in the research questions. Subsequently, all the responses were analysed and put into themes under the various research questions and discussed. However, where emphasis was needed, the responses were interpreted as best as possible and in some instances, cases were reported verbatim to bring in originality. This was aimed at stating the real meaning of the issues under discussion as purported by



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respondents. Data analysis was presented by describing the issues raised by the respondents to portray their views which guided the researcher to interpret and discover patterns and to generate themes to understand the respondents.



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# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion on the analyses of the data collected from the field. The areas to be discussed are demographic characteristics of the communities, community participation in the implementation of SFP, essence for the sustainability of SFP and finally community participation contribution and the sustenance of SFP.

## Demographic characteristics of the communities

The first rural community visited was Ebubonko, a predominantly farming community. The community is quite close to the Cape Coast Polytechnic. The community benefits immensely from the students who have temporary settled within the community due to accommodation difficulties and have nicknamed the community "bonkus". From the small scale farming being engaged mostly by the community, some have renovated their dilapidated facilities to rent it out to students as they stay in their old fashioned houses. Community members are also involved in trading of foodstuffs, vegetables and provisions which is massively patronised by the students in the community.



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The young men are mostly artisans who travel to nearby communities during minor farming season to render services. Cost of food is quite reasonable as compared to the urban centres of the metropolitan area. The community has challenges with education and also in putting up basic needs such as kitchen and toilet facility to aid the SFP. Officials from the School were of the view that attendance had improved significantly since the community started benefiting from the SFP.

Ebubonko community had not embraced the SFP. The community had not provided a kitchen and a place of convenience for the pupils. Food was therefore prepared elsewhere and transported to the community. Although Ebubonko was largely a farming community and so it was expected that foodstuffs to be used for the programme would be sold to the caterer or purchased from the community, community members preferred to sell their foodstuffs to the polytechnic students in the community.

The community lacked basic amenities for the programme like kitchen, regular source of water and a store room among others. Lack of amenities had created a big gap in the success of the programme. Participation on the part of the community members was very low. There was non-existence of SFC to monitor the programme as community members seem not interested. Community members involved in the FGD were between the ages of 25-40. Education on the part of the local people was generally very low except large numbers of the polytechnic students who have accommodation within the community.

Okyeso, one of the urban communities was the first to be visited. The community is made up of large population of men and women from the Volta



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region who have settled in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The community is close to the sea and is largely made up of fishermen and fishmongers. Apart from fishing being the main occupation of the people within the community, gari processing is gaining much popularity in providing job opportunity to a large number of the community members. Cassava dough production is done in large scale which is sent to other parts of the Metro Area on market days. A few of the community members also engage in petty trading as well as basket weaving during the lean season of fishing.

The predominant language is Ewe although Okyeso is located within CCMA. A few of the men in the community engage in subsistence farming during the rainy season as they cultivate maize and okra among others. Boys within the community engage in crab hunting of which they use the proceeds in supporting their parents. Okyeso community members seem interested in the SFP due to the benefits to be derived by the pupils from the community. The community members feel the programme officials have not allowed them to be part of the implementation process.

Although a predominantly fishing community, caterers do not buy fish from the community. Fish was not found in the food served to the kids and gari, a popular delicacy produced in large quantities in the community was not purchased from the community. Food was prepared elsewhere and transported to the school with a place within the school designated to share food. No kitchen, regular source of water or store room had been provided by the community.

Lack of basic amenities such as a place of convenience, a kitchen, regular source of water which was a pre-requisite for the intervention had



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created a huge gap in reaping the benefits of the SFP. Participation on the part of the community members was low as they indicated that they had not been informed of their expected roles and they have not been involved in the intervention. The age interval of community members was between 35-50years. One elderly lady, a grandmother of a pupil was above 55years.A smaller number of the people could speak English and had completed JSS 3 or middle school form four. A greater number were uneducated and could only communicate in their local Ewe dialect.

Bakaano, one of the urban communities had varied groups of people. The community is made up of men and women who are predominantly fishmongers. Most of the fishermen in the community fish in the sea or in the Fosu Lagoon at Bakaano. A few of the community members also engage in petty trading. The young men who are fishermen have also learned various trades such as carpentry, masonry and plumbing which provide them with some income especially during the lean season. There were a few members identified as civil servants not originally from the community but from other part of the metropolitan area who have accommodation in the community.

The School Community is very close to the sea which had affected the school structure in addition to most boys who have turned the school compound into a soccer site. Most boys within the community play truant as they are found playing football or swimming. Levels of poverty are widespread especially among the natives whilst settlers within the community have increasingly embraced education since they seem interested and have shown much commitment.



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Nature of SFP in Bakaano indicates that although the metro assembly had provided a place of cooking on the school compound, community members seem not interested. It was worth noting that although Bakaano is a fishing community, fish was not found in the menu as the caterer could not afford the cost of it. The school community was without a regular source of water. It is believed that a kitchen and a place of convenience were good enough but the lack of regular source of water was a big gap in helping the kids clean their hands before and after eating.

Participation on the part of the community was absent since the caterer could not afford fish sold from the community. The caterer reported of the kitchen broken into and all her foodstuffs purchased stolen at the time of the visit. The age range of the community members who were part of the focus group discussion was between 33-45years.Education was very high among settler civil servants who were found in the community but the indigenous people were mostly school dropouts.

The final rural community visited was Effutu/Kubease, a predominantly farming community with most of the women and children serving as support for their husbands and fathers on the farm. Among the foodstuffs produced were maize, cassavas, kontomire, groundnuts, pepper, tomatoes among others. Petty trading among the women within the community was very predominant. Due to high levels of poverty, farming is done on a small scale although what is produced is sold and the rest consumed by the household. Others engage in charcoal burning as a source of economic venture.



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The presence of a new community with modern houses being built by the owners have also provided some source of employment for the people as most unemployed women fetch water for masons involved in construction. Effutu/Kubease community had embraced the SFP in that it was the only community that had set up a kitchen on the school compound, in addition to a store room. Although a kitchen was provided, the location of the kitchen disturbs a nearby class as the smoke from the kitchen disrupts teaching and learning.

The community through the effort of the School Management Committee and the assembly member had set up a SFC with a representative who monitors the preparation of food on the school compound. Though a predominant farming community, foodstuffs was not sold to caterers as caterers prefer to buy on credit or at very cheap price. The gap identified from the community had to do with the caterer who was not from the community although the cooks employed were from the community. The caterer was not in touch with the community. The caterer had a representative who brings foodstuffs weekly to the cooks of which the cooks complained the foodstuffs given were highly inadequate for the kids. The cooks complained that there were several occasions that pupils in the upper primary were not served because the food got finished.

Supply of food on the part of the community was absent although it was one of the ways that the community could participate in the programme. The community used to sell to caterers when the programme started but they had to stop. Among the reasons were that the caterer was not from the community, did not respect the people and was always absent. The community



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members lamented that only the local community cooks do all the work and food provided was not enough for the kids among others. The age interval of community members interacted with was between 35-50years. Most men were absent because they had gone to the farm for food, burn charcoal or at construction sites.

**Existence of community participation in the implementation of the SFP**

The study sought to examine the existence of community participation as far as the implementation of SFP was concerned. The GSFP provides avenue for the participation of beneficiaries of the intervention. One significant fact is the decentralised nature of the programme. Specifically, the decentralised nature of the programme requires strong involvement of communities to participate in the implementation process in the areas of provision of kitchen, regular source of water, a place of convenience, supply of food stuff to caterers among others.

The results from the study postulated that the SFP programme requires active involvement of communities in the implementation process. In order to own the programme, community members were to engage in some roles. Among the roles include active communal labour in putting up kitchen, washrooms and water storage facilities among others to kick start the programme. This is made evidence in the conceptual framework which indicates that the adoption of participatory process leads to community ownership and an enhanced community participation at the grass roots level.

According to Schilizzi (2003), the adoption of participatory processes determines the actual role to be played by the beneficiaries. The various



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stakeholders have authority to express their displeasure or otherwise and have the platform to influence their decisions. Cooke and Kothari (2007) justify the adoption of participatory approaches which stress the importance of incorporating the beneficiary populations view, perception, values and priorities. Furthermore, findings attained also posited that the success of the SFP depends largely on the commitment shown by beneficiaries in the implementation process as they participate fully and play their expected roles towards sustaining the programme at the grass roots level.

From the study, the respondents indicated that major infrastructure provision such as kitchen and toilet facilities were not provided by the community due to the deprived nature of the community. This indirectly has an effect on the roles of the caterers and a challenge towards the sustenance of the programme. The GSFP (2005) manual gives details of the roles of key actors implementing SFP at the various levels. The success of the intervention depends largely on the commitment of the DA, their level of readiness and interest towards sustaining it. The appointment by the Assembly of a desk officer to serve as a link between the Assembly and the programme secretariat is vital. The District Desk Officer also acts as the co-ordinating officer of the programme in the district.

Per the result from the study, one significant category of people mentioned in the policy document is the School Implementation Committee (SIC) being the structure at the community level that oversees SF activities. Each community is to have a SIC consisting of the head teacher of the beneficiary school, two representatives of the PTA, a representative of the SMC, one traditional ruler from the community, an assembly member and the



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boys and girls prefects of the beneficiary school. The SIC collaborates with the head teachers and caterers in providing adequate and nutritious food for the children and prepare reports on their SF activities at the end of each term and each year to the District Assembly.

The existence of community participation in the implementation of the SFP is of much importance if programme planners expect to achieve programme objectives of reduction in hunger, improve attendance and retention at school and poverty reduction among the deprived. The implementation of the SFP was categorised under the contributions from the community level and the school level.

Contributions to the implementation process at the community level

The existence of community participation within the implementation of the SFP was examined in this section to find out how the roles of community members contributed towards the success of the programme. This section outlines the major contributions made by the direct beneficiaries of the intervention, being community members, towards the implementation of the SFP as identified in the GSFP policy document. It also aims at identifying loophole(s) if any, in relation to what the policy outlines regarding the contributions of community members.

Respondents provided information on the roles that community members played in the SFP.A caterer lamented that community members had not been helpful at all. The caterer indicated that the community played no role. In the area of contributions made in relation to the provision of kitchen, washrooms, and other facilities for the programme to start brought various



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challenges from the various communities. Communities provided evidence that most of the amenities needed to start the programme were missing or inadequate. Another respondent added that the community had refused to provide a kitchen for the programme. It was evidenced that the issue of non-participation on the part of community members was very pronounced.

