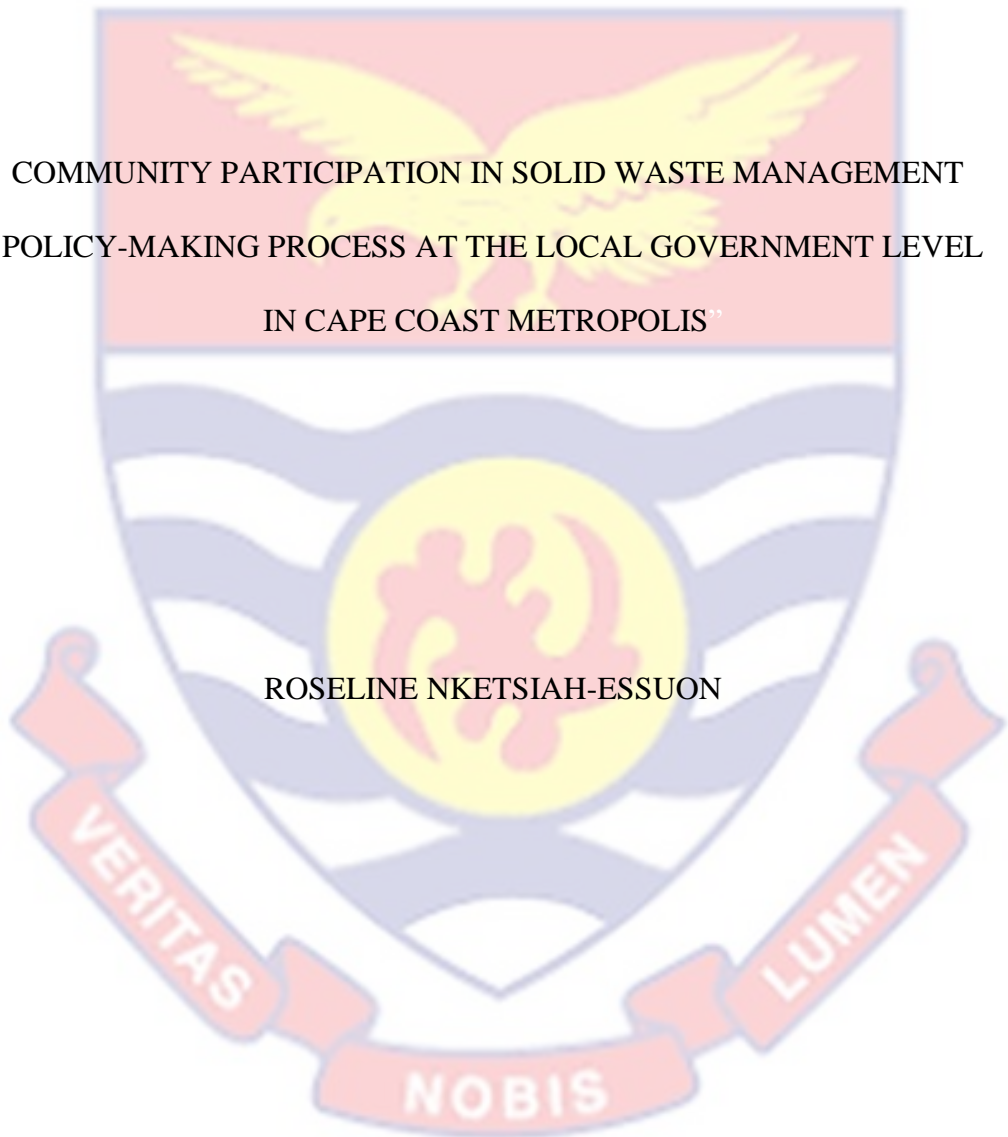


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT
POLICY-MAKING PROCESS AT THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL
IN CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

ROSELINE NKETSIAH-ESSUON



2022

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BY

ROSELINE NKETSIAH-ESSUON

Thesis submitted to the Department of Management of the School of Business,
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
Public Policy and Management

MAY 2022

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:.....

Name: ROSELINE NKETSIAH-ESSUON

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: DR. NICHODEMUS OSEI-OWUSU

ABSTRACT

The study aims at examining community participation issues with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. The mixed method and embedded design were used for this study. Convenience sampling and purposive sampling were used for the study to obtain a total of 217 respondents. Questionnaires were used for data collection from assembly members and unit-committee members and the other respondents were interviewed. Statistical tools such as means, standard deviations, percentages and frequencies were used to analyse the data. The results indicate that community members do not take part in decision making regarding solid waste management in Ghana. Members of the communities are only presented with policies on sanitation and laws to comply with without being engaged on how the policies are drawn. The results also indicate that socio-political, trust, community awareness and inclusiveness are factors that drive or facilitate the participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level. The study found that politicization, lack of awareness of programme and lack of inclusiveness in the policy-making process are the major obstacles that hinder community participation. It was thus recommended that the management of the assembly should maintain credibility in the implementation of the various measures to enhance community participation in the solid waste management policy-making process. The study also recommends that the Metropolitan assembly should take the sensitization and education of the general public seriously.

KEY WORDS

Community participation

Solid Waste Management



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DEDICATION

To my children, Julian and Curtis.

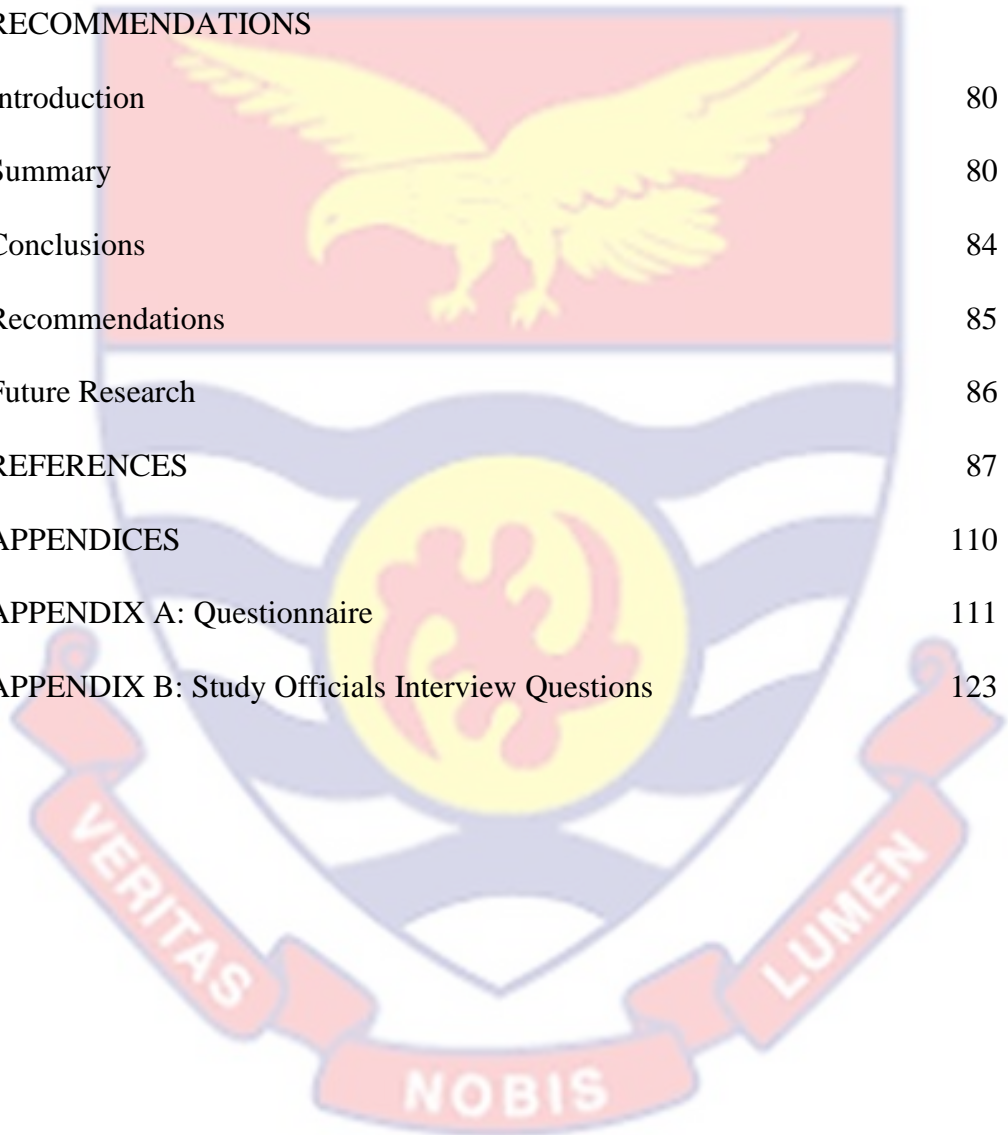


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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In Ghana, about 12,710 tons of solid waste is generated daily, with only 10% collected and disposed of at designated dumping site (Miezah, Obiri-Danso, Kádár, Fei-Baffoe, & Mensah, 2015). Poor Solid Waste Management (SWM) is responsible for one of the heaviest disease burdens worldwide, particularly, Ghana and its existence are partially due to the failure of community members in the participation of SWM policy making process. Researchers, such as Mensah (2019), Adubofour (2010), Adubofour et al., (2013) and Dakpallah, (2011) have undertaken various works with regard to SWM improvement in the Ghana. None of these ascertained the issues of community members in the SWM policy making process at the local government level. This study analyze all the difficulties surrounding community engagement in the development of SWM policies in Ghana, with a focus on the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Background to the Study

The establishment of every governance system is for the purpose of serving the citizens. The service is mostly through the provision of life improving amenities and infrastructure. The local government is an administrative, executive, and legislative framework designed to aid in power decentralization, national integration, governance efficiency, and a belongingness at the local level (Salako & Ajibade, 2019). Local government is a kind of governance that ensures that people within a given territory of a country act collectively to ensure their welfare (Ndreu, 2016). People should be given the opportunity to “participate” in projects that touch their lives, rather

than being forced to do so. This is both a fundamental human right and a democratic ideal. Communities and individuals are involved in decisions that influence their lives through community involvement (Burns & Musa, 2016).

The issue of waste management is a test all through the world both in developed and developing nations like Ghana (Odonkor & Sallar, 2021). The management of municipal waste has been a tireless test to the government of most urban areas in developing nations, Ghana inclusive and a lot of money goes into the management of such massive volumes of solid waste. Developing nations are stood up to with issues of waste management on account of its negative effects on the general prosperity and environmental safety in urban domains (Shukor, Mohammed, Sani & Awang, 2011).



Figure 1: Sanitation Challenges in Ghana

Source: Azuliya (2018)

Consequently, solid waste should be properly figured out how to free the general prosperity and environmental security of its threat (Ogwueleka, 2009). Despite the fact that garbage is a general concern in the Cape Coast

Metropolis nowadays, waste in the city is more of an urban issue than waste in the country, due to the fact that waste created in rural regions is more biodegradable and is used as fertilizer for farms for the most part (Gautam & Herat, 2000).

Regardless of this, Anschütz (1996) posits the prospect that, on rare occasions, a district will do a fantastic job of promoting community-based solid waste management. Districts can assist network-based strong waste frameworks in a variety of ways, including providing offices (gear, fertilizing soil destinations, and so on), the foundation of enactment, monetary assistance, and waste management advancement.

Community participation has shown to be significant in the current environment as in the case of SWM because the circumstances have produced similar outcomes, such as the government's unwillingness to address issues. The importance of community participation is recognized since it is widely known that including the community in a project such as waste management allows people to make decisions about their lives and the issues that affect them on a daily basis. It is ideal for development to start from the people who need them; it is the community's responsibility to know what they need to make their lives better. Thus, the formulation of programs for progress should come from the people who need it. Community participation is part of "people centred" or "human centric" principles (Reich, 2018).

The consequence of this is the generally high and considerable amount of the produced waste is by and large left uncollected. Because of this test, community involvement in solid waste management has turned out to be inescapable, as explained by the theory of ladder citizen participation. The

theory recognizes the requirement for efficient delivery of such a service through coordinated collective activities by those who share a common-pool resource or common-property group. Fundamental perception and studies have appeared with an efficient and arranged structure set up, communities can viably deal with their waste (Heiskanen, Johnson, Robinson, Vadovics, & Saastamoinen, 2010; Roseland, 2010). This starter perception uncovered that, as of now there exists certain practices by the family units towards dealing with their waste.

As a result, it has been claimed that a lack of effective SWM can cause environmental health concerns and have a detrimental influence on the environment that may extend beyond the town or municipality's geographical boundaries (Seik,1997). The poor are left to cope with the matter on their own because home garbage collection is only accessible in high and some middle-income neighbourhoods. As a result, garbage is thrown into surface drains, canals, and streams without discrimination, resulting in filthy and unsightly conditions in many sections of the city.

There is a lot of scholarly interest in Ghana that includes citizens or beneficiaries in local decision-making, especially when it comes to community development. Despite the fact that various federal statutes mandate public engagement in the decision-making process, methods to enable effective community participation are absent. The 1992 Constitution, for example, lays out how the government should interact with individuals and what role citizens should have in decision-making. The National Development Planning (System) Act of 1994 allows citizens to engage in the development planning process at all levels of development (Act 480). Citizens can also participate in

the management of their communities under the Local Government Act of 1993 (Act 462). This is not the case in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area, where residents are rarely participate in solid waste management programs.

The approach being used in managing solid wastes in the Cape Coast Metropolis has been criticized by beneficiaries (community members) to be top-down approach. This is due to the lack of involvement of target beneficiaries which leads to misplaced interventions, lack of community ownership of projects and contribution to development. However, limited information on the general public's and non-governmental organizations' engagement in SWM in the Central region, particularly in the Cape Coast Metropolis, is available. As a result, community members must be the primary target group for any development initiatives or programs that touch their lives. It is therefore important to examine community participation issues with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis.

Statement of the Problem

Solid waste management has always offered huge hurdles to municipal authorities in developing nations such as Ghana, due to inefficiencies in the system (Antwi, 2019). According to data collected by MMDAs in 2007/8, about 76 percent of homes continue to employ ineffective garbage collection and disposal techniques, with only 5% relying on house-to-house pickup (Amoah & Kosoe, 2014). The WHO listed Ghana as the sixth dirtiest country in the world in terms of sanitary standards in 2015, with over 7,000 children dying each year from diseases including cholera and diarrhoea (Smith-Asante, 2015). Investment in technical facilities by the government alone would not suffice to

fulfil the task of providing adequate sanitation services in communities; stakeholders in the communities must also be involved.

Poor sanitation caused by widespread open defecation and indiscriminate waste disposal has a significant health and social impact on communities, resulting in diarrhoea and cholera (Kar, 2005). The annual cost of inadequate sanitation in Ghana is estimated to be \$290 million, or 1.6 percent of the country's Gross Domestic Product (Water & Sanitation Program [WSP], 2012). Every year, around 13,900 Ghanaian adults and 5,100 children under the age of five die from diarrhoea, with approximately 90% of these deaths being caused by inadequate sanitation and hygiene. Despite the fact that these figures are alarming and pose a threat to the country's citizens' well-being, little effort has been put into preventing the threat of sanitation-related diseases until the 2014 cholera outbreak, which saw 17,000 cases and 150 deaths, "the worst ever, following the 1982 outbreak in Ghana" (Adubofour, Obiri-Danso, & Quansah, 2013; WSP, 2012). Following the 2014 cholera outbreak and other ailments caused by poor sanitation, the government declared the first Saturday of each month as National Sanitation Day (NSD).

For a long time, sanitation services were designed using a "Top-Down" strategy, in which well-intentioned authorities or political representatives at the national, regional, district, and/or municipal levels decided the requirements of communities, to the detriment of project recipients. As a result, obstacles have arisen in the implementation of numerous programs. The necessity to put community members at the center of the planning process for environmental cleanliness prompted the creation of community participation.

