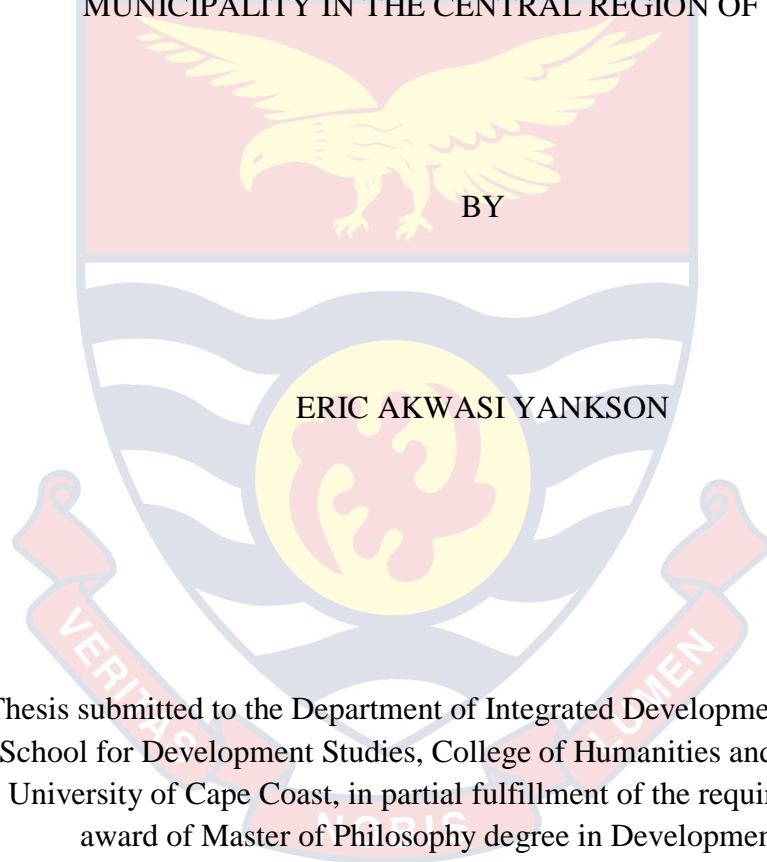


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

STAKEHOLDERS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE PREPARATION OF
DISTRICT DEVELOPMENT PLAN IN THE MFANTSEMAN
MUNICIPALITY IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA



Thesis submitted to the Department of Integrated Development Studies of the
School for Development Studies, College of Humanities and Legal Studies,
University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
award of Master of Philosophy degree in Development Studies

JUNE 2021

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

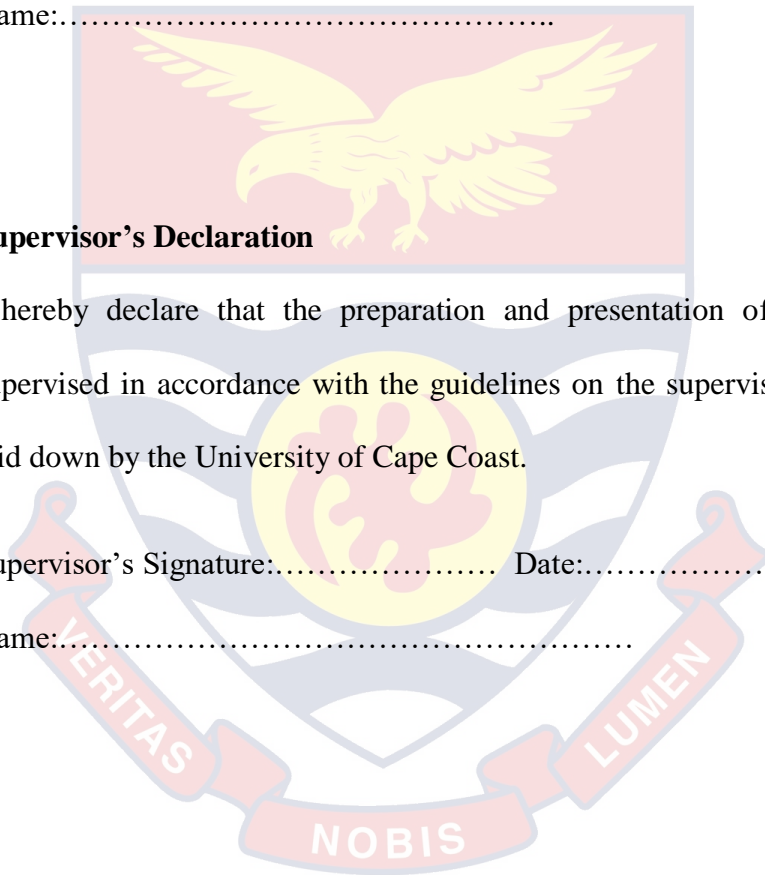
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Supervisor's Declaration

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

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ABSTRACT

This study contends that consensus-building, open dialogue, and the promotion of an active civil society are key ingredients to the long-term sustainable development and well-being of many communities. The study assessed stakeholders' involvement in the preparation of the district development plan in the Mfantseman Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. A mixed-method approach was employed in the study. For the quantitative approach, the simple random sampling technique was used to select 120 respondents from Saltpond, Mankessim, and Anomabo. For the qualitative aspect of the study, the purposive sampling method was used to sample key informants such as assembly members, municipal planning coordinating unit members, and unit committee members. Questionnaire and interview schedule were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data respectively. A key result of the study was that stakeholders within the municipality were largely uninformed of the Medium-Term Development Plan and its preparation process. Consequently, participation in the process was low and dominated by elites. Second, an assessment of the 2014-2017 Medium-Term Development Plan for the assembly also revealed that it generally suits the needs of the municipality. However, it suffers from some significant prioritisation disparities with respect to specific areas within the municipality. The study recommends that the Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit should erect notice boards within communities to educate its stakeholders. However, such notice boards should have pictorial presentations to enable the less educated stakeholders to also understand and appreciate such information.

KEY WORDS

Decentralisation

Participation

Planning Process

Stakeholder



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DEDICATION

To my lovely wife, Mrs. Marline Yankson, and son, Jason Kweku Aseidu

Yankson



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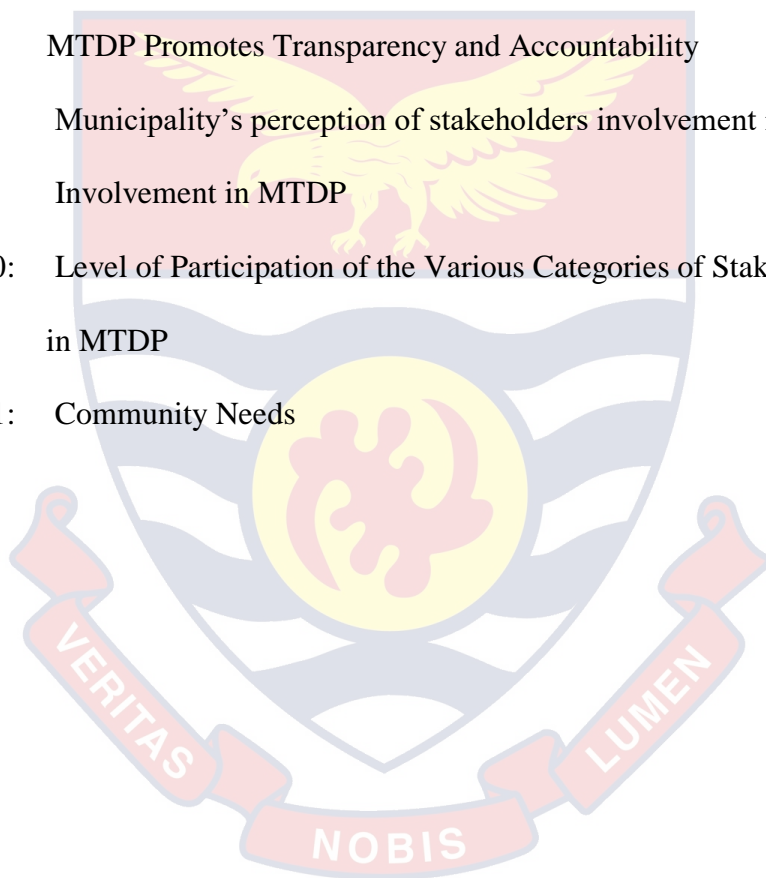


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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DA	District Assembly
DMTDP	District Medium-Term Development Plan
FOAT	Functional Organisational Assessment Tool
GSGDA	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
MMA	Mfantseman Municipal Assembly
MMDAs	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
MPCU	Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit
MTDP	Medium-Term Development Plan
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NMTDPF	National Medium-Term Development Policy Framework
PBB	Programme Based Budgeting
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
RPCU	Regional Planning and Coordinating Unit
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The global search for development has produced a great vision in pathways of ensuring better living standards for all persons, with particular focus on the poor and marginalised over the years. This is obvious in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which have been the pivot of most development initiatives in most parts of the world since 2000 (Todaro & Smith, 2012). As this global development agenda receded in 2015, the post-MDGs agenda for development and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were implemented to emphasise the global desire and commitment to improving living conditions. Their attractiveness resulted in numerous studies at the international, national, and local levels (Mulwa, 2008). In effect, the agenda have attracted interest in most development dialogues.

Notable among these interests are stakeholder participation, citizen participation, community participation, people's participation, public participation, and popular participation (Amponsah & Bofo-Arthur, 2003; Garau, 2012; Mansouri & Rao, 2013), which underscore the relevance of involving beneficiaries in development processes, especially, during the design and implementation of developmental initiatives. Consequently, James Wolfensoh (Former President of the World Bank), in his 1998 speech at the bank's annual meeting, affirmed this assertion that "participation matters not only as a means of improving development effectiveness, as we know from our recent studies but as the key to long term sustainability and leverage" (Aycrigg, 1998, p.1).

These interests brought about dramatic shifts in many countries, from highly centralised, often dictatorial regimes, to democratic systems committed to more effective and accountable government. This new development paradigm has gained momentum that increasingly favours locally planned and implemented development strategies over centralised development planning (Chambers, 2014).

In the preparatory stages of these global developmental objectives, prominent crosscutting issues identified in the consultation processes were people's quest for participation, inclusion, capacity building, and building partnerships (Kumar, 2002). People's quest for participation opportunities and inclusion was aptly captured as an important element demanded by all stakeholders; hence, it was reckoned as the "most important signal" that people are sending United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1997). Issues of participation and inclusion are, therefore, necessary if sustainable development is expected. It is important to note that participation and inclusiveness cannot be achieved without planning and implementation of necessary processes.

Developmental initiatives cannot be achieved without planning (Conyers & Hills, 1984). Planning for development at the district level connotes a people-centered approach to the development process (Ayee & Amponsah, 2003). Projects are implemented for people. Even where they are not the actors, they may become the beneficiaries. Nothing in this world can be achieved without planning, except where one expects accidents to take the better part of us. Steps are taken because we want to arrive at a given destination. This issue of planning transcending everything led Wildavsky

(1973) to conclude that *if planning is everything, maybe it's nothing* (Conyers & Hills, 1984). The core objectives of participatory development planning are to give people a say in the development decisions that may affect them and to ensure that development interventions are appropriate to the needs and preferences of the population that they are intended to benefit (Rietbergen-McCracken, 2013), hence the concept of decentralisation.

In the 1970s and 1980s, decentralisation was immensely supported particularly in Africa due to the strong attribution of the centralised planning system's failure to the limited involvement of the public (Ayee & Amponsah, 2003; Khwaja, 2004). The recognition and acceptance of stakeholder participation in development and planning, in particular, are further underscored by the legalities and explicit decentralisation mechanisms adopted by various developing countries to ensure and encourage participation (Sanyare, 2013). In effect, stakeholder participation is entrenched deliberately by designed legal frameworks in many developing nations to ensure that it is not overlooked, and the case of Ghana is not different.

The Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit is mandated for the preparation of the medium-term development plan (MTDP) as prescribed under the section (2) 1 and 3 of the National Development Planning Act 1994 (Act 480) of Ghana. The Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit (MPCU), together with the assembly persons, unit committee members, and community members, is the key stakeholder to ensure the preparation of MTDP.

For an excellent document to be produced, a series of meetings are usually held to brainstorm on the guidelines issued by NDPC under the Medium-Term Development Policy Framework (2014-2017). The main aims

of the meetings were to ensure that members understood the guidelines and were familiar with the roles that they were expected to play. To ensure a holistic approach to the planning process, the district profile was also scrutinised through focus group discussions. In order to produce an all-inclusive plan, the current state of development was critically analysed to ascertain existing district structures. The Medium-Term Development Policy Framework catalysed to serve as many as possible development interventions for coordinated priority programmes.

Again, the involvement of district development plan preparation has to do with the responsibility of participating fully in the data collection and public hearings, information sharing, and providing data on development issues in their localities. It is also required to facilitate the needs assessment dialogue meetings and workshops and adopt the final implementation plan (Botchie, 2000; NDPC, 2013).

However, there are challenges in stakeholder participation in MTDP, which include, first, inadequate stakeholder involvement and awareness in the process, which is caused by partisan politics, excessive bureaucracy, and poor communication. The second challenge is the non-functionality of the sub-structures and roles, which is the responsibility of the sub-structures to collate and prioritise the needs and aspirations of the communities and forward them to the MPCU as input for plan formulation. The non-responsiveness to stakeholders' needs, among other things, is the major gap that exists in the preparation of MTDP.

The perspective is affirmed by the communicative planning process theory, which sees planning as a process that integrates the concerns of

stakeholders, and that if the process is fair, the outcome will be successful and sustainable (Davidoff, 2011; Fainstein, 1995). Communicative planning suggests that in planning, there are actors that planners or decision-makers cannot ignore, but who must be allowed to make inputs into the process. The rationale for this is that it will shape projects at the local level as well as save unwanted costs.

It is against this background that specific guidelines are developed as part of the MTDPs to guide in the development in MMDAs of which Mfantseman Municipal Assembly (MMA), as the study area, is no exception. The study was carried out in the Mfantseman Municipality (MM of the Central Region of Ghana. The MM was selected not only because it has been successful in following the NDPC guidelines in the preparation of MTDP which measures, as part of its conditions, the level of participation of stakeholders in the preparation of MTDP but also because it is one of the social laboratories for the School for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast.

Chapter 20 of Ghana's 1992 Constitution necessitates that inhabitants of a particular local government area should be allowed to participate in development processes. Other legal instruments such as the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) Act, 1994 (Act 479) mandate the institution to coordinate and guide planning at all levels, as specified by the National Development Planning Act and Local Government Act (Act 480 and 936) (Ahwoi, 2010; Yankson, 2000). Accordingly, these Acts mandate Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs) to prepare MTDPs by consulting stakeholders to ensure the needs and aspirations of the

communities are captured, prioritised, and implemented to improve the wellbeing of community members.

The specific guidelines detail the various processes and spaces for stakeholder participation in the MTDP preparation process (Maple Consult, 2010; NDPC, 2013). Since 1997 when the first MTDP guidelines, amidst several other regulations, were issued to ensure stakeholder participation in development planning, the reality is dicey of stakeholders' participation (Botchie, 2000).

The persistent and perennial development challenges in local government areas including the Mfantseman Municipality cast some doubts on whether stakeholders were involved in the planning process (Ayee & Amponsah, 2003). Though specific regulations and explicit provision of guidelines to ensure stakeholder participation in the medium-term development planning process exist in Ghana, the reality is complex as the actual extent of involvement in the planning process is not clear (Addoquaye Tagoe, 2012; Ofei-Aboagye, 2011; Yankson, 2000). It is, therefore, necessary to understand the MTDP and the extent to which stakeholders are involved in its preparation process. Thus, the present study seeks to investigate stakeholders' involvement in the preparation of the district development plan in the Mfantseman Municipality of Ghana.

Statement of the Problem

Ayee (2000) states that centralised plans over the years have failed to adequately address the needs of the local people due to their non-involvement. Inadequate stakeholders' involvement is one of the most common reasons developmental projects have failed; therefore, every effort should be made to

encourage broad and active stakeholders' engagement in the developmental planning process (Kusek & Rist, 2004).

Over two decades of the implementation of the Local Government Act, Act 462 which is now replaced by the Local Governance Act, 2016, Act 936 and the National Development Planning (Systems) Act, 1994, (Act 480) which reinforces the practice of the guidelines, it is still observed that the application and the integration of MTDP at the MMDA level are still not clear though some arbitrary ways of MTDP exist at that level (Ahwoi, 2010).

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The Mfantseman Assembly Strategies and Action Plans (2014) enumerate the following developmental challenges: inadequate safe drinking water, poor security and lighting, poor land use, low levels of participation in assemblies activities and programmes, ineffective involvement of development plans, and poor road networks, which have plagued the municipality for years (Mfantseman Municipal Assembly [MMA], 2017). Ayee and Amponsah (2003) noted, for instance, that, generally, there is inadequate information on District Assemblies' activities and mandates, especially on their projects and programmes. The problems seem to suggest

the low level of stakeholder awareness, unclear roles of stakeholders, and non-responsiveness of plans to improve the living standards of community members.

Though there are studies (Desai, 2008; Mansouri & Rao, 2013; Miles & Sullivan, 2012; Mohammed, 2010) on stakeholder involvement, most of these studies focused Europe and North America. The literature on Africa is more related to South Africa rather than Ghana (Boakye-Agyei, 2009; Marzuki, 2009; Osei-Kufour & Koomson, 2014). These studies are important; however, their focus suggests a paucity of literature in the area of stakeholder awareness and roles, as well as the responsiveness of community members to MTDP. Also, most of these studies are context-bound to some degree within the social structure. The Mfantseman Municipality (MM) presents its uniqueness; hence, carrying out this study will add significantly to the literature.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study was to examine stakeholders' involvement in the preparation of the MTDP in the MMA. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. analyse stakeholders awareness of the MTDP;
2. examine stakeholders roles in the preparation of 2014-2017 MTDP in Mfantseman Municipality;
3. assess the responsiveness of the 2014-2017 MTDP to stakeholder needs in the Mfantseman Municipality; and,
4. make recommendations for improving stakeholders' involvement in the MTDP preparation plan.

Research Questions

This thesis addresses the following research questions:

1. To what extent are stakeholders aware of the content of MTDP?
2. What are the roles of stakeholders in the preparation of the 2014-2017 MTDP?
3. How does MTDP become responsive to the needs of stakeholders?

Significance of the Study

Stakeholder participation in development initiatives is necessary for ensuring the sustainability of such interventions (Aycrigg, 1998). This is evident by the adoption of the decentralised system to ensure that decisions are made by the very people who are affected, and this underscores the importance of this study in terms of its scholarly and policy contributions.

First, many scholars have looked at stakeholder participation in district planning. Even though their findings are useful in understanding issues of planning at the local level, it appears that their findings are context-bound so far as Mfantseman is concerned. This study offers insightful perspectives of stakeholders on district planning and its effects on decision-making. The findings have added significantly to the literature on stakeholder participation, decentralisation, development studies, and social planning. Generally, this research serves as reference material to researchers with similar purview.

Second, the study is of immense benefit to policy makers in respect of the recommendations made for necessary implementation. It will inform the NDPC's provisions for effective stakeholder participation in development planning processes. Additionally, it is beneficial to the MMA, as it suggests workable alternative strategies, which can be adopted to encourage effective

stakeholder participation and planning. The study also offers further policy directives that may be useful for other policy formulations in other districts across the country.

Scope of the Study

The study covered the nature and depth of stakeholder participation in the preparation of MTDP in the MMA. Next, the study was limited to three main towns within the Municipal Assembly: Saltpond, Mankessim, and Anomabo. The study also paid attention to the level of participation of the MPUC, Assembly Members, Unit Committee Members, and community members in the MTDP. The study did not cover all towns within the Municipality, because of the envisioned less impact these towns were likely to make on the study findings. The study covered the period, 2014-2017.

Limitations of the Study

Since an interview schedule was used for this study, there was no room for additional information that could have been obtained through probing, prompting, and clarification of questions from respondents. The instrument was, however, made valid by analysing items that were responded to by the respondents, the result of which was captured in Chapter Four.

The use of purposive sampling made it difficult to get the experiences of some Heads of Departments and other stakeholders such as Assembly and Unit Committee members who were directly involved in the preparation of the previous MTDPs (i.e. 2006-2009 and 2010-2013) because they were no longer at the post. However, this was overcome by asking respondents about their views and experiences.

The final limitation is inadequate resources and the twelve (12) months (November 2016-November, 2017) required for the entire research. Such limited resources were, however, judiciously used and, hence, were able to support the research. The process was expedited through the engagement of more hands to assist in the data collection. Also, the researcher devoted more time to the work to ensure that the study was completed within the stipulated time.

Organisation of the Study

The thesis is organised in five chapters. Chapter One presents the background, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitations of the study, and organisation of the study. Chapter Two contains the review of relevant literature on stakeholder, participation, planning process, decentralisation, and conceptual relationships and empirical studies. Chapter Three, which is the methodology, outlines general approach of the study, research design, study variables and data type, sampling and sample determination, and data analysis. Chapter Four presents results and discussion. Chapter Five presents a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter discusses the main theory that underpinnes the present study, the conceptual frameworks and relevant previous studies in anttempt to situate the present study theoretically. It is organised into three main sections: first, there will be a discussion of the theory. Second, the concepts of participation and decentralised development planning will be discussed. It will also present the relevance and challenges of participation. The third section of the chapter presents the empirical review so as tis situate the present study well.

Theoretical Review

This section considers the theories that underpinnes the present study: the stakeholder theory and communicative planning theory.