One Community also indicated that they did not play any role since nobody had informed them to help because the Government of Ghana was paying for the cost of the programme. Information from the respondents indicated that,

*"non-participation had occurred as a result of the fact that they had not been informed of their expected roles".*

Also, out of the four communities visited, three indicated that they have not been given any guidance until one day they were told that food would be provided at school for their kids to be funded by government which they welcomed it.

Another issue that had led to non-participation was that implementation was decentralized, in that the District Assembly was made up of community members who were supposed to represent the views of the members of the community. One could therefore conclude that whatever the District Assembly did was in the interest of the community members. Also, at the district level, the DIC and the SIC were made up of individuals such as the DCE, The director of Education, Director of Health, Director of Agriculture, one Traditional Ruler and two representatives from the Social Service Committee (SSC).



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According to the policy document, the success of the GSFP depends largely on the commitment of the District Assembly (DA), their level of readiness and interest towards sustaining it. The DAs are to appoint staff of the assembly as desk officers to serve as a link between the assembly and the programme secretariat. The MMDAs are to ensure that caterers procure from local farmers. The DAs are to encourage agriculture extension officers to assist local farmers to produce for the GSFP and collate information on how GSFP has linked up with farmers at the district level.

The SIC is the structure at the community level that oversees SF activities. Each community is to have a SIC consisting of the head teacher of the beneficiary school being the chairperson, two representatives of the Parents and Teachers Association (PTA), a representative of the School Management Committee (SMC), one traditional ruler from the community, an assembly member and the boys and girls prefects of the beneficiary school. The SIC collaborate with the head teachers and caterers in providing adequate and nutritious food for the children and prepare reports on their SF activities at the end of each term and each year to the district assembly. The working document provided evidence indicating that community members including the school pupils were all represented.

The SIC follows up on recommendations of the MoLGRD and the secretariat. They liaise with the DIC to develop a locally driven menu to provide nutritionally adequate meals. They also provide oversight supervision of caterers entrusted with cooking and feeding. They facilitate community involvement, mobilization and support for the implementation of the programme. They ensure that equipments used for cooking are kept in good



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conditions. They see to the use of potable water and maintenance of sanitation. They also report instances of sub-standard food to the DIC during renewal of contract of caterers. They collaborate with CSOs to sensitize communities to take ownership of the programme through active participation at the grass roots level.

The caterer, an actor who engages in implementation role at the community level. He/she is to purchase local foodstuffs from the community. As a way of generating employment for the local community, the caterers are to recruit their own cooks from the local community and pay them from their own resources. They are to undergo medical examination regularly with health insurance certificate as a way of checking their health status.

Community members informed the researcher that they contributed to the programme by reporting bad food prepared and served to their kids. They indicated that a former head teacher of the school complained to the Metropolitan Assembly and that head teacher was transferred. They also added that since the Metro Assembly employed the caterers, they sometimes channelled their grievances through their Assembly Members to be presented on the floor of the Assembly. Furthermore, a community commended their school for setting up SFC. From the information given, the assembly man supervised the programme and had assisted in providing a kitchen. One challenge was that community members do not have the confidence to report any issue they were not comfortable with and as they do so they should not suffer as in the case of the head teacher who was transferred.

Information from the field indicated that the very first criterion to qualify for the programme were to have a toilet, store room and a kitchen.



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These facilities were to be provided by the community for the smooth running of the intervention. Information gathered indicated that community members had contributed immensely towards the success of the programme in one particular school. The community had provided a decent kitchen and supervised the food prepared through the efforts of the School Management Committee (SMC). The Parent Teachers Association (PTA) had been very supportive in addition to the formation of School Feeding Committee (SFC) at the community level which had helped enormously.

Another interviewee said,

"*infact the programme was designed in such a way that the community should provide a kitchen and a good eating environment but we don't have a good eating environment so the children eat in the classroom which disrupts the next lesson".*

In one of the urban communities visited, the respondents indicated that,

*"caterers also employ cooks or whoever they want to help from the community. Respondents were of the view that it was possible the community members have been given the platform in the working document but they were yet to play their roles as expected".*

Another respondent added that the community supplied the caterers with foodstuffs only at the start of the programme as community members sold gari and oranges to the caterers as a way of supporting the implementation of the programme. The direct implementing committee at the community level includes the Assemblyman, chiefs, teachers and community members. These groups of people served as supervisory agents at the grassroots level. Further inquiries from another respondent indicated that most



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of the communities had ignored their roles and therefore, everything had been on the shoulders of the government and the programme managers.

In comparing the rural and urban communities visited, there were several commonalities with regard to the provision of basic amenities to start the programme. Both rural and urban schools had similar challenge in the provision of a kitchen on the school compound. It was only one rural school out of the four schools visited that the community had provided a kitchen, while in another urban school, an old classroom had been allocated for cooking. In considering the views of the key informants and that of the focus group in relation to basic amenities, the former were of the view that communities should try and get the needed amenities through self-help, while the latter indicated that government through the district assemblies should assist very deprived communities.

From the primary data collected, it was realised that most schools within the communities were not complying with the policy document of the intervention. The reason being that the basic infrastructure such as water, kitchen, toilet and a dining area among others needed to kick start the programme were missing. Also, most of the communities were not involved in the intervention because they did not see the need or were not interested or did not appreciate its relevance. The very few communities that were involved were as a result of the active role played by their Assembly Members in the formation of SFC. These findings were not consistent with the policy as very paramount to a successful SFP. According to the (GSFP) manual, the programme requires the active involvement of communities in the implementation process in order to own the programme.



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Contributions to the implementation process at the school level

The contribution of the various stakeholders at the school level in the implementation of the SFP is vital to the success of the intervention. The SFP policy document mentions beneficiaries who are assigned various roles and responsibilities to help in the implementation process. The question on the various roles played at the school level brought views from both the rural and urban communities. The expectation of the community members were for the school authorities to take total control of the implementation of the intervention at the school level. In both the rural and urban communities, they indicated that,

*"they were unaware of the actual duties of the school but were of the view that the school should take up the responsibility of checking the caterers on food served to the kids".*

In one rural community, they were of the view that the responsibility should not be on only the school authorities. Community members were of the view that as stakeholders, they were expected to support the school to get better results. Another view was that the teachers, PTA, SFC, SIC and SMC should be held responsible for the implementation of the programme. According to key informants interviewed, they were of the view that the policy document had categorised the various implementation roles at the national, district and local levels.

A key informant was of the view that the implementation roles at the school level should be centred on the PTA, SFC, SMC and SIC. The opinion of the respondent was that,

*"the PTA is a significant association at the school level that parents and*



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*teachers' come together to take decisions that are of benefits to the school pupils".*

It is also a platform that SFP challenges at the school level could be discussed with strategies adopted for desired results. The role of the SFC is to oversee all activities and challenges with regard to the SFC. The SFC ensures that all stakeholders at the school level play their expected roles. The SMC is another vital committee at the school level that oversees all activities at the school level and performs management roles for best results.

GSFP varies in structure at the regional, district, and school levels. This is identified in the process of obtaining food, menu development and meal preparation. In most regions, resources are channelled to a School Implementation Committee (SIC), responsible for buying and storing the food. The SIC receives resources from the District Implementation Committee (DIC) to procure necessary supplies. The DICs are set up by Metropolitan/Municipal/District Assemblies (MMDAs), to ensure that DICs and SICs are established and the necessary infrastructure are in place to mobilize communities to provide the needed inputs (GCNF & PCD, 2011).

Another vital actor with regard to the implementation of the GSFP is the District Desk Officer (DDO).The DDO liaises between the DA, DIC, SIC the Regional Co-ordinator and GSFP Secretariat. The DDO is responsible for the proper documentation and reporting on the GSFP and acts as the co-ordinating officer of the programme in the district. As the focal person to co-ordinate activities between districts, schools, GSFP and GES, the DDO is nominated from the district. The DDO plans field visits to the schools for monitoring to get first hand information of the prevailing conditions.



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The DIC is a committee designated as the co-ordinating unit for the programme and exercises direct oversight responsibility of all the schools captured by the programme. It oversees the implementation and management of all components of the programme at the district level. Membership of the DIC include the District Chief Executive (DCE) of the district as the chairperson, District Director of Education, District Co-ordinating Director, District Directors of Health and Agriculture, a Traditional Ruler from the community, two representatives from the social services sub-committee and an opinion leader from the community.

Information from the respondents indicated that the community members especially were not aware of the expected roles to be played at the school level. The responses from both the rural and urban communities where focus group discussions were held provided evidence that they have not been informed of the expected roles as their responses were inconsistent with the literature. This to a very large extent has effect on the implementation role expected to be played at the school level.

Respondents were also asked about the various ways that community members were involved in the planning of the SFP, the emphasis was on the continuity of the intervention. Information gathered was that community members were not involved in the planning but rather sold to cooks at very expensive price. Community members were also expecting to be called to take part and that not much planning was done by the community. According to a respondent, planning was done by government at the national and regional levels and that community members were not involved since they seemed not interested in the programme. Planning of the programme according to the



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respondents starts from the national level and then decentralized but sometimes they just called them to seek for their views and later did their own thing.

Other respondents were of the view that the community members seemed disinterested in the programme. They indicated that from the onset of the programme, community members were part of the planning but when there was a change of government, everything changed. Others indicated that planning was done by the community only through the provision of kitchen and during community meetings but they were not fully involved in the planning of the programme. Some respondent said they were involved during PTA and SMC meetings because they were part of the SFC in their community. Some community members in their discussion said that,

*"community involvement was very low and they were not involved in the selection of caterers".*

They said planning was done by the coordinator and the Metro Assembly. In another community, it was the SIC that takes charge of the planning of the programme.

Community involvement in any development intervention is of much essence if programme planners expect to get the needed results. From the perspective of Taragon and McTiernan (2010), there are five levels in which people within a community could participate in a project. The levels offer increasing degrees of influence or control to the people involved. They include informing, consulting, deciding together, acting together and supporting others to take the lead. The very first level of informing participants is of much essence. This level involves telling beneficiaries about the project to be



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undertaken. This might be one of the first things development practitioners do which should be viewed as preparation for more active involvement. This level is the starting point for any intervention. Informing the people who are the beneficiaries of any development project is an appropriate way of involving them.