The household-centred environmental sanitation strategy (HCES) and the community-led total sanitation (CLTS) approach are two important community participatory sanitation techniques. In order to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals, the HCES was designed to give stakeholders at all levels, but especially at the family and neighbourhood level, the chance to participate in the development, implementation, and operation of urban environmental sanitation services (UESS).” Similarly, the CLTS comprises enabling a process to encourage and empower rural people to avoid open defecation and instead build and use latrines, without relying on outside funding to acquire gear like pans and pipes (Kar, 2005). Although community engagement was a key component of Ghana's national goal in the 1990s, it has decreased over time.

The government of Ghana, through the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD), has invoked the traditional communal spirit of collectively caring for the environment by establishing the National Sanitation Day (NSD) as a means of ensuring environmental cleanliness and dealing with the filth that has engulfed most parts of the country, particularly urban areas. On the first Saturday of each month, the NSD was established to clear mountains of waste from all refuse dumping locations across the country and to educate the public on proper garbage sorting practices (MLGRD, 2014).

Although numerous efforts on sanitation development have been conducted in Ghana (Adubofour, 2010; Adubofour et al., 2013; Dakpallah, 2011), community participation in the policy-making process for solid waste management at the local government level is quite limited. This study aims to analyze all the difficulties surrounding community participation in the

development of solid waste management policies in Ghana, with a focus on the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine community participation issues with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are as follows;

1. To examine the level of participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process
2. To assess the factors that facilitates the participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process
3. To investigate the challenges faced by community members in participating in solid waste management policy making
4. To explore some perceived strategies that can be used to minimise the challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process

Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process?
2. What factors facilitate the participation of community members in solid waste management policy making process?
3. What are the challenges faced by community members in their participation of solid waste management policy making process?

4. What are some perceived strategies that can be used to minimise the challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process?

Significance of Study

Literature is awash with evidence suggesting that community development is associated with community participation in decision making. Consequently, these findings and conclusions of this study will be important for MMDAs to know what variables are antecedents of community development and thereby create conditions necessary for the advancement of such antecedents and to reduce public attrition.

This study may also contribute to available literature on community participation, and community members' level of participation in solid waste management policies since there is little information relating to this issue in literature, both theory and practical. This study seeks to fill that gap. The study will give policy makers perspectives on how community engagement affects the development in the communities.

The study may also provide researchers, policy makers and the public with the participation mechanism through which they can make decisions for the development of policies and programmes at MMDAs. The study would also assist the top management at MMDAs to adopt the best practices that could help community members in their role in improving decision making process at the local government level.

Delimitations

The study's focus is confined to the Cape Coast Metropolis in Ghana's Central Region. It is worthy of note that there are lots of researches conducted

on sanitation, solid waste management systems and community participation in some developed and developing countries. Apart from the Environmental Health Officer at the Metropolis, the study was limited to members in the community's elected representative. The study also adopted the mixed method research approach to collect both quantitative and qualitative data sequentially. Geographically, the study was conducted in some selected towns in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study was also limited to only Cape Coast and therefore could not be generalised to the whole country, Ghana.

Limitation of the Study

There were a number of limitations in this study. The main limitation observed is that, even though respondents were expected to respond to all questions related to the study, some of the respondents' responses may have been influenced by their personal encounter with a particular with the authorities in charge of waste management in Cape Coast Metropolis. Their responses could therefore be biased towards such particular issue which would lead to response error. Also, even though the research was on community participation in SWM, only assembly members, unit committee members and some authorities in charge SWM were engaged. Because their number was so vast, sampling was necessary. As a result, the conclusion might be influenced by sample biases. However, every effort was taken to make sure the sample chosen was representative of the whole population. The researcher had no control over external circumstances that may alter the results, as with all surveys.

The study was based on the information revealed by the respondents in their questionnaire responses. As the case may be, in all social surveys involving

the use of questionnaires, nevertheless, the best techniques were employed to ensure the validity and reliability of the study by cross checking some of the responses with some items on the questionnaire which were, themselves, a check mechanism and through literature and observation.

Nevertheless, the findings provided an insight into the community participation issues with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. The results should be interpreted with caution and should serve as an opportunity for further research into this emerging and important area in policy-making processes and may offer some support to the Cape Coast Metropolis at large.

Organisation of the Study

The work is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction. This chapter includes the study's background, problem statement, aims, relevance, research scope, and predicted constraints. The Literature Review is the second chapter. This chapter reviews what others have written on the topic considering the current research and breaks it down into its numerous components. It emphasizes community engagement, solid waste management, and the role of the community in the development of solid waste management policies in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The methodology chapter, which contains the strategy and methods utilized in the presentation of the research, is the third chapter. The research design, data sources, sampling techniques and size, data collection tools, and data processing procedures are all part of this. The results and discussion of the findings are presented in Chapter four, and the summary, conclusion, and recommendation are presented in Chapter five, the last chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The review of both theoretical and empirical models on community engagement and solid waste management policy in Ghana is the subject of this chapter. It examines existing theories about local involvement and shows how the community participation ladder theory promotes community participation in the development of solid waste management policies. The chapter begins with an overview of the Ladder of Citizen Participation theory as well as the concept of community participation. It examines Ghana's sanitation and waste management policies. It also analyzes the interrelationship between the principles and their analytical application in this study. It also covers the barriers and drivers that allow community participation and the development of solid waste management policies.

The Theoretical Review

The theory adopted for the study was the Ladder of Community Participation theory formulated by Arnstein (1969). According to Arnstein, the process of community participation varies in form and level, and is determined by the level of citizen authority supplied by the powerholders. The idea distinguishes between three types of community participation: a) non-participation, b) tokenism, and c) citizen power. The three primary typologies are divided into eight levels of participation in the community: Manipulation, therapy, information, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power, and citizen power. Each type and degree correspond to the extent of the community's authority in determining the project's long-term viability. However, citizen

power (actual power) is when communities have full amount and direct control over the decision-making (Duțu, & Diaconu, 2017). Whereas tokenism (counterfeit power) is when the central government establishes a public image and does not obstruct democratic engagement (Tjahjono, Bisri & Ganis, 2014) and when the community is led to believe that public engagement is taking place, non-participation occurs. This occurs when the authority influences the populace rather than the other way around (Duțu, & Diaconu, 2017).

The theory of Ladder of Community Participation does not operate in a vacuum or in a stagnant society. Cultural reasons (ethics, norms, and obligations), Cognitive justifications (organizational linguistic skills and ideas), and Structural explanations (solutions available, resources available, and kind of reward desired) may all obstruct the theory's applicability and implementation (Nelson & Wright, 1995).

According to the theory of Ladder of Citizenship Participation, there are two sides to community participation: powerholders and have-nots. The powerholders' side includes racism, paternalism, and hostility to power transfer. On the other side, among the have-nots are defects in the impoverished community's political socioeconomic infrastructure, opportunities and knowledge base (Choguill, 1996).

According to the notion, community participation is a power redistribution that allows impoverished people that are now excluded from the political and economic process to voluntarily participate in the future. It is a method in which the haves and have-nots work together to decide how information is exchanged, objectives and policies are set, tax resources are distributed, and programs are implemented. In a nutshell, it is the means by

which they may elicit considerable social reform, allowing them to benefit from the rich society (Haynes,1998). Power was required to influence the process' outcome. There is a substantial distinction, according to the theory, between going through the empty routine of participation and having genuine authority over the process' result. The following sentences clarify this difference: “I participate; you participate; he participates; we participate; they participate... They profit” (Arnstein,1969). The statements stress how participation without power transfer is a pointless and frustrating exercise for the vulnerable. Figure 2 depicts the Ladder of Citizen Participation theory in further detail.

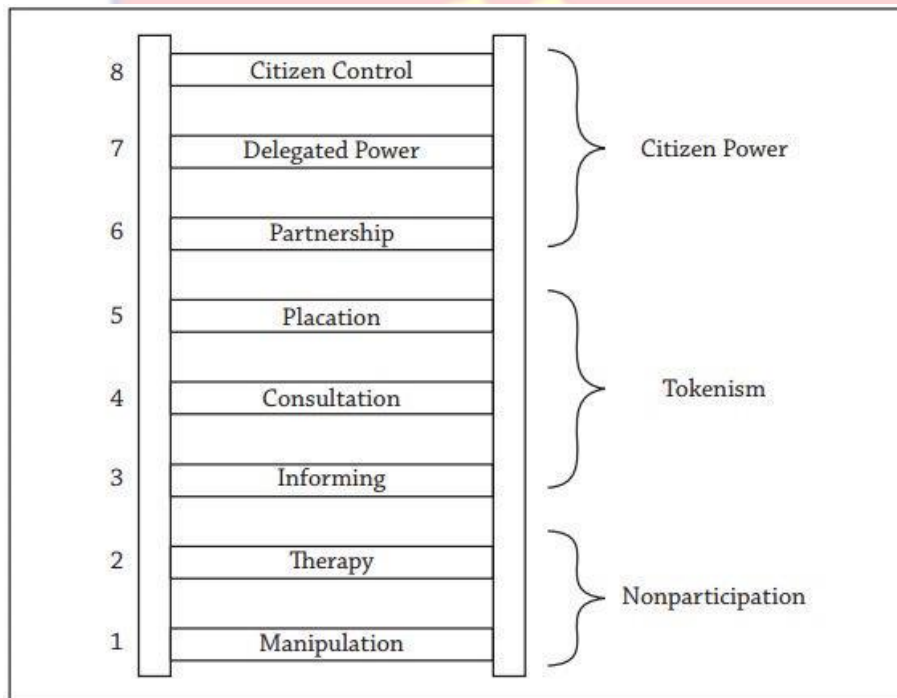


Figure 2: Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Citizen Participation

Source: Arnstein (1969)

Non-participation is the lowest rung on the ladder. The rung is divided into two levels of involvement: (1) manipulation and (2) therapy. The non-participation rung denotes that there is no clear goal in mind to allow the community to engage in program development or execution. Many programs that have used this attempts to preserve and offer targeted services have failed,

according to evidence, instead of the local populations the intended beneficiaries have remained spectators instead of been executors (Botes & Rensburg, 2000). The rungs (3) informing and (4) consultation are the layers of “tokenism” that allow the have-nots to hear and have a voice and choice. The local community may be able to hear and be heard at this degree of tokenism. However, under these circumstances, the community lacks the capacity to ensure that their ideas and viewpoints are heard by the community's influential (Arnstein, 1969). In other cases, the elite group or powerful people in the community may try to seize control of the ideas for their personal gain.

Rung (5) placation is a higher level of tokenism since the ground rules allow have-nots to advise while still preserving the powerholders’ ability to decide. Levels of community power rise up the ladder, with higher levels of decision-making clout. The community and traditional powerholders may establish a layer (6) collaboration, allowing them to discuss and participate in trade-offs. At the top of the hierarchy are (7) delegated power and (8) public control. At these levels, the community majority gets decision-making seats or complete management authority. The top rungs are characterized as genuine participation.

Limitations of the Arnstein’s Model

The inconsistency of the criteria used to identify the forms of participation is Arnstein's classification's flaw. Between placation, consultation, informing, manipulation, and therapy, there is no difference in the locus of power; power remains in the hands of the authorities. These five types of participation are essentially descriptions of how authorities deal with the public (Sheng, 1989). Rifkin and Pridmore (2001) attacked Arnstein's community

participation ladder, claiming that it is more concerned with describing the process of participation than with explaining the many types of community participation.

One common critique of two-dimensional models is that (1) they cannot fully reflect the layered complexity or shifting power dynamics that are common in real-world participatory scenarios. and (2) lower levels are sometimes interpreted as generally negative (or worse than) and higher levels as universally positive (or better) whereas, in reality, lower levels can be good in some situations and higher levels can be bad in others.

In some cases (e.g., district administrative decisions about teacher and staff salaries), it may be perfectly appropriate to inform community members about already-made decisions, while in others (e.g., when citizens lack the specialized skills or expertise required for a given task), it may be perfectly appropriate to withhold control from citizens (e.g., managing public funds on a large project). The model's simplicity, however, is precisely what makes it useful as a conceptual tool, as Arnstein points out: “the ladder juxtaposes helpless individuals with the strong in order to underscore the underlying distinctions between them.”

Arnstein also mentions a few more model flaws:

- “The justification for using such simplistic abstractions,” Arnstein writes, “is that in most cases the have-nots really do perceive the powerful as a monolithic ‘system,’ and powerholders actually do view the have-nots as a sea of ‘those people,’ with little comprehension of the class and caste differences among them.” Yet in reality “neither the have-nots nor the powerholders are homogeneous blocs. Each group

encompasses a host of divergent points of view, significant cleavages, competing vested interests, and splintered subgroups.”

- Arnstein points out that the ladder does not examine the "barriers" to genuine public involvement and empowerment: “these barriers can be found on both sides of the simple fence. Racism, paternalism, and hostility to power transfer are among the powerholders’ concerns. On the have-nots’ side, shortcomings in the impoverished community’s political socioeconomic infrastructure and knowledge base, as well as challenges assembling a representative and responsible citizens’ group in the face of futility, alienation, and distrust, are among them.”
- Arnstein also understands that “there might be 150 rungs in the actual world of people and programs, with less crisp and ‘clean’ distinctions between them.” and that “Some of the traits used to exemplify each of the eight kinds may also apply to other rungs. Participation of the have-nots in a program or on a planning staff, for example, might occur at any of the eight rungs and constitute either a valid or illegitimate feature of citizen participation. Powerholders can recruit impoverished people to coopt them, pacify them, or use their specific abilities and insights, depending on their motivations. In private, several mayors brag about how they hired militant black leaders to silence them while undermining their credibility in the black community.”
- While citizen control looks to be at the top of the ladder and offers numerous benefits as a model of public participation, Arnstein points out a few possible drawbacks: “It promotes separatism; it fragments public services; it is more expensive and inefficient; it allows minority

group ‘hustlers’ to be just as opportunistic and dismissive of the poor as their white forefathers; it is incompatible with meritocracy and professionalism; it is incompatible with meritocracy and professionalism; and ironically, it might develop into a new computer game for the have-nots by denying them the financial means to achieve.

The next seven rungs of the ladder have similar intricacies, as well as a variety of possible benefits and drawbacks.”

The relevance of Arnstein’s Model to the current study

The theory of Ladder of Community Participation is relevant in this study since many community development projects entail community or beneficiary participation (Smith,1998). The process of developing community sanitation policies is an important aspect of development. As a result, local community participation in solid waste management serves as a catalyst for community empowerment, which in turn influences policies and programs that benefit their or others' quality of life (Gamble & Weil, 1995). The theory recognizes the requirement for efficient delivery of such a service through organized collective activities by those who share a common-pool resource or common property group. In the current social, cultural, and policy framework, the theory is critical for assessing individuals, groups of people, and departments.

The Relevance of Arnstein’s Model to the Society

Participatory governance approaches have been widely promoted in developing countries. They are considered to provide a range of public policy benefits, including enhanced accountability, government responsiveness, and public services (Speer, 2012). According to scholars in the field of citizen

participation, citizens who receive quality feedback and responsiveness when interacting with government through public participation programs are more likely to believe that they gain useful policy information that helps them better understand government agencies and community issues. Local engagement contributes to more responsive developmental activities, better delivery of public goods and services, better maintained community assets, and a more informed and active populace," according to Mansuri and Rao (2004). These benefits also include the function of participation as a way of delivering and receiving information (La Ferrara & Alesina, 1999). When a community participates, it simultaneously provides information about its choices while also receiving knowledge that may assist it in making the best decision possible.

According to Brett (2003), politicians prefer participatory community development initiatives since they fear losing power if poor services are given. In countries where the illiteracy rate is high and inhabitants do not understand their roles in decentralized systems, community involvement and participation may be confined to a few elite members of the community discussing concerns (Brammah & Filmua, 2011). Local community participation is supposed to bridge the gap between customers and service providers by allowing communities to better deliver information that represents their preferences and by utilizing local materials (Kim, 2008). According to Majale (2008), there is adequate data to illustrate the benefits of participation for long-term development if it is well-implemented and sustained.