Stakeholder Theory

The stakeholder theory is a theory of organisational management and business ethics that addresses morals and values in managing an organisation (Freeman, 1984). The theory was originally propounded by R. Edward Freeman in the book, *Strategic Management*, in 1984. Freeman and Parmar (2004, p.62) define stakeholders as “those groups who are vital to the survival

and success of the corporation.” Freeman and Parmar (2004) add that the views expressed by the stakeholders themselves and their activities are also very important in terms of planning. According to Roberts and Mahoney (2004), a stakeholder approach identifies and models the groups which are stakeholders of a corporation, and describes and recommends methods by which the management can give due regard to the interests of those groups. The shareholder considers only the owners or shareholders of the company as important, and the company has a binding fiduciary duty to put their needs first, to increase value for them (Miles & Sullivan, 2012).

The stakeholder theory informs discussions on planning and development. In the spheres of development, there are stakeholders whom the MMA cannot do away with if it wants to succeed in delivering its mandated development agenda to the people. According to Friedman and Miles (2006), stakeholders are vital to the success of MTDP; hence, their contributions cannot be ignored. This suggests that the District Assemblies whose pursuit is to ensure the development of the people through various programmes and projects cannot ignore the people or stakeholders who matter in the planning and decision-making if they want their policies to meet the felt needs of the people. In effect, those to be affected by policies must be part of both the decision-making and implementation process.

This, again, is not out of line with mainstream development thinking, with its focus on local politico-economic empowerment (Mohan & Stokke, 2000), and with interest in culture and context shape knowledge and behaviour (Storper, 2001). The assumption is that the society can be transformed from the “bottom-up” and that local processes can change the broader distribution

of resources and power by an active participation. This explains why the stakeholder theory is relevant for this study.

Despite the relevance of the stakeholder theory, Storper (2001) argues that not all persons who can affect or be affected by the activities of an organisation are easily identifiable. In this respect, Mansell and Ericsson (2013) explain that it is not practically possible to identify all the interests of every stakeholder, as some may have conflicting interests and personal aspirations; thus, stakeholders ought to communicate effectively the key issues during the decision-making process. The deficiency in communication leveled against the stakeholder theory is the reason why the communicative planning theory is relevant.

Communicative Planning Theory

Another theory considered in the present study is communicative planning. Communicative planning is an approach to urban planning that gathers stakeholders and engages them in a process to make decisions together in a manner that respects the positions of all involved (Habermas, 2015). It is also, sometimes, called collaborative planning among other planning practitioners. Forester (1987) argues that communication is the most important element of planning practice, interaction (with stakeholders or interest groups), communicating ideas, forming arguments, debating differences in understandings, and finally reaching consensus on a course of action.

Communicative planning theory has been developed as one of the leading planning approaches during the past decade. It envisages a political arena in which decision-making on shared issues is made by all the people involved. Rooted in practice, communicative planning theory has a strong

normative layer. The ideal for the various theorists is to replace existing entrenched ways of decision-making with practices that adhere to the ideal of communicative theory (Brooks, 1996).

Habermas (2015) introduces “institutionalism” as an explanatory theory of social dynamics to inform the normative position of communicative planning. Habermas’s line of thinking is central to the communicative planning theory. With a concern to protect and extend democracy, Habermas conceptualises the “life-world” (or public sphere) as separate from and outside “the system” of formal economy and government. Within the life-world, rational and inherently democratic human beings can reach consensus and coordinate action, through the process of communication. Habermas (2015) recognises that communication can be distorted in various ways and puts forward a set of criteria or discourse ethics to guide communication processes. The processes must be inclusive, empathetic, open, and neutralising existing power differences between participants. If this happens, then the outcome of such a process can be considered valid (Habermas, 2015).

For communicative planning theorists, the aim of planning is a just process that integrates the concerns of the community members, and that if the process is just, the outcome will be well (Davidoff, 1973; Fainstein, 1995). Habermas (2015) has faith in civil society as a source of democracy and as a vehicle for putting pressure on the state to act more responsively by mass participation of the people. Healey (1999) adds a further dimension to the idea of communicative processes. The first, shared by “cultural-tum” scholars such as Mantysalo (2002), is the emergence of “local knowledge”, referring to

items of information that are mapped and interpreted within the sense-making frameworks and purposes of particular social networks (Healey, 1999).

Central to mainstream development is social capital, which is frequently promoted as a precondition for both economic development and more democratic systems of governance (Mohan & Stokke, 2000). It assumes that such relationships of trust and mutual (economic) interdependence can persist over long periods, in particular localities, leading to “bottom-up” processes of development and authentic participation. When stakeholders participate in any planning process, they need to make a rational choice about an alternative course of action.

Despite the differing conceptions of the boundaries of communicative planning theory, proponents of this concept advocate a communicative rational approach to planning and decision-making based on Habermas (2015) critical theory of communicative rationality. It is this theoretical foundation that distinguishes communicative planning theory from other discourse-oriented and cooperative approaches to planning and decision-making, such as co-management (Paulson, 1998). Communicative planning, therefore, requires a change on numerous fronts. This theory shares the same assumptions with stakeholder participation, which makes it relevant to the study.

Communicative planning theory implies a fundamental change in the existing modes of governance. For communicative planning to gain solid ground, dominant actors have to be willing to share their power, organisations have to be willing to change their routine practices of decision-making, and people have to be willing to open their minds to new ways of looking at the world. Communicative planning, therefore, requires a change on numerous

fronts. For the communicative planning theory to be practical, an ambition which is shared by all the authors in the field, it will have to address more deeply the issue of change than it has done so far. Stakeholders evaluate their actions before final decisions are made, and invariably, one of the reasons for this study is to empower stakeholders to be able to contribute meaningfully to any planning process in their communities.

The important aspect of the communicative planning theory to this study is its tendency to focus on sub-national levels of government on individual actors or stakeholders, be they planners or related participants, and on inductive theorising. This, again, is not out of line with mainstream development thinking, with its focus on local economic and political empowerment (Mohan & Stokke, 2000) and with interest in culture and context shape knowledge and behaviour (Storper, 2001). The assumption is that the society can be transformed from the “bottom-up” and that just local processes can change the broader distribution of resources and power by active participation.

Conceptual Review

This section reviews concepts related to stakeholder participation in the preparation of MTDP. Among the concepts reviewed are participation, stakeholder participation, and MTDP and decentralisation process in Ghana. Finally, the section presents the conceptual framework that guided the study.

Concept of Participation

The World Bank (1994, p. 24) defines participation as a “process through which stakeholders influence and share control over their

development initiatives, decisions, and resources which affect them.” It is evident from this definition that the World Bank has clubbed together all stakeholders, ignoring inequalities that affect the different stakeholders, particularly those who are poor and marginalised, to take part effectively in decision-making (Tandon & Cordeiro, 1998). The USAID (1995, p.12), on the other hand, defines participation as “an active engagement of partners and customers in sharing ideas, committing time and resources, making decisions, and taking action to bring about the desired development objective.”

For over three decades, participation has been a topical issue among academics, United Nations (UN) agencies, development partners (DPs), and most governments of the Third World. The mushrooming growth of its offshoots is evident in every specialised branch of development studies, such as economics, political science, sociology, and recently, public administration and public policy analysis. Participation, as a concept, lacks a systemic theoretical ground and empirical basis of judgment in the social sciences (Mohammad, 2010). Notwithstanding, the broad aim of participation in development is to actively involve people and communities in identifying problems, formulating plans, and implementing decisions over their own lives (Department for International Development [DFID], 2002; Guijt & Shah, 1998). Participation has currently surfaced as an apex terminology for a new development intervention method.

The term, “participation”, is generally operationalised differently, depending on the context and field in which it is studied, which makes it uneasy to be conceptualised (Samad, 2002). In ancient Greece, participation was viewed as a matter of voting, holding offices, attending public meetings,

paying taxes, and defending the state. However, in modern times, participation became synonymous with “sharing” (Kaler, 1999). Oakley and Marsden (1984), and Wolfe (1994) put forward that participation is closely linked with the concept of empowerment. Without empowerment, participation may be meaningless. Cohen and Uphoff (1980) view participation concerning development projects as people’s involvement in decision-making processes, in implementing a programme, their sharing in the benefits of development programmes, and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes.

Mohammad (2010) defines participation as the active involvement of the local people in the planning and implementation of development projects and argues that for effective plan formulation, control of projects, and sharing of benefits of development to actualise, participation is necessary. From a gender perspective, the DFID defines participation as “a participatory approach that takes into accounts the views and needs of the poor and tackles disparities between men and women throughout society” (Feeney & Ylvisaker, 2006, p.11).

The German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) considers participation as “a principle to promote the initiative, self-determination and the taking over of responsibility by beneficiaries, thus representing a critical factor for meeting project’s objectives” (Foster, 1986, p. 8). With this meaning, participation aims at an increase in self-determination and readjustment of control over development initiatives and resources (Boakye-Agyei, 2009).

According to the Swedish Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), participation is “a basic democratic right that should be promoted in all

development projects considering the means of increasing efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability in development project” (Rudqvist & Woodford-Berger, 1996, p. 16). In this definition, SIDA laid emphasis on equity and democracy. Khan (1993) simplifies the definitions of participation as follow: first, an organised effort to increase control over resources and regulative institutions; second, people’s involvement in decision-making, implementation, benefit-sharing, and in the evaluation of programmes; third, people’s capacity to take initiative in development, to become “subjects” rather than “objects” of their destiny; this can only be achieved through a de-professionalisation in all domains of life to make “ordinary people” responsible for their wellbeing; fourth, participation involves a reversal of role-playing: people should be the primary actors and government agencies and outsiders should “participate” in people’s activities.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that stakeholder participation can be used to achieve a project’s material benefits or can facilitate the social development processes of the people toward empowerment and sustained engagement in project activities (Boakye-Agyei, 2009). This study defines participation as the active involvement of local communities, civil societies, and community-based organisations in the planning and implementation process of projects at the grassroots level (Arnstein, 1969).

Types and Levels of Participation

The study considers Arnstein’s participation ladder, which sits well in the dialogue of levels of participation.

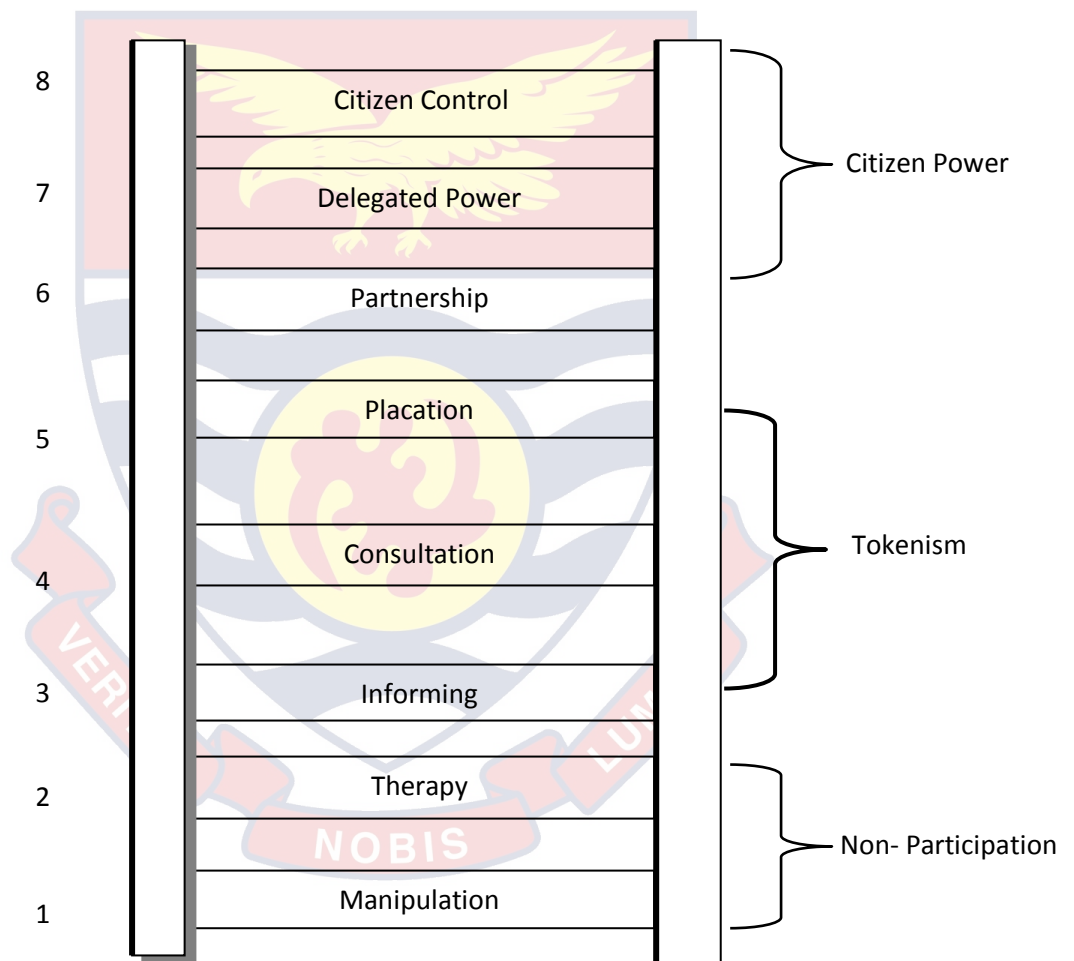


Figure 1: Arnstein's participation ladder

Source: Arnstein, 1969

Arnstein's (1969) typology for participation differentiates various levels of participation concerning access to power and emphasises citizens' control, which is a key aim of participation. This typology sees citizens'

participation as a power redistribution which provides the opportunity for the poor and marginalised to be involved consciously in the future decision-making process (Boakye-Agyei, 2009). The ladder depicts participation as essentially a power struggle between citizens trying to move up the ladder while controlling organisations and institutions, limiting their rise to the top by barring citizens' abilities to claim control or power for themselves.

Choguill (1996) disagreed with Arnstein's (1969) participation ladder, claiming that citizens' access to control is not the only rationale for participation. In reviewing Arnstein's participation ladder in the context of development, Choguill (1996) argued that individuals resort to self-management as the sole option when abandoned by the state due to lack of government support. To tackle the issues of community power in the political sphere and performance in urban services provision (e.g., housing), Choguill developed a framework for community participation which is suitable for developing nations.

To deepen the appreciation of participation in a linear model, Pretty, Guijt, Thompson, and Scoones (1995) note that focus has drifted to quality and impact assessment of participation instead of just advancing the degrees of participation. The participation typology that they proposed, as shown in Table 1, underscores the roles and responsibilities of individuals, communities, and authorities engaged in participation, named as passive participation, participation in information giving, participation by consultation, participation for material incentives, functional participation, interactive participation, and self-mobilisation. This proposal is regarded as a means of assessing the way the

people make use of participation, especially in ascertaining conflicting

Type of Participation	Meaning
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opinions on why and how participation is being utilised at every particular level in a process.

Table 1: Typology of Participation

Passive Participation	People participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. It is a unilateral announcement by an administration or project management without any listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.
Participation in Information Giving	People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers using semi-structured questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted, and external agents listen to views. These external agents define both problems and solutions and may modify these in the light of people's responses. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision-making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views.
Participation for material incentive	People participate by providing resources, e.g. labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentives. Much on-farm research falls in this category, as farmers provide the fields but are not involved in the experimentation or process of learning. It is very common to see this called participation, yet people have no stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end.
Functional Participation	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organization. Such involvement does not tend to be at early stages or project cycles of planning, but rather after major decisions have been made. These institutions tend to be dependent on external initiators and facilitators, but may become self-dependent.
Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local institutions or the strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple objectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, and so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.
Self-Mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. Such self-initiated mobilization and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power

Source: Adopted from Pretty *et al.*, 1995

The extent and kinds of participation are well differentiated by typologies. Some literature dwelt on the types of participation and how they are practised while others focused on the approaches and mechanisms as well as their application in the process of participatory development. The strengths and weaknesses of applying them are also highlighted.

According to Pretty *et al.*'s (1995) classification system of participation, there are seven distinguished levels of participation. This ranges from the low level to the high level, namely self-mobilisation, interactive participation, functional participation, participation for material incentives, participation by consultation, participation by information giving and passive participation.

Self-mobilisation people participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. Such self-initiated mobilisation and collective action may challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power.

With interactive participation, people participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formulation of new local groups or strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, so people have a stake in maintaining structures and practices. Functional participation has people participating by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the programme, which can involve the development or promotion of the externally initiated social organisation. Such

an involvement does not tend to be at the early stages of programme cycle or planning but rather decisions have been made elsewhere.

Communities tend to be dependent on external initiators or facilitators but may become self-dependent. With participation by material incentives, people participate by providing resources, for example, labour, in return for food, cash, or material incentives. Such people are not involved in the experimentation and have no stake in maintaining activities when incentives end. With participation by consultations, people participate by being consulted by external agents to elicit views. These external agents define both problems and solutions and may modify these in the light of people's responses. Such a consultative process does not include and share in decision-making and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views.

With participation in information giving, people participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers and programme managers using semi-structured questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research programme design are neither shared nor checked for accuracy. With passive participation, people participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. It is a unilateral announcement by an administration or programme management without listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs to only external professions. Given these levels of participation, it is good to know how and to what extent participation can improve sustainable project developments in the end. In practice, all of the forms and meanings of participation identified in the typologies referred to here may be found in a single project or process at diverse stages.

According to Boakye-Agyei (2009), most of these authors have been eluded by a critical part of participation which is a more complicated set of correlations that are associated with most participatory processes. He continues that many of the typologies argue that roles and responsibilities vary only concerning degrees of power; hence, neglecting upcoming roles that necessarily are not based on power but their interest in a particular circumstance, e.g., a community project. Again, some of the typologies lack context and offer little clues on how participation could be started as a shared process between all the stakeholders in the intervention.

Also, the typologies discussed did not expand the types of participants who play a role in local community projects but rather distinguish the kinds and levels of participation. It would be useful if typologies in the future would be able to clarify stakeholders that participate, those that are excluded as well as the self-excluded. The study brings the discussions to the concept of stakeholder participation.

Stakeholder Participation

According to Boakye-Agyei (2009), stakeholders may consist of locally affected communities or individuals and their formal and informal agents, national or local government authorities, politicians, religious leaders, civil society organisations, and groups with special interests.

Bryson and Crosby (1992) define a stakeholder as any person, group, or organisation that is affected by the causes or consequences of an issue. However, Golder and Gawler (2005) understands a stakeholder as any individual, group, or institution that had an entrusted interest in the natural resources of the project area and/or that hypothetically will be distressed by

project activities and has something to gain or lose if circumstances change or stay the same.

The DFID (2003), on the one hand, includes in its definition of stakeholders the issue of interest in project outcomes. In this case, stakeholders are not limited to those that can be impacted or may have influence, but also those with interests in project outcomes. This research adopts DFID's (2003) definition of stakeholders as any individual, community, group, or organisation with an interest in the outcome of a programme, either as a result of being affected by it positively or negatively or by being able to influence the activity positively or negatively. Some focus on stakeholders' involvement in providing knowledge, values, and preferences into the decision-making process (Rowe & Frewer, 2004; van Asselt Marjolein & Rijkens-Klomp, 2002). Few studies focus on the provisions of tangible resources like money, labour, or materials in the implementation process of development projects as stakeholder participation (Prokopy, 2005). Others focus on empowering stakeholders to exercise their democratic rights (Arnestein, 1969; World Bank, 1996).

Another aspect is sharing in the benefits of the outcome (Desai, 2008) or sharing resources (Blackburn, Browne, Brooks & Jarman, 2002) and receiving information. What runs through most of the definitions is that stakeholder participation is the involvement of stakeholders in the decision/policymaking process. Several authors use the terms, "stakeholder participation" and "public participation", interchangeably. Other authors differentiate amongst the two by the merit between stakeholders and the public.

The authors refer to stakeholder participation as comprising the more specific or organised interest groups, people, and institutions directly affected by the issue in decision-making. Public participation, on the one hand, is referred to as the direct participation of non-governmental actors including civil society groups, individual citizens, and public interest groups in decision-making (Jansky & Uitto, 2005; Moellenkamp, Lamers, & Huesmann, 2010; Mostert, 2003; Pahl-Wostle, 2002; World Bank, 1996).

Depending on the context, stakeholder participation may mean citizen participation, community participation, public participation, and the participation of governmental and non-governmental bodies (Botes & Van Rensburg, 2000). Stakeholder participation is seen as the involvement in the sharing of benefits or cost of outcomes by stakeholders, or as the contribution of tangible inputs such as labour, material, and money into implementation processes. There are challenges at the same time when stakeholders participate in the planning process, which becomes the next issue to be discussed.

Challenges of Stakeholders Participation

In as much as participation is highly beneficial in decentralised planning processes, it is not a magic bullet (Sanyare, 2013). It has some limitations and may not be proper for all situations (Khwaja, 2004). This may be further aggravated by the existence of different interest groups with diverse needs though resources to address these needs are limited. In effect, if it is not properly managed, it might result in conflicts. The study of Mansouri and Rao (2013) further found that stakeholder participation is good for making decisions that are non-technical than technical. In effect, Khwaja (2004) concluded that stakeholder participation becomes burdensome when it is

perceived as a cure-all pill for sustainable development. This is because technical decisions require expertise which may be beyond participants (Khwaja, 2004).

Aguillar (1988) also noted that participation processes mostly fail to involve and motivate the majority of people in particular local areas, by being biased towards the educated, politically aware individuals, and the middle class. Consequently, Aguillar concluded that the distance from settlements to the point where the participation event takes place also affects people's willingness to participate in the planning processes. The cost of participatory planning is another challenging factor (Dorcey & Doney, 1994; Mansouri & Rao, 2013). This is mostly reflected in terms of the financial inputs required for the main participation events and their time-consuming nature. The study further draws attention to NDPC guidelines for MTDP.