The question of various ways that community members were part of the implementation of the SFP brought various issues from both respondents interviewed and the FGDs conducted. From the data collected, community members played no role in the implementation of the SFP but rather their representatives on the SMC and SFC did. Those who played active roles helped to supervise the caterers in the morning so that rotten foods were not used for food preparation. Respondents were of the view that regular organisation of PTA and SFC meetings to discuss emerging challenges in addition to the provision of water for cooking were some of the roles community members could play to assist in the programme implementation.

Added to the above, community members played various implementation roles such as, supervisory role, adherence to menu and food preparation as well as the provision of infrastructure for the programme. Information from the data collected from respondents indicated that the programme was purely a local government programme and the preparation of food for the children was one significant and major implementation role played by the community. Respondent were of the view that at least if even the caterer was not from the community, the cook should be appointed from the community as a way of involving the community in the implementation of the intervention.



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A response from a key informant indicated that when she realised things were not going on as planned and her attention was drawn, she called for a meeting together with the caterers and the SFC. The key informant said that among the issues that demanded her prompt attention included absenteeism on the part of caterers and late arrival of food which affect instructional hours. She indicated that in most cases, she invited the caterers concerned and cautioned them in addition to monitoring the caterer concern. There were times she also recommended the suspension of such caterers or non-renewal of their contracts. According to the key informants, most times her caution brought some form of discipline on the part of the caterers.

Findings from the data collected gave some indications that not much was done by most of the communities in relation to the implementation of the intervention. Also, most of the cooks and caterers were from different communities, which defeat the purpose of poverty reduction and employment generation among such deprived communities. The findings indicate that out of the four communities visited; only one caterer was from a community although most of the cooks/helpers were employed from the communities. Also, the findings provide evidence that not much was done with regard to the implementation of the programme since most communities did not play very active and direct roles but had left all issues to be addressed by their representatives.

One significant fact was that most of the schools within the communities did not have well set up SFCs and most members hardly met in areas that the SFC existed. Community members also provided evidence of their lack of knowledge about their roles and responsibilities with regard to the



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programme and therefore were not aware of their responsibilities. These and other challenges had affected the implementation of the programme since the people had not yet owned the programme as expected by the policy document and may likely affect the sustenance of the intervention.

Added to the above, SFC members should not always wait for problems to arise before they call for meetings. Caterers as well as cooks should come from the beneficiary community as the policy document stipulates to provide employment and empower the beneficiary communities. Also, potential bottlenecks in the implementation of the SFP need to be identified and resolved. According to Del Rosso (1999), the process of not resolving bottlenecks can affect the programme plan and implementation which is capable of affecting the end results. Additionally, inability to resolve challenges may defeat the purpose of the intervention which is a waste of time and resources with respect to development plans. Another issue was that most beneficiaries were ignorant of their roles in the implementation of the programme which had largely affected the expected results.

The information from the respondents provided evidence that the findings were not consistent with the literature, in that, most communities did not have SFCs in place and most local people were not interested in the intervention. In the few communities where the SFCs were in place, they hardly met to identify challenges to be resolved and no feedback was given to community members of the challenges identified. These were the associated reasons that had affected the community member participation in the intervention with reference to implementation.



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The implementation stage of a project is the level of participation where beneficiaries contribute to the delivery of the project in practical hands-on ways. It involves deciding together and then working together to carry out the activities planned. Acting together transforms people from audiences or consumers of heritage to partners in the development and delivery of heritage activities. Deciding together makes participants bring knowledge, ideas and insight to projects of how people's experience of heritage could be improved.

The benefits of acting together leads to participants increased commitment to projects (Taragon & McTiernan, 2010). Working together brings additional resources such as time and expertise. Furthermore, new ideas and different approaches to delivering activities can motivate and inspire volunteers and increase the success of the project. The community also becomes a visible part of the project, generate wider interest from media and other local and or community organisations and participants build knowledge and skills to maintain and share their heritage. The conceptual framework suggests the need to adopt participatory process for development planners to get the needed results from beneficiaries in the implementation of projects.

Another issue of interest asked was other ways that community members could participate fully in the programme. Other respondents said in their own small way, they also encouraged children to attend school regularly and consume the food prepared. A key informant indicated that community members participated by drawing the menu charter of every district based on the particular crop grown in that area so that the caterer would be buying cheaply from the community. They also gave feedback to the school authorities, provided food to caterers at subsidized rates and also the cooks



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employed from the community participated directly. Some community members also produced certain food items for the caterers to buy for example kontomire, cassava dough, cabbage, gari among others.

The question on how community members engaged in monitoring and evaluation of the programme also provided varied views and opinions. Among the views expressed included the fact that monitoring and evaluation was done by PTA members, class teachers and heads in the community, some concerned parents and in most cases the Assembly man. Also, data from the respondents indicated that with regard to monitoring the activities of caterers assigned to the various schools, not much was done by community members. A group raised the issue that since they were yet to put up a kitchen for the school, they were unable to monitor the programme since food was prepared elsewhere and transported to the school premises. These reasons have very serious implications on the health of the school pupils with regard to food served and the expected role to be played by the community.

Some respondents said they occasionally visited the caterer's kitchen and engaged in conversation. Others also said they observed purchased food stuffs that were being carried to the store room. Also, during the cooking process, they visited the school to check how food was cooked, tasted it if it was nutritious, checked the source of products and distribution to the kids. Respondents were quick to state that these were some of their roles to help sustain the programme. In one particular school that the caterer was monitored, the reason was that the caterer was from the community and cooking was done at the school premises with adequate support from the community. Another reason was the set-up of a vibrant SFC in place with



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support from all stakeholders as indicated in the GSFP policy document.

A respondent indicated that although the community was to serve as security for the programme, not much was done with regard to monitoring and evaluation. The indication was that government was paying for the cost so they did not need to engage in any monitoring or supervision. Another commented that it was only when caterers buy from the community that they could also monitor them. The above responses provided evidence that the community was not interested in the cost implications on the government in paying so much to feed the pupils but were rather interested only in their own personal benefits when caterers bought from them.

Information from the field indicated that some communities liaised with the PTA to monitor the programme by checking food preparation. Also, since the community had provided a kitchen and also encouraged children to go to school, that was what they could do, since the school had no SMC or SFC. The community member indicated that their kind of profession did not allow them to stay in the community for a long time since they were fishermen and they travel long distances, which may affect their roles in the formation of SMC to monitor the programme. Others said since their kids were the direct beneficiaries, they should taste the food and monitor its preparation.

At one particular community, the group said one way they engaged in monitoring was through regular inspection of food before it was served. Others raised some concerns that an active and vibrant SIC would help monitor and evaluate the programme as it was their responsibility to check the activities of caterers. A respondent said that the SIC was to see to it that the caterer provided adequate and nutritious food for the children. The SIC should



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also liaise with the DIC to ensure that food prepared by the caterer was adequate and provide direct supervision over the caterer.

A key informant indicated that community members employed by the caterer should also monitor the preparation of the food and members of the SFC should present the views of the community to the programme officers. Community members indicated that they should be allowed to take part in the selection of caterers so that SFP is not labelled as a political programme. A head teacher informed the team that the SFC in the school had been very active through the supervision of the products purchased by the caterers since foodstuffs was bought in bulk and kept at a storeroom on the school premises. Also, the SFC did unannounced inspection of the food prepared for the school pupils.

The literature on the need for community members to engage in monitoring and evaluation of development interventions indicates that participant's involvement from the start to the end of a programme is a vital pre-requisite for the sustainability of development interventions. When beneficiaries play active roles in monitoring and evaluation, it results in the sustenance of the programme. Olukotun (2008) states that involving beneficiaries eliminates the tendency to abandon the projects when they are half-way completed and sustains the interest of the community to maintain and protect the projects.

Added to the above, since the people are the beneficiaries of development projects, they have a stake in it and so they must be partners in the process. They must be the key participants whose views, choices, needs and feelings must be taken into account. Mohammad (2010) also suggests that



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community participation is regarded as one of the cornerstones of good governance. It helps enhance accountability, transparency and importantly ensure sustainability of development initiatives. The writer is of the view that so far as projects are undertaken purposely to improve the livelihood of local people, their needs and demands are assumed to be reflected in the selection of development projects as community members are involved in the process. The conceptual framework also provides evidence of the need to engage in regular monitoring and evaluation not only at the end of the process but at every level of the process to get the needed results and to resolve challenges encountered.

These findings to a large extent contradict the literature since not much monitoring was done by the beneficiaries although structures were put in place by the policy implementers for communities to engage in monitoring and evaluation at their own level. In the few schools that monitoring was done, the community expected only members of the PTA, SFC, SMC and SIC to engage in it. The indication was that monitoring of the programme should not only be the duty of key members of the community but every community member. There was also the view that since food was prepared elsewhere, there was no way monitoring could be done. Some community members were of the view that until caterers bought foodstuffs from them, they could not monitor them. One challenge identified from some of the schools visited was the absence of SMC and SFC to aid in monitoring of the programme.

The provision of basic needs by parents was good but cannot be a monitoring role with respect to the SFP. The effort of parents to provide the basic needs of their kids was very significant to support the programme in one way. Community members and all the active partners involved are also



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encouraged to go the extra mile to monitor the progress of the programme. Also, the success of any development intervention cannot be realised without the active participation of beneficiaries in monitoring and evaluation.

Finally, the above findings were not consistent with what had been indicated, although very few community members said they were actively involved. The reasons were because a greater number of the community saw the programme as one coming from the government and therefore community ownership was missing as far as the implementation of the intervention was concerned. The expected implementation roles on the part of the community included the provision of basic infrastructure, such as; kitchen and a place of convenience were inadequate which had affected the implementation role on the part of the community.

**Essence for the sustenance of the SFP in CCMA**

This section of the discussion was centred on the prospects for the sustainability of the SFP. The section emphasised much on the need for sustainability of the programme and the expected roles community members were to contribute to the sustenance of the SFP programme. The literature provides evidence that beneficiary involvement in any development programme is significant if programme implementers expect the programme to be sustained (Chambers, 1997). Also, when beneficiaries are involved in project formulation and design, implementation and finally monitoring and evaluation, the projects are likely to be sustained and more cost effective, which leads to equitable distribution of project benefit and better designed projects (Olukotun, 2008).