Kumar (2002) listed some elements that he views to be advantages of people participating in development projects. To begin with, participation promotes efficient resource use as people work together to achieve a specific

goal that affects their own lives. Second, participation boosts productivity. It helps people become more self-reliant and less reliant on others. People would not rely on the government to fix all of their problems, but would instead take proper steps to handle their issues. Furthermore, involvement aids in the distribution of benefits to the recipients. Finally, efficient operations can guarantee that resources are available for more thorough care of society's most vulnerable members.

As a result, participating in community development strengthens community ability to identify problems, establish plans, or implement interventions, and also monitor and evaluate programs and projects. It also aids in the measurement and analysis of the effects of development interventions, such as projects, programs, and outcomes, as well as providing feedback to stakeholders and the community.

The concept of Community Participation

Participation is a wide phrase that is used in a variety of disciplines and useful to a wide range of fields, with a wide range of meanings and interpretations (Heyd & Neef, 2004; Kumar, 2000; Sanoff, 2000; Midgley, 1986). Local participation is a growth strategy in which local beneficiary communities are given rights to engage in the project cycle's initiation, planning, execution, control, and monitoring in order to gain a better understanding of the development process and develop the necessary capabilities and self-confidence to keep the project off the ground (Koasa-ard et al., 1998). People's participation in the decision-making process, program implementation, sharing the benefits of development initiatives, and evaluation activities are all instances of participation (Cohen & Uphoff, 1980).

Members of a community participate in initiatives to solve their own issues, which is known as community involvement. Individuals and communities are involved in decisions that influence their lives through community involvement (Burns & Musa, 2016). The involvement of people in a community in the decision-making process, as well as community projects and development, can be defined as community participation.

Rather than being compelled to participate in initiatives that affect them, people should be given the chance to do so. This is seen as a fundamental human right as well as a democratic goal. Because people may be unfamiliar with their surroundings and new sanitary facilities, community participation is critical in sanitation projects. The grassroots or bottom-up approach to issue solving is reflected in community engagement, which is an important component of community development. Hosting open forums and discussions between community members and government officials or non-governmental groups involved in lobbying to submit suggestions for inclusion in policy formation and operational plan adjustments is what community involvement implies (DWAF, 2005).

Community participation can refer to any procedure that involves community members directly in decision-making and takes into account all of their feedback. The term “community participation” is not new in Ghana; it was first used in 1992 and was codified in the Ghanaian Constitution and the Local Government Act of 1993. The Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies were established by the Local Government Act 1993 (Act 462), which replaced PNDC Law 207, and the urban, zonal, and town councils and unit committees were established by L.I 1589. The main goal of the Act and

its subsidiary legislative instrument ... is to enable as many Ghanaians as possible to participate in decision-making processes that affect their lives (Korkor, 2003). The people's assemblies are made up of elected and appointed representatives who are supposed to consult the public on a regular basis, collect their ideas, and communicate them in the assembly's discussions, both at the committee level and at the general Assembly level (Act 462, 1993).

According to Nici and Wright (1997), the participatory approach to development arose from an understanding that the majority of development failures are caused by attempts to impose standard top-down programs and projects on diverse local realities where they do not fit or meet the needs of the local people. Mulwa (2008) went on to say that in poor countries, the top-down approach made initiatives unsustainable due to a lack of ownership. Ghana used decentralization to improve the efficiency, accountability, and responsiveness of its public sector to the demands of its inhabitants on a local level (Ayee, 2003).

As a result of the failure of the top-down approach, the bottom-up technique, which empowers local people, was employed in the design and execution of development programs. In the 1980s, this method of development became the standard. Opinion leaders, non-governmental organizations, women local leaders, the general public, and other stakeholders all have a stake in whatever is launched in the community participation in local initiatives by community people has the potential to influence, question, and transform the local economy for the better.

Barriers of Effective Community Participation

According to Kumar and Corbridge (2002), a fundamental obstacle impacting local people's participation in the policy-making process is the notion that they lack sufficient knowledge and skills to assume control of projects. This claim is backed up by Takyi, Emmanuel and Yussif (2013), Some argue that low stakeholder involvement and participation at the local level is due to a lack of knowledge and information flow. Furthermore, local government authorities perceived the empowerment of the local steering committee as a threat, accusing them of behaving as political party agents, hindering the community's full commitment and involvement (Wilcox, 2002; Addae-Boahene, 2007). Furthermore, the ideals of local empowerment ran counter to the “elite mentality” of local officials, which sees the rural public as unsophisticated and lacking in initiative to contribute to policy, presumably inherited from the colonial history According to Baku and Agyman (2002), the main obstacles to community participation are:

- Incorrect meeting timing;
- The government has handed communities responsibilities that are beyond their capacity;
- The failure of local governments to exchange information; and
- A widespread lack of enthusiasm among the locals due to a loss of interest in participating.

According to Takyi, Anin, and Asuo (2014), differences in levels of knowledge between local residents and government officials lead to distrust and marginalization, which has an influence on local community participation. A language barrier is another factor that inhibits local engagement. People in the

community are frequently excluded from the policy-making process when a government representative and the people in the community do not share the same language (Takyi, Anin and Asuo, 2014; Addae-Boahene, 2007).

Driving factors for Community Participation in Solid Waste Management Policy Process

People must understand when, how, and why they must contribute in order to be effective participants in any effort (Spieges, 1998). As a result, it is critical to first determine the locals' comprehension of policymaking and their attitudes toward participation in policymaking processes. Some of the things that determine their participation are inclusiveness, community awareness, communication and trust.

Inclusiveness

A healthy community values variety and recognizes that everyone has the right to be heard and participate in decisions that impact them. Poverty, literacy levels, disability, age, gender, and ethnicity are all barriers to involvement in communal decision-making. The community involvement approach seeks out and facilitates the participation of persons who are likely to be marginalized (Oakley and Marsden, 1991).

The community participation approach identifies and facilitates the participation of people who may be impacted. Every project necessitates the identification of these individuals and the facilitation of their participation (Kinyondi, 2008).

Community Awareness

Through knowledge exchange and debate, Kamuiru (2014) notes that awareness-raising aids in the breaking down of social, superstition, and other

barriers among community members. He points out that once these barriers are removed, people are able to express themselves more freely, both individually and collectively, and absorb the underlying need for development projects as well as the projected benefits. Citizens require information about the subject in order to share their ideas and participate in the public decision-making process. It is impossible to build a civic engagement process unless those who participate have a high degree of education and knowledge about the issue(s) (World Bank, 2004). Public education is a strategy for enacting a policy, instilling a mindset, and defining the role of good in society.

In order to tackle a problem that affects them, public education entails informing and encouraging a large number of persons. The development of an education campaign is the first and most significant phase in this process. A public education campaign is a means of informing a large number of persons about a problem in order to raise their awareness of it and, as a result, motivate them to change their behaviour. The process of creating a civic education campaign is complex but not difficult to plan. It takes time, usually three to twelve months (Osti, 2003).

According to Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002), rural inhabitants believe there are a dearth of information regarding government programs and services. There is a desire to learn about and have timely access to information regarding government programs and services. Community demonstration/practical training, constant communication and information sharing, participatory planning and monitoring, including regular assessments of progress and constraints, are all examples of ways to improve communities' analytical abilities and implementation capacity (Cleaver, 2001).

Sensitizing and boosting community awareness helps to foster community participation and a participatory strategy at the local level. Raising community awareness can assist people establish their interests, expertise, and understanding as a requirement for true community participation in the project management cycle (Mosse, 2001).

Communication

According to Kamuiru (2014), 5-10 percent of community people will initially favour and the 5-10 percent will reject a community effort. It is improbable that either opponents or supporters will change their minds. The quiet majority, or the remaining 80 percent, are uncertain, apathetic, or cynical about the initiative. Failure to enlist the silent majority on the winning side could result in widespread resistance and jeopardize the project. Various tactics can be utilized to get the support of this group, according to Community Development Society. They claim that this includes open public engagement, which has been shown to be a successful technique in the past. It's a good idea to start consulting with the community right away. This contributes to the project's credibility, understanding, and support.

To gain community support for your project, make sure the community is adequately informed and, ideally, a part of the planning process from the start. Inviting the public to express their opinions and concerns about the project can improve community support and, as a result, the project's success. The community participation method provides individuals with the necessary information to engage in meaningful engagement (Kumar, 2002). The community participation method expresses the desire to participate and meets the requirements of the procedure needs of all participants.

Trust

Trust is the glue that holds organizations and communities together, according to Kamuiru (2014). Building trust among local community groups is recognized as a realistic method for organizations' and communities' economic success. He defines trust as the shared belief that no party involved in the exchange of ideas will take advantage of others. That is, if citizens in a community hold each other accountable for their acts over time, a foundation for trust can be established. He believes that involving community members in the creation and implementation of a program increases the likelihood of good transformation. The simple challenge is to recognize that community members must be able to trust one another in order to participate and make good decisions. When community members are involved in the planning and implementation of a program, it is more likely to result in good change. From the beginning, all partners must be actively appreciated.

According to Reid (2000), when approaching the community, some engagement leaders find it most useful to contact as many formal and informal leaders and groups as possible.

The most successful way for program and project formulators may be to identify and work with important stakeholders. As a result, they work with a smaller, more manageable group of community members to accomplish their goals. The number of people and organizations contacted as part of an engagement attempt is determined in part by the topic at hand, the engagement technique chosen, and whether the effort is mandatory or voluntary. To make an informed decision, the community must be informed of any potential for

harm as a result of its involvement with or endorsement of an effort (Yang, 2006).

The concept of policy making

Policy is a wide term that encompasses many distinct aspects. A purposeful set of principles to guide actions and create sensible outcomes is characterized as policy. A policy is a declaration of intent that is carried out through a process or protocol. A governing board inside a company usually adopts policies. Both subjective and objective decision-making can benefit from policies. Work–life balance policies, for example, are employed in subjective decision making to aid senior management with judgments that must be based on the relative merits of a variety of elements and are thus difficult to verify objectively. Policies to aid objective decision making, on the other hand, are generally operational in nature and can be objectively tested, such as a password policy (Althaus, Bridgman & Davis, 2020).

Government, public sector companies and groups, as well as people, are all instances of policy. Presidential executive orders, company privacy policies, and legislative rules of order are all examples of policy. Rules and laws are not the same as policy. While the law can force or prohibit some behaviors (for example, forcing the payment of income taxes), policy simply directs acts toward those that are most likely to accomplish a desired end.

The process of making major organizational choices, such as identifying multiple options such as programs or spending priorities and choosing among them based on their impact, is referred to as policy or policy analysis. Policies are a set of political, managerial, financial, and administrative processes designed to achieve certain objectives. A key accounting policy in

public corporate finance is one for a firm/company or industry that is deemed to have a strong subjective element and has a major influence on the financial reports.

Public policies are designed with a specific aim in mind: to achieve specified objectives and give answers to societal problems. More precisely, policies are official declarations of what it intends to do or not do, such as legislation, regulation, rule, decision, or order” (Birkland, 2001).

Another commonly used concept is Wilson's (1973, 1989, 1995) typology, which states that the costs and benefits of a policy are either widely distributed or tightly concentrated.” As a result, the policy implications of each of the four possible combinations are distinct. A government may encounter little or no resistance when both the costs and benefits of a proposal are widely shared, indicating that majoritarian politics is the most likely outcome. When a policy's costs and advantages are concentrated, a government may encounter resistance from competing interest groups, signaling interest-group politics, in which lobbying operations and strategic interaction among the parties involved dominate political processes. If expenses are concentrated and benefits are scattered, a government may encounter opposition from powerful interest groups. In this environment, the most likely outcome is entrepreneurial politics.

This means that policy change involves the presence of “political entrepreneurs” who are willing to propose and implement policies despite considerable popular resistance. When government expenditures are scattered and benefits are concentrated, a government is more likely to come across a relevant interest group that supports its efforts, leading to clientelist politics.

There are other more ways to characterize public policies, all of which include implicit assumptions about the policy-making process (Anderson, 2003). Another related idea is policy instrument analysis, which relates instrument choice — that is, whether to use voluntary, obligatory, or hybrid instruments – to the likelihood of policy opposition (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003). Opposition or acquiescence to policy by the policy's addressees is, of course, a crucial issue of public concern. Nonetheless, focusing more explicitly on political processes gives us a better knowledge of their causes and implications, which gives us greater analytical power in the examination of public policies. Examining the functions of the executive and legislative branches of government, whose interaction is at the heart of policymaking, is part of this politics approach. However, it also entails decision-making theories and the examination of public policy frameworks in order to comprehend how, in addition to political forces, social and economic interests impact policy content.

Thus, researching policymaking through the lens of comparative politics might improve our scientific understanding by providing us with effective tools for examining both the determinants and consequences of policy decisions. Opposition or acquiescence to policy by policy's addressees is, of course, a crucial matter of general policy. Nonetheless, focusing more explicitly on political processes gives us a better knowledge of their causes and implications, which gives us greater analytical power in the examination of public policies. Examining the functions of the executive and legislative branches of government, whose interaction is at the heart of policymaking, is part of this politics approach. However, it also entails decision-making theories and the examination of public policy frameworks in order to comprehend how,

in addition to political forces, social and economic interests impact policy content.

Analysing policy making as a process: the policy cycle

What distinguishes policymaking from other types of decision-making? Three distinct characteristics can be found. To begin with, policy is shaped by a number of restrictions, including a shortage of time and money, public opinion, and, of course, the constitution. Second, the existence of many policy procedures is required for policy-making. Governments are a collection of departments that overlap and compete, rather than a single entity. Finally, these decision-making and policy-making processes result in a never-ending cycle of decisions and policies (Jann & Wegrich, 2006). Previous policy decisions have an impact on current policy decisions, and today's policies may have "knock-on consequences" that lead to future policies (Newton & Van Deth, 2005). Given the nature of policy-making, it's helpful to conceive about it in terms of a process model, sometimes known as a policy cycle. It presents policy-making as a sequence of political processes, including (1) agenda setting, (2) policy development, (3) decision-making, (4) implementation, and (5) monitoring and assessment. At the outset of each policy cycle, a social problem is selected and placed on the policy agenda. After that, policy recommendations are made, from which one will be picked. The chosen policy is subsequently implemented in the following stage. Finally, the policy's consequences are evaluated.

This latter step feeds back into the first, meaning that the policy cycle never ends. This basic policy cycle model follows a sequential approach. Distinct political actors and institutions may be involved in different processes

in the real world at the same time. The policy cycle, on the other hand, is a valuable heuristic for breaking down policy-making into its constituent parts and explaining how policies are developed.

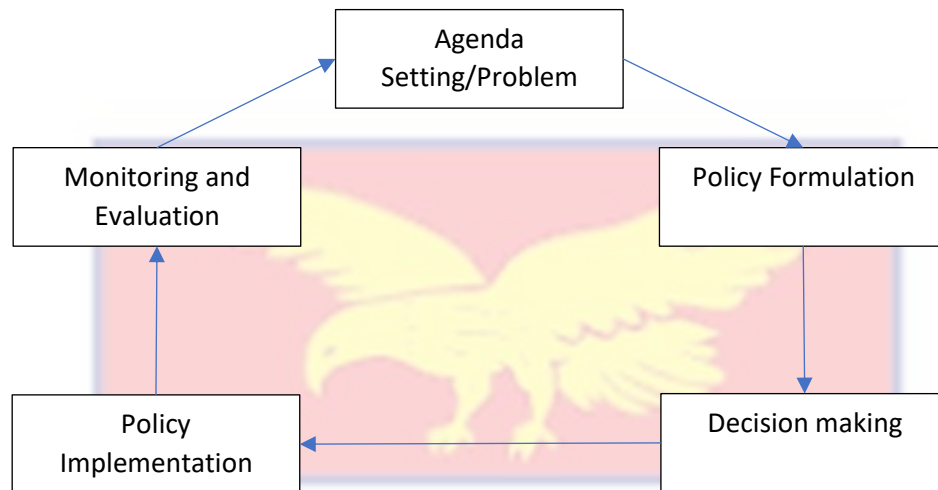


Figure 3: The Policy cycle

Source: Knill and Tosun (2008)

Agenda setting

The first step in policymaking is to identify a public problem that requires government involvement. There are several concerns, but only a handful will receive formal attention from legislators and executive branch officials. The policy agenda consists of the public issues that decision-makers select. Cobb and Elder (1972) identified the systemic agenda and the institutional agenda. A 'discussion agenda' results from the systemic agenda, which includes all societal concerns that demand public attention. On the other hand, the institutional agenda comprises a range of topics that decision-makers must consider. The institutional agenda, as a result, is a more specific and real 'action agenda' than the systemic agenda. Cultural, political, social, economic, and ideological factors all influence whether a topic is included on the agenda.

