

**THE DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES AND SELF-HELP  
DEVELOPMENT IN THE GOMOA DISTRICT  
OF THE CENTRAL REGION**



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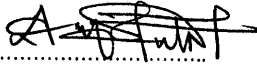
**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

***MAY, 2003***

## DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

I, Adu-Nyarko Andorful, author of this Thesis, do hereby declare that except for references to other people's work which have been duly acknowledged, the work presented here was done by me as a student of the Institute of Adult Education, University of Ghana, Legon, 2000 / 2002. This work has never been submitted in whole or in part for any degree of this University.

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my parents Mr. Augustine Andorful and Madam Grace Bentil for their willingness to support my education to this level.

To my wife and children, for the extremely unbearable sacrifices they made, which in no small way contributed to the success of my study.

Finally, to my brothers and sisters, I thank you all for your support whenever I needed one.

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## **ABSTRACT**

The objective of the study was to look at self-help development in relation to the role that has been played by the District Assembly in that direction. Seven research questions and three hypotheses were studied. Descriptive statistics and the Chi-Square ( $X^2$ ) statistic were used to analyse the data. The study took into consideration the independent and dependent variables of interest in this study.

The study found out that one way of empowering the people to engage in self-help development was access to information. The majority of the respondents (91.4%) got information from the Assembly through the Assembly Members. It was also realised that the Assembly Members had helped their people in several ways towards achieving self-help development. Some however, indicated that they lobbied at the Assembly before they got development projects to their electoral areas from the District Assembly.

The District Assembly has helped the various communities with infrastructural facilities but the help favoured the urban areas more than the rural communities. In addition, while some communities have realised the need to participate in self-help development, others did not participate because of non-transparency and misconceptions about community development activities. They thought that community development was the responsibility of the government. The hypothesis that non-participation in community based development projects by the people of the communities has contributed to increasing level of poverty among the people in the district was supported by the findings of the study.

In allocating resources, respondents were of the view that the District Assembly has to make the people get the necessary requirements for their self-help projects. The study also found out that holistic approach to policy implementation and poor timing have affected development activities. Thus, financial assistance to the people was either delayed or that the conditions attached to such assistance were not favourable to the recipients. Above all these, the people suffered from ineffective mobilisation of resources. Patronage has crippled communities that received help from individuals making the people dependent on the goodwill of the patrons.

The hypothesis that low level of commitment on the part of the leaders has contributed to the slow pace of development activities in the district was not supported. Respondents revealed that though the local leaders were committed towards development, they had at the same time distanced themselves from the communities and the people.

The local institutions for development had not collaborated effectively to rekindle self-help activities. This was due to the fact that the Area Councils and Unit Committees were virtually non-existing. The hypothesis that lack of collaboration and coordination between the Gomoa District Assembly and the Area/Unit Committees has contributed to the inability of the district to mobilise resources in the district for development was supported by the findings of the study.



## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.0

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the study

In contrast to industrialized countries, where co-ordination of services predominantly aims at improving the quality of life of people generally, developing countries today face major problems of improving the rural areas. There exist mass unemployment, under-employment and mass migration to the cities. After several decades of attempts to reverse these trends, the task turns out to be much difficult than many thought. The search for happy life and freedom from a struggle for the satisfaction of basic needs still seem to be further than ever (Schumacher, 1973). Increasingly, accentuated forms of 'dual economy' not only separate the world into rich and poor countries, but also into various degrees of poverty.

Two ways of life exist side by side in such a manner. Daily and monthly incomes differ. A daily income in a developing country is in multiples of the developed partner. In the dual economy of a typical country, we may find fifteen percent of the population in the urban sector, mainly confined to one or two big cities. The other eighty-five percent exist in the rural areas and small towns. In the same way, most of the development efforts go into the big cities, which means 85% of the population are largely by-passed. Schumacher (1973) simply assumes that the big cities will grow until they have absorbed almost the entire population, which is of course, what has happened in many of the highly developed countries. This is utterly unrealistic. Even the richest countries are groaning

under the burden, which such a mal-distribution of population inevitably imposes (Schumacher, 1973).

The critical issue is whether or not there is an alternative to the advancement of a process that Schumacher calls 'mutual poisoning' whereby successful industrial development in the city destroys the economy of the hinterland through mass migration to the city. In most developing countries, a gradual shift in emphasis from urban to rural development could be seen. This is where the mass of the population resides and where the most serious but potential problems are found.