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The relevance for the sustenance of the SFP in CCMA is significant to both the programme implementers and beneficiaries in any development intervention. There are several themes identified in the essence for the sustenance of the SFP. Among the themes identified include project formulation and design, project implementation, and project monitoring and evaluation.

Project formulation and design for the sustenance of the SFP

The formulation and design of a project is very significant in any development intervention. Also, when beneficiaries are involved in project formulation and design, the projects are likely to be sustained and more cost effective which leads to equitable distribution of project benefit and better designed projects (Olukotun, 2008). The findings from the communities indicated that beneficiary involvement in the formulation and design of the SFP was not so pronounced in most of the communities visited.

The respondents mentioned that in the few communities that participation was well pronounced, it improved enrolment figures as beneficiary involvement encouraged the caterers to comply with the menu chart and kids were motivated to attend school regularly. In communities where no participation and involvement was identified, respondents were of the view that the programme had been dumped on them and they had no role to play in the formulation and design towards the sustenance.

The GSFP policy identifies several roles to be played by various actors in the formulation and design of the intervention. The GSFP varies at the regional, district, and school levels in formulation, design and structure and it



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is identified in the process of obtaining food, menu development, and meal preparation. Among the several actors that engage in the roles of formulation and design for the sustenance of the SFP include the MoLGRD, GSFP Secretariat, District Assemblies (DAs), District Desk Officer (DDO), District Implementation Committees (DICs), School Implementation Committees (SICs), and Caterers/Matrons.

The decentralised nature of the programme requires the involvement of local participation in the implementation of the intervention. The mainline actors are the MoLGRD, GSFP Secretariat, DAs, DICs, SICs, and Caterers/Matrons. The MoLGRD has the oversight responsibility for the GSFP. In pursuit of the programme objectives, there is strong community participation and decentralised operations, using already existing structures of the DAs and RCC offices.

The GSFP national secretariat is the coordinating body of the programme and it is supervised by the MoLGRD. The national secretariat is to ensure that the programme strengthens agriculture production in the poorest communities and enhance the capacity of the communities to improve food security. The national secretariat ensures that the district select beneficiary schools based on the agreed criterion and provide periodic audits of DICs and SICs to assure consistency. They also ensure effective collaboration with MoE on educational component, MoH on health and nutrition component, MoFA on agricultural component and effective collaboration with strategic partners. The national secretariat train and build capacity to implementers through monitoring and evaluation nationwide.



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The success of the GSFP depends largely on the commitment of the DA, their level of readiness and interest towards sustaining it. The DAs appoint staff of the assembly as desk officers to serve as a link between the assembly and the programme secretariat. The DA is also mandated to open a special SF bank account into which feeding funds from GSFP/MoLGRD will be lodged. The District Finance Officer (DFO) and the District Co-ordinating Director (DCD) must be signatories to the account in line with the Financial Administration Act (FAA). The MMDAs are to ensure that caterers procure from local farmers. The DAs are to encourage agriculture extension officers to assist local farmers to produce for the GSFP and collate information on how GSFP has linked up with farmers at the district level.

Another vital key actor with regard to the implementation of the GSFP is the District Desk Officer (DDO). S/he is the liaison to link between the DA, DIC, SIC the Regional Co-ordinator and GSFP Secretariat and responsible for the proper documentation and reporting on the GSFP. She also acts as the co-ordinating officer of the programme in the district. The DDO should be nominated from the district and becomes the focal person to co-ordinate activities between districts and schools, GSFP and GES. The DDO also plans field visits to the schools for monitoring, receives copies of reports from the schools to DA/DIC and regional co-ordinator.

The DIC is a committee designated under the district level as the co-ordinating unit for the programme and exercises direct oversight of all the schools captured by the programme. It oversees the implementation and management of all components of the programme at the district level. Membership of the DIC include the District Chief Executive (DCE) of the



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district as the chairperson, District Director of Education, District Co-ordinating Director, District Directors of Health and Agriculture, Traditional Ruler from the community, two representatives from the social services sub-committee and an opinion leader from the community.

The roles of the DIC include ensuring funds are disbursed on time to caterers on receipts from the GSFP secretariat. They also ensure that schools selected meet the criteria for eligibility and inform communities about the programme through sensitization and participation to ensure communities commit to the programme. They ensure that caterers have health certificates and guarantee the formation and inauguration of the SICs. The DIC provide assistance such as sanitation, agriculture, nutrition and follow up recommendations by the MoLGRD. The committee monitor the status and achievements of set targets from the district and national levels and conduct periodic monitoring of the quality of food served by caterers for consideration during renewal of contract.

The SIC is the structure at the community level that oversees SF activities. Each community is to have a SIC consisting of the head teacher of the beneficiary school being the chairperson, two representatives of the Parents and Teachers Association (PTA), a representative of the SMC, one traditional ruler from the community, an assembly member and the boys and girls prefects of the beneficiary school. The SIC collaborate with the head teachers and caterers in providing adequate and nutritious food for the children and prepare reports on their SF activities at the end of each term and each year to the district assembly.



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The SIC follow upon recommendations to be carried by the MoLGRD and the secretariat. They liaise with the DIC to develop a locally driven menu to provide nutritionally adequate meals. They also provide oversight supervision of caterers entrusted with cooking and feeding. They facilitate community involvement, mobilization and support for the implementation of the programme. They ensure that equipment used for cooking are kept in good condition. They see to the use of potable water and maintenance of sanitation. They also report instances of sub-standard food to the DIC during renewal of contract of caterers. They collaborate with CSOs to sensitize communities to take ownership of the programme.

The last but not the least is the caterer or matron who is responsible for cooking food on large scale under hygienic conditions and demonstrates basic understanding of the nutritional needs of children. The caterer is to purchase local foodstuffs from the community. She is to undergo medical examination with health insurance certificate. She is not to purchase unwholesome raw materials and expired ingredients in preparing food. She is to recruit her own cooks and helpers from the local community and pay them from her own resources. They caterer is to comply with food and drugs board, environmental and sanitation safety standards and environmental precautions in the preparation of food.

It is significant to note that although the policy document mentions several roles and responsibilities to be played by the various actors identifies above towards the formulation and design for the sustenance of the SFP, the reality is that there are various challenges in relation to the formation, existence and the expected roles of these actors. The conclusion with regard to



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the absence of these actors in the formulation and design of the SFP has serious implications towards the sustenance of the SFP. Massive efforts should be put in place towards the formulation and design stage of the programme.

Project implementation for the sustenance of the SFP

The implementation stage of every intervention is the stage that actual activities are undertaken for beneficiaries or programme participants. Schilizzi (2003) indicates that the implementation stage of any development programme is where the rural poor can participate in the implementation aspects of a development project in three principal ways, through resource contributions, administration and coordination and enlistment in programmes. The resource contributions refer to the question of who contributes the various kinds of inputs needed to carry out a project and how these contributions are made.

The SFP policy indicates that institutional arrangements of the Programme Steering Committee (PSC) are the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MoLGRD) and the GSFP National Secretariat which has overall responsibility for the implementation of the programme. The MoLGRD provides policy guidance, direction and policy decisions and has oversight responsibility for GSFP. The Technical Ministries are the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MoFA), Ministry of Health (MoH), Ministry of Education (MoE), Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MoFEP) and the Ministry of Women and Children (MoWAC). The technical ministries provide technical expertise with respect to their sectors. Among the strategic partners and external support agencies are the local governments being the



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Regional Co-ordinating Councils (RCCs), the District Assemblies (DAs), the beneficiary communities, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and the media.

In the implementation process, resources are channelled to a School Implementation Committee (SIC) responsible for buying, storing, and preparing the food. The SIC is to receive resources from the District Implementation Committee (DIC) to procure necessary supplies. The DICs are set up by Metropolitan/Municipal/District Assemblies (MMDAs), which are responsible for ensuring that DICs and SICs are established and that the necessary infrastructure is in place to mobilize communities to provide the needed inputs to schools in the programme. The DAs undertake the actual implementation of GSFP at the grassroots level using their already existing structures whilst Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) also assist in providing complementary services such as the provision of water, sanitation, energy among others.

Added to the above, when community members are involved in the implementation, the project is deemed to be successful. The reason being that when beneficiaries are actively involved from the beginning to the end of the projects, the benefits derived are enormous to the beneficiaries and project financiers. According to Cooke and Kothari (2007), it makes development participatory as the "people" are central to development. It also encourages beneficiary involvement in interventions that affect them and over which they previously had limited control or influence which eventually promotes sustenance. The writer declares that the implementation of beneficiaries in development interventions is justified in terms of sustainability, relevance and empowerment.



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A respondent was of the view that although the community should be involved in the implementation of the intervention, he was of the opinion that the actual implementation should be handled at the school level. The respondent indicated that the SFC and the SMC should be made responsible for the implementation of the programme if best results are vital to the programme planners. The view of the respondents was that the direct overseers of the programme at the school level is the SFC who are responsible for the day to day affairs of the programme, the respondent added that when there are challenges then the SMC could be consulted.

In sum, project implementation for the sustenance of the SFP is a role to be played by both the beneficiaries of the intervention and programme planners. Responses from the discussant gave the indication that actual implementation should be done at the school level and that the SMC and the SFC should take the lead role. This view to a very large extent is not consistent to literature since all stakeholders are to play their expected roles and not only the two committees.

Project monitoring and evaluation for the sustenance of the SFP

The relevance in introducing monitoring and evaluation in the SFP cannot be undervalued. According to Olukotun (2008), participant's involvement in monitoring and evaluation is a pre-requisite where beneficiaries play active roles which mostly result in the sustenance of the programme. When communities are involved in monitoring and evaluation, there is the assurance of sustainability, subject to some conditions unlike when they had no role to play, no idea about the project or when it is imposed on



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them. Involving beneficiaries in monitoring and evaluation eliminates the tendency to abandon the projects when they are half-way completed and sustains the interest of the beneficiary community to maintain and protect the projects. The result is that development is meaningful if it harnesses the potentials of stakeholders.