Decentralised Planning Process in MMDAs

Embedded in Ghana's decentralisation programme is the planning process. Articles 86 and 87 of the 1992 Constitution and the NDPC Act, 1994 (Act 479) established the NDPC to coordinate and regulate the decentralised national development policy system following the National Development Planning (Systems) Act, 1994 (Act 480). In line with this, the NDPC prepares/issues national development policy frameworks and guidelines for the preparation of district plans as specified under sections 1(3, 4), 2 to 11 of Act 480. MMDAs are, therefore, required to prepare their medium-term plans following these guidelines. RCCs coordinate and harmonize development plans from districts under their jurisdiction. Act 936, Act 2016 stipulates that, among other functions, MMDAs are responsible for the overall development

of the district and shall ensure the preparation of development plans. Again, both Act 936 and Act 480 designate MMDAs as planning authorities at the local level. Act 936, section 46 (3) established District Planning Coordinating Units (DPCUs) to assist Assemblies to undertake planning functions. Give a sentence or two to introduce the figure.



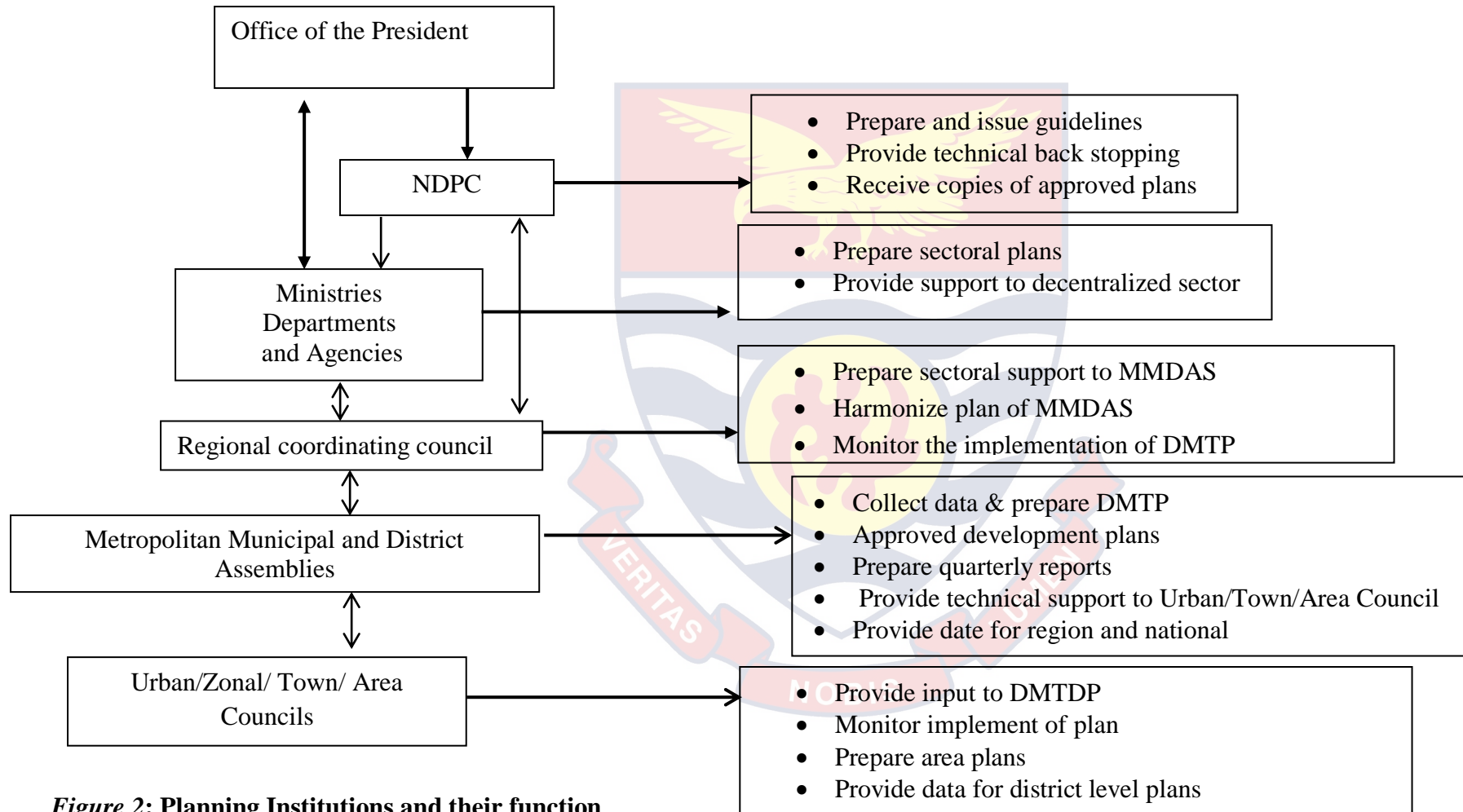


Figure 2: Planning Institutions and their function

Source: PMP Book, 2005, adopted from Sam, 2011

Sam (2011) outlined the following as the essential features of the planning process. Planning at the district level starts with the communities' problems, goals, and objectives from the Unit Committee level through the Urban/Zonal /Town/Area Councils to the MMDAs. The Sub-Committees of the Executive Committee of the MMDAs must consider the problems and opportunities of the communities, define, prioritise and submit them to the EC. The Departments of the MMDAs, sectoral specialists, non-governmental organisations and other functional agencies must confer and collaborate to prepare the district plan. The DPCU shall integrate and coordinate the district sectoral plans into long-term, medium-term, short-term and annual plans and budget for consideration of the EC and debate by the DA, and the approved plan is then sent to the RCC for coordination and harmonisation with the plans of the other DAs in the region. The implication is that the planning process is bottom-up, as it starts with the communities.

Participation in Public Hearing Events

To ensure effective stakeholders participation, the MTDP guidelines further provide some specific strategies for involving communities, including public hearing events. Against the backdrop of limited resources, the MPCU is expected to organise at least three major public hearing events (two major and one minor). The relevance of the public hearing events is aptly noted in the guidelines as very critical to stakeholder participation and to the planning process, representing the official climax of stakeholder participation activities at the grassroots.

The responsibility of the Municipal Planning Authority is to organise public hearings as a formal activity during the planning process (NDPC, 2013). The guidelines reckon that such events will further serve as a means of sensitising “the people about their Districts, and also solicit their views and proposals on what the plan should include in terms of priority programmes, projects and activities to solve the existing problems during the plan period” (NDPC, 2013, p. 38). The key elements emphasised to ensure effectiveness include ensuring stakeholder representativeness, prior notification and information provision, proper timing and location, gender equity, and use of common language suitable for participants (NPDC, 2013).

NDPC Guidelines for Medium-Term Development Plan

It is said that the best way to predict the future is to create it. Creating the future can hardly be decoupled from systematic/effective planning. It is against this backdrop that these guidelines have been developed. The guidelines, which are a set of proposals based on the synergy between the National Medium-Term Development Policy Framework (NMTDPF) and the principles of Programme Based Budgeting (PBB), are meant to assist MDAs in translating the policies and strategies in the NMTDPF into their MTDPs for implementation. The introduction of PBB into our planning system is intended to bring a stronger performance focus to budget of the MDAs by linking policy objectives to budget outputs and activities (NDPC, 2013).

The District Assemblies (DAs) are required to prepare developmental plans reflecting spatial dimensions in relation to the guidelines provided by the NDPC. The guidelines are designed to provide focus and direction on national development priorities and enhance harmonisation and rationalisation of development programmes, projects, and activities initiated from the community, district, and national levels for the benefit of the people. This should be done by analysing the specific DAs' context and circumstances with regard to meeting the local needs and aspirations in harmony with the national development goals and objectives as contained in the National Medium-Term Development Policy Framework (NDPC, 2013).

Sections 1 to 11 of the National Development Planning (System) Act 1994 (Act 480) requires the NDPC to issue, from time to time, legislative instruments and guidelines to regulate the Decentralised Planning System and to guide District Assemblies (DAs) and Sector Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) in the preparation of development plans. Accordingly, these guidelines for the preparation of the District MTDPs reflecting spatial dimensions under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA) II 2014 – 2017 have been developed to assist DAs in the formulation and implementation of their respective DMTDPs. According to the NDPC (2013), Regional Planning and Coordinating Units (RPCUs) of the Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) are also guided by these Guidelines to coordinate, harmonise, monitor, and evaluate MTDPs. While other Planning/Operational Manuals may be used to supplement these set of Guidelines, particular attention should be paid to their planning processes.

The NDPC (2013) guidelines outline 17 steps and set of activities that are required to be carried out by the District Planning Coordinating Unit (DPCU) in preparing the DMTDP. The plan preparation process consists of a series of activities, which are summarised into 9 key steps: Step I: Preparation, Step II: Review of Previous Plan, Step III: Situational Analysis, Step IV: First Public Hearing, Step V: Formulation of Goals, Step VI: Programming and Budgeting, Step VII: Design of Monitoring & Evaluation System, Step VIII: Formulation of Implementation Arrangements, and Step IX: Final Public Hearing and Approval of Plan Document by General Assembly.

Also, there is a setup which involves all activities required to lay a proper foundation for the preparation of the DMTDP. It includes identifying key stakeholders and their roles, and preparing the work plans and budget to guide the planning process. The work plan should provide the following: activities to be carried out (what to do such as data collection from all district departments, data analysis and synthesis, awareness creation among the citizenry, etc.), who should do what, the time frame, and a budget for the exercise to be financed by the District Assembly (NDPC, 2013).

According to Innes and Booher (2000), these guidelines are to ensure the overall development of their respective areas. Evidence shows that DAs hardly implement the MTDPs and the practice constitutes a waste of scarce funds, time, and energy. The implementation problems include weak institutional structures, inadequate human and financial resources of the DAs, low levels of commitment by stakeholders, and ineffective teamwork (Debrah, 2003). Moreover, the way

forward to overcome these problems, as indicated by Debrah (2003), is the need for human resources development, provision of logistics, and ineffective mobilisation and utilisation of financial resources, institutional strengthening, awareness-raising, good governance, and an effective monitoring and evaluation system. It is important that a constitution of an open gathering of officials and citizens to meet and discuss plans is instituted.

Process of Decentralised Development Planning and Spaces for Participation

Fundamentally, the developmental planning process at the district level is expected to begin with awareness creation through public education, followed by the identification of problems, determination of the needs and aspirations from the Unit Committee level through the Urban/Area/Zonal Council to the MMDAs. It is also expected that this process will be in strong collaboration with the sub-district structure of the Assembly (NDPC, 2013). The plans from the sub-district structures, together with the plans of the decentralised departments and functional agencies, are thereafter synthesised (Agyemang, 2010; Maple Consult, 2010). In all, spaces for stakeholders' participation include the appraisal (review of the previous plan) phase, planning workshops (needs assessment), and public hearings and feedback sessions (Mpereh, 2012). These processes are required to be coordinated by the MPCU in collaboration with members of the MMDAs.

Role of the Municipal Planning and Coordinating Unit

The MPCU is mandated to coordinate the planning functions as prescribed by National Development Planning (System) Act, 1994, (Act 480), the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462), and the Civil Service Law, 1993, PNDC Law

327. Predominantly, it is to lead the whole planning process by serving as a secretariat for planning activities while providing technical support to stakeholders. The MPCU is also responsible for providing adequate information and stakeholders' sensitisation on the MTDP process and organising public hearings (NDPC, 2013). Debrah (2003), however, noted, for instance, that a key factor of exclusion in the local participation process is information asymmetry. Thus, knowledge of the MTDP and its preparation is key for the involvement of stakeholders in the process.

Role of Municipal Assembly and Sub-District Structure Members

In the MDTP guidelines, members of the Municipal Assembly (MAs) and the sub-district levels have the responsibility of participating fully in the data collection and public hearing meetings, mobilising stakeholders to support the planning exercise by sharing information and providing data on development issues in their localities. They are also required to facilitate the needs assessment dialogue meetings and workshops and adopt the final plan for implementation (Botchie, 2000; NDPC, 2013). As the basic units of making decisions, they have the additional responsibility of educating the stakeholders on development planning and implementation issues as well as collecting relevant data for updating the local level records.

Ayee and Amponsah (2003) particularly noted that the sub-district structures, as per their mandate, are intended to enhance stakeholder participation to aid development processes as initiators of development processes. Additionally, they found that such duties are underperformed due to lack of both

human and financial resources, as the work of the sub-district members is largely voluntary. Mansouri and Rao (2013) further noted complaints of sub-district structures on general community growing apathy, evident in low attendance of meetings. However, stakeholders' participation is advocated by most scholars on the basis that its benefits are more than the costs.

A summary of what this section has achieved will be helpful

Empirical Review

The purpose of this section is to present a review of relevant studies so as to establish the relationship between previous studies and the present work; identify the gap, and the need for the present study to occupy that niche. Specifically, the review of studies centers on stakeholder participation and development plans, including Zacharia, Olympiou and Papaevripidou (2008); Boakye-Agyei (2009); Spitzack and Hansen (2010); Peter, George, and Luvega (2013); Chizimba and Hofisi (2013); Osei-Kufuor and Koomson (2014).

First, Zacharia *et al.* (2008) conducted a qualitative study and found that community participation in the study programmes takes on different forms at different stages of the project cycle. Despite the time difference between the old and new programme, the nature and extent of participation for the majority of local communities were generally limited to information given, consultation, and contribution. Local communities were, generally, not actively involved in decision-making, planning, monitoring, and evaluation processes.

Second, Spitzack and Hansen (2010) made a comparative analysis of how stakeholders are voluntarily granted influence in corporate decision-making, using

46 companies and drawing on publicly available sources such as company reports, articles and web sites. The research found that stakeholders were granted a voice regarding operational, managerial and strategic issues. The power granted to stakeholders varied from non-participation to co-decision making. The majority of engagements found were a combination of low power and low scope of participation, which were limited in their potential to align the views of those inside and outside the corporate boundaries. The implication of that study was that by seeing an array of different stakeholder governance mechanisms, managers could reflect on their own approach to stakeholders and gain insight into how other companies use stakeholder engagement for scenario planning and innovation. The findings are consistent with those found by Osei-Kufuor and Koomson (2014) in rural Ghana.

Next, Mnaranara (2010) studied the importance of community participation in an ongoing construction of school in Tanzania. The study was both qualitative and quantitative, with the help of triangulation methods of data collection. The study concluded that for a project or intervention to be sustainable, collaborative participation plays an important role as it was and still considered the active one, as the study found that participation by material giving was an important factor leading to community ownership, hence sustainability of the intervention. The study also emphasised the importance and usefulness of expertise knowledge if only the community people were also capacitated in taking over the intervention even if in minor activities. The study also recommended the importance of community mobilisation as it makes the people make joint

decisions regarding matters relating to their social and economic development. The study concluded that sustainability requires continued analysis and the flexibility to adopt new approaches; it would be unrealistic to expect sustainability without long-term commitment on the part of all participants, and more emphasis was on building an indigenous institution which identifies sustainability as a critical determinant of project success. The findings are consistent with those found by Boakye-Agyei (2009) in rural Ghana. The study recommended that it is important to have community members identify their own needs and draw up community action plans (CAP), emphasise the use of community inherent knowledge and capacity to allow them to cultivate an innovative approach to address their own problems. Thus, the study's emphasis was on community involvement resulting in the sustainability of donor-funded projects, though the emphasis was neither sufficient in outlining how their involvement and at what stage of project life cycle could bring sustainability nor the role played by the involved stakeholder. Conversely to Muriungi's (2015) findings, development projects, however, were not a significant determinant for stakeholder participation.

Similarly, Chizimba and Hofisi (2013) examined the background sustainability of donor-funded projects in Malawi. It was stated that the development plan is said to be able to improve the wellbeing of people if only it has an inbuilt exit strategy. The study focused on assessing three-phased out-of-food security projects which were funded by donors. Qualitative analysis of existing data was the main mode of conducting the research. The study adopted an

extensive review of primary and secondary sources of data relevant to the projects and underpinned by participatory development as a theoretical framework. The study found that all the projects were incorporating the use of participatory approaches to development. However, some compromises were observed during the implementation. The compromise to the participatory approach was especially observed on the part of staff whose preference of some technologies affected the sustainability of the project. It was also observed that the project is said to be sustainable if only it has an in-built exit strategy from the beginning. Such projects did not create any dependence syndrome on their beneficiaries.

The study acknowledges that other externalities may have intervened positively or negatively towards the sustainability of the projects reviewed. The study also recommended that the community needs to be fully informed about the development plan strategies. The positive influence of stakeholder inclusion on projects and programmes has also been reported by Conyers and Hills (1984) and Ayee and Amponsah (2003) in Ghana, and in Southern Ethiopia by Strauss and Corbin (1998), opposing earlier studies that people's participation was not a significant determinant of districts development plans (Botes & Rensburg, 2000; Sam, 2011). Again, citizens' participation in decision-making is reported by Ayee and Amponsah (2003).

Peter *et al.*'s (2013) study asserted that, for the project to be sustainable, a multidimensional attribute of sustainability such as the social, cultural, economic, and environmental pillar has to be considered during the project design and report

formulation, and community involvement should be an integral part of the organisation in order to maintain the sustainability of the project.

Osei-Kufuor and Koomson (2014) sought to examine the instrumental use of community participation in the National Poverty Reduction Programme. The mixed-method using a multi-stage sampling technique was used to sample 210 respondents consisting of project beneficiaries and staff of the facilitating NGO, ProNet. Data were collected using an interview schedule.

The key findings of the study were that community participation is more effective and has the potential to result in empowerment when the primacy is on training and building the capacity of beneficiaries. The study further found a significant association between beneficiary participation in training and capacity building programs. Also, the intensity of beneficiary participation among the sampled communities was found to be high. A similar finding was reported by Spitzack and Hansen (2010). Community participation can deliver positive outcomes for poor people. Peter *et al.* (2013) also noted the importance of participation or engagement for local level development planning.

Osei-Kufuor and Koomson (2014) concluded that community participation is empowering when people build their skills and capacities through training to undertake certain activities that seek to reduce poverty. Beneficiary empowerment was associated with the participation of the beneficiary in capacity building training programmes. The study recommends that for poverty reduction projects to meet their potential for alleviating poverty, more attention must be paid to periodic skills training and capacity building programmes. Community

participation has a huge potential to engage citizens, including poor citizens, in debates about public policy from local to the national level and in a range of sectors.

Auta, Abdullahi and Nasiru (2010) aimed at assessing rural youth participation in agriculture, their access to production resources and services, and the effects of youths' access to inputs and services on farm productivity and youths' welfare. The study was conducted in three states (each randomly selected from the three agro-ecological zones of northern Nigeria). Two Local Government Areas (LGAs) with high agricultural potential were randomly selected from each state. Data were collected using a questionnaire and were analysed using descriptive statistics. The study revealed that 79% of rural youths were involved in agricultural activities for subsistence and sale. Over 62% of youths earned between N10,000.00–N50,000.00 per annum (\$68.96–\$344.82) from agricultural activities.

The study implication for policy is that although they were married and had some basic education, most of these youths were still young. To this effect, their educational needs and other aspirations should be seen as a priority in public policy planning and national development. It is worthy to note that despite its low returns, most rural youths still engage in agriculture. Government, therefore, must invest in the rural sector to develop the infrastructure needed to facilitate faster agricultural growth. Doing this will restore the dignity of farming, make it rewarding/attractive to the youths, and stem the trend of rural-urban migration.

A similar finding was reported by khwaja (2004). Rural youths are a young category with peculiarities which differentiate them from their urban counterparts. They are often a socially and economically disadvantaged group of people whose weak capability does not allow them to realise their aspirations in vertical social strata. Boakye (2009) also noted the importance of youth participation in agricultural development in rural communities.

The findings of this study have illustrated the potentials, challenges, and prospects of rural youths in the context of agricultural development in the study area. It could be seen that despite the central role of agriculture in the rural social systems, little progress has so far been achieved towards raising the income and living standards of youths engaged in its practice. Other challenges being faced by youths engaged in farming include lack of finance, poor access to farm inputs, good market channels, and other services. The prospects for success in the future lie in the fact that many youths still believe in farming as a way of life. Furthermore, a good proportion of them are literate, have land on which to farm, and occasionally have access to agricultural extension services. The present scenario, therefore, presents several implications for the policy if Nigeria must be self-sufficient in food production.

Lessons Learnt from the Empirical Review

There is a growing body of research on stakeholder participation and the planning process. These studies have provided a very useful insight into the level of participation, factors affecting stakeholder participation, and the costs and benefits. The studies have shown that there is a growing recognition of the need to

involve the poor in the development process. However, most of the participation in development projects occurs at very low levels.

Stakeholder participation is more effective and has the potential to result in empowerment when the primacy is on training and building the capacity of interest. The various interests are most at times enthusiastic to participate in but are socially excluded by a variable such as government policies, bureaucratic obstacles, conflicts arising from political alliances, and deeply-entrenched corruption. Beneficiaries are faced with challenges such as no income and low-income, politics, favouritism, long working hours, illiteracy, low self-esteem, lack of training, lack of resources, lack of communication, lack of information, and transparency about the projects. However, when their capacities are built, they will be empowered to influence and control decisions affecting their welfare.