Policy formulation

The definition, debate, acceptance, or rejection of possible courses of action for dealing with policy challenges is the second phase of the policy cycle, policy creation. Policy development includes the establishment of policy objectives, as well as the selection of the most relevant policy tools and their settings (Hall, 1993). It occurs in the context of the technological and political constraints of governmental action. Political constraints might be either substantive or procedural. Substantive constraints pertain to the essence of the problem, whereas procedural constraints refer to the methods necessary to adopt a policy. These procedural restrictions are connected to institutional and tactical constraints (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003).

But, in general, policy creation emphasizes the interaction between the executive and legislative branches. Policy formulation, on the other hand, might be seen of as an informal dialogue between ministerial departments and interest groups (Jann & Wegrich, 2006). Interest groups play a significant role in policy development since they frequently collaborate with executive and legislative officials to construct a policy draft. When government institutions lack the time and manpower to deal with difficult and technical issues, interest groups may play an important role in drafting laws (Anderson, 2003).

Decision making

In contrast to the early stages of decision-making, government institutions decide whether a policy proposal will be adopted. The adoption of a policy choice is influenced by a number of factors. There are two sets of criteria that are quite significant. First, the requirement of obtaining majority support for a policy choice may reduce the number of feasible possibilities,

necessitating considerations of principles, party membership, constituency interests, public opinion, deference, and decision procedures (Anderson, 2003). Most members of parliament use party loyalty as a major criterion when making decisions (Bowler et al. 1999; Benedetto & Hix (2007)) for qualifications. As a result, a member of parliament's political allegiance is a key factor in determining whether or not a policy proposal will be accepted. However, it is important to remember that party cohesiveness in national legislatures differs greatly (Janda,1980). Another important choice factor is the estimated costs and benefits of a policy proposal for the constituency. A member of parliament is required to vote for a policy option if the benefits to the constituency exceed the negatives. Public opinion also has an impact on policy decisions, decision rules, values, and the sense of respect. However, policy adoption should be governed by negotiation and compromise in general, therefore incrementalism rather than rational models appears to be the most practical decision-making theory (Hayes, 2001).

Policy Implementation

Implementation is the process of putting new laws and initiatives into action. Policy is meaningless and ineffective unless it is adequately executed. As a result, how successfully bureaucratic entities carry out government directions determines policy success. Implementation appears to be an automatic continuation of the policy-making process at first glance. Despite this, there is often a large gap between the enactment of new law and its implementation, demonstrating that the link between decision-making and implementation is at best weak (Hill & Hupe 2005; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). However, many theoretical approaches to the study of implementation

have been developed, which Fischer and Miller (2017) split into three groups (Hill & Hupe, 2005) (1) Top-down models (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983; Bardach, 1977; Pressman & Wildavsky 1973) Policymakers' capacity to develop clear policy objectives and regulate the implementation process is emphasised; (2) Bottom-up models (Lipsky, 1971, 1980) consider local bureaucrats to be essential players in policy delivery and implementation to be a negotiation process between networks; (3) Hybrid models (Lipsky, 1971, 1980) consider local bureaucrats to be essential players in policy delivery and implementation to be a negotiation. An entity with appropriate resources that can translate policy objectives into an operational framework and is accountable for its actions is essential for successful implementation (Gerston, 2004).

However, the chance of successful implementation is determined by more than just policy formulation and instrument selection. Implementation efforts in federal systems, for example, may travel between levels of government as well as within levels of government (Gerston, 2004). When it comes to horizontal implementation, when a national legal act must be executed simply by an executive branch agency, the number of participants is kept to a minimum and implementation can go easily. However, vertical implementation, which requires multiple segments of the national government to interface with different levels at the subnational level, may be difficult.

Monitoring and Evaluation

A policy becomes a subject of review when it has been passed by the legislature and executed by the bureaucracy. The important question at this point is whether the decision-making process's outcome – a specific public policy – has met its objectives. Evaluation is frequently a formal component of

policy development, and it is typically carried out by specialists who have some understanding of the processes and objectives relevant to the topic under consideration (Gerston, 2004). Evaluation can be done in a variety of ways. In a broader sense, policies should be assessed for their efficiency (the use of the fewest resources to produce the greatest benefit) and effectiveness (achievement of the intended goals). Policy evaluation creates a feedback loop, allowing decision-makers to learn from each policy currently in place. This feedback loop discovers new issues and restarts the policy-making process, producing a never-ending policy cycle. This transforms policy assessment into a strong weapon in the policy-making process: it has the potential to reframe an issue that was previously assumed to be resolved by policymakers, but it also has the potential to result in the cancellation of public initiatives. Policy assessments can help to pave the path for policy learning and evidence-based policymaking in this regard (Sanderson, 2002).

The majority of government agencies attempt to assess their own policies and activities. Hearings and reports are the most typical types of evaluation. Another popular method of evaluation is the examination of citizen complaints. Occasionally, teams of high-ranking administrators or consultants visit sites to obtain impressionistic data on how policies are implemented, or government agencies collect data on policy output metrics themselves. In addition, governmental agencies evaluate the performance of certain policies by comparing them to professional standards in particular policy sectors. However, most policy evaluations are unsystematic and do not satisfy minimal condition stated by scientific evaluation research, e.g. before and after comparison (Dye, 2005). The necessity for rigorous policy assessment is

projected to expand since modern concern over the allocation of finite resources makes it vital to evaluate the effectiveness of policy initiatives. In practice, policy evaluation presents assessors with various obstacles. Citizens and governments both have a tendency to perceive a policy's actual impact in a way that serves their own goals. Governments frequently avoid defining policy objectives precisely because doing so would expose politicians to criticism for clear failure" (Jann & Wegrich, 2006).

The outcome of the evaluation procedure may also result in the cancellation of a policy. In theory, policy termination should be expected when a policy challenge is solved or when evaluation studies indicate a policy's dysfunctionality. Nonetheless, the empirical findings suggest that it is difficult to repeal a policy that has become entrenched inside a government (Bardach, 1976; Jann & Wegrich, 2006). As a result, termination should become more likely if a government is shocked, justifying harsh measures like economic crises (Geva-May, 2004). As a result, studies of policy termination are usually focused with the topic of why policies and programs persist" (Jann & Wegrich 2006).

Highlights

- It's useful to think of policymaking as a collection of political actions that includes agenda setting, policy creation, decision making, policy implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.
- As we proceed from agenda setting to implementation, the number of actors participating diminishes. Evaluation is a formal part of policymaking that is frequently carried out by specialists.

- The notion of policy termination has several intriguing implications, although it is still explored both conceptually and empirically.

Sanitation in Ghana

Ghana is facing significant challenges in fulfilling the issue of providing sufficient and better sanitation to both rural and urban inhabitants. Ghana's economic development has been accompanied by increased urbanization, placing a pressure on infrastructure and sanitary services (Mariwah, 2018).

Sanitation is a broad and complicated term that refers to a variety of actions aimed at promoting health, well-being, and a clean physical and natural environment. The scope of sanitation in the SWM includes several components, but in this thesis, the focus on sanitation has been limited to the collection and sanitary disposal of solid wastes. As a result, sanitation is defined in this study as the collection, disposal, and management of waste.

Pathogens are transmitted by feces and, to a lesser extent, pee due to poor sanitation (Hutton & Chase, 2016). Diarrhoea and other causes related with poor water, sanitation, and hygiene kill an estimated 842,000 people in low- and middle-income countries each year, with children under the age of five suffering the brunt of the burden (WHO 2018). Diarrhoea illnesses kill roughly 16 percent of children under the age of five in Africa and 25 percent of children under the age of five in Ghana, respectively (Alonso et al, 2011).

Aside the health dangers, poor sanitation results in significant financial and economic losses. According to the WSP (2012), Ghana's yearly economic loss owing to inadequate sanitation is US\$ 290 million, or 1.6 percent of GDP.

According to current data, Ghana's total access to basic sanitation is estimated to be 21 percent, with rural and urban coverage rates of 17 percent and 25 percent, respectively (GSS 2018). After the MDGs, there was a 6 percent increase, leaving the remaining 79 percent defenseless against the unavoidable consequences of poor sanitation. In Ghana, just one out of every five homes has access to improved sanitation (GSS 2018). Since January 2000, the National Environmental Sanitation Policy Coordinating Council (NESPoCC) has been in place to ensure that the National Sanitation Policy is implemented as quickly as possible. In general, the NESPoCC is in charge of coordinating policy and promoting effective communication and cooperation among the many agencies involved in environmental management in their districts.

General garbage management in Ghana is overseen by the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD), which controls the decentralised Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs). The Ministry of Environment and Science oversees the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), which has regulatory jurisdiction. The collection and eventual disposal of solid waste is the responsibility of the Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies' Waste Management Departments (WMDs) and Environmental Health and Sanitation Departments.

Empirical review

The empirical review focusses on four thematic areas, namely; community participation and SWM Policy Making Process; facilitative factors in SWM Policy Making Process Participation; challenges in SWM Policy Making Process Participation; and barrier reducing strategies in SWM Policy Making Process Participation.

Community Participation and SWM Policy Making Process

Marshall and Farahbakhsh (2013) have discussed many failures of SWM policies in developing countries. These problems require governments to trigger public participation in creating effective SWM. Community participation has been described as essential for maintaining a positive relationship with the public, improving service quality, and improving decision-making – all of which necessitate a shift in policy, money, and commitment (ODPM, 2002). Furthermore, it is claimed that community participation promotes responsibility, legitimacy, transparency, and empowerment (Bohman, 2005; Schillemans, 2008). Zakianis, Koesoemawardani, Fauzia, Asror and Ferliana (2018) aimed at increasing awareness about how to sort household waste by involving the stakeholders. They used the citizens participation activity using four stages, including advocacy, counselling for garbage collectors, counselling for households, and monitoring the waste sorting behaviour in households. They found that there was a significance difference in the level of understanding in households before and after the counselling. According to their results, almost half of the households started sorting their waste based on monitoring. This indicate that how important counselling and advocacy encourages participation. Again, they also found that participation levels have positive relationships with communities' environmental concerns. However, according to World Bank (2012), policy-making process should be participatory so as to empower the less privileged and also to improve on project transparency and accountability. Wasike (2010) asserts that participation empowering the poor by enabling them to contribute to decision making, promote social inclusion and sustained growth. He encourages participation in

development projects such SWM as the people are able to not only enjoy development benefits but also stir the course of the said development.

Facilitative factors in SWM Policy-Making Process Participation

There are several factors that facilitate participation in SWM Policy-making process. Whether these factors would lead to favourable outcomes is dependent on other players and conditions. Elected politicians, government agencies, individuals, the local media, and non-governmental organizations are all significant 'actors' in community participation, according to Yang and Callahan (2007). Kamuiru (2014) notes that community awareness ensures the breaking down of social, superstition, and other barriers among community members. However, Brotosusilo, Nabila, Negoro and Utari (2020) in their study explained the relationship between individual participation in community activities, years of schooling, PCE, religiosity, and high personal involvement in SW disposal. They asserted that individuals' enthusiasm for in neighbourhood social activities such as SWM would raise their participation level. Again, their findings suggest that social empowerment is significantly and positively tied to community participation. This signals the assertion of McAllister (2015) which state that the number of social activities held in a community increases individual participation in waste management. However, this study focused on participation from the standpoint of public-sector executives, ignoring citizens' and representatives' perspectives. Copus (2010), in his study of how representatives' attitudes and willingness to participate affect participation effectiveness, highlights the flaws in this approach. He discovered, using survey data, that most politicians prefer to enact policies that their parties believe are right, rather than policies that constituents desire.

Challenges in SWM Policy Making Process Participation

Landemore (2012) indicated that for several reasons, many attempts to ensure community participation in policy making have not achieved the anticipated level or quality of community engagement. Several factors have hampered urban SWM participation. Dhokhikah, Trihadiningrum and Sunaryo (2015) explained that large population coupled with limited funds affect citizens' participation in SWM programs. There are no signage indicating that a particular location is a garbage collection place. Private initiatives done by SWM groups or management institutions are frequently the primary impediment to successful SWM. There is no plan integration or a holistic picture that connects various garbage programmes. Overlapping assignments are common, and the locations police may reach are dispersed unevenly. During the garbage collecting process, several difficult issues develop (the most important aspect of SWM). In Ethiopian cities, for example, waste separation is inadequate. Furthermore, the distance between waste disposal centres and residents' residences has an impact on homeowners' desire to collect SW and transport it to waste disposal centres (Bashkirova and Lessovaia, 2019).

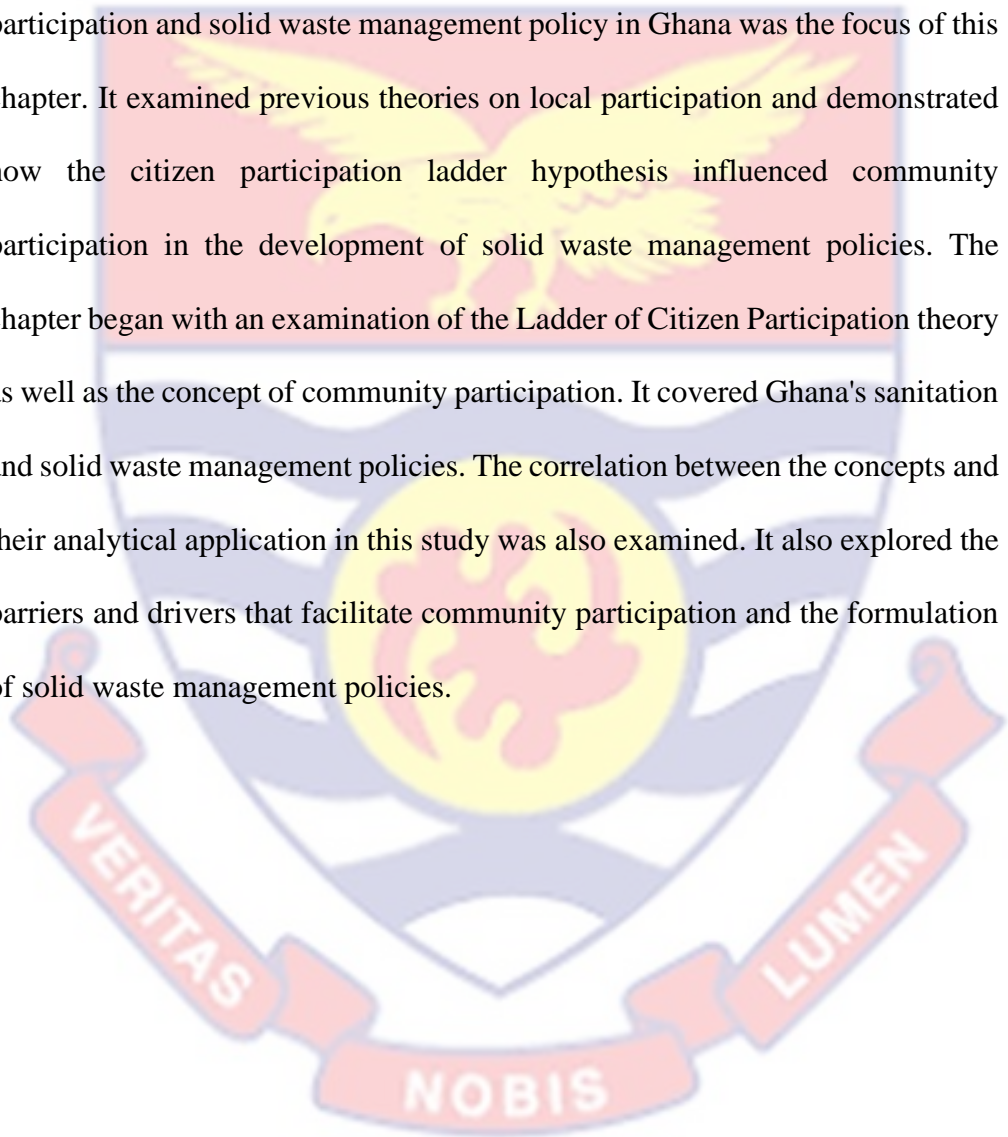
Barrier reducing strategies in SWM Policy Making Process Participation

Some strategies have been proposed to reduce barriers affecting participation in SWM policy-making process. One of the strategies as explained by Permana, Towolioe, Abd Aziz and Ho (2015) is that there should be a continuously stimulation of change by the government. Local government should provide resources and facilities to support the solid waste policy participation programs (Malau, 2018). By this, Malau (2018) asserted that some structural challenges such as overlapping assignments which affect community

participation can be reduced. Yang and Ott (2016) investigated the impact of social norms on public involvement. Their research revealed that individuals might be driven not just by social norms, but also by monetary reward.