Analysis of the basic problems and subsequent answers of how to change the situation starts from varying angles. There are those who demand more and massive aid to compensate for neglect and exploitation in the past. Others claim that aid merely causes more dependency and the only way out is to increase support for models emphasizing 'self-reliance' (Nyerere, 1967). A third group optimistically advocates the increased use of technology so that under-industrialized countries may be helped to by-pass the industrial age of computer technology (Theobald, 1972). A fourth and growing group of analysts advocate a change in basic value structure with emphasis on people rather than goods and on permanence rather than growth (Schumacher, 1973). In some ways, the development of closer links between the government and community could be built upon all four of these seemingly contradictory proposals.

## **1.2 Rural development initiatives**

The concept of development, like its kindred notions of growth and modernization, has its historical and intellectual roots in the period of major social changes associated with

the industrial revolution, or what Kumar (1978) called the 'Great Transformation', when industrial and social change in Europe became synonymous with social progress. Throughout the century that followed, and often in the face of strong counter currents challenging this simple orthodoxy (Kitching, 1982), development in the eyes of most people (experts and laymen alike) came to be identified with some kind of stage-by-stage movements towards more 'modern', technologically and economically 'advanced' forms of society such as the industrial nations.

By the mid-twentieth century the dominant image of social change was modernization, the process by which so-called traditional social structures are transformed into those of a more modern type, along the lines of what happened at an earlier stage in Europe (Smelser, 1963; Smith, 1973). Following the Second World War (1945), the industrial nations, and especially those with colonies or ex-colonies were increasingly confronted with the economic and political problems of the poorer nations. Then came the modernization theory mounted by the 'dependency' and 'underdevelopment' writers (Frank, 1967; Dos Santos, 1973) who argued that it was impossible to understand the process and problems of development without locating them within the wider sociological context of the expansion of mercantile and industrial capitalism to the poorer, more 'peripheral' countries.

In the past two decades, a holistic view of "resource development" has taken the stage and promoted a more inclusive perspective that includes most activities of non-profit fund raising activities. That broader function is now known as "development". The term

**“development” is used to describe the entire process of resource acquisition for organizations and institutions” (Shafritz, 1998:669).**

Development is the slogan of the worldwide revolution of raising aspirations. It has various meanings to different groups. In many countries, development means industrialization. To some, it symbolizes the achievement of political independence. In others it connotes opportunity for education, the construction of a huge dam, rural land reform, the building of skyscrapers, steel mills and television networks, or the achievement of instantaneous worldwide communications and modern jet airplane level (Anderson and Bowman, 1971).

From the sociological and political front development in the process of modernization comes with analyses primarily on the building of social and political institutions, concerned with the accumulation of savings, investments, national income, productivity, and trade balances. Economists equate development with economic growth. Development means change requiring rapid innovation. For a country to achieve development, it must adopt and put to work a broad succession of new ideas that will match today's progress. Successful development depends upon making a society change – consciousness.

### **1.3 Self-help development**

The issue of development does not occur in a vacuum. It does exist in a system that has several factors acting together for the desired results. In this vein, the policy maker, the policy implementer and those whom the policy affects have to come into play. With the participation and involvement of the beneficiaries of a development programme, the

successful end of the programme cannot be easily predicted. The logical conclusion of such a phenomenon is that development projects need to be self-help oriented. In all countries, the need for self-help to enhance improvement in living conditions cannot be ignored. Self-help activities assist to supplement government funding of most development projects. In this vein, community development could not continue in Ghana without self-help contributions from the people through their own initiatives. The communities need to be educated to realize that they can achieve development only when they are able to identify their felt needs. This in effect can be realized through education.

The call for self-help development is not new in the annals of the nation. While launching the Two-Year Development Plan in 1968, Lt. Gen. J. A. Ankrah, (The Head of State and Chairman of the National Liberation Council Government) stressed that community development process depended on the government and the people. He identified that the programme was primarily geared towards the rural population where the people needed development most and that self-help projects fell under the development budget and has to be given impetus (Oduro-Ameyaw, 1994).