The review also showed that the studies lacked theoretical foundations. The studies are not informed by any theory or there is no theory guiding the studies. The theory would have put the study in viewpoint. This study, however, adopted the stakeholder theory and communicative planning theory to put the study in theoretical perspectives. Also, all the studies used mixed methods (both quantitative and qualitative) but failed to state where it is skewed towards. Again, both probability and non-probability sampling methods were employed, specifically multi-stage sampling, stratified random sampling, and purposive sampling. The sample sizes for most of the studies reviewed were not theoretically determined. However, after a careful study, it was noted that most of these studies were limited to rural communities in Africa.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework creates interactions among the key variables underpinning the study. Participation in decentralised development planning processes is of great importance for designing responsive initiatives that will improve the wellbeing of people within a particular local government area. From Figure 3, the stakeholders, being the MPCU, Unit Committees Members Assembly Persons, and community members have a direct linkage with awareness creation. The nexuses suggest that stakeholders are given education, orientation, and other public engagement to make them aware of what is ahead of them. In the process of participatory decision making, the MTDP may encounter

social in effectiveness of the MTDP

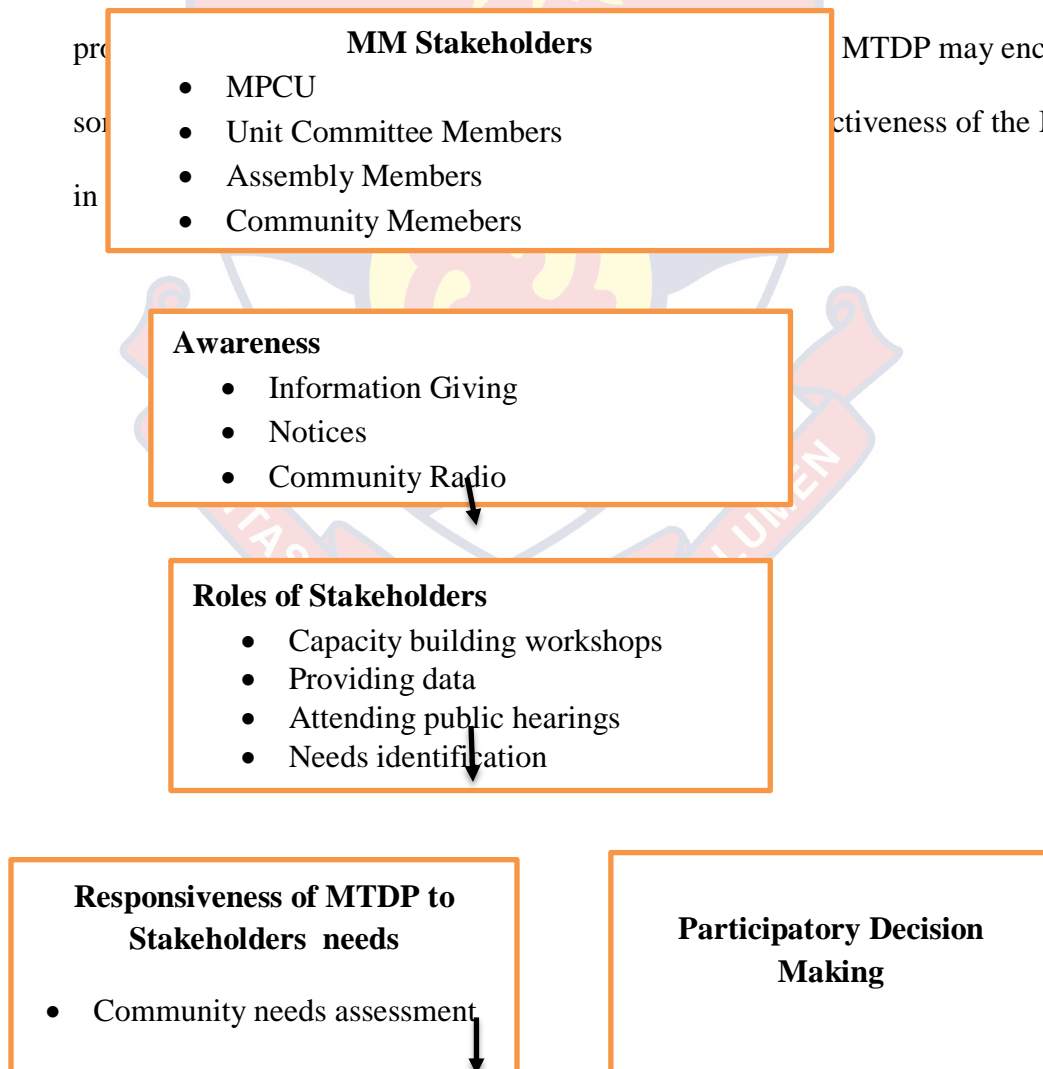




Figure 3: Conceptual framework of stakeholders participation in MTDP

Source: Author's Construct, 2017

Awareness is at this level very critical to ensure that stakeholders are reliably informed, given the available support structures. Stakeholders can participate effectively if they have adequate knowledge of the medium-term development planning processes. Information provided should be relevant, accurate, and timely. Prior information and education will enhance participants' understanding and desire to participate in the process.

The stakeholders can effectively play their roles through awareness creation, and the provision of relevant information is necessary but not sufficient. The strategies used in the whole process must also be effective. The approaches used must provide ample notification, select appropriate venues and time for meetings, resource participants with the necessary materials, and target a broad range of stakeholders. Appropriate information and education delivery channels suitable to various participants must also be used. The relevance of mass media, particularly community radio, is crucial due to its effectiveness to deliver information in terms of timeliness and reach. The process must be transparent to encourage fair and open dialogue, and guarantee that participants' inputs will influence the decision of the final plan. This will also build trust for further collaboration and consultation.

Though local government officials (MPCU) are required to facilitate the medium-term development planning process, they are also to provide some technical support to participants to enable them to make informed decisions. It is, therefore, necessary that they perform their role effectively and efficiently. Experienced facilitation skills are also necessary for mediating decision-making processes to build consensus for progressive deliberations. When these conditions are appropriately implemented, deliberations among stakeholders will be effective, resulting in the designing of responsive plans. This will then form a good foundation for the development initiatives implemented and consequently improve the living standards of people within the municipality.

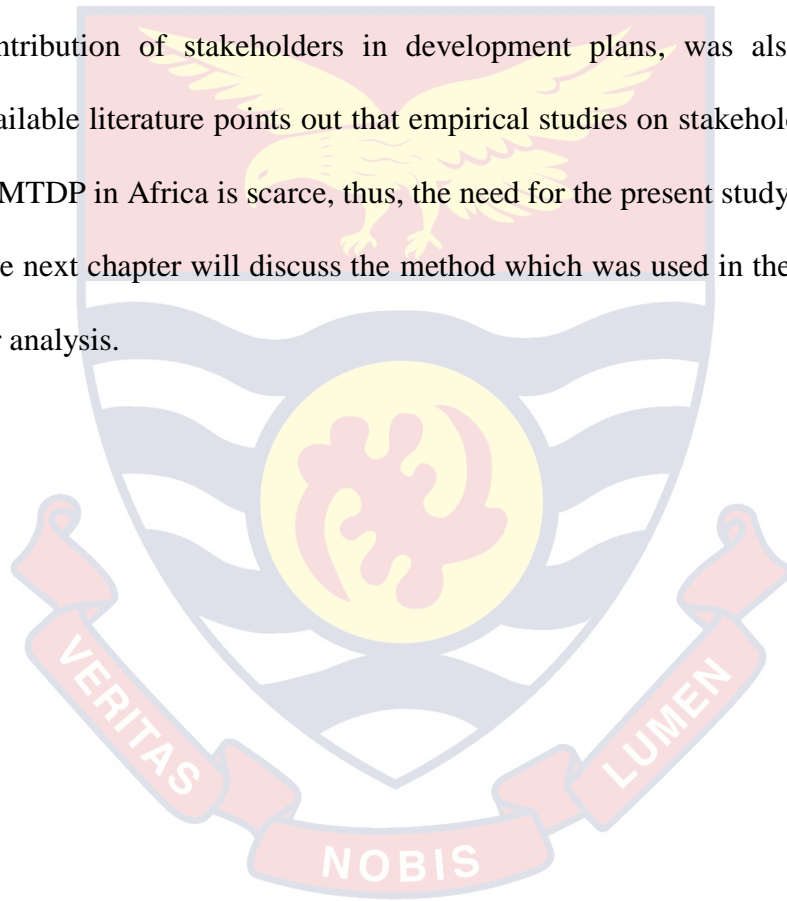
When stakeholders are sensitised to play their effective roles through awareness, they intend to become responsive to the MTDP. This is done through the available support structures that allow stakeholders' involvement to become responsive to the MTDP. Participatory decision-making is achieved through awareness creation, roles of stakeholders, and responsiveness MTDP, which provides the opportunity for all individuals who are affected or to be affected by a decision to have their suggestions/ideas represented in the decision-making process.

Chapter Summary

The chapter has provided an overview of the theoretical and empirical literature on stakeholders' participation in MTDP. It started with the theoretical section where two theories were reviewed to explain why people may involve themselves in the MTDP. First was the stakeholder theory which focuses on all

the persons or actors who can affect or be affected by the activities of an organisation. The communicative theory considers the planning process that integrates the concerns of the community members, and that if the process is just, the outcome will as well be just. With the conceptual literature, participation, stakeholders participation, and MTDP activities were reviewed.

The importance of stakeholder participation, emphasising the vital contribution of stakeholders in development plans, was also discussed. The available literature points out that empirical studies on stakeholders' participation in MTDP in Africa is scarce, thus, the need for the present study to be undertaken. The next chapter will discuss the method which was used in the gathering of data for analysis.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used for this study. It discusses research design, study area, data, sampling procedure, data collection procedure, and analysis of data.

Research Design

The most philosophical paradigms underpinning social research are positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism (Kumar, 1999; Sarantakos, 2012; Scotland, 2012; Uddin & Hamiduzzaman, 2009). These philosophical perspectives in social research influence a researcher's ontology, epistemology, and methods in a research endeavour. This suggests that they are the structural blocks of social science research. Hence, they oblige as the mechanisms of the whole research process.

The positivist thought contains a realist or objective ontology (Oppong, 2014; Sarantakos, 2012). That is, the reality is objective and external to the individual. The core ontological proposition of the experimentalists is that reality is a concrete structure that lends itself to measurement in an objective manner. Within the positivists' epistemology, knowledge is only obtainable via sensory experiences and positivism holds an empiricist epistemology (Sarantakos, 2012; Uddin & Hamiduzzaman, 2009). This suggests that knowledge is only attainable through quantitative observation of phenomena. Breen and Darlaston-Jones

(2008) report that positivism proclaims knowledge as objective and value-free, acquired by the use of the scientific method.

Positivists collect data using quantitative observation, semi-structured questionnaires, and interview schedule (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Creswell, 2003; Neuman, 2007). Under positivism, analysis of data normally encapsulates the use of statistical methods such as descriptive statistics as well as the parametric and non-parametric methods (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Neuman, 2007). Merits of the positivism paradigm include the ability to study relationships, facilitation of generalisation, replicability of studies, and presentation of value-free findings (Neuman, 2007; Sarantakos, 2012). Its weakness is that it fails to distinguish between appearance and essence of social events (Sarantakos, 2012).

The interpretive paradigm, on the other hand, has an ontological locus situated in relativism where reality is individually constructed, leading to multiple realities (De Villiers, 2005; Leitch, Hill, & Harrison, 2010; Scotland, 2012). The interpretive epistemology is one of subjectivism, dependent on real world phenomena (De Villiers, 2005; Leitch *et al.*, 2010). According to the interpretivism, knowledge emerges via social constructions such as language, consciousness, and shared meanings (Klein & Myers, 1999; Rowlands, 2005). This denotes that value-free knowledge is not obtainable.

The interpretivism applies the qualitative research approach when conducting research (Leitch *et al.*, 2010). Some study designs utilised under the interpretivism paradigm include case studies, phenomenology, hermeneutics, and ethnography (Leitch *et al.*, 2010). For methods, the interpretivism normally

employs interview schedules, focus group discussions, and observations (Bhattacharjee, 2012; De Villiers, 2005; Leitch *et al.*, 2010). Data analysis usually encompasses the researchers making their agenda and value system explicit from the outset (Leitch *et al.*, 2010). The critique of this paradigm is that it does not uphold objectivity and the results cannot be generalised (Mack, 2010).

In the pragmatism paradigm of social research, knowledge claims arise out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatism is not bound to any one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell, 2003). For the pragmatists, truth is what works at the time (Creswell, 2003). The pragmatists, therefore, reject any form of dualisms (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). They believe in an external world independent of and embedded in the mind. A research conducted within this philosophical standpoint uses the mixed methods design since the investigators draw freely from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions (Creswell, 2003). Within the pragmatic paradigm, researchers have the right to select the methods, techniques, and procedures of investigation that appropriately address issues of concern in a study (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

This paradigm allows for the use of statistical methods that sanction generalisation of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) as well as non-statistical methods in data collection and analysis.

Regarding the three philosophical thoughts (positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism), the assumptions of pragmatism seem to align more with this study. This is because the current study's concentration on issues of stakeholders

involved in development plans and the responsiveness of stakeholders involved in development plans captured the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently. Considering the issues concerned, the pragmatism philosophical school of thought's propositions provide the right window to address these key issues in the study adequately. Pragmatism is also vital for this study because some of the related earlier empirical studies applied it. On that account, this study embraces the pragmatic paradigm as the philosophical viewpoint underpinning this work.

The quantitative method was used to determine the extent of consultation in MTDP preparation processes as it pertains to the Mfantseman Municipality. The qualitative aspect of this research also provided great insights into investigating the in-depth issues surrounding stakeholders' participation in the MTDP process by analysing responses, guidelines, and detailed experiences of respondents.

The study employed a descriptive design, which describes data and characteristics about the population or phenomenon being studied. According to Sarantakos (2012), a descriptive study is used to describe conditions as they exist and is also the systematic gathering of information from respondents for understanding and predicting some aspect of the behaviour of the population of interest. A descriptive study design also involves contrast and attempts to discover relationships between variables. The objectives of the study were addressed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Both methods were used to explain aspects of each of the study objectives.

Study Area

This section of the study describes the study area in terms of location, physical characteristics, population, and economic activities. The Mfantseman Municipality is sited along the Atlantic coastline of the Central Region of Ghana. It stretches approximately 21 kilometers along the coastline and about 13 kilometers inland, constituting an area of 300.662 square kilometers (MMA, 2017).

The municipality has four traditional paramouncies: A beadze-Dominase, Nkusukum, Anomabo, and Mankessim. The administrative capital of Mfantseman is Saltpond. Mfantseman is bounded on the West by Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District, on the North East by Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District, on the East by Ekumfi District, and on the South by the Gulf of Guinea (Atlantic Ocean) (MMA, 2017). Figure 4 shows the study area.

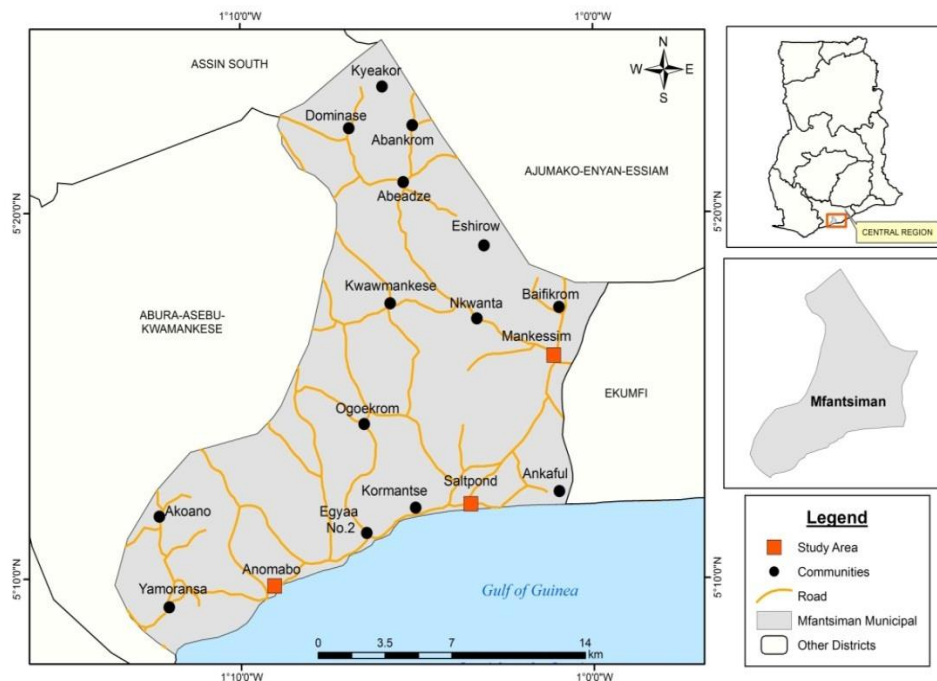


Figure 4: Map of Mfantseman Municipality

Source: Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC, 2017

The municipality stretches from Eguase (the most western point) to Mankessim (the most Eastern point) (MMA, 2017). Mfantseman was established as a District by a Legislative Instrument (LI) 1374 in 1988. The District was elevated to Municipality status in January 2008 by an Executive Instrument (EI) 10 and Legislative Instrument (LI) No. 1862, of 2007. After the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the population of Mfantseman was reported as 196,563, constituting 8.9 percent of the total population in the Central Region (MMA, 2017). Out of the total population recorded, males constituted 45.9 percent whereas females constituted 54 percent. The Mfantseman Municipality is the highest political and administrative authority in the Municipality charged with the responsibility of formulating and executing plans and programmes as well as initiating strategies for the effective mobilisation of resources that are necessary for the overall development of the Municipality in line with its mission (MMA, 2017).

The number of non-literate females (16,155) was more than two times that of males (6,841). Seven out of ten people (i.e. 70 percent) could speak and write both English and Ghanaian languages (MMA, 2017). About 66.1 percent of the population aged 15 years and older are economically active while 33.9 percent are economically not active. Of the economically active population, 93.8 percent are employed while 6.2 percent are unemployed. For those who are economically not active, a larger percentage of them are students 58.2 percent, 15.8 percent perform

household duties, and 4.0 percent are disabled or too sick to work. About six out of ten (56.8%) unemployed are seeking work for the first time (MMA, 2017).

The socio-economic activities of the MM show that the proportion of male heads (30.1%) is higher than females (23.0%). Furthermore, the proportion of biological children who are males (44.6%) is more than those who are females (i.e. 39.4 percent). However, there are more females as spouses (15.2%) than males (2.3%). Of the 33.9 percent economically not active persons, nearly three-fifth (58.2%) are in full-time education. There is very little variation between male and female economic activity status (MMA, 2017). Figure 4 is the map of the district.

Study Population

A study population, according to Jennings (2001), is all the study subjects or units that are the focus of the research project. The study population comprised community members from the three communities namely Mankessim, Saltpond, and Anomabo in the MMA. These three towns have the largest population and economy, with Mankessim leading, followed by Saltpond and Anomabo. As a result, the study settled on the community members of the aforementioned towns. These community members were selected because they have an in-depth knowledge of issues, as far as this study was concerned and participated in the previous MTDP (MMA, 2014).

The following people were selected: MPCU members, Assembly members, Zonal Council members and Unit Committee members. They were chosen because they represent the interest of the people at the grassroots in

decision-making, thus, providing a structured mechanism of representation, participation, and accountability from the village levels upwards (Institute of Local Government Studies, 2008). It is, therefore, important to blend the responses of the technical people as well as the community members to ascertain the level of their participation in the preparation of the MTDP that directly or indirectly affects them. Samples for the study were from these categories of the population identified.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

A simple random sampling procedure was used to select the respondents of the study from the sampling frame of the one hundred and seventy community level respondents. The participants were selected using the lottery method to give each member of the sampling frame an equal chance of being included in the sample (Duflo & Kremer, 2005; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). Random sampling of targeted individuals in local communities who participated in the preparation of the MTDP is essential for validating results (Duflo & Kremer, 2005).

One hundred and eighteen respondents were randomly selected from the one hundred and seventy MTDP community participants using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining the appropriate and representative sample size from a population for a study. The Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table provides the list of the population and number of respondents that can be selected from the population as the appropriate sample size to be used for a study. For a population of one hundred and seventy, the corresponding sample size was one hundred and

eighteen and thus round up to one hundred and twenty respondents. This was to take away non-responses. A proportion was given to each of the three communities depending on the population of the community participation in the last MTDP in the given sample frame (MMA, 2014). Additionally, proportions were assigned to the communities within each community based on their population in the sample frame. However, it is worth noting that there were instances where respondents opted out of the study. Their reasons were purely personal as it appeared they had little knowledge of the issues under investigation. The same method was used to replace such respondents to make up the sample size. The sample size was not necessary for generalisation purposes but to give a broader view of the issues under study. The simple random sampling technique was used to select a sample of 120 community members for the study (Table 2).

Table 2: Population and Sample Size Selected

Communities	No. of Community Members	Sample Size
Mankessim	58	40
Saltpond	56	40
Anomabo	56	40
Total	170	120

Source: MMA, 2017

Out of the 120 questionnaires distributed, 109 were retrieved. This meant that an additional 11 questionnaires were administered to make up the sample size and this was done accordingly. As argued by Irwin *et al.* (2008), well-structured questionnaires can provide a broader context to make sense of narrower and more focused interviews. The compiled list of members with the names and locations of

the respondents was cut into pieces of paper, folded, and put into a box. The folded papers were shuffled very well and picked up randomly to represent the sample. The names of the respondents and their respective locations were indicated on another list for counting the number of respondents selected for the sample. The picked papers were replaced in the box and the procedure repeated. The simple random sampling with replacement method was used to help improve the accuracy of the sample by reducing sampling error until the sample size was achieved (Alumode, 2011; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Under the qualitative approach, the purposive sampling technique was used to select some participants for this study. The purposive technique was used to select the four (4) MPCU Members, six (6) Unit Committee Members, five (5) Assembly Members, and two (2) Zonal Executives. The four core members (Planning Officer, Budget Officer, Development Officer, and Finance Officer) of the MPCU were involved in the study. The chairman and secretary of the zonal councils were also purposively sampled because of their day-to-day activities at the councils. The decision to involve such participants was based on their position and willingness to participate in the study from the onset. The objectives for which this study stands for were well informed by the information gathered from these participants. This made their participation very relevant. Five Assembly Members were purposively sampled and interviewed. The Assembly Members and Unit Committee Members were engaged in interviews to ascertain their level of participation in MTDP.

Data Sources

The study employed both primary and secondary data. The secondary data included institutional guidelines and documents and relevant existing documents of the MTDP preparation process in the municipality. Primary data were collected from the MPCU, Assembly Members, Zonal Council Representatives, Unit Committee members, other key stakeholders, and the general community members.