Also, when beneficiaries are involved in monitoring and evaluation, the projects are likely to be sustained and more cost effective which leads to equitable distribution of project benefit and better designed projects (Olukotun, 2008). The findings indicate that beneficiary involvement in monitoring and evaluation was very minimal in most of the communities visited. In a few of the communities, beneficiary involvement in monitoring and evaluation was basically little as only members in the SFC were involved. The respondents mentioned that in the few communities that participation in monitoring and evaluation existed, it provided positive results as beneficiary involvement in monitoring and evaluation encouraged the caterers to comply with the menu chart. In communities where no participation and involvement in monitoring and evaluation was identified, respondents were of the view that the programme had been dumped on them and they had no role to play in its sustenance.

Another factor is the development and implementation of monitoring and evaluation systems in the SFP policy. This factor is very significant and crucial to the success of any SFP. According to a key informant, monitoring and evaluation of the programme is done at the national level. This in effect deprives the beneficiaries who are at the grassroots of their views and opinions.



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The relevance of monitoring and evaluation is also identified in the conceptual framework where at every stage of the process, monitoring and evaluation is undertaken and not only at the end of the achieved development indicators. The conceptual framework explains the need to comply with the findings identified at every monitoring and evaluation stage of the process for programme planners to get the desired results.

The result from the study identified the need for sustaining the SFP. The community members expressed their views as to why sustainability of SFP was vital. Among the views expressed by the respondents included

*"reduction in short term hunger and malnutrition among school kids, increased demand for locally produced food, increased school attendance, improved school performance and cognitive abilities".*

The conceptual framework for the study indicates that the preparation of good quality balanced diet from locally produced food will lead to short term hunger, reduction in mal-nutrition and increased demand for locally produced food which will improve health and nutritional needs of school pupils.

Furthermore, the study identified factors such as employment generation for community members especially Ebobonko and Effutu Kubease with fallen standard of living per the CCMA report on living standards. Also, it would enhance regular market for farmers, fishermen and market women, increased family wage and poverty reduction and create regular market among rural communities. In totality, the essence of sustaining the SFP aims at improving health and nutrition for school pupils, improved educational goals, enhanced community participation and improved standard of living.



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Added to the above, caterers would be compelled to comply with the menu prepared which would also improve the nutritional needs of the school pupils. Respondents indicated that beneficiaries' involvement could encourage caterers to buy from the community which would improve their income, create employment, reduce poverty and post-harvest losses in addition to saving enough time to cater for their day to day activities. It would also reduce transportation cost incurred by the caterers as they purchased from the community.

The introduction of Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) with emphasis on regular supervision and monitoring by the community, field monitors, co-ordinator and desk officers were identified as a key player as far as the sustenance of the programme was concerned. Respondents were of the view that there were several benefits to be received if community members embrace the aspect of the intervention that aim at the production of home grown food to be served at schools.

Furthermore, sustaining the SFP would also improve the work of community farmers and fishermen and increase the standard of living at the local level as indicated by the conceptual framework. Also, food would be well prepared, menu accepted by the community and importantly people would be served with food they were familiar with. A key informant said that

*"the purpose of the HGSF was to plough back money paid to the caterer to the community".*

The caterer uses the money to buy foodstuffs grown from the community to enhance the income and also the cost of living of the people in the community instead of the money been repatriated. All these benefits would be attained



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when the SFP is sustained.

A key informant was of the view that if eighty percent (80%) of the food stuffs used in cooking were purchased from the beneficiary communities, it would ensure money staying in the communities for the expansion of their farms and eventually increase food security in the community and the district. It would also boost the consumption of staple foods. Community members were of the opinion that it was a very good aspect of the programme since children would consume foods they were familiar with and would help the children grow since the staple food was very nutritious, easier to cook and digest easily.

With respect to plans put in place towards the long term sustenance of the programme, results from the study revealed that government aims at increasing rural employment, reducing rural poverty and post-harvest losses. Other plans mentioned were producing cheap, nutritious and affordable food. Also, efforts were far advanced to increase the amount of 40 pesewas per child and that government was increasing the coverage to other deprived areas in addition to addressing challenges identified in the programme. The Metro Coordinator mentioned that modalities were being worked out on the part of government to improve the payment schedule currently in place.

Another respondent said that

*"he was not aware of plans to sustain the programme since the programme was a political one and that when it started communities applauded it since the food given to the kids was of very good quality".*

The respondent said that currently only political party supporters were employed as caterers since all the former caterers were sacked. Respondents



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stated that the appointment of only the current political party supporters had made some of the caterers very powerful as they refused to take directives, instructions and criticisms from some officials who were known not to be supporters of the current government.

A key informant was of the view that plans were in place to attract foreign investors, partners, donors and financial institutions both local and foreign to support in funding the programme and also reduce the burden on government. There was also regular workshops and training being organised at the local and national levels to sensitize stakeholders. The programme managers were also re-targeting to bring some other deprived schools on board and if possible take the programme off communities that are not deprived.

Also, programme managers had started buying rice from Ghana buffer stock which had been introduced to almost all the schools benefiting from the programme which had reduced the importation of rice from other countries. The respondent added that at the community level, parents should own the programme by agreeing to sell some of their foodstuffs and fish to the caterers at their normal prices or on credit basis if possible.

The results from the data gave a clear indication that most of the respondents, apart from the key informants, were of the view that not much was put in place to sustain the programme. Most community members were of the opinion that supervision on the part of the programme managers was very low or minimal and therefore some caterers did whatever they liked in the schools. Monitoring was another issue which they believed could affect the sustenance of the programme. One significant challenge raised was the need to



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adjust the daily feeding fee of 40pesewasperchildper day of which government should look for support and ways to financially sustain the programme and to pay caterers regularly if possible on a monthly basis.

Key informants gave varied ways that government was putting structures in place to sustain the programme. Among the plans included the introduction of HGSF and community participation to encourage stakeholder participation to own the programme and provide some support at their level. Other plans mentioned include the removal of politics from the programme. Also, regular supply of food from the Ghana buffer stock to caterers on credit basis. Arguably, the policy document does not say much about plans to sustain the programme except the main objectives of poverty reduction, food security and retention in school.

Another issue addressed was what else could be done to improve and sustain the SFP at the community level. This was a platform to elicit from respondents the factors needed to sustain the programme. Respondents indicated that farmers and fishmongers should sell at moderate prices to caterers and also supply free items such as firewood, oil, foodstuffs and fruits to the cooks to improve the quality of food served. An example was cited in the Sisala East District where there was so much yam so the community agreed to give some free to the SFP to feed the children. Other communities were encouraged to replicate this laudable intervention to help sustain the programme. PTAs in the various schools were admonished to be pro-active and ensure that rules were complied with and cooks advised to be kind to the kids as they shouted at them.

Also, parents were advised to feel free to voice their opinion about



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some challenges they knew about the programme. Parents could also inform their representatives at the various District Assemblies to inform government officials to pay caterers regularly and increase the feeding fees so that the caterers could also cook good and quality food for optimal health. Respondents said

*"they could also help encourage children to attend school and also report caterers who did not prepare good food to reduce infection among children since some children went home with stomach upset after they ate "kontomire" stew at school on a particular day".*

Communities should set up very active SFCs to regularly check food prepared which would significantly sustain the programme on the part of community members.

Community members raised the issue that caterers should be selected from their communities and if the caterer did not comply with rules and regulations, should be cautioned or reported to the authorities. They also expressed the need to show much interest, commitment and be fully involved. Respondents also mentioned the need for regular PTA meetings to put petition on board and parents who attended should express their opinions whilst Assembly Members send issues to the Assembly floor for redress. Community members indicated that their active role in the execution of the programme for example taking care of the basic infrastructure such as kitchen, toilet, dining hall and a decent store room to store raw food would sustain the programme.

The insistence on the preparation of food on the schools premises was noted by respondents. Respondent stated that,

*"it would ensure that instructional hours were not disturbed".*



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This was because as food was prepared elsewhere and transported to the school lead to lateness and other consequences that might affect the health of the pupils and might defeat the purpose of the programme. Respondents were of the view that preparation of food on the school's premises had varied benefits both to the community, the school pupils and the programme as well. They prayed that their leaders would help them put up a kitchen through community contribution.

The results from the data gave clear indication that respondents were aware of their basic roles expected to improve and sustain the programme at the community level. Most community members were of the opinion that supervision on the part of community members could go a long way to improve upon the programme. Monitoring was another issue which they believed could positively affect the sustenance of the programme. Community members agreed that it would be prudent to sell moderately to caterers to help sustain the programme. They could also supply food to the caterers and especially fruits to enhance the health status of the kids.

In conclusion, the essence for the sustenance of the SFP provided information from the respondents that beneficiaries should be actively involved in all the three relevant stages which are project formulation and design, implementation stage as well as monitoring and evaluation stage.

**Community participation and the sustenance of the SFP in CCMA**

The study further looked at the participation of beneficiaries towards the sustenance of the SFP. The literature on participation provided evidence of the key role of communities in any development interventions towards its



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sustenance. There appeared to be many avenues by which the process of community involvement enhanced programme sustainability. The literature overwhelmingly shows a positive relationship between community participation and sustainability in both domestic and international settings. In guaranteeing the sustenance of development programmes, Kendie and Martens (2008) suggested dedicated leaders who wield the support of the people with the right prioritization of realistic and practical policies. Mohammad (2010) also states that to ensure the sustenance of development projects, a cross-section of the beneficiaries irrespective of gender, educational status and income level has been proved to be very significant.

The question on the benefits of farmers and fishmongers in the community who sold to caterers engaged in SFP brought the following responses. While some community members indicated that

*"they were not ready to sell their products to the caterers on credit since government does not pay caterers on time, others indicated that they preferred to sell their products to their already existing clients that they trust".*

A respondent said that he personally did not think the caterers will be willing to buy from them since they preferred to buy in bulk and being a peasant farmer, he does not produce on a large scale.

Some respondents also gave other responses indicating that there were various benefits associated if farmers and fishmongers sold to caterers. Among some of the responses include

*"employment generation at the community level, development in the community, increased regular income of farmers and fishermen to reduce*



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*poverty among farmers and fishermen which would help them take good care of their children, regular supply of food, increased production, reduction in post-harvest losses and a sustained programme".*

Also, the cost of food purchased by the caterer would be very affordable in addition to a general reduction in poverty among rural folks and a raise in their standard of living. All the above responses are identified in the conceptual framework which shows the enormous benefits to be derived by the local community if a community is actively involved in the SFP.