Dr K. A. Busia, the Prime Minister of the Second Republic of Ghana, announced that the government programme for community development in rural areas was of two forms which were the construction of self-help projects and other environmental amenities like schools, post offices, clinics, day care centres, community centres as well as construction of model villages and townships. The Government in 1970 subsequently made budgetary allocations throughout Ghana. The SMC I government in 1977 made a similar call and charged the Ministry of Economic Planning with the responsibility of raising the standard

of living of the rural population through the Community Development Division. This was not to be imposed on the communities but through adult education for the people to realize their needs (Oduro-Amoyaw, 1994).

From the foregoing, self-help development could be perceived as the abilities of communities to embark on infrastructure projects for their own benefits. Assessing the situation critically one is left without an option than to agree with Batten (1967) that community development includes the development which are freely chosen and undertaken by the local communities themselves with a recognized pattern. They are stimulated by “group organizers” and have become aware of common needs through repeated discussions. They have thus accepted the responsibility of pooling their intelligence, manpower and local resources to attack one specific problem or need; and then organize to solve the problem or tackle the needed projects through self-help and in some cases seek assistance from outside; and finally develop group responsibilities which lead them to tackle other projects.

#### **1.4 Common Elements of the Self-help Process**

The community organization process is essentially the development of a creative partnership between the community and government. During the early phases of development, the responsibility for socio-economic and environmental improvements is transferred gradually from the agencies of change to the rural residents themselves. The aim of the self-help process according to WCARRD, is improved social welfare through economic “growth and equality” (Titmus, 1989). In order to build the partnership

between the **community and the government**, several preparatory phases can be identified.

One of the most important steps in the self-help process has been the creation of co-operation groups, specifically the creation of village committees or similar **community decision-making bodies**. The World Health Organization for example has advocated the formulation of rural health committees to assist the community to become responsible for environmental factors such as clean water supplies, sewage and sanitation, and. Titmus (1989) writes that in the United States, community voluntary groups have long played an important and active role in the prevention and treatment of mental illness, life-style diseases such as alcoholism and drug dependency, and the promotion of physical fitness. These voluntary community committees play advocacy role and influence on social policy and programme services.

One of the early steps in the self-help process is that, community members are brought together for the purpose of discussing and identifying common problems. Usually a **change agent (an animator)** or a facilitator coordinates the dialogue process. As community members begin to take control of the problem, the change agent **gradually withdraws** from the **problem-solving** process. The community membership assumes responsibility for **managing and controlling the local programme**.

The basic elements of the **self-help** process are common to most decision-making activities. Once the community members are mobilized and have identified the cause or source of the problem, they are helped to set realistic objectives for cooperation action. This involves assessing the present situation in relation to the ideal or desired goal.

Various solutions work best in an environment in which the opinion, the intelligence and experience of the community members are respected (Titmus, 1989).

As rural communities begin to develop and take greater responsibilities for social, economic and environmental programs, the need for training and human resources development will continue to grow. In the same direction the stages of the self-help process which form the basis of community organization activity, that is, the consultation process needs assessment, trial, adoption and evaluation of new ideas and practices, will continue to require support from voluntary, national and international sector. The need for organizational integration will become more important as more and more rural development projects are undertaken in developing countries by community organizations and institutions.

The emphasis on integrated rural development programme has the desired goals of income generation, economic growth, population control, improved sanitation and so on. But planners should not lose sight of the overall goal of development, which is the improved quality of life. The community organization process and integrated rural development planning provide a practical formula for identifying the causes of rural poverty. This also helps for achieving consensus at the community level as to which approaches for development are most compatible with local values and ways of life.

### 1.5 The Role of the State in Rural Development

A local government denotes a sub-governmental unit created by the central government for the purpose of administering the local area (Prah, 1998). "Decentralisation", according to the Local Government Information Digest (LGID), "involves only a

minimum power transfer from central government, ministry of departments to offices outside the headquarters without shifting authority to decide on how those delegated functions are performed” (LGID 12(2), 1999:40). Decentralisation as practised in Ghana can be seen basically from two angles. These are devolution and de-concentration (that is, political and administrative decentralisation respectively).

A tribute is paid to the members of the “Akuse Group”, who were encamped in Akuse for two weeks in 1987 coming out with the “blue book” that gave birth to the Local Government Law of 1988 and the Local Government Act 1993 (Act 462). This blueprint underpinned the entire local government reform and decentralisation programmes (LGID, 13(3), 2000).