Research Instruments

Kothari (2004) argues that, in practice, one rarely comes across a case where one questionnaire relies on one form of items alone, and as such, items of different forms are included in one single questionnaire. Both close-ended and open-ended forms of items were employed using a questionnaire because they were simple and quick for the respondents to complete. In this way, reliable and dependable data were obtained since, on the one hand, the respondents had a list of response options to select from and, on the other hand, they were offered the opportunity to express their views fully without restriction. The questionnaire was administered to the 120 community level respondents who were willing and able to read, write, and understand the questions.

The objective and nature of the inquiry using the questionnaire were made clear to the respondents. The items on the questionnaire were based on the specific objectives of the study. The questionnaire had four sections (see Appendix A). This allowed for a logical analysis of the objectives and to answer the research questions. Section One gathered data on the background

characteristics of respondents. Section Two explored stakeholders awareness of the MTDP in the study area. In Section Three, questions that sought data on the stakeholders' roles concerning preparation of MTDP activities were asked, while Section Four assessed the responsiveness of the MTDP to stakeholders' needs in the MMA.

Concerning the qualitative data, interviews were conducted to obtain information (see Appendix B). The key informants included the Municipal Coordinating Director, the MPCU, Unit Committee Members, Assembly Members, and Zonal Council Executives. This technique enabled the researcher to obtain detailed first-hand information, and it presented the researcher with the opportunity to probe and rephrase questions to enhance the clarity and accuracy of the responses obtained.

The interview schedule covered issues on the stakeholders awareness of MTDP, roles of stakeholders in preparation of MTDP, and responsiveness of MTDP to stakeholders. The motivation for employing an interview schedule was because it is easy to administer, provides the opportunity to observe the non-verbal behaviour of respondents, ensures completeness, and facilitates the collection of in-depth information. Moreover, this instrument was appropriate because it serves the purpose of triangulation of findings.

Pre-testing

With the help of the field assistants, a pretest was conducted on 12th October, 2017 at Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (KEEA) Municipal Assembly. The pre-test aimed to test the instrument from the KEEA Municipal Assembly.

Eleven members of the Planning Committee took part in the trial administration of questionnaires. The purpose of the pre-test study was to see the practicalities in administering the instrument and identify possible challenges that could be faced. After the pre-test, the need for a clearer translation of words and a shorter duration for administering the instruments came up. Thus, the necessary changes were made before the actual fieldwork was done.

Ethical Procedures

The study methodology was subjected to official ethical considerations. The researcher ensured that the methodological approach of the study did not violate research ethics. Respondents who participated in the study were briefed on the objectives of the study and their consent was sought. This was repeated to the respondents at the beginning of each interview. Informed consent for key informants was sought through a letter of consent. The respondents were informed that their rights will be guaranteed and protected if they agreed to be included in the study and that participation in the study was voluntary. The purpose of the study and procedure of the research were made known to the respondents.

Respondents were informed that the study was not in any way detrimental to them. The anonymity of participants was possible by numerically coding each returned interview guide to ensure the protection of their privacy and identity. In the case of responses from the key informant interviews, pseudo names were used. Respondents got assurance of confidentiality of data provided as they were solely for academic purposes.

Data Collection

The actual fieldwork lasted for five weeks (7th November to 18th December, 2017). Three research assistants were engaged in the study. The research assistants were trained for three days. The training involved community entry protocols, research ethics, expected conduct of an interviewer, and interpretation of the research instruments. The aim was to ensure uniform translation of the items to avoid biases. For the questionnaire, the respondents were placed in two categories. That is, those who could read, write, and understand and those who could not read, write, and understand. The questionnaire was distributed to the former for their responses whilst in the case of the latter, the questions were interpreted in Fante for their responses. This was to ensure maximum participation from respondents and for proper expression of views by the respondents. The research assistants reported to the municipal assembly where for the interview schedule, appointments were booked with the key informants at a time convenient for them. The conversations were recorded with the help of a recorder.

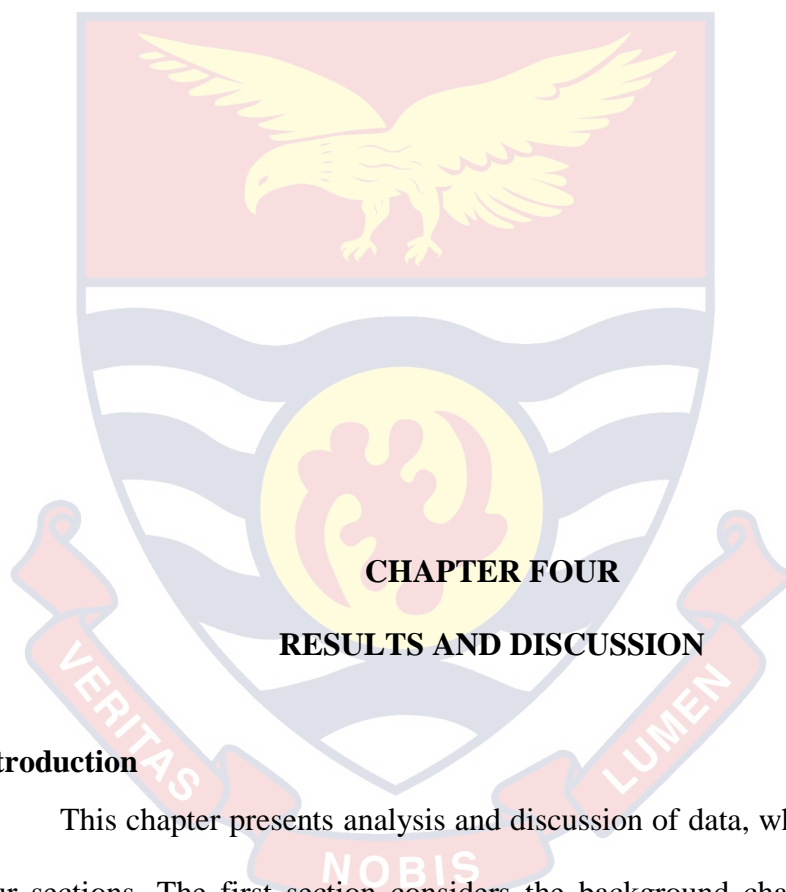
The challenges encountered during the field data collection included the absence of some of the sampled respondents, the reluctance of some of the respondents to participate in the study, and the busy working schedule of some of the respondents. However, with appropriate measures such as discussing and meeting respondents at a convenient time, the exercise was successful despite the challenges.

Data Analysis Procedure

Administered research instruments were first edited to check for consistency and accuracy of recordings. The collected data contained both quantitative and qualitative data. This, therefore, required both quantitative and qualitative analyses. The quantitative data were edited, coded, imputed into the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 21, and cleaned before analyses were undertaken. These analyses involved the use of descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, Chi-square tests of independence, and charts. The qualitative data analysis, on the other hand, was by a manual process using thematic analysis. There was an integration of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses under each of the objectives to give a clearer and general picture of the issues to be analysed.

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology used for the study. The mixed method with a tilt towards the quantitative research design rooted in the positivist paradigm of social science was used. Specifically, the descriptive survey design was used for the study. Primary data were collected from the Mfantseman Municipality which happens to be the study area. Secondary data were also collected from relevant institutions to support the study. The instrument used for the data collection was an interview schedule and questionnaire. A pre-test of the research instrument was conducted at KEEA. With respect to the analysis, statistical analysis such as charts and tables were employed.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents analysis and discussion of data, which is captured in four sections. The first section considers the background characteristics of the respondents and their implication for medium-term development planning. The second section covers the awareness of the MTDP and its preparation processes. The third section examines stakeholders' participation in the steps as stated in the NDPC guidelines. The final section discusses the responsiveness of the plan to stakeholders' needs.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

A key element in any stakeholder beneficiary participation in a development project is to assess the stakeholder potential for local-level development. The different socio-cultural roles of people based on gender, age, and social status necessitate that extensive socio-demographic characteristics of stakeholders be examined to explain assigned roles in MTDP activities as well as differences and similarities in the levels of participation of specific categories of people in the MTDP process. To that effect, the characteristics of the stakeholder respondents that were considered were sex, age, education, occupation, marital status, and religion.

The study examined the sex of respondents as part of the background information. This was done to establish the demographic characteristics of the respondents that were included in the study. All the 120 respondents provided information on their sex. The sex distribution of respondents shows that a greater proportion (55%) were females. This indicates the dominance of females over males in the study areas. This is in line with the population structure (male-female ratio of 45:55) of the Mfantseman Municipality.

The study also examined the ages of the respondents. Age plays a role in assessing the extent of stakeholders' participation in the preparation of the MTDP. A summary of the findings in relation to the distribution of age of the respondents is captured in Table 3 below:

Age groups	Frequency	Percentage
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20-29	42	35.0
30-39	38	31.6
40-49	26	21.7
50-59	8	6.7
60 and above	6	5.0
Total	120	100

Table 3: Age Distribution of Respondents

Source: Field survey, 2017

The data, as presented in Table 3, show that 35 percent of the respondents were between the ages of 20 and 29, 31.6 percent were aged 30-39 years old, 21.7 percent were aged 40-49 years old, 6.7 percent were aged 50-59 years old whilst 5 percent were aged 60 years and above. The data further reveal that two-thirds of the respondents could be classified as youthful, as according to the African Youth Charter (Ntsabane, 2016), a person is considered a youth if he/she falls within the age range of 15-35.

Sam (2011) expresses that attempts to promote participation in development should attach certain roles to particular age groupings. In this work, community members had a youthful population who may contribute meaningfully to development. It can also be inferred that the neglect of the youth from the MTDP preparation is likely to result in low commitment to the implementation of the designed solutions aimed at addressing community problems.

Apart from sex and age, the study also considered the educational attainments of respondents. The examination of the educational background of

the respondents covered all the 120 respondents. The educational level of the stakeholders played a role in determining the quality of the decisions made by stakeholders. Table 4 presents a summary of educational background of respondents:

Table 4: Educational Background of Respondents

Education	Frequency	Percentage
No Formal Education	7	5.8
Basic	59	49.2
Secondary	41	34.2
Tertiary	13	10.8
Total	120	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 4 shows that 5.8 percent of the respondents had no formal education, 49.2 percent had basic education, and 34.2 percent had secondary education, whilst 10.8 percent of the respondents had tertiary education. This suggests that the majority of respondents were without tertiary education. The level of education of respondents implies, to some extent, their capacity in understanding the planning process for local development. This is because one's level of education has consequences for his/her participation in addressing local challenges. This is consistent with Burns and Taylor's (2000) observation that the educational attainment of people influences their perceptions about participating in developmental programmes. Ayee and Amponsah (2003) emphasise that the differences in the educational attainments of people may explain differences in

the level of participation among certain groups in a society. Nelson and Wright (1995) also noted that people's level of education, to some extent, determines the type of task they can undertake in any development project. In the preparation of MTDPs, Sanyare (2013) revealed that stakeholders with a high level of education attend meetings regularly and are vocal in deliberations and influence the community decision-making process. The proportions of respondents who have attained higher levels of education imply that only a few people may be able to influence decision-making during deliberations on the MTDP.

Furthermore, the study examined the ethnicity of respondents. The findings are displayed in Table 5 below:

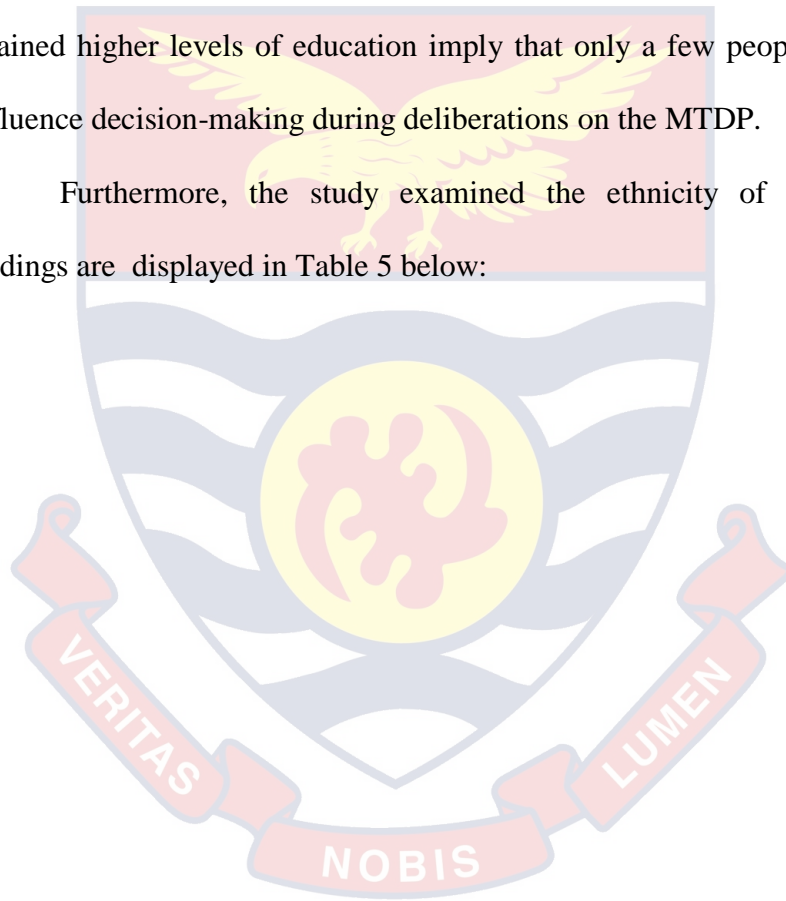


Table 5: Ethnicity of Respondents

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
Fanti	46	38.3
Ewe	23	20.0
Asante	11	13.3
Ga/Dangbe	16	19.2
Other	7	9.2
Total	120	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 5 shows the ethnic composition of the respondents. Table 5 shows that 38.3 percent of the respondents were Fantis, 20 percent were Ewes, 13.3 percent of the respondents were Asantes, and 19.2 percent of the respondents were Ga/Dangbe, whilst 9.2 percent of the respondents represented other tribes. The data imply that majority of the respondents were Fantes of the community.

The study also examined the occupation of respondents. According to Hausknect (1992), low economic status, as measured by occupation, has a negative correlation with rates of participation in community organisations. Concerning this study, thus, people of low economic status feel powerless to change processes that affect them and, therefore, disassociate themselves from active community roles. In addition, such groups have little time and resources to partake in outside activities that do not directly provide livelihoods. Table 6 shows the occupational status of the respondents as found below:

Table 6: Occupation of Respondents

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Professional/Technical/Managerial	15	12.5
Sales/Services	27	22.5
Skilled Manual	48	40.0
Unskilled Manual	19	15.8
Other	7	5.8
Unemployed	4	3.4
Total	120	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 6 indicates that the Professional/Technical/Managerial 12.5 percent, Sales/Services 22.5 percent, Skilled Manual 40 percent, Unskilled Manual 15.8 percent, Other 5.8 percent and Unemployed 3.4 percent. Most (40%) of the respondents were economically-active and are skilled. This, however, is not surprising, as the municipality is well noted for its brisk informal business activities. This also suggests that the majority of residents in the municipality are taxed and toll payers and should be involved in the decisions concerning how funds mobilised are utilised to improve their wellbeing. It is worth noting that the kinds of employment ventures engaged in by stakeholders may influence their availability for community meetings, seriousness attached to community needs, and their perceptions on community projects.

Next, religion is a very effective vehicle for change in attitudes and behaviour because it shows people's beliefs and general perspectives of life. Stakeholders' attitudes towards customary beliefs about the MTDP could be influenced by their religious practices. For Mpolokeng (2003), religion has the

greatest influence on the thinking and living of the people concerned. As religion defines cultural outlook, so does the culture shape the people's relationship with the land. Find a summary of responses to religious affiliation in the Table 7:

Religious Affiliation	Frequency	Percentage
Christians	84	70.0
Muslims	35	29.2
Traditionalists	1	0.8
Total	120	100

Table 7: Religion of Respondents

Source: Field survey, 2017

As far as religion is concerned, most of the respondents (70%) were Christians, followed by Muslims (29.2%) and Traditionalists (0.8%), as presented in Table 7. This finding is consistent with that of Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2015) which indicates that 59 percent of the people of the Mfantseman Municipality are Christians (GSS, 2015). This can also be reckoned as an avenue for providing information and sensitisation to the wider stakeholder groups to induce participation in the MTDP preparation and education on civic responsibilities for sustainable community development.

Awareness of the Medium-Term Development Plan

The second part of the analysis focuses on the the first research objective, which explored the awareness of stakeholders' participation in the preparation of the MTDP. This was crucial because stakeholders awareness about the MTDP

influences their willingness and commitment to participate in the various stages in the preparation of the MTDP (Sam, 2011). Mansouri and Rao (2013) also indicate that people with positive awareness about stakeholders’ participation have positive attitudes towards the preparation of the MTDP. Adequate information about planning processes is noted to induce participation (Botchie, 2000). The 2014-2017 MTDP planning guidelines also provide that after the MPCU has been constituted, awareness on the planning process should be created among community members on the planning process and why they should participate (NDPC, 2013).

Olujimi and Egunjobi (1991) posited, aptly, that the case of awareness creation before meaningful participation is basic logic. The data from Table 8 indicate that about (67%) of the respondents from Mankessim were aware that the municipal assembly was supposed to prepare plans to guide development projects and initiatives. This percentage of respondents did not know the process for developing the MTDP. The results from Table 8 show communities and knowledge of municipal assembly planning mandate:

Table 8: Communities and Knowledge of Municipal Planning Mandate

Names of Communities	Knowledge of Municipal Assembly Planning Mandate		Total F (%)
	Yes F (%)	No F (%)	
Saltpond	19(56)	15(44)	34(100.0)
Mankessim	43(67)	21(33)	64(100.0)
Anomabo	13(59)	9(41)	22(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2017

This implies that the knowledge of municipal planning mandate on the side of both communities did not vary. It is so because, in Ghana, most communities are not informed of municipal planning mandates (Mansouri & Rao, 2013). According to Table 8, it can also be observed that, in Saltpond, 56 percent of the respondents had knowledge of municipal assembly planning mandate and 44 percent of them did not have. In Mankessim, it was found that 33 percent of the respondents did not know the municipal assembly planning mandate. For Anomabo, it was discovered that 59 percent of the respondents had knowledge of municipal assembly planning mandate whilst 41 percent of them did not have.

Table 9 shows the distribution of communities and knowledge of the processes for developing a MTDP by communities.

Table 9: Distribution of Communities and Knowledge of the Processes for Developing Medium Term Development Plan by Communities

Names of Communities	Knowledge of the Processes for Developing Medium Term Development Plan		Total F(%)
	Yes F(%)	No F(%)	
	Saltpond	27(67.5)	
Mankessim	11(27.5)	29(72.5)	64(100.0)
Anomabo	23(57.5)	17(42.5)	22(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2017

It can be deduced from the Table 9 that, in Saltpond, 67.5 percent of the respondents knew the processes for developing MTDPs, as compared to 27.5 percent in Mankessim. For Anomabo, it was revealed that 57.5 percent of the

respondents knew the processes for developing a MTDP. The interview also revealed the following:

I have never been invited to any of such meetings so I do not know much about the MTDP process and the period in which it is prepared but the assembly member may know about it'' (Community Respondent, Anomabo, October 2017)

We receive letters from the Municipal Assembly indicating when and where the MTDP meetings will be held. The letter also indicates the persons we should specifically invite from our electoral areas to attend the planning meetings. A lot of people do not know about it except those we invite'' (Community Respondent, Saltpond, 14th October, 2017)

The MTDP diagnostics workshops were held at the zonal council level but this can further be extended to lower levels when adequate funding is available. We, however, expect Assembly members to inform and educate their constituents on the plan development process. Some Assembly Members are part of the Municipal Planning sub-committee and so we expect that they will provide information to their colleagues and their community members. I witnessed, on a visit to Ethiopia, that all communities have special notice boards that are well constructed and glassed with roofing, situated in public places. Notices are periodically displayed on them to inform communities on activities of the local government institutions and we are thinking about doing something like that in the future but this comes at a cost. (MPCU member, Saltpond, 14th October 2017).

It is observed that knowledge of the MTDP preparation process is the preserve of a few community representatives who know about it. This is consistent with Aguillar's (1988) finding that the participatory planning process is often limited

to persons who are politically aware. The lack of awareness of the general public is, therefore, a major contributing factor to their exclusion from the medium-term development planning process in the MMA. This low level of awareness of the MTDP and its preparation process among the general public had some depth, evident among people of all sex, age categories, and zones.

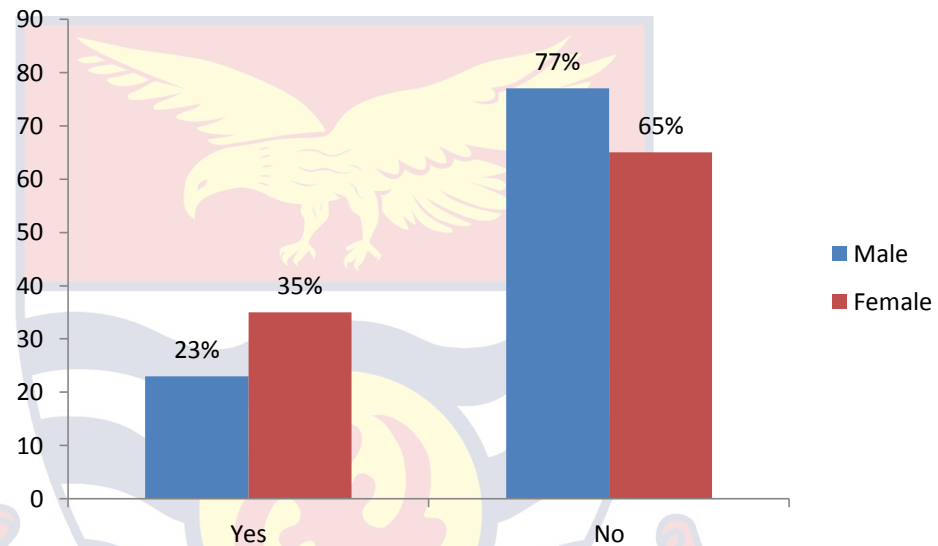


Figure 5: Knowledge of MTDP Preparation by Sex Category
Sources: Field survey, 2017

Figure 5 indicates low knowledge of the MTDP and its preparation process for males and females. Only 23 percent of males as compared to 35 percent of females knew the MTDP planning process, while 77 percent of males and 65 percent of females did not know about the preparation of the MTDP. Respondents within the Saltpond and Mankessim zonal areas relatively reported more cases of low awareness on the MTDP and its preparation processes though awareness was generally low in all areas (MMA, 2014).