Summary

The review of both theoretical and empirical models on community participation and solid waste management policy in Ghana was the focus of this chapter. It examined previous theories on local participation and demonstrated how the citizen participation ladder hypothesis influenced community participation in the development of solid waste management policies. The chapter began with an examination of the Ladder of Citizen Participation theory as well as the concept of community participation. It covered Ghana's sanitation and solid waste management policies. The correlation between the concepts and their analytical application in this study was also examined. It also explored the barriers and drivers that facilitate community participation and the formulation of solid waste management policies.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This research study's third chapter will provide a full discussion of the research strategy and procedures. The rationale of this chapter is not only to get an in-depth understanding of the way the study was conducted but also to help the readers to appreciate the process followed by the researcher in choosing the suitable method to conduct the research. Thus, the chapter reflects the general process that constitutes the research design, research strategy, data collection methods and data analysis to ensure that they are consistent.

Considering this the first section of the chapter begins by discussing the kind of research design used and the rationales behind the use of such designs. The second section addresses issues concerning the methodology of the study and this includes: the methods adopted in this research for data collection, the study area and the justification for the choice of the area, the sampling techniques, ethical consideration, pretesting, and analysis techniques followed by a summary of the chapter

Research Design

Trochim (2000) defines a research design as “the glue that holds the research together.” He highlights that the design is used to structure the study, illustrating how all of the study's major components work together to answer the key research question. Nwadinigwe (2005) emphasized the importance of design in research, stating that “basically, research design, as a crucial part of research, must be the most appropriate to approximately measure what is being

measured and collect the data that will validly lead to an equally valid conclusion.”

Considering the nature of the research questions and objectives it was decided that both the quantitative and the qualitative research methods would be employed in this study. The underlying reasons for the use of the mixed method in this study were based on the various arguments that have been made in the literature by various experts. Clarke and Dawson (2000) and Gray (2009) noted that, depending on the nature of the research, researchers can combine several methodologies because deciding which one is superior or more valuable is challenging. Creswell, Fetters, and Ivankova (2004) contend that “neither qualitative nor quantitative methods are sufficient in and of themselves to capture the trends and specifics of any situation. When both qualitative and quantitative data are used together, however, a more complete analysis is produced, and they complement each other.” Johnson and Onwuegbuzi (2004) make the similar point about the logic of mixed methods research, claiming that it aids in the identification of patterns (induction), testing theories and hypotheses (deduction), and exposing and relying on the best set of explanations for understanding one's results (abduction).

Consequently, the study therefore adopted an embedded design. The design enables the collection and analysis of quantitative data in the first phase, the planning of a second phase based on the quantitative results in the second phase, and the collection and analysis of qualitative data in the second phase to strengthen or supplement the conclusions drawn from the first phase's quantitative results (Clark & Creswell, 2015). It allows for the

extension of evidence from one source to another or the challenge of evidence from another source.

Study Area

The Cape Coast Metropolitan is one of Ghana's 260 Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs), and is part of the Central Region's 22 MMDAs. The city is the smallest metropolis in the country, covering only 122 square kilometers. It is situated in latitude 5°06'N and longitude 1° 15'W. It has a surface area of about 122 square kilometers. The Cape Coast Metropolitan Area is one of Ghana's oldest districts, with Cape Coast as its administrative headquarters. LI 1373 upgraded it to municipality status in 1987, and LI 1927 upgraded it to metropolitan status in 2007. The Metropolitan is bordered on the south by the Gulf of Guinea, on the west by the Komenda Edina Eguafo /Abrem Municipal, on the east by the Abura Asebu Kwamankese District, and on the north by the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District. The Metropolis has a population of 169,894 people, with 82,810 men and 87,084 women, according to the 2010 population and housing census.

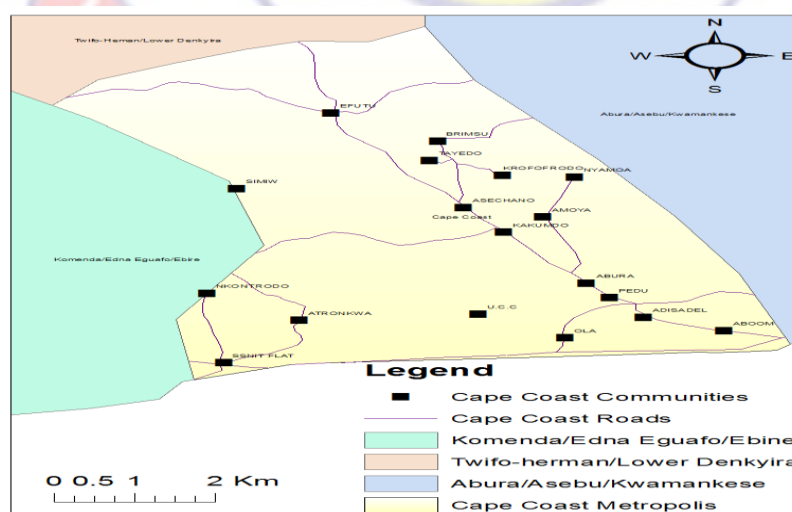


Figure 4: A Map of Cape Coast Metropolis

Source: Kwarteng, A (2017)

Population

After establishing the research questions, goals, and objectives in a social study, the researcher is expected to make a decision about the research population. Polit and Hungler (1999) define the population as the sum of all the objects, individuals, or members within a research that meet a set of criteria. A total of 67 assembly members were included in this study and 402 unit-committee members (Electoral Commission of Ghana, 2019 District Assembly Election). It also includes the Environmental Health Officer at the Metropolitan Assembly and a representative of Non-Governmental Organisations in Sanitation. In all, the population size of the study was 471 individuals.

Sample Size and Sampling Technique

If the study population is intricate and difficult to access, as it is in this study, the researcher can use sampling techniques, according to Bryman (2008). Bakeman (1992) defined a sample as: "the portion of the population that is selected for inquiry." It is a subset of the general public. The process of selection might be either probabilistic or non-probabilistic.

The sample size had to be decided before the sample was chosen for the investigation. This entails determining the minimum sample size required for accurate proportion estimation. The sample size computation took into account various combinations of precision, confidence, and variability. The sample size for the study was calculated using a precision level of 5, which represents a 95 percent confidence level for error reporting within the data gathered. The sample size was calculated using a simple proportions formula in this investigation. Yamane (1967) provided this formula, which provides a basic technique for calculating minimal sample size. The equation is shown below

$$n \geq \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Thus, the sample size equation is valid where n is the sample size, N is population size, e is the desired level of precision (0.05). When the formula is applied, we obtained a minimum sample size as:

$$n \geq \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{471}{1 + 471(0.05)^2} = 217$$

Hence, the sample size for the study is 217 respondents (Table 1). The main factors that were considered in the allocation of the sample size were time, cost and resources available.

Table 1: Sample size allocation for the Study

	Population size	Sample Size
Assembly members	67	45
Unit Committee Members	402	170
includes the Environmental Health Officer at the Metropolitan Assembly	1	1
Representative of Non-Governmental Organisations in Sanitation	1	1
Total	471	217

On the part of the quantitative which aimed at examine the level of participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process different approach will be used. With this, it would be noted that covering the whole population in this case will not be easy as such a sampling technique will be needed. In light of this, and in accordance with Saunders et al. (2007) and Yin (2009), non-probability sampling (non-random sample) will be employed correctly in this case study. According to Burns &

Grove (2001), a non-probability sampling approach is used when not every member of the population has a chance of being included in the sample. For this study, convenience sampling and purposive sample were the most appropriate types of non-probability sampling since they maximize the chances of getting precise and reliable information regarding the topic under investigation (in this study the level of community participation).

This method assisted in the selection of participants who have the necessary knowledge and information on the issue. As a result, these volunteers were chosen based on their expert understanding of the study's topic. For the quantitative element of this study, a total of 215 respondents (45 assembly members and 170 unit-committee members) were chosen. The qualitative study included 16 respondents (including the Metropolitan Assembly's Environmental Health Officer, a representative of Non-Governmental Organizations in Sanitation, 5 assembly members, and 9 unit-committee members). The researcher used 16 respondents since it was the saturation point at which the researcher began to record comparable responses to previously obtained data.

Data Collection and Data Collection Procedure

In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are evidence sources that are classified as qualitative approaches. In-depth interviews are commonly used to learn about human behavior, as well as their ideas and sentiments regarding a variety of topics (Schutt, 2006). According to Patton (2002), the interview approach is commonly used with a variety of people to understand their perspectives and responses to an event that cannot be openly viewed.

May (1997) defined the interview method as: "The fundamentals of interviews and interviewing are the method of continuing and generating discussions with people on a certain topic or range of themes, and the interpretations that social researchers make of the produced data."

Questionnaire (Survey)

A group of questions, including potentially some open-ended ones, from more strictly created scales or tests, according to Oppenheim (2001). Check lists, attitude scales, projective techniques, rating scales, and a number of other research methodologies may be included in a questionnaire. Closed-ended questions were included in the survey." Closed-ended surveys, according to Becker and Watts (1999), reduce time in terms of filling out, coding, and analyzing questionnaires. The primary instrument will be a questionnaire with questions that will demand both discrete and 5-point likert scale responses. Coding will be used for likert scale responses; for example, the response "Strongly disagree" will be coded as "1," "Disagree" will be coded as "2," "Neutral" will be coded as "3," "Agree" will be coded as "4", and "Strongly agree" will be coded as "5". In this study, the researcher delivered questionnaires to members of the Assembly and Unit Committee who agreed to take part in the research.

Pretesting

According to Williams (2003), a pre-test study must be conducted before actual fieldwork begins, and it should be conducted on the same sample of the research population.

Both the interview and the questionnaires needed to be pretested, according to Veal (1997) and Jennings (2003), because a pilot study is not only

useful in quantitative research but also in qualitative research. A pretest study was conducted in this study because it assisted the researchers in making appropriate modifications to the sequencing and wording of questions in interviews and questionnaires, as well as removing questions that were not useful or important to the study.

Two stages of pre-testing were conducted on the interview and questionnaire questions. To begin, my supervisor evaluated the interview and questionnaire questions to ensure that they were all appropriate and proper. Corrections were suggested and implemented. Second, the interview questions and questionnaire were put to a second round of testing. The researcher conducted pre-testing on non-sampled 20 Assembly and Unit committee members in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

The result of this indicated the instructions and scale items were clear to respondents. Also, after collecting the questionnaires, it was discovered that the respondents understood all of the questions and had no difficulty answering the questions.

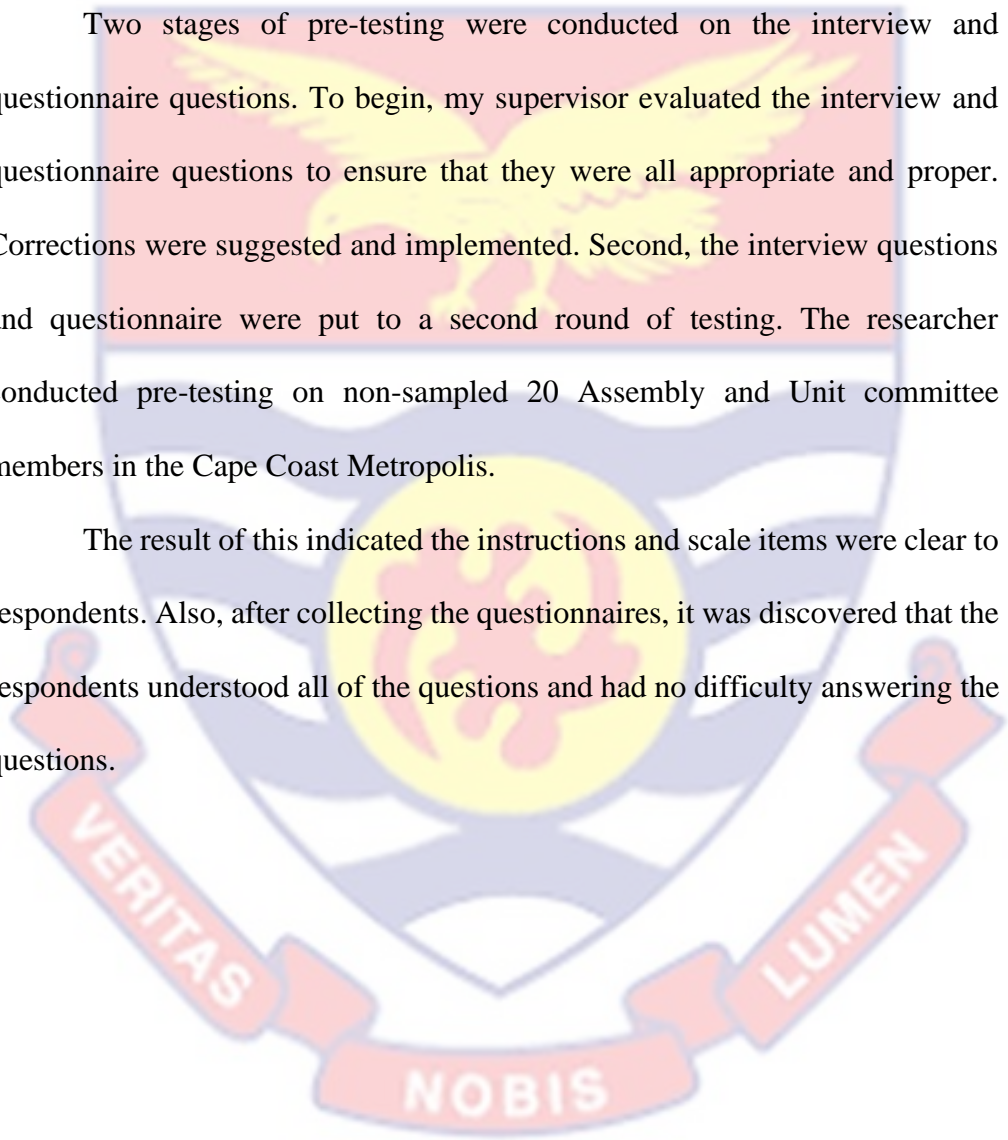


Table 2: Reliability Coefficient Score (Cronbach’s alpha value) for Data Collected during Pilot Study

No.	Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha Value
1	Level of participation in the solid waste management policy making process	6	0.763
2	Organisation of activities, project or programme on solid waste management at community or metropolitan level	5	0.839
3	Level of participation in project or programme on solid waste management in community or at the metropolitan level	5	0.816
4	Factors of Participation		
4a	Social-Political	4	0.711
4b	Trust	3	0.865
4c	Community Awareness	4	0.715
4d	Inclusiveness	3	0.704
5	Obstacles to Participation		
5a	Economic factors	4	0.783
5b	Socio-cultural factors	4	0.754
5c	Political factors	4	0.758
5d	Educational factors	3	0.780
6	Strategies to Overcome barriers to Participation		
6a	Economic Strategies	4	0.794
6b	Socio-cultural Strategies	3	0.732
6c	Political Strategies	3	0.785
6d	Educational factors	3	0.814

Considering the reliability of the questionnaire, the most commonly used statistic, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient with a minimum of .7 (De Vellis, 2012; Nunnally 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) was adopted. Cronbach’s

alpha values range from 0 to 1. All the computed alpha coefficients were greater than 0.70, thus, indicating an acceptable level of internal reliability (Bryman, 2008). Table 2 presents the results (Cronbach's alpha values) obtained for all the constructs of the study.