#### **1.6 Issues that affect self-help development**

Just as the definitions of poverty are multidimensional, so are the assets poor people need to move out of poverty. Five kinds of assets are particularly important in an overall context of powerlessness. These are the body, organisational ability, information, education, and ideas and entrepreneurship.

Often a poor person’s only asset is the body that is weak, hungry, exhausted, and poor in appearance. To remain an asset than a liability requires measures to protect the health of the poor: provision of health care, water, sanitation and energy-serving services that poor people can access, afford and are willing to use. Organisational ability refers to those who can organise and mobilise, get their voices heard and their interests represented. The rich are organised and connected, but the poor invariably are not. They depend primarily

on their own **informal and fragmented** networks, making it difficult for them to gain access to other assets and resources (Tamakloe, 2001).

As regards information poor people are cut off from information about their rights as workers, pensioners, and citizens, as well as about jobs, resources and assistance programmes. The more people are connected to each other, the more their bargaining power towards issues affecting them. For example, the experience of Bangladesh's Grameen Bank, which makes loans available to rural, landless, often illiterate, poor women for the purchase of cellular telephones, shows that poor people in these villages, armed with information about market prices, are able to negotiate better prices for their goods with middlemen (Tamakloe, 2001).

One other issue is that, faced with harsh realities, many poor parents cannot afford to send their children to school (or keep them in school). There is the need for providing scholarship programmes for girls and boys when needed, compensating parents for the lost labour of their children. On ideas and entrepreneurship, rich people easily get financial institutions to support their ideas and provide property rights for them. Poor people know that their very survival depends on the resources controlled by others. With few options they remain silent witnesses to exploitation and poor governance.

Community development aims at helping local people to identify and articulate their needs and problems, stimulating the participation of individuals and families in community affairs, encouraging self-help action and relating "grass-roots" efforts to larger developmental objectives (United Nations, 1968 in Brown, 1986). Self-help projects are manifested mainly in infrastructure projects, which are essentially felt-needs



of the various communities themselves with technical advice and guidance given by officers of the department concerned (Boateng, 1986).

No community development programme can succeed without the active support and participation of the people themselves. Thus programmes should be so organised as to provide opportunities for maximum self-help. Encouragement should be given for the people to actually plan and work on the solution of their problems themselves. This enables them to develop self-initiative, self-reliance and their own leadership (Bown and Tomori, 1978).

A study conducted as background to the World Development Report 2000/2001 showed that the poor are frequently powerless to influence the social and economic factors that determine their well being. Poor people consistently emphasise the centrality of material opportunities: jobs, credit, roads, electricity, and markets for their produce, as well as schools, clean water, sanitation services and health care.

Actions to improve the functioning of state and social institutions improve both growth and equity by reducing bureaucratic and social constraints on economic action and social mobility. Involving communities in setting budget priorities as was done in Porto Alegre, Brazil, can help to focus public action on social priorities. Decentralisation, if accompanied by adequate financial and technical resources as well as participatory mechanisms to prevent domination by local elites, can make state institutions more responsive to poor people by increasing the interactions with them (World Development Report, 2000/2001).



Disseminating information and community-based evaluations can make bureaucracies more accountable and responsive. In Uganda, for example, newspapers and the radio have begun announcing the amounts of resources schools receive. Since this practice has been put in place, schools have kept close to 100 percent in the past. In India, the “report card” on Bangalore’s public services shows that public feedback mechanism can make public agencies more accountable to their clients (World Development Report, 2000/2001).

Self-help development and participation in projects by community members have a trickle down effect. That is, it helps the people to reduce their levels of poverty by using earlier projects to implement new ones (Poverty Reduction News, 2000, No.). One major problem facing this country is poverty. The level of poverty particularly in the rural areas is something that has been of great concern to governments.

This calls for marshalling forces to ensure that every Ghanaian within the economically active labour force is gainfully employed and is able to generate enough income to meet his/her basic needs. Since the majority of Ghanaians live in the rural areas, governments consciously support rural development programmes, which promote growth in the micro and small enterprises through the transfer of productivity-enhancing technologies to the sub-sector (Tamakloe, 2001).