Table 10 shows the knowledge of the MTDP preparation by age category:

Table 10: Knowledge of MTDP Preparation by Age Category

Age Category	Yes F(%)	No F(%)	Total F (%)
20-29	3(2.5)	39(32.5)	42(35)
30-39	6(5.0)	32(26.7)	38(31.7)
40-49	8(6.7)	18(15.0)	26(21.7)
50-59	1(1.2)	7(5.8)	8(7)
60 and above	1(1.2)	5(4.2)	6(5.4)
Total	19	101	120(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2017

Only about 32.5 percent of the respondents between the ages of 20-29 years had no knowledge about the MTDP planning process, with cumulative proportions of about 35 percent as compared to respondents within the ages of 40-49 years who were adults. The data also shows that 40-49 age category representing 15 percent had no knowledge of the MTDP process.

Another area the study sought to establish relationship was the views of the various categories of stakeholders on their knowledge of MTDP in the Municipality as they all have a responsibility in that regard, as spelt out in Act 936, Act 2016. This Act enjoins assembly members and members at the zonal

council levels to assist in the preparation of the MTDP in the area to be led by the MPCU. It is also imperative to involve all interested groups in development activities directly or indirectly. In assessing their involvement, it was important to examine how these categories view issues related to their involvement in the preparation of the MTDP as practised by the municipal assembly.

The respondents' views were solicited and measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree), 2 (agree), 3 (neutral), 4 (disagree), and 5 (strongly disagree). With the nature of involvement in the MTDP, the intention was to determine whether the MPCU was solely responsible for the MTDP or it did it with the involvement of other stakeholders. The results in Figure 6 show the differences in the levels of agreement of the different categories of stakeholders.

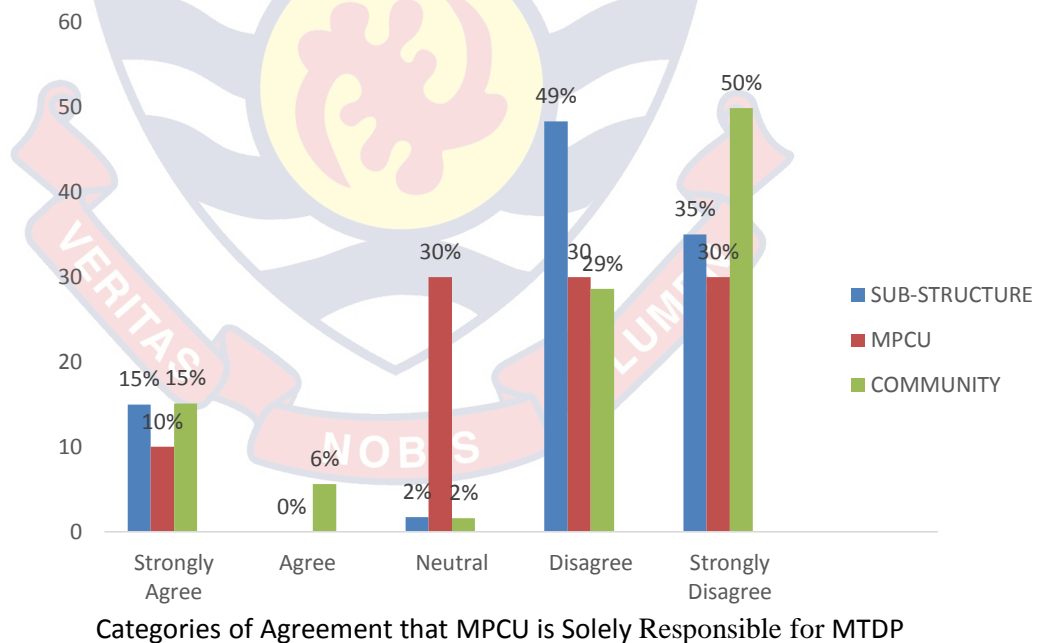


Figure 6: MPCU Solely Responsible for MTDP

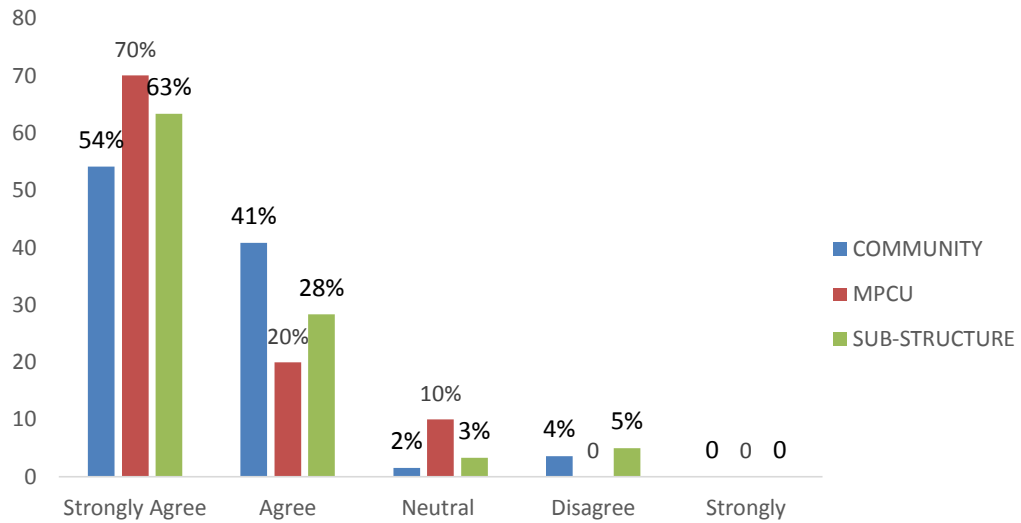
Source: Field survey, 2017

The results from Figure 6 show a strong disagreement with the statement that the MPCU is solely responsible for the MTDP at the municipal assembly. The strongest rejection of the statement was from the community (50%), followed by the sub-structure (35%) and the MPCU (30%). The massive rejection of the statement was in line with the then Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) which indicates that, for the MPCU to perform its monitoring and evaluation functions effectively, the MPCU should co-opt representatives from other sector agencies, persons from the private sector and civil society organisations whose inputs will be needed in ensuring the participation of all stakeholders (National Development Planning Commission [NDPC], 2013).

The implication is that the community and sub-structure response is understandable in the sense that their participation in MTDP, sometimes, depends on the willingness of the MPCU to involve them and to act on their observation of projects and programmes in their respective zonal areas. The MPCU's direction of response could probably be because it views itself positively when it comes to the MTDP of projects and programmes. However, 30 percent of the MPCU respondents remained neutral while 2 percent and 2 percent of the sub-structure and community respectively also remained neutral. Few of the respondents agreed with the statement, with the highest agreement coming from the community (15%), the sub-structure (15%), and the MPCU (10%).

According to Haruna and Kannae (2013), Ghana initiated the policy of decentralisation aimed at creating and strengthening democracy, an all-inclusive participatory, transparent, and accountable form of governance at the local level

and its main objective is to bring the decision-making process closer to the doorsteps of communities. Because of this, the researcher solicited the views of



Categories of agreement that MTDP promotes transparency & accountability

the respondents to know their level of agreement with the statement that the effective participation of stakeholders in the MTDP promotes transparency and accountability. The views of stakeholders on whether stakeholder participation promotes transparency and accountability were also examined, as seen in Figure 7:

Figure 7: MTDP Promotes Transparency and Accountability

Source: Field survey, 2017

As can be seen in Figure 7, there is a strong agreement with the statement at 70 percent as the highest agreement category found among the MPCU, followed by the sub-structure at 63 percent and the community at 54 percent. It can also be seen that the second category of the agreement has the community

category of respondents agreeing the most, followed by the sub-structure at 28 percent and the MPCU at 20 percent. Only a few respondents remained neutral and disagreed, and none of the respondents strongly disagreed. It was not surprising for the overwhelming agreement from the MPCU since transparency and accountability constitute a core service delivery standard of the local government service (Local Government Service, 2014) while the sub-structure and the community response category were in constant demand for transparency and accountability in the development process. The responses are consistent with Estrella and Gaventa's (1998) observation that, in the United States, citizen monitoring has become one approach through which local citizens hold governments accountable and assess the extent to which development plans meet the needs of the community.

Similarly, the MTDP is not only regarded as a means of holding development planners accountable but also as a way for stakeholders to monitor and evaluate the performance of donor and governmental institutions. Transparency and accountability, in this context, have become a two-way relationship between main stakeholders and providers of resources and those put in charge to disburse the resources. This will further allow the beneficiary communities to better articulate their needs and expectations, providing them with a wider opportunity to negotiate their objectives with public officers. Figure 8 summarizes respondents' views:

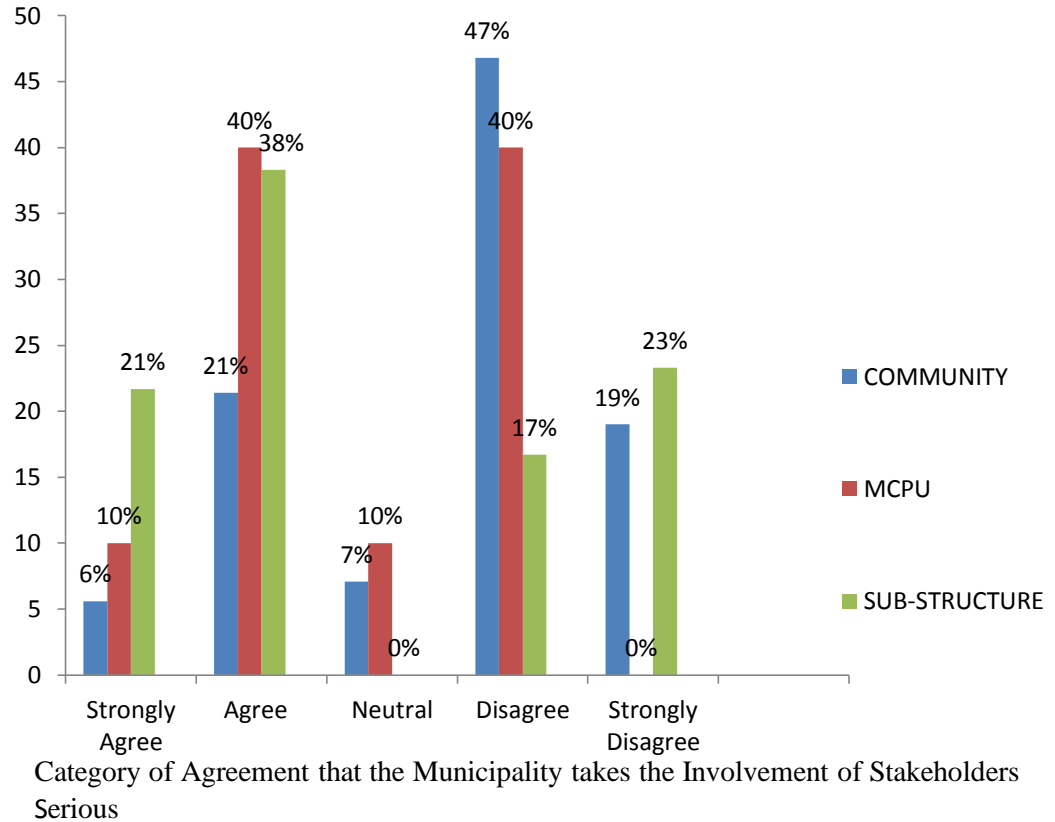


Figure 8: Municipality’s perception of stakeholders involvement in MTDP

Source: Field survey, 2017

The views of the MPCU, as captured in Figure 8, varied marginally at a 40 percent category of agreement from that of the sub-structure at 38 percent as opposed to disagreement by the MPCU 40 percent and the sub-structure 17 percent. The community category had the highest category of disagreement at 47 percent and the lowest category of agreement at 21 percent. There was a strong agreement among the sub-structure at 22 percent and strong disagreement among the community and sub-structure, representing 19 percent and 23 percent respectively. The results indicate that there is a low level of involvement in

MTDP among community members. This means that the sub-structure and the MPCU are more involved than the community but not fully involved.

The responses are, to a large extent, in contrast with what the Institute of Development Studies (1998) noted that providing stakeholders the chance to participate in MTDP becomes an opportunity for development organisations to focus better on their ultimate goal of improving poor people's lives. That will broaden the involvement in identifying change of which a clearer picture can be gained of what is happening on the ground. The study added that this can also be an empowering process since the people are in charge, their skills are developed, and show also that their views count (Institute of Development Studies [IDS], 1998). The responses show that the Municipality does not consciously involve all stakeholders and might not be able to reap the benefits of involving stakeholders, especially the beneficiary community-level stakeholders.

A few of the MPCU (10%) and sub-structure (5.6%) could stand out clearly with strongly agree to the statement that the municipal assembly takes the involvement of stakeholders seriously and sees it as a critical project management tool. The municipality might not know that the community level stakeholders' participation is capable of increasing their satisfaction with projects being implemented, as indicated by Nyaguthii and Oyugi (2013) when they stated that involving the residents in the monitoring of projects would increase the level of satisfaction of the beneficiaries. Even though 49 percent of the respondents in this study strongly disagreed that the MPCU is not solely responsible for MTDP, the municipal assembly does not view the involvement of the community-level

stakeholders in the MTDP as a critical tool for the management of projects and programmes. Table 11 presents knowledge of MTDP preparation process according to zonal area.

Table 11: Knowledge of MTDP Preparation Process by Zonal Area

Zonal Area	Yes (Aware) F(%)	No(Unaware) F(%)	Total F(%)
Saltpond	6(5.0)	35(29.2)	41(34.2)
Mankessim	3(2.5)	37(30.8)	40(33.3)
Anomabo	11(9.2)	28(23.3)	39(32.5)

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 11 shows that most (30.8%) of the respondents from Mankessim did not know the MTDP preparation process, 23.3 percent of the respondents from Amomabo were unaware of the knowledge of MTDP, and 29.2 percent of the respondents from Saltpond had no knowledge of the MTDP. The two essential departments whose mandates can be strategically employed especially at the local level to provide information are the Information Services Department and National Commission on Civic Education (NCCE). The MMA did not have an Information Services Department and the 14-member MPCU team constituted did not include any representative from NCCE but rather co-opted the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE) whose role has been well defined by the MTDP guidelines (MMA, 2017). A 45-year-old male participant from Saltpond recounted that:

I know there is no Information Services Department but there is a National Commission on Civic Education. In terms of medium-term development planning information dissemination, they were not involved. (A Man, Saltpond, 28th October 2017).

The extract above indicates that information regarding the preparation of the MTDP did not involve all the stakeholders in the process. This also means that few people will be consulted; hence, the MTDP will not represent the goals and aspirations of the people. This explains why development projects and programmes do not aim at targeting the challenges of the people (Mulwa, 2008). This, possibly, contributed to the low publicity of the planning process, as key information delivery departments were not involved. Table 12 shows the respondents' perception of information about MTDP.

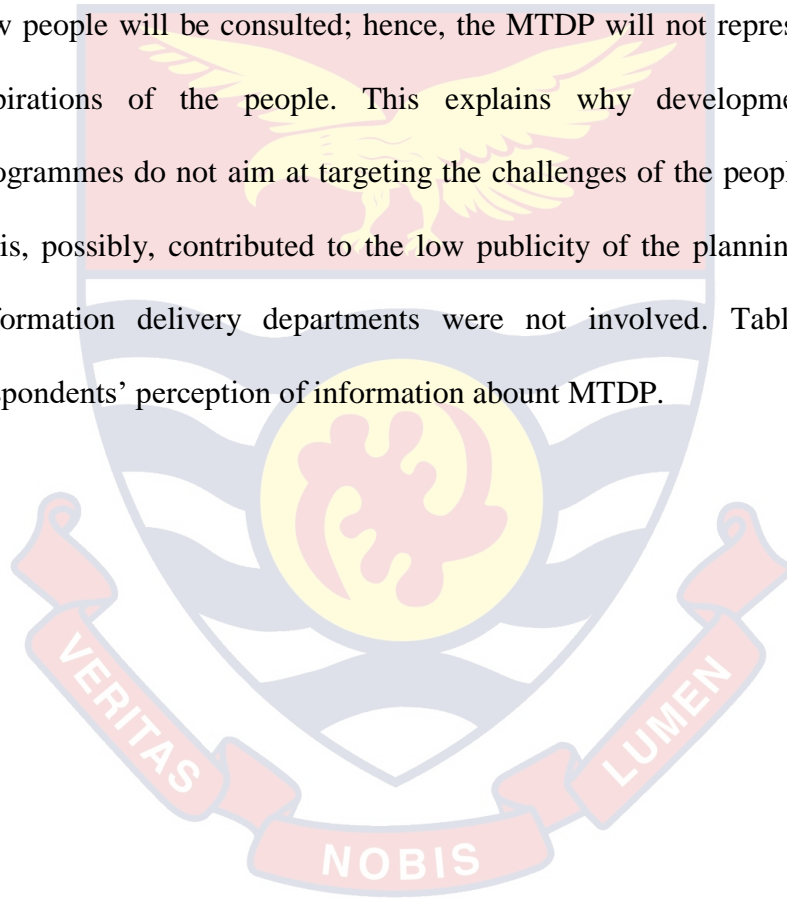


Table 12: Respondents' Perception of Information about MDTP

Responses	Very High F(%)	High F(%)	Low F(%)	Very low F(%)	Don't Know F(%)	Total F%
Knowledge about MTDP	1(0.83)	1(2)	50(41.7)	63(52.5)	5(4)	120(100)
When is the MTDP prepared?	1(2)	5(6)	6(4)	39(32)	69(56)	120(100)
Who can be part of the MTDP preparation process?	1(2)	5(4)	4(3)	35(29)	75(62)	120(100)

Source: Field survey, 2017

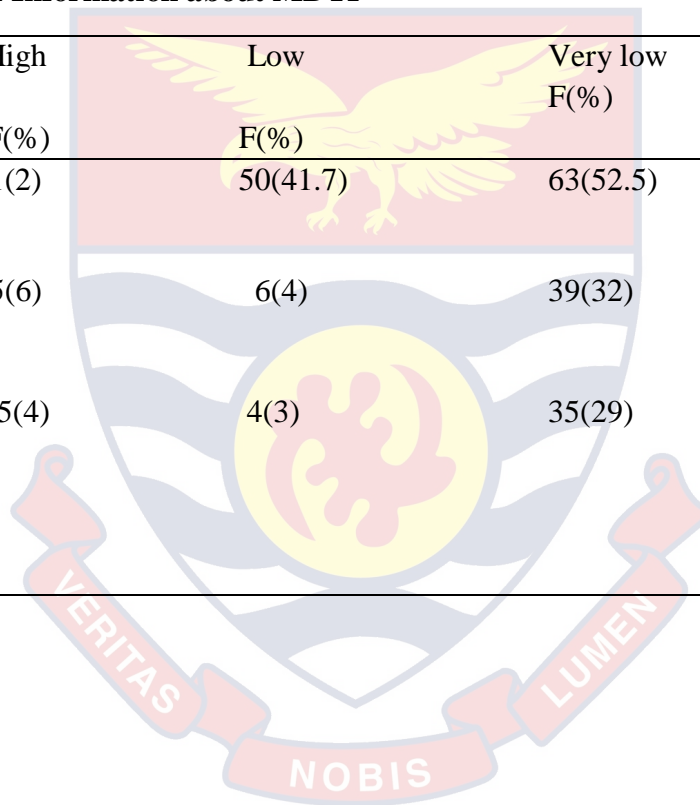


Table 12 revealed that 41.7 percent and 52.5 percent of the respondents respectively had low and very low perception of the MTDP. In respect of when the MTDP is prepared, 56 percent said they did not know whilst 32 percent said they had a very low perception about that. The majority (62%) of the respondents had no idea as to who can be part of the MTDP preparation process whilst 29 percent had very low perception about it. The data described above corroborate the work of Boakye-Agyei (2009) and Chambers (2014) that lack of information, low awareness of the MTDP preparation process among the public, and very few stakeholder representatives were among the challenges facing the MTDP process. The disparity in the awareness levels among stakeholders further signifies the exclusion of most stakeholders from the MTDP preparation process. Thus, the participation in the MTDP is limited to few sub-structure and stakeholder representative members of the communities.

As discussed, awareness is a critical component of revealing that stakeholders were reliably informed. Unfortunately, this departed from the data, as most respondents said they were unaware of the MTDP preparation process.

Stakeholders' Role in the Preparation of the Medium-Term Development Plan

The second research objective examines the stakeholders' role in the preparation of the MTDP. Concerning the involvement of the communities in the planning process, an officer at the Municipal planning office revealed that, in respect of the preparation of the MTDP (2014-2017), a questionnaire was prepared to collect data at the electoral area. He said the questionnaires were administered and submitted to the MPCU for analysis. The report revealed that a

total of 504 people participated in the planning process which was made of 389 males and 115 females. Again, attendance was also made up of 40 different stakeholders, including civil society organisations (CSOs), political party representatives, Unit Committee members, market women, youth groups, traditional authorities, assembly members, and faith-based organisations. This formed part of the data analysis in this study.