Other respondents said it would improve and increase production of farmers produce. Reduction in the cost of transportation on the part of farmers and caterers was another benefit to be realised. Also, the burden on farmers and fishmongers carrying their produce to market centres and its related challenges would be curtailed. Added to the above, it would serve as already market for their produce. This was because they would be able to take good care of their children in schools in addition to the provision of their basic needs such as exercise books, school uniforms and other basic necessities. The other benefits include a **s**ustained market, reliable payment which will also enhance their work to improve upon their production.

Results from the data provided evidence that when farmers and fishmongers sold to caterers, the standard of living of the locality would be better. Also, when the right structures are in place for farmers and fishmongers to be able to supply the needed foodstuffs to the caterers, the benefits would be huge and it would aid in fulfilling the objectives of the intervention. The only challenge was that some community members indicated that they were not ready to sell their produce to caterers if they should buy on credit which



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would significantly kill the purpose of the intervention.

The above findings to a very large extent support literature and the creation of HGSF which sought to reduce household and community poverty as caterers were required to spend 80percent of the monies in the communities to boost agriculture and improve food security (Bondzi-Simpson, 2012).The focus is to spend on local foodstuffs by providing a ready market for local farm produce leading to wealth creation for rural households as caterers buy their foodstuffs from the community farmers and fishmongers to improve the local economy and employment rate.

The conceptual framework for the study also identifies the underlying development outcome in the adoption of HGSF with its associated benefits such as employment generation for rural people, regular market for farmers, fishermen and market women, increased family wage, poverty reduction among rural folks among others. Del Rosso (1999) is of the view that HGSF and nutrition programmes that focus on younger children is the evidence that children in poor health start school later in life and in many cases not at all. HGSF therefore serve as a bait to encourage early schooling among deprived communities. It also leads to development and community participation at the school level as members of the community become part of their own development process.

Respondents were also asked to express their opinion on how community members had contributed to the success of the programme. A respondent said that when it comes to community member's contribution towards the programme, he will be honest to say that community members have done nothing to warrant the success of the SFP. Another respondent



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stated that,

*"ninety-five percent of community members have done anything, even the provision of local kitchen was a problem, as for the community their contribution was nil".*

Other respondents said that much had been done by head teachers and class teachers in the formation of very active SIC but not community members. Another mentioned that the community had helped in enrolment and had reduced dropout rate as they encouraged children to attend school and they provided basic needs such as bowls, cups, water, toilet roll and soap. In one of the communities visited, the primary 5 and 6 pupils helped in their own way by fetching water after school for the caterers to be used for cooking in the morning.

In another community, they responded that the community had supported the programme through the provision of kitchen and they also used to sell fruit to the caterers although it had stopped. They added that the community insisted that the food was cooked on time and on the school premises so that it does not affect instructional hours. One key informant said that,

*"in some communities, they supplied firewood and foodstuffs while some women supported the cooks occasionally".*

There was also the view that most community members visited the school only when there was a problem such as inadequate food, food not tasty, when caterers were not buying from the community, when caterers were not selected from the community among others.

Respondents also said they **v**isited the kitchen, checked food prepared,



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tasted food at times and checked if caterers complied with the menu chart given to them. They at times reported to teachers about bad food prepared to pupils. The information indicated that some schools had vibrant SIC that ensured ingredients were inspected before cooking started in the morning. They also insisted on personal hygiene of the cooks as they inspected their finger nails, ear ring and hair to make sure everything was done accordingly. At one particular school, information gathered was that, the SMC chairman, PTA chairman, assemblyman and one SIC executive had assigned a lady who checked on the taste of food prepared and also inspected foodstuff and ingredients.

One significant observation was the role played by the school pupils which was against the intervention. The policy does not allow caterers to engage school pupils in any work related to the programme. The purpose is not to engage children in any work to affect their academic work and instructional hours. Although the kids fetched water after school, it was unacceptable and goes against the policy document. There was also the indication that neither the programme implementers nor the community members had reprimanded the caterer for involving the kids in some kind of work which was against the policy.

Additionally, the role of a community in any development intervention with respect to its success cannot be relegated to the background. Information from respondents were not consistent with literature which may probably be that the community was not reaping the benefits from the intervention since participation was very low. The literature on community participation provides evidence that it leads to development projects that are more responsive to the



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needs of the poor (Khwaja, 2004). It is also responsive to government projects and better delivery of public goods and services.

According to Khwaja, community participation also leads to better maintained community assets and a more informed and involved citizenry. Taragon and McTiernan (2010), state that community participation should be built in from the start of a project through to its planning, management, delivery and evaluation. The conceptual framework identifies the essence of community participation through the adoption of participatory processes that will lead to community ownership and enhanced community participation.

Respondents were asked to identify the various ways that community participation could contribute to the sustainability of the SFP. They mentioned

*"the free supply of salt to caterers, assisting in conveying goods to the cooks store room, monitoring the activities of caterers during food preparation among others".*

A community raised the point on the provision of good food stuffs which would help increase the programme target and also support in cash and in kind since the programme was to help the community. Another way was to sell to caterers at reduced prices and on credit basis if possible.

Other ways that community members could contribute to the sustenance of the programme was through regular supervision, regular meetings to identify challenges and provision of workable solutions. Also, community members could contribute by being actively involved financially in the provision of a kitchen, store room, good drinking water and the provision of basic needs of the school children. The Metro Desk officer said that,



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*"community members should be involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of the programme".*

Cordial relationship with caterers and community members was also identified as a prudent avenue to sustain the programme. Community members also said they could advise programme implementers to change any caterer who did not comply with the policy.

Another issue mentioned by the respondents was the appointment of committed caterers and not political party supporters. Community members expressed their displeasure about the fact that only political party members from the current government were selected as caterers although they were not from the community. They complained that if caterers were employed from the community, it would sustain the programme. Community members expressed their desire to have a hand in the selection of caterers as food was brought at anytime they wanted, which sometimes affected instructional hours. Another issue was for head teachers and class teachers in the target schools to be empowered to control the caterers since some of the caterers felt "very powerful" because they were politically appointed and therefore they felt they were "untouchables".

Information from the field raises a lot of issues with regard to the various ways that a community's contribution could help sustain the programme. The summary of the issues raised by respondents include free supply of foodstuffs by community members, regular monitoring of food preparation and selling to caterers at reduced prices. Regular supervision and regular meetings of SFC and PTA were other measures mentioned. The provision of kitchen, storeroom, regular water supply and a dining area in



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addition to proper planning, monitoring and implementation on the part of beneficiaries were also mentioned. The need to change caterers who were not complying with the programme policy in addition to empowering head teachers to check on caterers was identified as vital.

Community members remarked that the success of the programme would be realised if political influence was removed from the programme. Community members lamented on lack of commitment on the part of some caterers as they showed no respect to community members or teachers because they were political party members who had "contacts and connections". Other factors raised include regular supervision, peer meeting with caterers to identify challenges among others. Community members expressed the need to be part of the selection of caterers employed for the programme. Suggestions raised by the community members were identified as laudable interventions which were very consistent with the policy document which emphasizes regular monitoring at the grass root level with institutional structure made up of the SIC and PTA among others.

In conclusion, the success of the SFP with regard to community participation and the sustenance of the intervention can be looked at in two main folds from the discussions above. The success and sustenance of the programme depends largely on the active efforts of community members and the finance needed. To a very large extent, the findings are very consistent with literature. This therefore provides evidence that the needed finance and community efforts combine to provide the needed results expected for sustainability to be achieved.



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**Measures to improve upon the School Feeding Programme**

The last part of the data analysis looks at the various measures to improve upon the SFP. The purpose was to elicit from the beneficiaries other measures to be included to improve and sustain the programme to reap the full benefits as a poverty intervention for the indigent. The first part looked at the conditions that must be fulfilled for sustainability of the SFP to be achieved. This section looked at the responsibilities on the part of all stakeholders involved in the programme. The researcher categorised the conditions to be fulfilled in four dimensions. First, on the part of the school authorities, second, on the part of the community, third the state and finally the caterers.

From the discussions with respondents, the conditions that must be fulfilled by the school authorities include the provision of adequate security on the school compound especially at night. This was as a result of a complaint made by a caterer whose cooking utensils as well as raw food purchased to be cooked for the school pupils were stolen. The caterer indicated that there was the urgent need to secure the kitchen and the store room on the school compound as the school was in an area open to all sort of people within the community. The caterer lamented that she was yet to get any support from the community.

Respondents also indicated that the school should supervise the activities of SFC members in order not to compromise on their duties but to check on lapses and report appropriately. Community members said that,

*"most SFCs were dormant as they hardly met regularly to discuss issues and suggested ways to curb challenges that may arise".*

A key informant also said that,



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*"in most cases the duties of the SFCs had been left on the shoulders of head teachers of the respective schools".*

Other respondents were of the opinion that the SFCs should be motivated by the PTA or the community to help boost their morale to perform as expected.

Class teachers and head teachers of the respective schools should monitor the activities of caterers and check cleanliness of pupils as they educate them on washing of hands with soap and water before and after eating. The conceptual framework identifies the need for regular monitoring and evaluation at every stage to get the desired results. Respondents were of the view that the school should vigorously engage in a massive education of personal hygiene on the part of both pupils and caterers. A respondent from Okyeso stated that in most cases the pupils do not wash their hand before and after eating. The respondent added that,

*"mostly, the lower primary pupils especially looked very untidy as they cleaned their hands with their school uniform or soiled their books after food was served".*

The school authorities must discourage pupils from buying food at school and eat the food provided by the programme since sellers of food on the school compound preferred the programme was stopped since the SFP affected their business negatively. Community members said although food was served at school, the pupils preferred that they were given money to purchase food sold at school which they complained about its quality. Respondents said they would prefer that pupils were compelled to eat food served to reduce the burden on parents of providing additional money to be spent at school.



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Respondents also said that,

*"class teachers should check attendance since after food was served, some kids do not return to the classroom".*

Another respondent from Bakaano reiterated that some school pupils especially the boys never returned to the classroom after food was served. Among the fishing communities within the urban communities that the researcher visited, a key informant said that it was only on Tuesdays that majority of the school pupils (boys) stayed at school till closing time as they were mostly found at the beach swimming, or after food was served they stayed away from the classroom which had implications on their performance.