Studies on poverty reduction programme have shown that since its inception, the MEST/IFAD, REP has thus contributed to the reduction of poverty for self-employed entrepreneurs and employees in new and existing rural enterprises by increasing incomes and by reducing expenditures (Tamakloe, 2001). They have also helped in reducing

poverty by transferring technical skills to rural people, making it easier to get a job or to improve the returns of their own businesses, as well as allowing them to start their own businesses or to reduce costs and increase benefits in their existing business.

At a briefing on the project for Parliamentarians, District Chief Executives, District Coordinating Directors and District Development Planning Officers of the 13 beneficiary districts at Fumesua in the Ejusu-Juaben district, Mr Kwesi Attah-Antwi, the Project Coordinator, hinted that the seven-year project should have ended in March 2002. However, due to plans for the future of the project the completion date for the current phase is being extended to December 2002, at an estimated cost of \$10 million with the Ghana Commercial Bank and a number of rural banks as participating banks.

It is realised that REP targets the rural poor and the underemployed who are basically engaged in off-farm rural enterprises and the rural private sector. The promotion of rural small-scale enterprises, rural financial services and infrastructural supports are the three closely linked components of the project that have been implemented to achieve the set objectives.

It is seen from here that the District Assemblies have in one way or the other provided the appropriate enabling environment towards the successful implementation of the projects which include the support for the identification and mobilisation of the rural poor who are unemployed, or underemployed (Tamakloe, 2001). This is intended to reduce the tendency where graduated apprentices are unable to establish businesses on their own for income generation. There are a number of other things that could be done, but the fact is

that if the community, as a whole, fails to stand up for itself, there is little reason to believe that others will do so.

There is the need to design pragmatic mechanisms and strategies that would enhance project sustainability through the consolidation of achievements in the area of technology transfer, business management, skill development as well as employment and income generation.

The challenge facing the country is the need to raise the level of technical skills and entrepreneurial capacity of the local communities to enable them to create many new enterprises which will add value to the agricultural produce and other natural resources and also enable existing small scale enterprises to realise their full potential. According to World Bank Strategy for Poverty Reduction, there is the need to balance growth with human development and empowerment. This is to enable Ghana reduce poverty in coming years (World Bank Assistance Strategy CAS for Ghana 2000-2003 – Ghana News Agency). Expenditure on social services should increase from 17.4% in 2000 to 22.5% in 2002.

#### **1.7 Objectives of the District Assembly**

In order to achieve the aims of the District Assemblies and total development of the nation, certain features were created. Some of these were:

- Empowerment of District Assemblies as legislative, administrative, development planning, service delivery, budgeting and rating authorities;
- Restructuring of resource allocation and the establishment of a resource sharing mechanism between central and local governments;

- Introduction of decentralized planning systems;
- Capacity-building programmes for local governments;
- Using District Assemblies as vehicles for implementation of district-focused, externally funded credit projects; and
- Reservation of 30% of the membership of District Assemblies as government appointees to ensure the representation of certain local interest groups to create access to skills and expertise (LGD, 13(3) 2000).

In line with the realisation of these and other objectives, the District Assembly system did not adopt only devolution and de-concentration approaches, but as well adopted decentralised planning, fiscal decentralisation and decentralised management of public-private partnership.

The organisation of the country into districts is staffed to provide trained personnel (animators) with a major orientation toward problems as seen by the local community.

This point being emphasized has been well expressed by Schumacher.

A given political unit is not necessarily of the right size for economic development to benefit those whose need is the greatest. In some cases it may be too small, but in the generality of cases today it is too large... If the purpose of development is to bring to those who need it most, each 'region' or 'district' within the country needs its own development... A few thousand people no doubt would be too few to constitute a 'district' for economic development; but a few hundred thousand people, even if fairly widely scattered, may well deserve to be treated as such. Each district ideally speaking, would have some sort of inner cohesion and identity and possess at least one town to serve as a district center... while every village would have a primary school, there would be a few small towns with secondary schools, and the district centers would be big enough to carry one institution of higher learning. The bigger the country, the greater is the need for internal 'structure' and for the decentralized approach to development. If this need is neglected, there is no hope for the poor (Schumacher, 1973:166-7).

The first thing Ghana's local government did to translate these policies into local practice was to identify the obstacles to participation of local people in political decision-making

and seek to remove these. The identified factors include language, poverty, 'hijacking' of local governments by urban elites, non-participation or marginalisation of women, non-involvement of the people in the planning process and lack of resources with which communities could implement their development priorities.