Two patterns of stakeholders' education and role awareness were depicted by the data. More than half of the respondents (53%) who had been involved in the planning process did know about their roles in the process before the day of the meeting. It was also revealed that, to own the MTDP, stakeholders were to engage in some roles which include identification of problems, needs assessment, implementation of goals, and monitoring and evaluation. This was manifested in the conceptual framework which indicates that the adoption of effective participation strategies and well-informed stakeholders' participants leads to improved wellbeing.

According to Boakye-Agyei (2009), the adoption of effective participation strategies determines the actual role to be played by the stakeholders. Cooke and Kothari (2001) justify the adoption of participatory strategies that stress the importance of incorporating the beneficiary population's view, perception, values, and priorities. Furthermore, the findings attained also posited that the success of the MTDP depends largely on the commitment shown by stakeholders in the preparation process, as they participate fully and play their expected roles towards sustaining the MTDP at the grassroots level. Table 13 shows the respondents' rating of education on the MTDP process in the study.

Table 13: Rating of Education on the MTDP Process

Reasons	Don't Know (F%)	Very Low (F%)	Low (F%)	High (F%)	Very High (F%)	Total (F%)
Role of MA	66 (55.5)	3(2.5)	45(37.5)	3(2.5)	3(2.5)	120(100)
Role of Stakeholders	68(56.2)	2(1.7)	43(35.8)	5(4.6)	2(1.7)	120(100)
Relevance of Stakeholders' participation	65(54)	3(2.5)	44(36.5)	6(5.3)	2(1.7)	120(100)

Source: Field survey, 2017

The majority (56.2%) of the respondents did not know the role they played as stakeholders; 55.5 percent of the respondents did not know the role of the MA in educating members on the MTDP process; 36.5 percent of the respondents cited low education on the MTDP process, whilst 35.8 percent also indicated low education on the development process on the role of stakeholders.

However, it was reported that a capacity building workshop was organised for some selected municipal assembly, unit committee, and zonal council members to improve the performance of their roles (*The Herald Newspaper*, 2013). This was corroborated by a 65-year-old male from Anomabo who mentioned that:

We organised a capacity building workshop for some assembly members and zonal council members to help them to play their roles effectively in the local governance system (MPCU member, 28th October 2017).

The implication of a capacity building workshop is undoubtedly aimed at improving the role performance of stakeholders. However, limiting such capacity-building workshops to assembly representatives, some selected unit committee members, and zonal council members with the expectation that the stakeholders will be adequately informed and educated by these community representatives subsequently is not sufficient. This was well expressed in a key institutional informant's comment:

They (members of the municipal assembly and its sub-structure) are not paid and their commitment cannot be guaranteed after the district-level elections. Besides, performing such tasks come at a cost. I attended a workshop that involved councilors of Uganda, an equivalent of assembly members in Ghana and they are paid. So, they perform their tasks on a full-time basis. Sensitisation is very low in respect of this case. (A member of MPCU at Saltpond, 28th October 2017)

The neglect of such a stakeholder sensitisation duty by the MPCU constitutes a lapse of one of its clearly-outlined roles in the MTDP planning process. In essence, it may result in general public indifference to the MTDP preparation processes for some residents who may not see the need to participate in the process (Ayee & Amponsah, 2003).

Reasons for Participation in the MTDP

Different stakeholders participated in the planning and implementation of programmes, projects, and activities for various reasons. In the MMA, participation by the stakeholders was seen as a way of expressing themselves and

getting their interest represented in the planning, implementation, and monitoring of development interventions.

The key informants saw participation in the planning process as a way of promoting community ownership of projects while also ensuring that real community needs were addressed. On the other hand, assembly members who responded to this question saw their participation in planning activities as a way of enhancing project life span or ensuring the sustainability of projects. Other issues that were raised by Unit Committee members had to do with the lack of trust in their leadership, as people claimed that participation promotes transparency and accountability and keeps the assembly on track to addressing their needs. There is a general appreciation among community members of the need to participate in decisions that affect their lives.

From the above analyses, it is obvious that the participation in the MTDP in the Mfantseman Municipality is relatively good due to a multiplicity of factors. The types of participation found in the municipality are participation in information giving, participation by consultation, and interactive participation. According to Pretty *et al.* (1995), this participation typology underscores the roles and responsibilities of individuals, communities, and authorities engaged in participation. Despite the modest gains made by the Municipality in engaging the people on issues of mutual importance, there are still concerns that need to be addressed at various levels. A sure way to sustaining participatory development approaches is to ensure that there are mutual trust and respect among parties involved in the development processes of the municipality. The study further

ascertained the same reasons why community members in the study areas do not participate in the MTDP. The Table 14 present reasons why the communities participate in the MTDP process.

Table 14: Reason for not Participating in Medium-Term Development Plan in the three Communities

Reason	Mankessim		Saltpond		Anomabo	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Never heard about it	35	55	26	76	9	41
Not interested	8	12	2	6	5	23
Don't have time	21	33	6	18	8	36
Total	64	100	34	100	22	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 14 above indicates that 41 percent of the respondents from Anomabo did not participate in the planning process because they had never heard about it. However, 23 percent of respondents mentioned that they were not interested, while 36 percent also indicated that they did not have time. This shows that most of the respondents from Anomabo did not participate in the preparation of the medium-term development planning process.

As can be observed in Table 14, 55 percent of the respondents from Mankessim did not participate in the planning process because they had never heard about it. However, 12 percent of respondents mentioned that they were not interested while 33 percent also indicated that they did not have time. This shows that, in Mankessim, most of the respondents did not hear about it, which is why

most of them were not participating in the preparation of the medium-term development planning process. This is an indication that not all in the Mankessim community were well informed about the process.

The survey data in Table 14 indicated that 76 percent of the respondents from Saltpond did not participate in the planning process because they had never heard about it. However, 6 percent of respondents mentioned that they were not interested while 18 percent also indicated that they did not have time. This shows that, in Saltpond, which is the seat of the municipality, most of the respondents did not get adequate information concerning such major activities. In all, some municipal sub-structure members were aware of their roles in the decentralised development planning process and other local government duties based on the capacity building workshop organised by the municipal assembly (MMA, 2017). However, the performance of their duty of educating the general stakeholders on their rights and responsibilities in the MTDP preparation process is doubtful. Major factors contributing to this lapse are the lack of motivation for assembly and unit committee members and the neglect of a key MPCU planning directive of sensitising the public. This is consistent with Markuzi's (2009) assertion that limited educative information in participatory approaches to planning is likely to result in low interest in participation events.

Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit

The new Local Government Act 1993 (Act 462) section 46(3) established for each assembly a District Planning Coordinating Unit (DPCU). The MPCU is to serve as a Secretariat to the Municipal Planning Authority and advise on

planning, programming, monitoring, evaluation, and coordination of development plans, policies, programmes, and projects within the Municipality. It is for this reason that the study sought to explain the role of the MPCU.

The findings from the study indicate that in practice, the functions of the MPCU members in the development planning process, especially in the area of community engagement and analysis and programming, are performed by the core MPCU members, and the outputs presented to and discussed by the entire MPCU members. The MPCU Secretariat receives sector reports and needs of the respective departments which are collated and integrated into the plan. It came to light, however, that some members of the MPCU had limited knowledge and skills in development planning and also that their dual allegiance affects their commitment to MPCU activities.

According to the guidelines issued by the NDPC for the preparation of the district MTDP, the DPCU is composed of ten (10) heads of decentralised departments and a nominee of the assembly who is an assembly member. Section seven (7) of the National Development Planning (System) Act, Act 480 (1994) designates DPCU as advising and providing a secretariat for the District Planning Authority in planning, programming, monitoring, evaluation, and coordinating functions. The idea underpinning the membership of the DPCU was to ensure the existence of a DPCU with diverse and enhanced capacity.

The MPCU is supposed to synthesise the strategies related to the development of the municipality into a comprehensive and cohesive framework; the planning initiatives for the decentralised departments usually come from their

mother departments with little or no consultation, with the municipal assembly. According to the Municipal Coordinating Director and the Municipal Planning Officer, some of the decentralised departments have their sector plans which have not been fully integrated into the municipal composite plan.

Despite the level of contribution of some of the stakeholders in the planning process as indicated earlier, the assembly has been able to produce relatively quality plans due to the relatively high caliber of staff and adequate logistical support in the municipality. This has, therefore, influenced the execution of programmes and projects.

Level of Participation of the Various Categories of Stakeholders

An initial step for the involvement of stakeholders is to classify and analyse the various stakeholders. The identification and participation of all stakeholders lead to sustained capacity building, dissemination, and demand for MTDP results (Boakye-Agyei, 2009). This will largely depend on the level of participation of the various categories of stakeholders. All the stakeholders at the community level, MPCU, and sub-structure response categories were asked whether they have ever participated in the preparation of the MTDP.

From Figure 9, it was revealed that the MPCU has the highest involvement in the MTDP, with 80 percent of them indicating that they have been involved in one or more of the processes of the MTDP. The result of the MPCU was further assessed with the use of the annual progress report where it was indicated that the expanded MPCU was fully involved in the MTDP. The MPCU was, however, sometimes constrained by access to logistical resources such as

vehicle to facilitate and involve all members for the MTDP's activities. The result of the community could be attributed to the fact that they are either not interested or have always been represented by their assemblymen, opinion leaders, and unit committee members, which is why the sub-structure response in the MTDP involvement is fairly higher than the community (Forester, 1987). Therefore, their involvement could best be described as indirect. Figure 9 below sums up the involvement of stakeholders in MTDP:

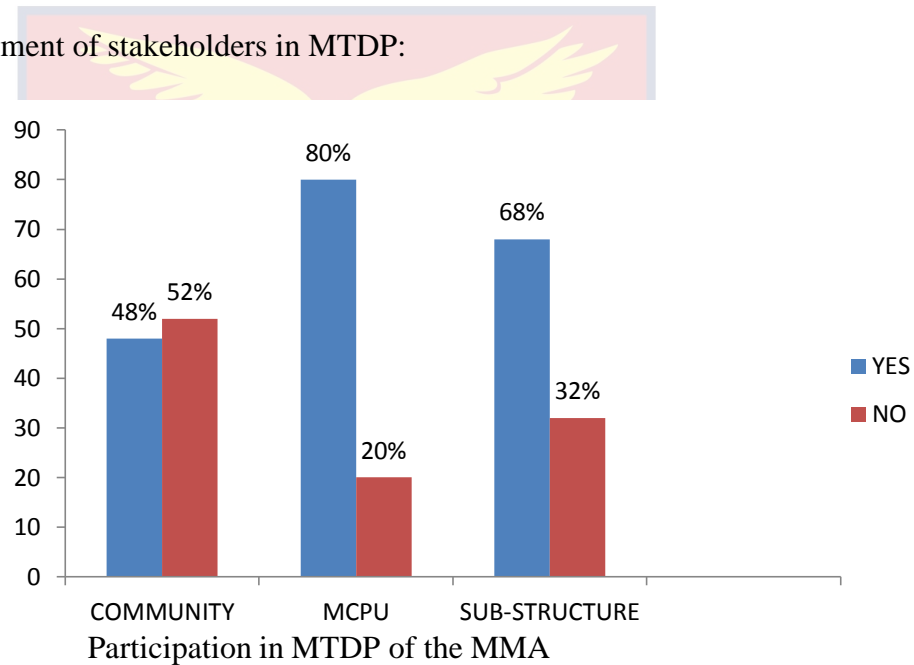


Figure 9: Involvement in MTDP

Source: Field survey, 2017

It can be found on Figure 9 that majority (80%) of the MPCU members are more involved in the MTDP than the community and substructure. From the survey data, 52% of the community respondents indicated that their involvement in the MTDP was very low.

It is important to ascertain the frequency with which stakeholders participate in the MTDP. The frequency of participation in MTDP is displayed in Table 15 below:

Table 15: Frequency of Participation in MTDP

	COMMUNITY		MPCU		SUB- STRUCTURE	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yearly	6	10	1	12	10	11
As and when it is organized	18	29	2	25	10	24
Rarely Involved	36	59	2	25	60	63
Total	61	100	8	100	100	110

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 15 shows that only a few of the respondents were involved in MTDP quarterly and yearly and this was more among the MPCU and the sub-structure category of responses (MMA, 2014). Nevertheless, the sub-structure level respondents indicated that they were rarely involved in the MTDP than the community and the MPCU.. It was established that only a small percentage of the stakeholders often participated in the MTDP on-going and completed projects and programmes on a quarterly (11%) and yearly basis (10%), but many of them were rarely involved (57%) and some were also involved as and when it was organised (22%).

The table above suggests that only a few of the respondents participated effectively in the MTDP even though the MTDP at the district assembly can be considered as one that was internally-led, starting from the MPCU (MMA, 2014). This further implies that projects and programmes have increasingly been

monitored without the full complement of the monitoring team, especially the beneficiary community. Similarly, Rajalahti, Woelcke, and Pehu (2005) observed that the MTDP should be a process that actively involves key stakeholders in the MTDP process for them to learn about and affect the process and impact of a development project. This implies that, when other major stakeholders such as the community and some members of the sub-structure are left out of MTDP, it gives the feeling that something is not going on well in the procurement process or in the process of execution of projects and programmes (Mohammed, 2010).

Furthermore, there was an attempt to ascertain the level of participation of the various categories of stakeholders in MTDP. Figure 10 below shows the level of participation of the various categories of stakeholders in the MTDP.

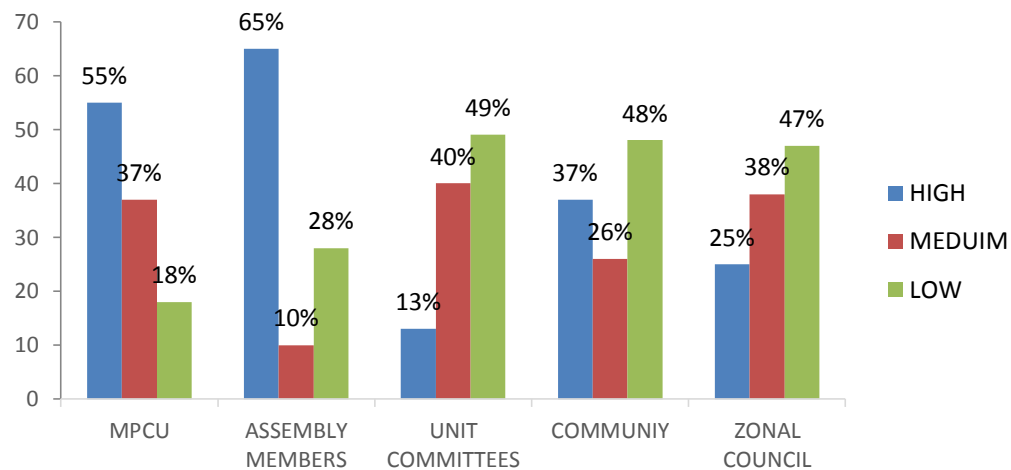


Figure 10: Level of Participation of the Various Categories of Stakeholders in MTDP

Source: Feld survey, 2017

The figure generally indicates a low level of participation of zonal council, unit committees, and community members in the MTDP of on-going and

completed projects and programmes. One assembly member in Anomabo (confirms this finding by indicating that:

Our electorates expect us to monitor projects on their behalf at all times with the thinking that we were voted to champion all development activities and some of the unit committees don't support us to visit projects and to report to the assembly or the council when something wrong is going on (MPCU member 1st November 2017).

In respect of the survey data, most of the respondents (55%) revealed that the MPCU and the assembly members (65%) were more involved in the MTDP. The assembly members have the highest involvement in the MTDP. This is because of their high interest in the development process. This is in line with the findings of Ahenkan, Bawole, and Domfer (2013) that assembly members are stakeholders with a very high interest in the development of their district. However, the assembly members find it difficult to access information about the district's projects and programmes. The results of Figure 9 still indicate limited stakeholder participation partly because they do not feel being part of the implemented projects. Stakeholders may not be necessarily concerned to ensure that the implementers are accountable in delivering on the agreed specifications of the plans, thereby affecting their level of participation in the preparation of the MTDP. The extent of the participation is apparent in the statements made by the interviewees, as contained in the following extracts:

The Municipal Planning Officer (MPO) in his explanation stated that during the preparation of the medium-term development plan (MTDP),

2014-2017, the MPCU under the leadership of the Community Development Officer (CDO) specifically, targeted and mobilized Assembly and Unit Committee members as well as traditional rulers amongst other stakeholders to participate in community fora and other meetings forming part of the planning process. He said their participation enabled the Assembly to identify the real needs at the grassroots (MPO, 2017).

The Assembly members advanced that apart from participating in fora and other planning meetings, they discussed and approved of the draft MTDP (2014-2017) at a General Assembly meeting (Assembly member at Mankessim, 2017).

The extracts here exposed that there was some level of participation by some key stakeholders. As espoused in the conceptual framework, stakeholders of the MTDP were empowered to know the specific roles they had to perform to contribute meaningfully to the preparation of the MTDP. This is an approach to urban planning that gathers stakeholders and engages them in a process to make decisions together in a manner that respects the positions of all involved. As explained by the communicative theory, stakeholders are to be involved in the preparation of MTDPs, as this will bring about better decisions that will be respected by all.

Participation in the Mfantseman Municipality

General Assembly meetings are an effective means of eliciting diverse views on development proposals because at such meetings, a cross-section of the municipality is usually duly represented. The Assembly is mandated to organise four (4) or at least three (3) General Assembly meetings annually. Over the past

(5) years, the MMA organised three (3) meetings yearly, as revealed by the Functional Organisational Assessment Tool (FOAT) conducted on MMDAs since 2007. According to the Municipal Coordinating Director, the situation is attributed mainly to limited funding. To further deepen stakeholder participation development activities in the municipality, the Assembly has been organising community durbars in urban communities. It can, therefore, be said that at the institutional level, the Assembly is trying to make good efforts to promote participation in the governance of the development processes of the municipality.

At the community level, planning involves several activities which must be addressed if the process is to be called participatory. The process is outlined as follows: analysis of the district situation at the Zonal Councils; presentation of the Zonal Councils analysed situation at a public forum; identification and prioritisation of Zonal Councils' development issues; Harmonisation of the development issues; public hearing of plans at Zonal Councils; public hearing, adoption, and approval of the plan by the General Assembly; a written report on the public hearing(s) including written submissions by individuals, groups, communities, and organizations must be attached to the proposed Development Plan; and subsequently submitted to the NDPC.

An informant expressed that the planning process adopted by the Assembly is followed to a greater extent:

...we have always carried out the situational analysis and organised public fora to elicit opinions for integration into the plan but were not able to hold another to validate the problems identified (Planning Officer, 2017).

The Assembly was unable to organise the fora at the community level but rather at the Zonal Council level. The public hearing reports on the 2014-2017 Development Plan confirmed this. The General Assembly then considers and approves the draft plan before submission to the NDPC. Minutes of the meeting of the General Assembly held in 2014 and the 2014 FOAT assessment of the Assembly provided evidence of the Assembly's approval of the plan (2014-2017).

Types of Participation

In the context of the Mfantseman Municipality, three (3) main types of participation were identified. These were participation in information giving, participation by consultation, and interactive participation.

Participation in Information Giving

In the Mfantseman Municipality, people participated in the planning process by answering questions posed by Assembly officials during public fora at the Zonal Council level. For instance, seven (7) different fora were organised by the Assembly at Saltpond, Mankessim, and Anomabo to elicit their needs during the preparation of the MTDP (2014-2017) as indicated by the public hearing report at the MPCU Secretariat, through which answers were provided to the concerns raised by the people. Unfortunately, people do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the output/plan was neither shared nor checked for accuracy since no fora were organised for validation purposes as the analysis revealed earlier.

Participation by Consultation

Again, people participated in the planning process in the municipality by being consulted and their views listened to by assembly officials. The Assembly modifies peoples' responses and situates them into the National Development Policy Framework as part of the harmonisation process. Such a consultative process limits the participation in decision-making and where local views conflict with national policy, officials are obliged to reconcile them and in the process, the national policy supersedes the local views.

Interactive Participation

People at the grassroots participate in joint analysis with Assembly officials during public fora at the Zonal Council level which results in the preparation of MTDP/action plans. Under the community-based rural development project, community meetings were held, through which community action plans were prepared and harmonised into area plans.

Although seven (7) types of participation have been identified by Pretty *et al.* (1995), only three of these types are being practised in the Mfantseman Municipality. The ones being practised do not cede power to the citizenry and are not entirely non-participatory. They are only subtle maneuvering of the stakeholders either to secure their interest or deal with the likelihood of rejection of plans, programmes, and projects.

Challenges to Stakeholder Participation in the Planning Process

The decentralised development planning process involves the devolution of central government administrative responsibility to the district level and the establishment of adequate capacity for effective utilisation and management of resources. Then, the district level would also have to devolve these powers to the Zonal and Unit Committees all in a bid to integrate the felt needs and aspirations of the people. The objective is to enhance the participation of the local people in the decision-making process on issues that affect their lives. The main focus of inquiry here is to assess the factors hindering the smooth implementation of the decentralised development planning process in the municipality. The study identified the following as challenges to stakeholder participation in the development planning process in the municipality:

Inadequate stakeholder involvement in the planning process

Although participation helps to build capacities, improve planning, and project delivery as well as the quality of life of inhabitants in beneficiary communities, there are still concerns that must be addressed if participation is going to continually benefit the people. These concerns include partisan politics, excessive bureaucracy, and poor communication. People whose political sympathies lie with the opposition party see any government intervention as political and, as such, are not interested in taking part in the process. This has deprived communities and the Municipal Assembly of much-needed capacities in the planning and implementation of very important projects, as members of

opposing parties are unwilling to partake in processes and projects perceived to be coming from the opposing side.