Data Analysis Procedure

To avoid any erroneous inferences, the data was assessed precisely and consistently. They were double-checked for content completeness and answer internal coherence. Microsoft Excel and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 26.0 for Windows were used. The information was analyzed and organized into tables. The data was summarized using means, standard deviations, and frequencies. Thematic analysis was performed on the qualitative data. Data was recorded using an audio recorder and a digital voice recorder. Taking notes provided additional backup and context for the interviews. Following the recording, the verbatim transcription of the interview responses was started as soon as possible. The original interview of the completed verbatim transcription was listened to again to ensure that the researcher becomes familiar with the data for the purposes of analysis and interpretation. To get an overall and comprehensive picture of the content and context, the entire transcribed text and field notes were read first.

Ethical Considerations

Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) asserted that "it is important to keep confidential information collected from respondents". Respondents were satisfactorily informed prior to obtaining their answers to request their consent. The research's goals and intent were made known to the respondents. Consequently, the researcher received an introductory letter and used it if a

respondent needed to be sure of the intent of the study. The researcher explained the questions to the participants and offered a guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality that nowhere on the questionnaire will their names would be published. This also inspired respondents to bring out specific problems and suggestions with respect to the aims of the study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a detailed description of the research design and methodology. This chapter reflects the general process that constituted the research design, research strategy, data collection methods and data analysis to ensure that they were consistent. The first section of the chapter began by discussing the kind of research design used and the rationales behind the use of such designs. The second section addressed issues concerning the methodology of the study and this included: the methods adopted in this research for data collection, the study area and the justification for the choice of the area, the sampling techniques, ethical issues considered, pretesting, and analysis techniques employed during the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The data collected from respondents in the study is analyzed and discussed in this chapter. It begins with an examination of respondents' biographical information, followed by an examination of replies to the research question. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In all, 187 people responded to the questionnaires, resulting in an 86.98 percent response rate.

Demographic Description of Respondents

The first part of the analysis was to capture demographic information about the respondents. This allowed the researcher to compare and contrast the responses of the respondents. Information gathered included gender, age group, occupation, sectors respondents are working in, highest educational qualification, residence and roles respondents play in their respective communities.

From Table 3, majority of the respondents as represented by 135 (72.2%) were males while 52 (27.8%) respondents were females. Again, 49 (26.7%) of the respondents age ranges between 18 and 30 years, 50 (26.7%) of the respondents age ranges between 31 and 40 years, 65 (34.8%) of the respondents age were in the ranges of 41 to 50 years, 6 (3.2%) of the respondents age ranges between 51 and 60 years and 17 (9.1%) of the respondents' age was 60 years and above. These results show that the majority of the respondents were younger adults between the ages of 41 to 50 years.

Table 3: Summary of Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Subscale	Freq.	%
Gender	Male	135	72.2
	Female	52	27.8
Age Range (In years)	18 – 30	49	26.2
	31 – 40	50	26.7
	41 – 50	65	34.8
	51 – 60	6	3.2
	Above 60	17	9.1
Sector Respondents Are Working In	Private Formal	54	28.9
	Private Informal	45	24.1
	Public Sector	81	43.3
	Other	7	3.7
Highest Educational Qualification	No Formal Education	2	1.1
	Basic School Certificate	20	10.7
	Senior School Certificate	89	47.6
	National Diploma or Certificate	43	23.0
	Bachelor’s Degree	25	13.4
	Post-Graduate	8	4.3
	Native	80	42.8
	Non native	107	57.2
Roles Respondents Play in the Community	Unit Committee Member	135	72.2
	Assembly Member	24	12.8
	Traditional Leader	18	9.6
	NGO/Solid Waste Mgt Company	10	5.3

Source: Field Data, 2021.

With regards to the level of educational, majority of the respondents as represented by 89 (47.6%) had senior school certificate, 43 (23.0%) had national diploma or certificate, 20 (10.7%) of the respondents had basic school

certificate, 25 (13.4%) of the respondents had bachelor's degree whereas 2 (1.1%) of the respondents had no formal education. Also, 8 (4.3%) respondents had completed post graduate education. It was revealed that majority (57.2%) of the respondents were not born in the communities that they reside in. In relation to roles respondents play in the community, 135 (72.2%) of the respondents were unit committee members, 24 (12.8%) of the respondents were assembly members, 18 (9.6%) of the respondents represent traditional leaders, while 10 (5.3%) respondents represent NGO/ solid waste management company.

Objective one: To examine the level of Participation in Solid Waste Management Policy at the Local Governance Level

This part of the study explores the level of participation in the solid waste management policy making process. Specifically, it sought to ascertain the extent of participation in various local government levels by respondents. Given this prelude, respondents were asked to provide their response items on the questionnaire. The responses of the participants are shown in Table 4. From Table 4, 65.2% of the respondents have not participated in ensuring the sustainability of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects at the local government level. This also recorded the lowest mean score of 1.78 (SD = 1.21) indicating that it is least participated in terms of Solid Waste Management policy process. Again, that of monitoring of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects recorded a mean level of extent of 1.88 (SD = 1.22) with 55.1% of the respondents indicating no participation of such Solid Waste Management policy process and 23.5% of the respondents rarely participated. Moreover, that of the evaluation of community Solid Waste

Management programme/projects recorded a mean level of extent of 1.57 (SD = 1.12) with 73.3% of the respondents indicating no participation of such Solid Waste Management policy process and 11.8% of the respondents rarely participated. A mean level of extent of participation of 1.90 (SD = 1.11) was recorded for the identification of Solid Waste Management programme/projects as 47.6% of the respondents indicating no participation of such Solid Waste Management policy process and 28.3% of the respondents rarely participated. Again, that of Solid Waste Management programme/projects implementation recorded a mean level of extent of participation of 4.24 with a standard deviation of 1.01. In addition, 50.8% of the respondents indicating high participation of such Solid Waste Management policy process and 8.6% of the respondents rarely participated.

The implications of the results suggest that community members do not take part in decision making regarding solid waste management in Ghana. Members of the communities are only presented with policies on sanitation and laws to comply with without being engaged on how the policies are drawn. Community members only participate in the implementation of the policies which have been drawn by the technocrats, all other processes are carried out by these technocrats. These findings are evidenced by results of Boholm, Corvellec and Karlsson (2012) and Landmore (2012). In the findings of Landmore (2012), he indicated that for several reasons, many attempts to ensure community participation in policy making have not achieved the anticipated level or quality of community engagement. This can also be attributed to the first rung of Arnstein's ladder which is non-participation. Rather community members are informed of the policies and are told what to

do to achieve the end results, thus it is during the execution stage that members of the public are really involved.



Table 4: The extent of participation in various local government levels by respondents

Variables	No Participation ... Very Highly					Mean	Std. Dev.
	Participation						
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Solid Waste Management programme/projects implementation	2.1	8.6	3.2	35.3	50.8	4.24	1.01
2. The identification of community's Solid Waste Management programme/projects	47.6	28.3	16.6	1.6	5.9	1.90	1.11
3. The monitoring of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	55.1	23.5	4.3	12.8	4.3	1.88	1.22
4. The sustainability of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	65.2	7.5	15.5	7.5	4.3	1.78	1.21
5. Evaluation of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	73.3	11.8	3.7	7.0	4.3	1.57	1.12

Source: Field Data, 2021.

This part of the study explores the level of participation in the solid waste management policy making process. Specifically, it sought to ascertain how often project or programmes on solid waste management are being organized in their community or at the metropolitan level. Given this prelude, respondents were asked to provide their response items on the questionnaire. The responses of the participants are shown in Table 5 and 6.

An interview with an officer from one of the local NGO in waste management explained:

“We are consulted mostly at the national level not at the local level. At the local level, except there are issues or challenges that is when we meet”.

An officer at the Metropolitan level said:

“The policy formulation is at the ministerial level, we don’t formulate policies at the MMDAs we only implement government policies, all that we do at our level is the bye-laws to govern our activities”.

An assembly member added:

“For bye-laws, I know the assembly members are part of drawing it so if the assembly man represents the community members, that means the community is involved just as the MPs represents us at the national level. So we are aware and even have copies of the bye-laws, we cannot involve each member of the community”.

Table 5: How often project or programmes on solid waste management are being organised in the communities or at the metropolitan level

Variables	Never Every time (%)					Mean	Std. Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
	1. Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc.	9.1	5.3	36.4	18.7		
2. Communal labour	9.1	4.3	31.6	34.2	20.9	3.53	1.142
3. Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation Day	9.1	0.0	45.5	24.6	20.9	3.48	1.104
4. Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment	15.5	9.1	37.4	21.9	16.0	3.14	1.249
5. Faith base (e.g., Christian groups, Muslim groups, etc.) clean-up exercise	24.6	10.2	54.5	9.6	1.1	2.52	1.002

Source: Field Data, 2021.

The result shows that the respondents recorded a mean score of 3.48 (SD = 1.104) for Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation day. Again, that of Communal labour recorded a mean level of extent of 3.53 (SD = 1.142). Moreover, that of Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc. recorded a mean level of extent of 3.56 (SD = 1.231). A mean level of extent of 2.52 (SD = 1.002) was recorded for Faith base (e.g., Christian groups, Muslim groups, etc.) clean-up exercise. That of Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment recorded a mean level of extent of 3.14 (SD = 1.249).

One of the assembly members quoted:

“At the assembly level, some of these policies are not formulated there, mostly it comes from the local government ministry, the assembly are only implementers of the policies so we do what we can”.

An environmental officers said:

“We only implement the policies and we need to let the people know what is in the policy. Environmental officers only educate the community members about the policies and how we think we can achieve them.”

Table 6: How Often respondents participated in project or programme on solid waste management in the community or at the metropolitan level

Variables	No Participation ... Very Highly					Mean	Std. Dev.
	Participation (%)						
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Communal labour	13.4	4.3	25.1	33.7	23.5	3.50	1.272
2. Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment	13.4	8.6	39.6	24.1	14.4	3.18	1.190
3. Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation Day	22.5	8.6	28.9	25.1	15.0	3.02	1.358
4. Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc	21.4	6.4	36.4	26.7	9.1	2.96	1.248
5. Faith base (eg, Christian groups, Muslim groups, etc) clean-up exercise	39.0	21.4	27.8	7.5	4.3	2.17	1.154

Source: Field Data, 2021.

The result shows that the respondents recorded a mean score of 3.02 (SD = 1.358) for Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation day. Again, that of Communal labour recorded a mean level of extent of 3.50 (SD = 1.272). Moreover, that of Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc. recorded a mean level of extent of 2.96 (SD = 1.248). A mean level of extent of 2.17 (SD = 1.154) was recorded for Faith base (e.g., Christian groups, Muslim groups, etc.) clean-up exercise. That of Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment recorded a mean level of extent of 3.18 (SD = 1.190).

Objective two: To assess the facilitating factors of Participation

This part of the study explores the factors that would drive/facilitate respondents to participate in the solid waste management policy making process. Specifically, it sought to ascertain the extent the factors that drive or facilitate participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level. Given this prelude, respondents were asked to provide their response items in the questionnaire. The responses of the participants are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: The extent the following factors drive/facilitate participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level

Factors	Very Low Extent Very High Extent (%)					Mean	Std. Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
Socio-Political							
1. When there is innovation in the community participation in solid waste management policy making process	0.0	9.1	21.9	49.2	19.8	3.69	0.819
2. When there is effective implementation of a policy and reform	0.0	0.0	23.0	42.8	26.2	4.03	0.733
3. When there is adequate funds for the participation process	17.1	6.4	18.7	36.4	21.4	3.59	1.203
4. When there is use of laws and regulations	1.1	0.0	40.1	43.9	15.0	3.69	0.782
Trust							
1. When there is trust and confidence	0.0	3.2	16.0	57.8	23.0	3.92	0.688
2. When the community can support effective implementation of a solid waste management project/programme	9.1	0.0	17.1	65.8	8.0	3.87	0.602
3. When community can own solid waste management infrastructure	8.0	9.1	33.7	31.6	17.6	3.63	0.905
Community Awareness							
1. When awareness on community participation in solid waste management policy making process is raised	0.0	0.0	23.0	57.2	19.8	3.88	0.604
2. Health concerns related with solid waste management	0.0	4.3	38.0	41.7	16.0	3.58	0.717
3. When there is capacity building and training	0.0	9.1	28.3	37.4	25.1	3.68	0.89
Inclusiveness							
1. When community is involved in the solid waste management policy making process	0.0	1.1	7.5	63.6	27.8	4.11	0.577
2. When community can assist in the maintenance of solid waste management infrastructure	0.0	6.4	45.5	29.4	18.7	3.48	0.791
3. When community members are willing to participate	8.0	8.0	21.9	37.4	24.6	3.85	0.916

Source: Field Data, 2021.

The result shows that the respondents recorded a mean score of 3.59 (SD = 1.203) for the level of extent that When there is adequate funds for the participation process. Again, that of When community members are willing to participate recorded a mean level of extent of 3.85 (SD = 0.916). Moreover, that of When there is use of laws and regulations recorded a mean level of extent of 3.69 (SD = 0.782). A mean level of extent of 3.58 (SD = 0.717) was recorded for Health concerns related with solid waste management. That of When community can assist in the maintenance of solid waste management infrastructure recorded a mean level of extent of 3.48 (SD = 0.791). Again, that of When there is trust and confidence recorded a mean level of extent of 3.92 (SD = 0.688). Additionally, that of When there is capacity building and training recorded a mean level of extent of 3.68 (SD = 0.890). In addition, a mean level of extent of 3.63 (SD = 0.905) was recorded for When community can own solid waste management infrastructure. When there is innovation in the community participation in solid waste management policy making process recorded a mean level of extent of 3.69 (SD = 0.819). Again, that of When awareness on community participation in solid waste management policy making process is raised recorded a mean level of extent of 3.88 (SD=0.904). Again, that of When community is involved in the solid waste management policy making process recorded a mean level of extent of 4.11 (SD = 0.577). When the community can support effective implementation of a solid waste management project/programme recorded a mean level of extent of 3.87 (SD=0.602). When there is effective implementation of a policy and reform recorded a mean level of extent of 4.03 (SD=0.733) was obtained.

A quote from one of officers at CCMA:

“The people feel they are not part of the policy, it is being imposed on them”.

By this finding, a conclusion is drawn that socio-political, trust, community awareness and inclusiveness are factors that drive or facilitate the participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level.

Objective three: To Investigate the Challenges or Obstacles to Participation

This part of the study explores the obstacles hindering community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level. Specifically, it sought to ascertain the extent the following seems as obstacles or barrier to community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level. The responses of the participants are shown in Table 8.