Conditions that must be fulfilled at the community level include selling at reduced price and on credit to caterers. Caterers expressed their displeasure of buying most of their ingredients from the community but they were quick to add that,

*"community members have a belief that GOG had paid them huge sums of money and therefore community members preferred to sell to caterers at very expensive price".*

Caterers indicated that both the community members and the caterers would benefit if modalities were put in place to ensure that community members sell to caterers at reduced prices or on credit basis to aid the programme.

Community members must also ensure that the basic needs of their kids were catered for. The community must provide the kids with bowls, spoons, cups and water for school. At Okyeso, one of the urban communities visited, a respondent asserted that,

*"most of the kids came to school without bowls or spoons and therefore had to*



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*wait for their friends to finish eating before they could be served. The caterers complained bitterly that there were occasions that some kids hardly washed their bowls and pleaded that parents check on the bowls that the kids use at school and ensured that they were clean".*

The respondent said the provision of the basic needs of the kids would also aid in fulfilling the programme objectives.

Opinion leaders in the community were also encouraged to be involved in the day to day running of the programme as they assist the effort of the school and the SFCs. Respondent said that,

*"the active involvement of opinion leaders in the community would motivate the community members to play their expected roles".*

Also, the active involvement of opinion leaders would help challenges encountered by the programme to be addressed on time through their effort. Opinion leaders could also support the programme as they ensure that basic needs like kitchen and dining area are provided.

Programme managers were also encouraged to involve community members in the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers should be selected from the beneficiary community. The community members expressed their desire to be involved in the selection of caterers from the community so that the community could identify themselves as part of the implementation of the programme. They were of the opinion that,

*"it would help them get caterers who had the interest of the pupils in the community at heart. It would also compel caterers to comply with the rules and regulations as they are part of the community and would want to perform as expected".*



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Conditions that must be fulfilled by the state include the need for prompt payment of feeding grant, at least every 30days or monthly. Delays in paying caterers made buying on credit a problem since sellers were not ready to sell to them. The state is encouraged to improve the payment schedule put in place for the caterers since delay in the payment of caterers had led to several caterers abandoning their contract. Also, most of the cooks have not been paid by the caterers since the caterers have not been paid by the government. A caterer indicated that

*"she had lost credibility from her creditors who supplied foodstuffs to her. This had resulted in applying for a loan from her bankers with very huge interest rate".*

The state should also increase the feeding grant of 40 pesewas per child. The caterers were of the view that the current cost of living was such that 40 pesewas per child was nothing to write home about. They indicated that the feeding grant of 40 pesewas per child per day prevents them from providing a well-balanced diet for the school pupils. She indicated that although they were doing their very best considering their current circumstance, they believed that increment in food prices and transportation cost was taking a greater part of the feeding grant. The caterers were quick to add that the current feeding grant prevents them from adding fish to the menu since they cannot afford.

According to a respondent,

*"Members of Parliament (MP) can also assist in food supply from their common fund".*



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They stated that this could be done through weekly or monthly supply of affordable foodstuffs such as rice, beans, oil, tin tomatoes, gari among others to curb high prices on the open market. The respondents indicated that the communities would be grateful if their Members of Parliament were fully involved and interested in the intervention to help improve education and poverty levels in deprived communities. Respondents said that the full participation of the MPs will boost the morale of the community members to play their expected roles.

The state was also encouraged to extend the programme to other poor areas to help such deprived areas get government support. Response from the Regional coordinator indicated that,

*"there were some communities that were equally deprived and her view was that such communities should be brought on board to be supported".* According to the respondent, there were communities that most kids did not attend school due to poverty and parental neglect and therefore such support would be appreciated by such communities.

NGO's and financial institutions both local and foreign were to be reached for support. Respondents said that financial supports from such institutions would go a long way to support the programme. The respondent further mentioned that there were some foreign institutions that were interested in supporting such interventions. The informant said efforts had been put in place to consult such institutions and organisations for support. According to the regional coordinator, financial challenges were one of the greatest issues that need to be dealt with, which would significantly provide some relieve to government.



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The state must undertake serious field work and regular supervision by field monitors to be informed of the prevailing conditions on the ground. Respondents were of the view that

*"regular supervision on the part of programme managers would help improve efforts of all stakeholders".*

They commented that regular supervision would unearth challenges identified and would help curb it. Regular supervision and constant fieldwork would help programme managers to adapt strategies that would improve the existing plans put in place to improve the programme objectives.

Government was encouraged to take politics out of the programme. Programme managers were to be vigilant and comply with the laid down policy of the programme. Respondents said that

*"there was much political influence associated with the SFP and efforts should be put in place to reduce it or stop it completely".*

Respondents indicated that most caterers engaged by the programme were political party supporters. Others were quick to say that most of the former caterers were sacked because they belonged to the former government. Respondents said that most of the time, political party supporters felt very "powerful and untouchable".

The conditions that must be fulfilled by the caterers included the need to ensure that they cook good and nutritious food. Caterers were advised to have the school pupils at heart and cook nutritious food for optimal health. They were to ensure that food prepared included all the six food groups to help the kids have good health. Caterers were encouraged to purchase good and quality ingredients for food preparation. They were to purchase good nutrients



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and add fish to the menu since no fish was added to the menu in all the schools visited although two of the schools (urban) visited were located in a fishing community.

Another significant issue raised by the community members was the time food was served. Caterers were expected to be punctual and serve food on time in order not to affect academic work. Del Rosso (1999) admonishes that timing and especially when meals were served should be looked at, so that it does not affect teaching and learning. The purpose is that as SFP goes on in schools, the intervention should not affect teaching and learning such that it does not defeat the purpose of the programme. The caterers were also expected to serve enough food to all the kids since some upper primary pupils mostly did not get food. The reason was that the kids were many and that the caterer did not provide enough foodstuffs for the cooks. The cooks said by the time they get to the upper primary, the food would be finished. They said,

*"there were times only half of the class six pupils were served and in other times none of the pupils especially in class six were fed".*

Caterers were also encouraged to show commitment to the work as they cooked balanced diet for the kids. They should have the children at heart and not only think about their financial benefits. They should check the hygienic conditions of the food and cook in a neat environment to improve the health of the kids. Caterers were to be very accommodating and welcome advice to improve upon their work. Respondents provided indications that if these measures were adhered to, could improve and sustain the programme. The guiding principle was for the school, community, state and caterers to perform their duties as expected for the sustenance of the programme to be



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realised.

Respondents also expressed their opinion on the measures that could be put in place to aid a successful SFP. They responded that,

*"fruits should be added to the food served. Also, some caterers were not in good terms with some of the class teachers because they complained about their cooking".*

Caterers were also advised to desist from shouting on the kids and the cooks were also advised to desist from carrying the foodstuffs given to them to their various homes.

One vital point raised by the respondent was that, the adherence to the policy of the programme would lead to the sustainability of the programme. Others were of the view that the lack of a vehicle for monitoring, supervision and evaluating the programme had negatively affected the performance of the programme planners. One key respondent mentioned that,

"*the absence of a means of transport had rendered some efforts to nothing because regular visits to the communities had become impossible".*

Del Rosso (1999) believes that not resolving potential bottlenecks can affect the programme plan and implementation which is capable of affecting the end results. Inability to resolve challenges may defeat the purpose of the intervention which is a waste of time and resources with respect to development plans.

Respondents were also asked to mention some recommendations to improve upon the SFP. Some were of the opinion that the financial challenge was the biggest problem to sustain the programme in addition to community participation. Also, regional coordinators and field monitors should be given



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funds to make monitoring and evaluation a regular exercise. Head teachers should be resourced since water bills takes a huge amount of the capitation grant given to the schools whilst SFP personnel should be motivated since their active participation with the community can sustain the programme. Also, roads to such deprived communities were bad and motor bikes had to be maintained regularly on each routine monitoring.

The various measures to improve upon the SFP cannot be centred on one particular group. There are various conditions that must be fulfilled and measures put in place on the part of all the stakeholders of the programme. The community members being the direct beneficiaries, the school where the programme is conducted, the GOG being the programme financier and the caterers being part of the direct implementing group to sustain the SFP all have very significant roles to sustain the programme. Efforts put together by all these stakeholders would go a long way to improve and sustain the programme. The relegation to the background of the basic roles of each of the stakeholders would to a large extent negatively affect the progress and sustenance of the SFP.

The summary of the chapter identified the fact that in considering the existence of community participation, not much was done by most of the communities in the implementation of the intervention. Also, major infrastructure provisions such as kitchen and toilet facilities were not provided. Non-participation had occurred as a result of the fact that they had not been informed of their expected roles. The community saw the programme from the government and therefore community ownership was also missing. Findings from the essence of sustaining the SFP gave indications that it would



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enhance regular market for farmers, fishermen and market women, increased family wage and poverty reduction and create regular market among rural communities as indicated by the conceptual framework.

Also, community members were of the view that supervision on the part of the programme managers was very low and therefore some caterers did whatever they liked in the schools. Monitoring was another issue which they believed could positively sustain the programme. Results from the data provided evidence that when farmers and fishmongers sold to caterers, the standard of living of the locality would be better which will also sustain the programme. Also, when the right structures are in place for farmers and fishmongers to be able to supply the needed foodstuffs to the caterers, the benefits would be huge and it would aid in fulfilling the objectives of the intervention.