Issues such as the inadequate flow of information to the various segments of the population, corruption, and excessive bureaucracy also impede effective participation. Other concerns had to do with apathy on the part of community members, the omission of community priorities in development plans, and the abandonment of projects. Once people's priorities are not taken on board in development plans, it demoralises them and prevents them from participating actively in future planning and implementation processes. Again, the Municipal Assembly is headed by a politician who is not accountable to the electorate.

Non-functionality of sub-structures

As mentioned earlier, the study revealed that none of the seven (7) Zonal Councils was functioning. The decentralised development planning process requires the sub-structures to collate and prioritise the needs and aspirations of the communities and forward them to the Assembly/MPCU as input for plan formulation. The ineffectiveness or non-functioning of the sub-structures meant the MPCU must go down the Zonal areas to assess their needs for appropriate intervention. This would increase pressure on the MPCU in terms of workload.

The low commitment of the Assembly to further decentralise

It was also established that the commitment of the Municipal Assembly to operationalise the sub-structures was low. The sub-structures are supposed to play a vital role in the development planning process through data gathering and preparation of Community Action Plans and Zonal Plans to serve as an input into

the MTDP. The study revealed that the sub-structures were virtually non-existent. Besides, the ineffective functioning of the sub-structures implies development. Some revenue items could be ceded to the Zonal Councils for collection to enhance revenue mobilisation in the municipality. The Zonal Councils can also undertake community-initiated projects.

It has been established in the present study that the non-functionality of the Zonal Councils is a great disincentive to stakeholders involved in the development planning process. The absence of an operational zonal council creates a gap between the Assembly and communities. However, the participation of the assembly members, unit committees, and traditional rulers in the decision-making process was high. The Municipal Assembly also has a high caliber of staff.

Responsiveness of the 2014-2017 MDTP to Stakeholders' Needs

The third research objective sought to ascertain the responsiveness of the 2014-2017 MTDP to stakeholders' needs. This was essential because the aim of the involvement of the stakeholders in the delivery of the MTDP was to promote stakeholders' responsiveness to enhance the needs of stakeholders. The several challenges to development in Mfantseman Municipality require a comprehensive and integrated approach to overcome these challenges. The necessity of responsive plans for this course is crucial. In line with the Municipal Assembly's mandate of developing an MTDP, the following developmental needs were prioritised as per consultations with stakeholders: the building of road network and the drainage network, access to potable water, security networks and street

lighting, access to educational infrastructure, land use planning (layouts), sanitation and the quality of the environment, access to health facilities, and employment generation (MTDP, 2017).

Generally, the quantitative analysis indicated that in the three zonal councils, poor road network and drainage systems, poor security, poor sanitation, lack of potable drinking water, and land use violations were the major problems. This seems consistent as per the data from Mankessim, Saltpond, and Anomabo, as presented in figure 11 below:

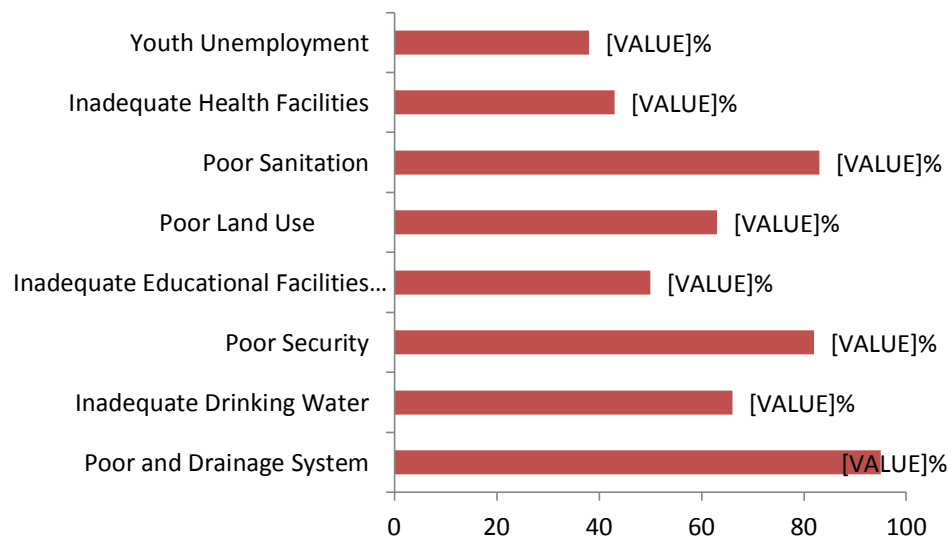


Figure 11: Community Needs

Source: Field survey, 2017

Figure 11 presents the challenges and needs of the respondents. These problems were mentioned by more than half of the respondents in all zones, as plaguing their communities. The majority (95%) of the respondents complained about the poor road and drainage system. Through the interviews, it was revealed that the poor roads and drainage systems had affected local farmers and the

community, in general, in terms of transporting goods to the municipality. This increased the cost of production and decreased profit margins. About 66 percent of the respondents complained about inadequate drinking water while 82 percent of the respondents raised the concerns of poor security. 25 percent of the respondents mentioned the issue of inadequate educational facilities, 63 percent of the respondents also indicated that poor land use was among the challenges facing the municipality, 83 percent of the respondents were worried about the poor sanitation in the municipality, 43 percent of the respondents said inadequate health facilities, whilst 38 percent of the respondents mentioned youth unemployment as one of the challenges in the community.

These findings show that citizen participation in problem identification and implementation in the Mfantseman Assembly's local government is responsiveness of public needs. However, the study found that the present citizen participation in the Mfantseman Assembly's local government is not adequate. The study provides the principal factors that can contribute towards the improvement of citizen participation in the identification and prioritisation of needs in local government. Those factors are as follows: effective information dissemination, provision of civic education, effective communication, and publicity of public hearing. However, specific zonal community needs, as shown in Figure 11, indicated some major variations as compared to the needs captured in the 2014-2017 MDTP.

The responsiveness of the MTDP to the needs of the stakeholders is rather low. This implies that though stakeholders' problems can be easily identified, limiting participation to a few stakeholders affected the prioritisation of the needs

of stakeholders, and the findings are consistent with the works of Davidoff (1979).

The findings provide evidence that the need for responsive MTDP is based on the fact that informed decisions lead to improved wellbeing, as indicated in the conceptual framework. Olson (1995) shares that individuals having a common interest usually collaborate to achieve those interests. This means that stakeholders themselves will be able to prioritise their own needs based on their interests and they do this with assessments of issues and the best possible ways out. In effect, it has been observed that the involvement of the sub-structures and Unit Committees in the planning process or decision-making is not as envisaged by the Local Government Act, 936, Act, 2016. This limits the responsiveness and ownership of development plans.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the analysis and discussion of stakeholders' participation in the district development plan preparation in the Mfantseman Municipality. It established that stakeholders within the municipality were largely ignorant of the district development plan preparation. The chapter also revealed that the general public was ignorant of their roles in the processes. With respect to the awareness of MTDP, the study found that awareness was low, which led to a low level of stakeholders' participation. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations which were drawn from the discussion.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the research findings. Based on the findings, some recommendations have been made to inform policy decisions. Some suggestions have also been made for further research.

Summary

The research aimed at assessing the extent of stakeholders' participation in the MTDP and its preparation process in MMA. The pragmatist approach of using both quantitative and qualitative methods was employed in the study. This included the application of a questionnaire and interview schedule to collect data with regard to the study's objectives. The major findings of the study are discussed below.

First, in relation to stakeholders' awareness of the MTDP, the study found that although over two-thirds of respondents had the knowledge that the Mfantseman Municipality is supposed to develop a plan to guide development in the municipality, the general public's knowledge about the MTDP, in particular, within MMA was very low. The depth of such low awareness was evident among

people of all ages and sexes and was slightly higher in Mankessim and Saltpond than Anomabo.

Second, the analysis in relation to stakeholders' roles in the preparation of the MTDP revealed that majority of the respondents (53%) did not know about their roles. A capacity building workshop was organised by the MMA for the selected stakeholder representatives to heighten awareness on the MTDP planning process.

Also, the responsibility of the MPCU in educating the public, as provided by the MTDP guidelines, was largely underperformed due to, in part, the lack of motivation for stakeholder representatives. Consequently, there is some level of stakeholder indifference towards the MDTP process since they were uninformed of the essence of participating in the MTDP preparation process.

Last, responsiveness of MTDP to stakeholders' needs the 2014-2017 MTDP is generally responsive to stakeholders' needs. Poor road network and drainage systems, poor sanitation, poor security, high rate of youth unemployment, lack of potable drinking water, and poor land use were discovered as the major problems in the municipality. Again, there were variations in the prioritisation of stakeholders' needs in all zonal areas.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

First, stakeholders' awareness of the MTDP in the municipality is largely limited to municipal sub-structure members and few stakeholders who are politically aware. Hence, awareness of the MTDP and its preparation process in the municipality was very low, requiring some improvement. Means of the

invitation were not far-reaching, leading to the exclusion of most stakeholders. Thus, there was a low participation in the MTDP preparation process within the municipality.

Second, stakeholders' roles in the MTDP preparation processes were also limited to the few sub-structure members. The expectation was that the selected members will, in turn, educate their constituents, which they did not. Thus, a specified duty of the MPCU as per MTDP preparation guideline of sensitising the stakeholders was not fully implemented. In effect, there was some level of stakeholders' indifference towards participation in the MTDP preparation process due to ignorance about the necessity of participating in the process.

Moreover, the 2014-2017 MTDP is generally responsive to the needs of stakeholders but not without variations in terms of the stakeholders' needs prioritised within zonal council areas. The opportunity for participants to comment on issues discussed, poor feedback mechanism, and inadequate provision of materials concerning the needs captured in the MTDP are issues that need to be improved. This undermines the transparency of the municipal assembly in the MTDP preparation process and may potentially undermine future participation in the MTDP process.

Furthermore, decentralisation in Ghana practically ends at the assembly level, with the assembly lacking commitment, and will to further decentralise, strengthen, and support the sub-structures to perform the functions expected of them, which could have ensured increased grassroots participation in decision-making and development planning processes.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn from this study, the following are recommended:

1. The MPCU must prioritise provisions of adequate information to the public by employing several techniques such as media outreaches, flyers, public information vans, and electronic media especially to reach the youth other than the use of messengers (assembly and unit committee members) and letters. This will broaden the scope of reach in terms of informing stakeholders and hence induce stakeholders' participation in the MTDP preparation process.
2. The MPCU should consider constructing notice boards within communities to provide information and education on the MDTP process to the stakeholders. However, this should include pictorial presentations to ensure that the less educated stakeholders can also understand and appreciate the information provided.
3. The MPCU must also organise specific periodic sensitisation programmes on MTDP to educate stakeholders generally on the necessity of participating in the planning process. This must not be done only at the period when the next MTDP period is near but throughout implementing the current plan.
4. The MMA should ensure that the strategies for engaging stakeholders should be carefully followed as per the MTDP guideline, particularly, in choosing the days for the planning meetings. Additionally, the

communication strategy, as prescribed by the guideline, must be developed and implemented to update stakeholders on the activities of the MDTP after the planning process.

5. The MPCU should consider collaborating with non-governmental organisations (NGOs) with the capacity of helping stakeholders to develop stakeholders' plans which can be incorporated in the MTDP.

This will ensure that more stakeholders are reached and have the opportunity to comment on issues discussed.

6. The Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) should ensure strict compliance of the process for the preparation of the District MTDPs through intensive monitoring of MMDAs and Sector Ministries, Departments, and Agencies.

Areas for Further Research

Further research is recommended to assess the feasibility of the effects of MTDP, comparing the situation in the rural to the urban areas. This could help governments, researchers, NGOs, and MMDA's to develop and implement development plans that are sustainable, responsive, and reliable to stakeholders.

A study could also be designed to simultaneously explore the factors that influence the drawing of district development plans in the study area. Such a study should comprehensively profile all development-related initiatives that have been implemented or planned for the study area. Future studies could also consider measuring the level of participation of community members to MTDPs by employing different quantitative approaches.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIT COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Introduction: I am a student of the Institute for Development Studies (IDS), University of Cape Coast, conducting a study on “Stakeholders’ participation in the preparation of the Medium-Term Development Plan in Ghana: The case of the Mfantseman Municipality Assembly”. I would appreciate if you can make time to respond to the questions that follow. All responses made shall be kept confidential (Please tick the appropriate response for each of the questions below, where necessary).

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Zonal/Area Council: Community:
.....

How long have you stayed in the community:

.....

2. Age (in completed years): Years

3. Sex: 1(a). Male.... 2(b). Female

4. Ethnicity: Please specify.....

5. Occupation: Please specify

6. Marital Status

- a) Single
- b) Divorced
- c) Married
- d) Separated
- e) Never Married

7. Religion: Please specify.....

8. What is your highest level of education?

- a) None (No formal education)
- b) Primary
- c) JSS/JHS/Middle School
- d) Secondary
- e) Tertiary
- f) Other, Specify.....

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF THE MEDIUM-TERM DEVELOPMENT PLAN

9. Have you ever had any meeting with the Municipal Assembly Staff and Representatives (including your Assembly member)? 1. Yes 2.No

b. If Yes, what was it about?

- i. Community needs
- ii. On-going project/intervention
- iii. Other please specify

11. B Do you know the major steps or activities of the planning process? 1. Yes 2.No

b. If yes can you mention some of them.....

12. Are you educated on your roles? 1. Yes 2.No

b. If No

why.....

13. what is your role in the process?.....

14. Do you know about the process of developing development initiatives implemented by the Municipal Assembly in this community? 1. Yes 2.No

If yes, Please describe briefly.....

15. Do you know that the Municipal Assembly is supposed to develop plans for the municipality? 1. Yes 2. No

b. If No why.....

16. Are stakeholders' involved in the development of development plan of the municipality ? 1. Yes 2. No

b. If No

Why.....

17. If Yes to Q. 16 .A, who informed you about the process?

- a) District Assembly Staff
- b) Assembly Member
- c) Unit Committee Member
- d) Chiefs and elders
- e) Friends
- f) Radio Announcement
- g) Other Please specify.....

18. Do you know the municipal assembly has to prepare Medium-Term Development Plan? 1. Yes 2. No

If Yes

why.....

- a) When was it prepared (period)?.....
- b) Were you involved in the preparation process? 1. Yes 2. No explain your answer
- c) Why do you have to participate?.....

22. What was your role in the MTDP process?.....



Knowledge of MTDP participants and the processes.

1. Please you are to indicate your level of agreement with the following statements as per the codes in the table below:

CODES 1= Strongly Agree (SA); 2= Agree (A); 3= Neutral (N); 4= Disagree (D); 5=Strongly Disagree (SD)

		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	The MTDP is the sole responsibility of the MPCU of the municipal assembly					
2	The effective participation of stakeholders in MTDP is important as it promotes accountability and transparency					
3	The municipality takes the involvement of stakeholders in MTDP seriously and sees it as a critical management tool					

SECTION C: STAKEHOLDERS' EDUCATION AND ROLE IN THE PREPARATION OF MEDIUM-TERM DEVELOPMENT PLAN

24. Do you take part in the development planning processes in your area?

1 Yes 2. No

25. If yes, do you know about your role before the planning meeting? 1. Yes 2. No

26. If yes what is your role? (You may tick more than one if applicable)

- a) Help identify community development needs
- b) Help to priorities community needs
- c) Taking part in the implementation of the plan
- d) Taking a decision to adopt planning
- e) Specifying planning goals
- f) Monitoring and Evaluation

27. If No to Q. 24, why don't you partake in development planning meetings in your community?

- a) Never heard about it
- b) Not interested
- c) Don't have time
- d) Other, please specify.....

28. Who informed you about your role in the development planning process?

- a) District Planning Staff
- b) Unit Committee Member
- c) Friends
- d) Assembly Member
- e) Chiefs and Elders
- f) Radio Announcement
- g) Other Please specify.....

29. When were you informed about your role in the development planning process?

- a) Before the meeting day
- b) Day of the meeting
- c) Never informed on role

SECTION D: STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION IN THE STEPS IN NDPC GUIDELINES

30. Do you know the steps to follow to prepare the MTDP? 1. Yes 2. No

b. If yes can you mention some of the steps?

.....

31. Are you taken through all the steps? 1. Yes 2. No

32. What has been your contribution in the steps that you were involved?

.....

33. What are the challenges did you face during the process?

.....

34. What do you consider before the planning meetings, especially the public hearings?.....

.....

35. Are you involved in the MTDP of projects and programmes relating to your Unit/Department by the municipal assembly in the last six years? 1=Yes [] 0=No

[]

2. If yes how often do you participate in MTDP? 1=quarterly [] 2= yearly []
3=rarely

involved [] 4= as and when it is organized [] 5=others please

specify.....

3. How will you rate the level of participation of the following categories of stakeholders in MTDP of projects and programmes in the Assembly? 1=High []

2=Medium [] 3=Low []

Stakeholders	Level of participation	Reason (s)
--------------	------------------------	------------

MPCU		
------	--	--

Assembly members		
------------------	--	--

Unit committee members		
------------------------	--	--

Community		
-----------	--	--

Zonal council members		
-----------------------	--	--

SECTION E: RESPONSIVENESS OF PLAN TO STAKEHOLDERS' NEEDS

35. Which of the following problems exist in your community?

- a) Poor road access and drainage
- b) Poor environmental sanitation
- c) Lack of potable drinking water
- d) Inadequate health facilities
- e) Poor Security & Youth Unemployment
- f) Inadequate Access to educational facilities
- g) Improper layout (poor land use)
- h) Other, please specify.....

36. Which of problems you have mentioned are the most pressing in your community (please tick THREE)?

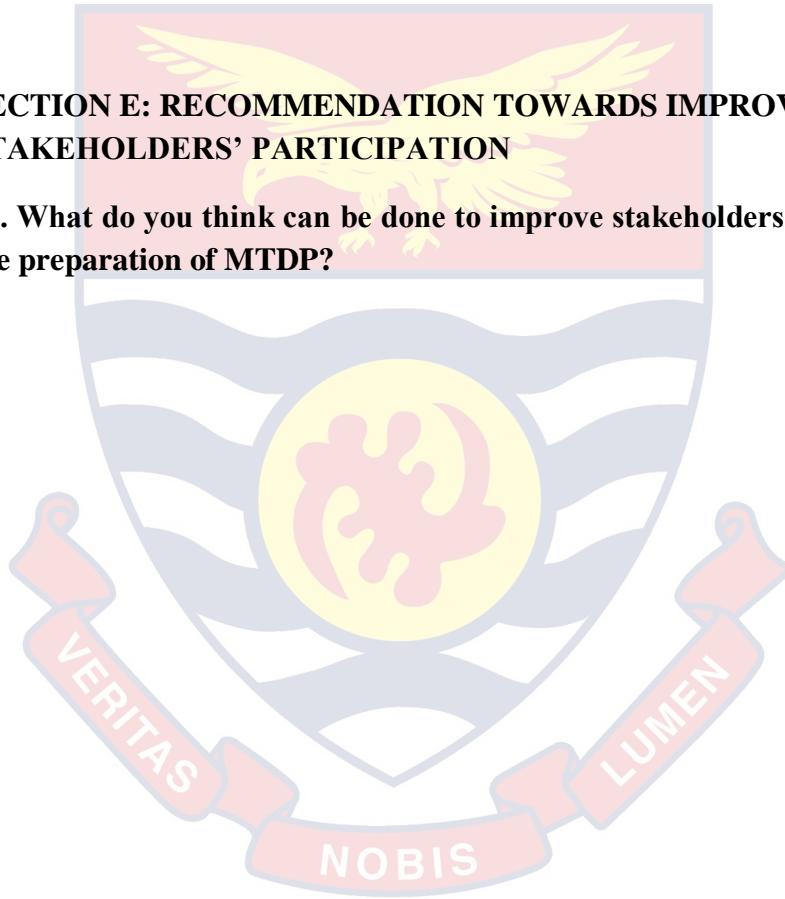
- a) Poor road access and drainage
- b) Poor environmental sanitation
- c) Lack of potable drinking water

- d) Inadequate health facilities
- e) Poor Security
- f) Youth Unemployment
- g) Inadequate Access to educational facilities
- h) Improper layout (poor land use)
- i) Other, please specify.....

37. If the list in Q. 45 are the needs of your area as per the Medium-Term Plan, would you say that the most pressing needs in your community is adequately captured in the district development plan? 1. Yes 2. No

**SECTION E: RECOMMENDATION TOWARDS IMPROVING
STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION**

38. What do you think can be done to improve stakeholders' participation in the preparation of MTDP?



Appendix B
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MUNICIPAL PLANNING
COORDINATING UNIT MEMBERS

SECTION A

1. Name:.....
2. Designation:.....
3. How many years have you been at the municipal.....
4. How many times have you been involved in the preparation of MTDP?.....

SECTION B (Awareness and Education of Medium-Term Development Planning Process)

1. What are the major steps or activities of the planning process?
2. What are your roles in this process?
3. How do you inform or educate people in the municipality about the process?
4. How do you educate stakeholders' on their roles?

SECTION C: Stakeholders' Participation in the Various Steps As Outlined In the NDPC Guidelines for MTDP for MMDAS

1. What are the steps (Probe?)
2. Did you follow all the steps outlined in the NDPC guideline?
3. How the guidelines did facilitated preparation of the MTDP? (Probe)
4. What was your contribution in those steps you were involved? (Probe)
5. What were some of the challenges you faced following the guidelines? (Probe)
6. How could the stakeholders' involvement be improved in preparation of MTDP? (Probe)

SECTION D (Stakeholders' Roles)

1. What are the roles of community stakeholders?

2. How has community members participated in MTDP process?
3. How do you deal with conflict of interest during meetings in the process?
4. Do you think progress made can affect future participation by community members in the planning process?
5. Mention (3) three things that worked well with stakeholder's involvement on the preparation of the MTDP?
6. What do you consider before the planning meetings, especially the public hearings?

SECTION E: Recommendation

1. What do you think can be done to improve stakeholders' participation in the preparation of MTDP?