Table 8: The Obstacles Hindering Community Participation in the Solid Waste Management Policy Making Process at the Local

Governance Level

Obstacles	Not A Barrier ... Extremely A Barrier (%)					Mean	Std. Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
Economic and Political Barriers							
1. Politicization of issues concerning waste management	7.0	0.0	2.1	19.3	71.7	4.49	1.064
2. Weak legal framework to support community participation	0.0	7.5	7.5	29.4	55.6	4.33	0.908
3. Political Interference in the solid waste management policy making process	7.0	1.1	13.4	19.3	59.4	4.23	1.162
4. Decision makers' fear of losing influence and power	5.3	1.1	14.4	25.7	53.5	4.21	1.080
5. Lack of funds to support community participation	8.0	1.1	5.3	37.4	48.1	4.17	1.131
6. Change in leadership	15.0	9.1	12.8	27.8	35.3	3.59	1.428
7. Multiple authorities across levels of government	0.0	18.7	38.5	32.6	10.2	3.34	0.898
Cultural Barriers							
1. Difference in culture	39.6	27.3	10.2	5.3	17.6	2.34	1.481
2. Language barrier	60.4	22.5	13.9	0.0	3.2	1.63	0.949
3. Resistance to change	13.4	5.3	15.5	34.2	31.6	3.65	1.333
4. Lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues	3.7	18.2	10.7	32.1	35.3	3.77	1.216
5. Low capacity to engage in consultation	8.0	9.6	19.8	43.9	18.7	3.56	1.141
6. Lack of citizens' concern on solid waste management issues	7.5	13.4	29.4	28.9	20.9	3.42	1.177
Proximity Barriers							
1. Difficulty to reach out to certain type of community members	17.1	26.2	8.6	20.3	27.8	3.16	1.500
2. Lack of time	29.4	6.4	15.0	24.6	24.6	3.09	1.574
3. Geographical distance from decision-making centres	38.0	10.7	7.5	29.9	13.9	2.71	1.553
4. Lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management	4.3	16.0	10.7	26.2	42.8	3.87	1.246

Source: Field Data, 2021

The result shows that the respondents recorded a mean score of 3.09 (SD = 1.574) for lack of time. Again, difficulty to reach out to certain type of community members recorded a mean level of 3.16 (SD = 1.500). Moreover, geographical distance from decision-making centres recorded a mean level of 2.71 (SD = 1.553). A mean level of 4.17 (SD = 1.131) was recorded for lack of funds to support community participation. That of difference in culture recorded a mean level of 2.34 (SD = 1.481). Again, that of resistance to change recorded a mean level of extent of 3.65 (SD = 1.333). Additionally, that of language barrier recorded a mean level of 1.63 (SD = 0.949). In addition, a mean level of extent of 4.33 (SD = 0.908) was recorded for weak legal framework to support community participation. Decision makers' fear of losing influence and power as factor recorded a mean level of 4.21 (SD = 1.080). Again, that of change in leadership recorded a mean level of 3.59 (SD=1.428). Again, that of multiple authorities across levels of government recorded a mean level of extent of 3.34 (SD = 0.898). Lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management recorded a mean level of 3.87 (SD=1.246). Lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues recorded a mean level of 3.77 (SD=1.216) was obtained. That of low capacity to engage in consultation recorded a mean level of 3.56 (SD=1.141). That of lack of citizens' concern on solid waste management issues recorded a mean level of 3.42 (SD=1.177). For assembling of maintenance organization structure a mean level of 2.78 (SD=1.10) was recorded. On the issue of political interference in the solid waste management policy making process, a mean level of 4.23 (SD=1.162) was recorded. Furthermore, that of politicization of issues concerning waste management recorded a mean level of 4.49 (SD=1.064) was obtained.

One officers at CCMA quoted:

“Being aware is different from your attitude towards it so the problem now is attitude. We have used the bye-laws to sanction and prosecute some people. We arrest them, take them to court, fine them, they pay and come back to continue”.

A local NGO in waste management Officer said:

“For me, it is attitude because I have been part of the people who do education, using one-on-one, media. The attitude of the community towards waste management is very poor”.

One respondent added that the day chosen for clean up exercises is not convenient. Another also said that lack of awareness of any programme from the Metropolitan authorities to engage community members on such policy formulation is a very big hinderance. Again, lack of inclusiveness in waste management policy formulation since one does not hold any position in the community is also an hinderance.

Objective four: Strategies to Overcome the Obstacles to Participation

This part of the study explores some strategies that can be used to minimize their challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process. Specifically, it sought to ascertain the extent the following strategies help to minimize the challenges faced in the participation of solid waste management policy making process in your locality. The responses of the participants are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Strategies that can be used to minimize their challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process

Variables	Very Low Extent Very High Extent (%)					Mean	Std. Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Solid waste management should be part of curriculum at all levels of education	0.0	1.1	6.4	16.0	76.5	4.69	0.624
2. Educating of citizens on solid waste management issues	0.0	3.2	3.2	34.8	58.8	4.50	0.702
3. Community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law	0.0	4.3	10.2	29.4	56.1	4.38	0.829
4. Decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes	0.0	3.2	8.6	50.3	36.9	4.23	0.73
5. There should be capacity building for community members to engage	0.0	2.1	8.6	56.1	33.2	4.21	0.688
6. Continuity in leadership	11.2	4.8	6.4	29.9	46.5	3.96	1.329
7. Provision of funds to support community participation	0.0	1.1	33.7	35.8	29.4	3.95	0.824
8. Reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means	3.2	9.1	16.0	38.5	33.2	3.91	1.071
9. Identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities	3.2	5.3	25.7	36.9	28.9	3.83	1.012
10. Single authority for solid management activities	16.6	10.7	32.1	29.4	11.2	3.09	1.239
11. Communication should consider diversity in language	1.1	38.5	34.2	15.0	11.2	2.98	1.022
12. Developing solid waste management programmes to suit different cultures	21.4	29.4	7.5	36.4	5.3	2.75	1.305
13. Provision of means of transportation to decision-making centres	33.2	15.0	44.9	5.3	1.6	2.27	1.043

Source: Field Data, 2021.

The result shows that the respondents recorded a mean score of 3.83 (SD = 1.012) for the level of extent that identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities. Again, that of reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means recorded a mean level of extent of 3.91 (SD = 1.071). Moreover, that of provision of means of transportation to decision-making centres recorded a mean level of extent of 2.27 (SD = 1.043). A mean level of extent of 3.95 (SD = 0.824) was recorded for provision of funds to support community participation. That of developing solid waste management programmes to suit different cultures recorded a mean level of extent of 2.75 (SD = 1.305).

Again, communication should consider diversity in language recorded a mean level of extent of 2.98 (SD = 1.022). Additionally, that of community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law recorded a mean level of extent of 4.38 (SD = 0.829). In addition, a mean level of extent of 4.23 (SD = 0.730) was recorded for decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes. Suitable maintenance procedure and process as factor recorded a mean level of extent of 3.96 (SD = 1.329). Again, Single authority for solid management activities recorded a mean level of extent of 3.09 (SD=1.239). Also, Educating citizens on solid waste management issues recorded a mean level of extent of 4.50 (SD = 0.702). There should be capacity building for community members to engage recorded a mean level of extent of 4.21 (SD=0.688). Solid waste management should be part of curriculum at all levels of education recorded a mean level of extent of 4.69 (SD=0.624) was obtained.

A quote from one officer at CCMA:

“Once we are practicing the decentralization system of governance the powers should be given to the district assemblies so that they can formulate their own policies, programmes and manage their waste in their own way”.

A local NGO in waste management Officer said:

“We should move away from giving the responsibility of waste management to the local government at least we should look at the polluter-pay-principle that whoever pollutes the environment he should be prepared to pay”.

One respondent added that community members should be fined if not involved in communal labour. Another also said that people should be educated on habit of disposal. Again, one of the respondents added that there should be reintroduction of sanitary inspectors into the system for monitoring and apprehending of perpetrators. Also, ample time should be given for notice.

A quote from one of the respondents:

“There should be efficient law enforcement regime. Law should be enforced with no discrimination of offenders and it should show signs of work, like imprisonment of the offenders. Again, sensitize members of the community should be taken serious”.

Discussions

The study aims at examining community participation issues with regards to Ghana’s solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. Local beneficiary communities are provided chances to engage in the inception, planning, execution, control, and monitoring of a project cycle through community involvement. Participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process, according to Burns and Musa (2016), is defined as people of a community

participating in initiatives and policies to address their own sanitation concerns. Individuals and communities are involved in the decision-making process for solid waste management policies that have an impact on their life. This study revealed that such involvement in solid waste management policy making process is on the low side. This is evidence by majority of respondents not able to participate in sustainability of community solid waste management programme/projects (65.2% of no participation), solid waste management programme/projects implementation (2.1% of no participation and 50.8% of high participation), identification of community's solid waste management programme/projects (47.6% of no participation) and monitoring of community solid waste management programme/projects (55.1% of no participation). It is also supported with low level of participation recording means ranging between 1.90 to 1.57 participatory level on a scale of 5, except for policy implementation recording a high level of participation with a mean level of 4.24.

To be successful participants in any activity, individuals must understand when, how, and why they must contribute (Spieges, 1998). As a result, elements that promote community members' engagement in the development of solid waste management policies are critical for successful community participation. The major factor that was found to drive or facilitate participation was the inclusiveness (mean=4.11). This finding as confirmed by Oakley & Marsden, 1991 that 'a healthy community cherishes diversity and acknowledges that everyone has the right to be heard and participate in choices that affect them.' Poverty, illiteracy, handicap, age, gender, and ethnicity are all obstacles to community decision-making. People that are likely to be marginalized are sought out and helped to participate in the community

involvement method. Every initiative, according to Kinyondi (2008), needs the identification of these people and the encouragement of their involvement.

Another factor found was trust and confidence (mean=3.92) just as proclaimed by Kamuiru (2014) that, building trust is the glue that holds organizations and communities together. Kamuiru added that, trust is a shared belief that no party involved in the exchange of ideas will take advantage of others. Trust is becoming a major issue in public resources management. Rahn and Rudolph (2002) revealed numerous community development project benefits associated with having high levels of public trust, including the ability to gain compliance with local communities and encourage positive beliefs for beneficiaries. If citizens in a community hold each other accountable for their acts over time, a foundation for trust can be established. Another factor is the level of awareness (mean=3.88). Awareness-raising assists in the breaking down of social, superstitious, and other barriers among community members through information sharing and discussion. Citizens require information on the topic in order to express their opinions and participate in public decision-making. It is hard to create a civic engagement process unless individuals involved have a high level of education and understanding of the issue(s).

In the findings, it was revealed that the obstacles that hindering community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level were politicization of issues concerning waste management (mean=4.49), weak legal framework to support community participation (mean=4.33), political interference in the solid waste management policy making process (mean=4.23), decision makers' fear of losing influence and power (mean=4.21), lack of funds to support community

participation (mean=4.17), lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management (mean=3.87), lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues (mean=3.77), resistance to change (mean=3.65) and change in leadership (mean=3.56). Politicians' interference in community development projects is geared to gain and maintain their popularity. This finding contrasts with the study of Kumar and Corbridge (2002), who concluded that a fundamental obstacle impacting local people's participation in the policy-making process is the notion that they lack sufficient knowledge and skills to assume control of projects. However, according to Baku and Agyeman (2002), the primary barriers to community engagement were improper meeting timing, local government inability to communicate information, and a general tepid attitude among residents due to a lack of interest in participating. Local empowerment ideas ran contrary to local authorities' "elite mentality," which regards the rural population as uneducated and lacking in initiative to contribute to policy, a mindset inherited from colonial past. In most cases, the local government officials accused the steering committee of acting as agents of political parties, preventing full commitment and engagement from the local community.

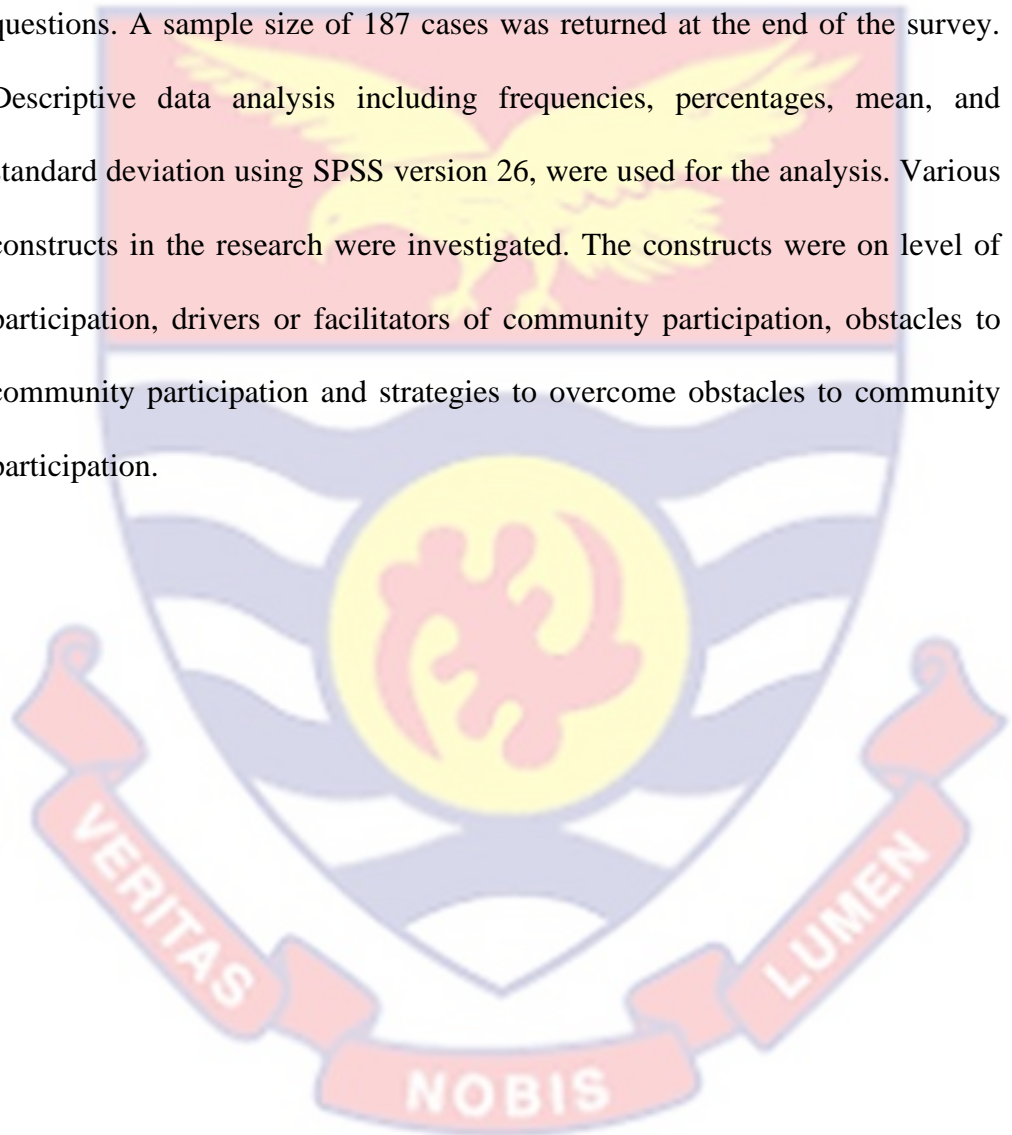
Again, the perceived strategies that can be used to minimise the challenges faced in the participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process were solid waste management should be part of curriculum at all levels of education (mean=4.69), educating of citizens on solid waste management issues (mean=4.50), community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law (mean=4.38), decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes (mean=4.23),

there should be capacity building for community members to engage (mean=4.21), continuity in leadership (mean=3.96), provision of funds to support community participation (mean=3.95), reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means (mean=3.91), identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities (mean=3.83) and single authority for solid management activities (mean=3.09). Other strategies that were revealed but have low impact were communication should consider diversity in language (mean=2.98), developing solid waste management programmes to suit different cultures (mean=2.75) and provision of means of transportation to decision-making centres (mean=2.27).

Participatory governance techniques have been widely promoted in developing countries. They are considered to offer several public policy benefits, such as enhanced accountability and better public services. When a community participates, it provides information about its preferences and receives data that can assist it in making the best decision possible. People would not rely on the government to solve all their problems, but would instead take appropriate actions to address them (Speer, 2012). When citizens connect with government through public participation initiatives, they are more likely to believe that they are receiving relevant policy information. People who participate grow more self-reliant and rely less on others. People would not rely on the government to solve all their problems, but instead would take appropriate actions to address their concerns. It also helps with the evaluation and measurement of development programs. Community participation results in improved delivery of public goods and services, better maintained community assets, and a more educated and engaged population.