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# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study. The study sought to explore how community participation could lead to the sustainability of the SFP. In addressing the above fundamental objective, the study solicited responses on the three broad research objectives. Sampling procedures adopted for the study were non-probability; purposive and quota to select respondents. The purposive sampling method was adopted to select key informants whilst quota sampling procedure was adopted to select the schools which were categorised under rural and urban. The researcher adopted descriptive method with key informants interview guide and focus group discussion guide to collect data from respondents. The subsequent section of this chapter contains the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

## Summary of findings

The findings of the study were based on the three broad objectives of the study which were examining the existence of community participation within the implementation of the SFP, examining the essence for the sustainability of the SFP in CCMA, and finally assessing how community



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participation contributes to the sustainability of the SFP in CCMA. With respect to examining the existence of community participation within the implementation of the SFP, several key issues emerged. Notable among these are:

- Community members have not been helpful since most of them have refused to provide a kitchen for the programme which had affected monitoring as food was prepared elsewhere and transported to the school premises;
- community members did not play any significant role since nobody had informed them to help because the GOG was paying for the cost of the programme;
- some communities have set up SMC, PTA and SFC with support from their assembly members to supervise and monitor the activities of the caterer;
- most of the schools do not have toilet, store room, kitchen and regular water supply, a basic need for the programme;
- most communities have not owned the programme due to the fact that community participation was absent;
- community members used to supply foodstuff, fruits and vegetables to caterers only at the start of the programme but this had stopped; and
- SFCs in some schools have been very active as they supervise products purchased by the caterers through unannounced inspection.

With respect to examining the essence for the sustainability of the SFP in CCMA, several key issues emerged. The highlights of the main issues are:

- Beneficiaries' involvement could sustain the programme as



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caterers are encouraged to buy from the community which will improve income, create employment, reduce poverty and post harvest losses among others;

- the purpose of the HGSF is to sustain the programme as money paid to the caterer is used to buy foodstuffs grown from the community;
- community participation and the removal of political attachment was identified as another prudent measure to sustain the programme;
- regular workshops and training should be organised to sensitize stakeholders and communities in the programme in addition to regular payment schedule;
- schools that were not qualified would be removed from the programme whilst plans were in place to re-target communities deprived; and
- rice was currently being purchased from the Ghana buffer stock to be supplied nationwide to support the programme.

With regard to assessing how community participation contributes to the sustenance of the SFP in CCMA, several key issues emerged. Notable among these are:

- farmers and fishmongers who sell to caterers help to sustain the programme through employment generation, regular supply, increased regular income and reduction in poverty among others;
- community members sustain the programme through regular supervision, regular PTA and SFC meetings to discuss emerging



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challenges and provide achievable solutions;

- communities should be actively involved in the provision of kitchen, store room, good drinking water and the provision of basic needs of the school children;
- community members involvement in the planning, monitoring and implementation of the programme as well as cordial relationship with the caterers would sustain the programme;
- beneficiary communities should be part of the selection of caterers and also ensure that they complied with the policy whereas political affiliation should not be a criterion to select caterers; and
- finally, head teachers and class teachers in the target schools should be empowered to supervise the activities of the caterers on daily basis.

The current state of affairs of the SFP in the CCMA provides a situation where community participation is largely absent. Also, community members seem not to be educated and informed about their roles to help sustain the programme. Food was currently prepared elsewhere and transported into the community whilst caterers assigned for the programme were selected outside the community which was against the policy document. The caterers also do not purchase food from the community.

Monitoring on the part of the programme managers was non-existing or absent. The Metro Desk Officer, the focal person from the Metro Assembly was not a member of the General Assembly but a Public Relations Officer who had been recently appointed to the Metro Assembly. This was also against the policy document which stated that the MDO should be a member of the General Assembly and doubles as the focal person for the programme at



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the district level. Most of the school children in the study area do not engage in proper hand washing with soap and water. One significant observation was that although the study area was within a coastal area of Ghana, fish was not part of the food served to the school pupils. Also, food was at times served into black polythene bags while other school pupils had to wait for their friends to finish eating before they borrowed their bowls to collect their food.

**Conclusions**

This study had portrayed the significance of community participation towards the sustenance of the SFP considering the enormous benefits associated with the intervention. In looking at the compliance of the SFP as outlined in the policy document, the research conclusion is that the policy document serves as a guiding principle and a working paper for the programme, aimed at contributing to the implementation of the programme. One challenge was that at the grass roots level, most of the issues identified in the working document were not complied with. The reason was that challenges such as high poverty levels at the community level did not help with regard to the compliance of the working document.

Secondly, from the analysis, it could be concluded that the existence of community participation within the implementation of the SFP was another challenge. Although the working document talked about the involvement of communities in the implementation of the programme, in reality this did not occur. Also, most of the caterers contracted were not from the communities and the schools did not have kitchens, besides, food was prepared elsewhere and transported to the schools. This had serious implications on the food



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served and it did not allow for proper monitoring on the part of community members. The reality was that implementation, monitoring and evaluation were a big challenge.

In examining the prospects for the sustainability of the programme, the study could conclude that community members agreed with the benefits to be accrued to beneficiary communities. The challenge was that since the communities were deprived, most of the farmers and fishmongers could not sell on credit or at subsided prices to the caterers since the farmers were peasant and produced on a very low scale for just their families and sold the little left. The indication was that until government came in to support the communities with credit facilities to increase their yield, though the prospects were laudable, it would be difficult to be achieved and this might defeat the purpose of the intervention. The sustenance of the SFP could therefore be looked at in two folds which are financial sustenance and sustenance on the part of community members.

Finally, community participation arguably could contribute to the sustenance of the programme but not on a large scale since most of the communities had problems sustaining the programme. This was due to the fact that community participation in the case of the SFP came with some financial support and commitment in putting up a kitchen, dining area, store room and regular water supply of which most deprived communities were unable to afford. Although most communities could identify how their participation could help sustain the programme, the challenge was that the programme managers had not educated the beneficiaries of their expected roles which had



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made some community members ignorant of their expected roles to aid the programme.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn from this study, a number of policy measures could be adopted to ensure that community members fully participate and are fully involved towards the sustenance of the SFP in the CCMA. It is recommended that school authorities:

- monitor the activities of SFC, SMC and PTA members in order not to compromise on their duties with respect to supervising the activities of caterers as indicated by the field monitors and community members through regular meetings and regular checks;
- engage in regular supervision of bowls and cups and regular hand washing with soap and water on the part of the pupils before and after eating since most of the pupils did not engage in hand washing with soap and water as indicated by the caterers;
- engage a security on the school compound to secure the food stuff at the store room according to a caterer; and
- check school regular attendance before and after food was served as some pupils disappeared after food was served especially in the fishing communities on Tuesdays according to a parent and a key informant.

It is recommended that community members;

- admonish farmers and fishermen to sell to caterers at reduced price and if possible on credit basis as suggested by key informants;
- participate fully in the programme as they monitor the activities of the



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caterers and provide bowls, spoons and water according to key informants;

- provide kitchen, regular water and store room to prevent food from being transported from one community to another with its related implications as suggested by key informants; and
- relocate a kitchen close to a classroom as smoke mostly engulfed some classrooms as the pupils studied a suggestion by a head teacher.

It is also recommended that state/government;

- promptly pay feeding grant to caterers and increase the feeding grant per child due to increases in foodstuffs according to key informants;
- extend the programme to other poor communities so that such children would benefit and involve donor organizations both local and international to support the programme as suggested by the Regional Co-ordinator ;
- educate community members to be fully involved in the programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation as recommended by key informants;
- remove politics from the programme according to community members; and
- provide vehicle and other logistics to encourage regular monitoring and supervision as recommended by Desk Officers, Co-ordinators and Field Monitors.

It is recommended that caterers;

- attend regular workshop and fulfil all the conditions in the policy document as suggested by the Regional Co-ordinator;



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- serve food on time in order not to affect instructional hours as suggested by Head teachers and community members;
- have very good human relation with community members and the school authorities as suggested by key informants;
- desist from sub-letting their contract to other caterers and not to leave the work with the cooks alone according to community members; and
- desist from serving food in black polythene bags to the school pupils as suggested by a head teacher.



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# APPENDICES

## Appendix A

### Interview guide for key informants on community participation and sustainability of the SFP in the CCMA

**HOW COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION EXIST WITHIN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SFP**

1. What are the roles that community members play in the SFP?
2. In what ways are community members involved in the planning of the School Feeding Programme?
3. In what ways are community members' parts of the implementation of the SFP?
4. In what other ways can community members participate fully in the programme?
5. How do community members engage in monitoring and evaluation of the programme?

**ESSENCE FOR THE SUSTAINABILITY OF THE SFP CCMA**

6. What are the benefits of beneficiaries' involvement in the School Feeding Programme?
7. What is the purpose of the introduction of Home Grown School Feeding?
8. What are the plans put in place towards the long term sustenance of the programme?
9. What else can be done to improve and sustain the School Feeding Programme at the community level?

**HOW COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUSTENANCE OF THE SFP IN CCMA**

10. What are the benefits of farmers and fishmongers in the



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community whosell to caterers engaged in School Feeding Programme?

11. In your opinion, how has community members contributed to the success of the programme?
12. How do community members monitor the activities of caterers?
13. In what ways can community participation contribute to the sustenance of the School Feeding Programme?

**MEASURES TO IMPROVE UPON THE SFP**

14. What are the conditions that must be fulfilled for sustainability of the School Feeding Programmes to be achieved?
15. What measure(s) could be put in place to aid in a successful School Feeding Programme?
16. Mention some recommendations to improve upon the School Feeding Programme.

Thank you



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## Appendix B

**Focus group discussion guide for community members on community participation and sustainability of the SFP in the CCMA**

**HOW COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION EXIST WITHIN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SFP**

1. What are the major roles that community members play in the SFP?
2. How are community members involved in the planning of the School Feeding Programme?
3. How do community members' participate in the implementation of the SFP?
4. In what other ways can community members participate fully in the programme?
5. What other ways do community members engage in monitoring and evaluation of the programme?

**ESSENCE FOR THE SUSTAINABILITY OF THE SFP CCMA**

6. What are the benefits of communities' involvement in the School Feeding Programme?
7. What are the advantages of Home Grown School Feeding?
8. What are the plans towards the long term sustenance of the programme?
9. What can community members do to improve and or sustain the School Feeding Programme at the community level?



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**HOW COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUSTENANCE OF THE SFP IN CCMA**

10. What are the advantages of farmers and fishmongers who sell to caterers engaged in School Feeding Programme?
11. How has community members contributed to the School Feeding Programme?
12. Are there ways that community members monitor the activities of caterers?
13. How can community participation contribute to the sustenance of the School Feeding Programme?

**MEASURES TO IMPROVE UPON THE SFP**

14. What conditions must be fulfilled to sustain the School Feeding Programme?
15. What are the measure(s) to aid in a successful School Feeding Programme?
16. Mention some recommendations to improve upon the School Feeding Programme.

Thank you



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