Chapter Summary

The data collected from respondents in the study has been analyzed in this chapter. It began with an examination of respondents' bio data (which were the respondents' background was based on their sex, age group, level of education and so on), followed by an analysis of responses to the research questions. A sample size of 187 cases was returned at the end of the survey. Descriptive data analysis including frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation using SPSS version 26, were used for the analysis. Various constructs in the research were investigated. The constructs were on level of participation, drivers or facilitators of community participation, obstacles to community participation and strategies to overcome obstacles to community participation.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the study's key findings. A basic conclusion is also offered based on all of the evidence. Recommendations or suggestions that may assist improve community participation in Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis based on the results and conclusions presented. Finally, the chapter concludes with a suggestion for future study directions in the topic under consideration.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to examine community participation issues with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. The secondary purposes were to (1) examine the level of participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process, (2) assess the factors that facilitates the participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process, (3) investigate the challenges faced by community members in participating in solid waste management policy making, and (4) explore some perceived strategies that can be used to minimise the challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process.

The study was to provide researchers, policy makers and the public with the participation mechanism through which they can make decisions for the development of policies and programmes at MMDAs. The study was also to

assist the top management at MMDAs to adopt the best practices that could help community members in their role in improving decision making process at the local government level.

A total of 187 respondents were randomly sampled for the study. Questionnaire was employed as instrument for collecting data. The study used IBM SPSS version 26 to analyse the data. Statistical techniques used for the study were frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. The study revealed some key issues which are crucial to improving community participation with regards to Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. These key findings were presented under the various research objectives.

1. The study revealed that majority of the respondents were unit committee members, followed by assembly members, traditional leaders, and those in NGO/ solid waste management company.
2. Majority of the respondents age were in the ranges of 41 to 50 years, followed by those in age ranges between 31 and 40 years, 18 and 30 years, 60 years and above and 51 and 60 years. This shows that most of the respondents are within the youthful age.
3. The study revealed that majority of respondents do not participate in sustainability of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects (49.2% of no participation), Solid Waste Management programme/projects implementation and evaluation (47.1% of no participation), provision of local content in Solid Waste Management programme/projects execution (46.5% of no participation), identification of community's Solid Waste Management

programme/projects (39.6% of no participation) and monitoring of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects (35.8% of no participation). This is supported with low level of participation recording means ranging between 2.09 to 2.53 participatory level on a scale of 5.

4. Majority of the respondents added that faith base clean-up exercise (54.5%), clean-up exercise on national sanitation day (45.5%), clean-up exercise during festivals, holidays and so on (36.4%), sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment (37.4%) and Communal labour (31.6%) are organised occasionally. On the average, clean-up exercise during festivals, holidays, and so on have the high level of frequency of organisation as compared to the others, while faith base clean-up exercise turn to be on the lower side. However, when it comes to participation, it was on the moderate side with mean ranging from 2.17 to 3.50 on a scale of 5.
5. Factors that drive or facilitate participation were inclusiveness (mean=4.11), effective implementation of policy and reform (mean=4.03), trust and confidence (mean=3.92), level of awareness (mean=3.88), support from community (mean=3.87), willingness on the side of the community (mean=3.85), use of law and regulation (mean=3.69), innovations (mean=3.69), capacity building and training (mean=3.68) and ownership of solid waste management infrastructure by the community (mean=3.63).
6. Again, it was revealed that the obstacles hindering community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at

the local governance level were politicization of issues concerning waste management (mean=4.49), weak legal framework to support community participation (mean=4.33), political interference in the solid waste management policy making process (mean=4.23), decision makers' fear of losing influence and power (mean=4.21), lack of funds to support community participation (mean=4.17), lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management (mean=3.87), lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues (mean=3.77), resistance to change (mean=3.65) and change in leadership (mean=3.56).

7. Moreover, the strategies suggested by the respondents to be used to minimize the challenges faced in the participation in the solid waste management policy making process were solid waste management should be part of curriculum at all levels of education (mean=4.69), educating of citizens on solid waste management issues (mean=4.50), community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law (mean=4.38), decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes (mean=4.23), there should be capacity building for community members to engage (mean=4.21), continuity in leadership (mean=3.96), provision of funds to support community participation (mean=3.95), reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means (mean=3.91), identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities (mean=3.83) and single authority for solid management activities (mean=3.09). Other strategies that were revealed but have low impact were communication should

consider diversity in language (mean=2.98), developing solid waste management programmes to suit different cultures (mean=2.75) and provision of means of transportation to decision-making centres (mean=2.27).

Conclusions

A range of conclusions may be derived from the study's findings. It was identified that the level of participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process is very low as majority do not participate in the solid waste management programme/projects implementation, execution, monitoring and evaluation processes. Again, solid waste management activities like clean-up exercise on national sanitation day, clean-up exercise during festivals, holidays and so on, sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment, communal labour are organised occasionally with moderate level of participation of the community members.

It was identified that the factors that facilitates the participation of community members in the solid waste management policy making process were inclusiveness, effective implementation of policy and reform, trust and confidence, level of awareness, support from community, willingness on the side of the community, use of law and regulation, innovations, capacity building and training and ownership of solid waste management infrastructure by the community.

The challenges faced by community members in participating in solid waste management policy making were politicization of issues concerning waste management, weak legal framework to support community participation, political interference in the solid waste management policy making process,

decision makers' fear of losing influence and power, lack of funds to support community participation, lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management, lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues, resistance to change and change in leadership.

Finally the perceived strategies that can be used to minimise the challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process were inclusion of solid waste management as part of curriculum at all levels of education, educating of citizens on solid waste management issues, community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law, decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes, there should be capacity building for community members to engage, continuity in leadership, provision of funds to support community participation, reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means, identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities and single authority for solid management activities.

Recommendations

Based on the results and conclusions of this study, a variety of measures might be implemented to ensure that community engagement in Ghana's solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level improves. The following recommendations are made:

1. The study recommends that management of the assembly should be trust worthy in carrying out their duties and promises on the various projects in the community. This will build the trust and confidence the community members have in their representative to enhance community participation in the solid waste management policy making process.

2. Again, the study recommends that the Metropolitan assembly should take the sensitization and education of the general public serious. This will help increase the level of participation of community members. The assembly should also strategies to engage the community thorough in the solid waste management policy making process, so when laws are enforced, people would adhere to it.

Future Research

Further studies should be conducted to examine factors related to ineffective implementation of solid waste management policies. Further study to examine the direct influence of the independent variables on the ineffective implementation of solid waste management policies with community participation being an intervening variable should be recommended to buttress fully the existing policies guiding the solid waste management policy making process as this is lacking in the present study. This study can be replicated in other areas where features of solid waste management policy making process may vary. It can also be extended to cover the whole country, Ghana.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am an MPhil student of University of Cape Coast, who is conducting an academic research on the Topic: “Community Participation in Solid Waste Management Policy Making Process at the Local Government Level in Ghana”. The purpose of this research is to examine community participation issues with regards to Ghana’s solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level in Cape Coast Metropolis. The information you provide is mainly for academic purposes. I therefore assure you of total confidentiality and anonymity. Please be informed that participation in this study is voluntary.

Thank you

Roseline Nketsiah-Essuon

MPhil Public Policy and Management Student

Please answer the following questions by ticking (✓) in the relevant box or writing in the space provided.

SECTION A: PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENT AND THE FIRM

1. What is your gender?	1		2	
	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Please, how old are you?				
18 – 30	31 – 40	41 – 50	51 – 60	Above 60
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

3. What is your occupation?		
Occupation	Tick One	
Unemployed	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Student	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Employed	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Self-employed	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Other, please specify	<input type="checkbox"/>	5

4. If working, what sector are you in?		
Sector	Tick One	
Public Sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
NGO	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Private formal	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Private Informal	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Other, please specify	<input type="checkbox"/>	5

5. What is your highest qualification?		
Qualification	Tick One	
No Formal Education	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Basic School Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Senior School Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
National Diploma or Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Bachelor's Degree and above	<input type="checkbox"/>	5

6. What is name of the community you stay in Cape Coast Metropolis?

7. Please, how long (years) have you lived or stayed in the community?				
1-4	5 – 8	9 -12	13 – 16	Above 16
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

8. Are you a native of the community?		
Response	Tick One	
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
No	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Don't Know	<input type="checkbox"/>	3

9. Which of the following category do belong in the community?		
Classification	Tick One	
As a Unit Committee Member	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
As an Assembly Member	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
As a Traditional Leader	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Works with NGO (into Solid Waste Management)	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
A member of a Youth Group in the community	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
No role in the community	<input type="checkbox"/>	6

Section B: Participation in solid waste management policy at the Local Governance level

10. This section of the questionnaire explores your level of participation in the solid waste management policy making process.

Please indicate your level of participation using the Likert scale provided below:

1 = No Participation

2 = Rare Participation

3 = Moderate Participation

4 = High Participation

5 = Very High Participation

To what extent do you participate in the following at the local government level?

Activities					
The identification of community's Solid Waste Management programme/projects	1	2	3	4	5
The monitoring of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	1	2	3	4	5
The sustainability of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	1	2	3	4	5
Solid Waste Management programme/projects implementation	1	2	3	4	5
Provision of local content in Solid Waste Management programme/projects execution	1	2	3	4	5
Evaluation of community Solid Waste Management programme/projects	1	2	3	4	5

11. How often does the following activities, project or programme on solid waste management been organised in the community or at the metropolitan level?

- 1 = Never (N),
- 2 = Almost never (AN),
- 3 = Occasionally/Sometimes (OS),
- 4 = Almost every time (AT),
- 5 = Every time (ET).

Response	1	2	3	4	5
Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation day	1	2	3	4	5
Communal labour	1	2	3	4	5
Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc	1	2	3	4	5
Faith base clean-up exercise	1	2	3	4	5
Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment	1	2	3	4	5

12. How often have you participated in the following project or programme on solid waste management in community or at the metropolitan level?

- 1 = No Participation
- 2 = Rare Participation
- 3 = Moderate Participation
- 4 = High Participation
- 5 = Very High Participation

Response	1	2	3	4	5
Clean-up exercise on National Sanitation day	1	2	3	4	5
Communal labour	1	2	3	4	5
Occasional Community clean-up exercise such as during festivals, holidays, etc	1	2	3	4	5
Faith base clean-up exercises	1	2	3	4	5
Voluntary Sensitization of the public or the community on cleaning of the environment	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Factors of Participation

13. This section of the questionnaire explores the factors that drive/facilitate your participation in the solid waste management policy making process.

Please indicate the level of extent using the Likert scale provided below:

- 1 = Very Low Extent (VLE),
- 2 = Low Extent (LE),
- 3 = Moderate Extent (ME),
- 4 = High Extent (HE),
- 5 = Very High Extent (VHE).

To what extent do the following factors drive/facilitate your participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level?

Factors of Participation					
Social-Political					
When there is innovation in the community participation in solid waste management policy making process	1	2	3	4	5
When there is effective implementation of a policy and reform	1	2	3	4	5
When there is adequate funds for the participation process	1	2	3	4	5
When there is use of laws and regulations	1	2	3	4	5
Trust					
When there is trust and confidence	1	2	3	4	5

When community can own solid waste management infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5
When community can assist in the maintenance of solid waste management infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5
Community Awareness					
Health concerns related with solid waste management	1	2	3	4	5
When awareness on community participation in solid waste management policy making process is raised	1	2	3	4	5
When there is capacity building and training	1	2	3	4	5
When there is rise of awareness on solid waste management risks	1	2	3	4	5
Inclusiveness					
When community members are willing to participate	1	2	3	4	5
When community is involved in the solid waste management policy making process	1	2	3	4	5
When the community can support effective implementation of a solid waste management project/programme	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Obstacles to Participation

14. This section of the questionnaire explores the obstacles hindering community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level.

Please indicate the level of barrier using the Likert scale provided below:

- 1 = Not a Barrier (1B),
- 2 = Slightly of a Barrier (2B),
- 3 = Somewhat of a Barrier (3B),
- 4 = Moderately a Barrier (4B),
- 5 = Extremely a Barrier (5B).

To what extent do the following are obstacles or barrier to community participation in the solid waste management policy making process at the local governance level?

Obstacles to Participation					
Economic factors					
Lack of time	1	2	3	4	5
Difficulty to reach out to certain type of community members	1	2	3	4	5
Geographical distance from decision-making centres	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of funds to support community participation	1	2	3	4	5
Socio-cultural factors					
Difference in culture	1	2	3	4	5
Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5

Language barrier	1	2	3	4	5
Weak legal framework to support community participation	1	2	3	4	5
Political factors					
Decision makers' fear of losing influence and power	1	2	3	4	5
Change in leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Multiple authorities across levels of government	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of community participating in decision making on solid waste management	1	2	3	4	5
Educational factors					
Lack of citizens' awareness on solid waste management issues	1	2	3	4	5
Low capacity to engage in consultation	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of citizens' concern on solid waste management issues	1	2	3	4	5

15. What other challenge(s) do you face in participating in solid waste management policy making

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Section E: Strategies to overcome the obstacles to Participation

16. This section of the questionnaire explores some strategies that can be used to minimize their challenges faced in their participation in the solid waste management policy making process.

Please indicate the level of extent using the Likert scale provided below:

- 1 = Very Low Extent (VLE),
- 2 = Low Extent (LE),
- 3 = Moderate Extent (ME),
- 4 = High Extent (HE),
- 5 = Very High Extent (VHE).

To what extent can the following strategies help to minimize the challenges faced in you participation in the solid waste management policy making process in your locality.

Strategies to Overcome barriers to Participation					
Economic Strategies					
Identifying appropriate time for solid waste management activities	1	2	3	4	5
Reaching out to all types of community members using appropriate means	1	2	3	4	5

Provision of means of transportation to decision-making centres	1	2	3	4	5
Provision of funds to support community participation	1	2	3	4	5
Socio-cultural Strategies					
Developing solid waste management programmes to suit different cultures	1	2	3	4	5
Communication should consider diversity in language	1	2	3	4	5
Community participation in solid waste management should be backed by law	1	2	3	4	5
Political Strategies					
Decision makers should have confidence in the participation processes	1	2	3	4	5
Continuity in leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Single authority for solid management activities	1	2	3	4	5
Educational factors					
Educating of citizens on solid waste management issues	1	2	3	4	5
There should be capacity building for community members to engage	1	2	3	4	5
Solid waste management should be part of curriculum at all levels of education	1	2	3	4	5

17. What other strategy (ies) do you proposed to help minimize the challenges faced in your participation in the solid waste management policy making process in your locality

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APPENDIX B

STUDY OFFICIALS INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Please give a brief biography of yourself. What is your highest education attained? How long have you been working in the assembly?
2. What national legislation or policy and bylaws exist to regulate solid waste management in this municipal area?
3. Do you know how these laws are made? Top down/bottom up.
4. Does the average citizen know about the laws of waste management or follow them? If NO, Why?
5. Are offenders of these laws prosecuted? If yes, how are they prosecuted?
6. Do you know of the community participation and awareness program for environmental sanitation? What are the goals of this plan for solid waste management?
7. Are the goals for the community participation and awareness program being realized? If so, what are some achievements/challenges?
8. How are individuals, households, communities engaged or involved in waste management?
9. Are there community-based organizations or NGOs that provide any source of assistance towards solid waste collection, transport or disposal?
10. Are there any annual, quarterly or monthly review on waste management implementation and enforcement data available for cape coast?
11. Why is waste still a big problem within Ghana despite having implementation plans like the community participation and awareness program?

12. What can be done to make the community participation and public awareness program effective to promote sustainable solid waste management?
13. Overall, how is waste management program “community participation and awareness” funded?
14. In your opinion as a government official, who is most responsible for waste management?
15. Is there any comment you will want to give with respect to managing waste in your area and the country as a whole?