### **1.8 Statement of the Problem**

Despite the availability of these resources, coupled with well-elaborate development oriented District Assembly (Local Government structure), the 2000 Ghana Living Standard Survey by the Ghana Statistical Service showed that the poverty level in the Gomoa District is very high. The national per capita income figure stands at ₵527,000 with that of the Central Region at ₵444,000. However, that of the Gomoa District stands at ₵141,600 making the second poorest district after Ajumako-Enyam-Essiam District in the Central Region. In 1991/92 the poverty rate was 44%. The poverty rate shot up to 48% in 1998/99 (GLSS – October 2000).

This gloomy picture is parallel to the potentials and capabilities of the Gomoa District so far as development is concerned. The problem then is,

***The Gomoa District Assembly has not been able to foster the necessary moves required for self-help development in order to reduce poverty levels and improve the standard of living for the inhabitants of the District.***

### **1.9 Purpose of the study**

In an attempt at reducing poverty in many developing countries including Ghana, the government and NGOs have collaborated in diverse ways to establish programmes and projects in partnership with communities concerned. In Ghana the National Poverty

Reduction Program (NPRP) was implemented on pilot basis in some districts in 1997. Juaboso-Bia district in Western Region was one. Through self-help activities communities like Seniagyakrom and Suiano have successfully worked to reduce their poverty levels and have subsequently improved their standard of living.

It is expected that with the District Assemblies' concept, the management of the districts will put across plans to adopt the strategies of progress from districts that have made strides against poverty. This research is geared towards identifying the major obstacles that had impeded development in the Gomoa District. It tried to identify the areas or domain within which the bottlenecks that hold up developmental projects lay and find out the necessary steps that could be taken to arrest the situation.

#### **1.9.1 Research Objectives**

The objective of this study was to find out why development in the Gomoa District is low if not becoming stagnant. The study looked at:

1. Whether the District Assembly performed the roles that it was supposed to;
2. Projects mounted in the district that aimed at reducing poverty;
3. The means of resource allocation;
4. Resource sharing mechanisms;
5. Local institutions that were developed for skill acquisition, and
6. Collaboration between community leaders and the District Assembly.

### 1.9.2 Research Questions

Despite the availability of human and material resources, coupled with the local government structure, the district is saddled with low development and high poverty rate – nearly 50%. This research put forth the following questions and investigated them.

1. What resources are best designed to create the type of innovators needed for development in the Gomoa District?
2. What are the forms of self-help development activities that exist in the district?
3. Do the leaders in the district (D.C.E., Assembly and Unit Committees Members and Opinion leaders) lack commitment to enforce a spirit of mobilization for development?
4. Do the people in the district recognize the presence of the District Assembly and its local structures with regard to how they can receive help from the Assembly?
5. Is there any collaboration between the District Assembly and the Town/Area Development Committees as regards development projects?
6. What reasons account for the untapped income and development and labour force in the communities for self-help development?
7. Are there any self-help development initiatives in the communities and what had been their benefits?

### 1.9.3 Statement of Hypotheses

1. *Low level of commitment on the part of leaders has contributed to the slow pace of development activities in the district.*

2. *Lack of collaboration and coordination between the Gomoa District Assembly and the Area Council /Unit Committees has contributed to the inability of the district to mobilize resources in the district for development*
3. *Non-participation in community-based development projects by members of the communities has contributed to increasing level of poverty among the people in the district.*

#### **1.9.4 Significance of the study**

The findings of this research would not only add to knowledge but will also serve as a policy framework for designing development projects. It would again help to identify which of the resources available could best be tapped for development in order to reduce levels of poverty. It would also serve as an indicator to the District Assembly as to how it has related to the people in the district for the past decade and how the people perceive its work as an agent for development. It would again identify the type of self-help spirit that exists as well as how prepared the people are to be helped to undertake development projects as regards raising their standard of living.

#### **1.9.5 Limitations of the study**

Initially, this study confined itself to interviewing respondents from areas that were selected for study. Thus, owing to the vast nature of the area under research, selection of respondents was delimited. Again, as the survey method was employed using purposive sampling in most cases, the findings cannot be totally generalised (Creswell, 1994). This will however be minimized by using all the 81 Assembly Members representing all the

Electoral Areas in the 15 Town/Area Councils of the district to give a general reflection of the situation at the time when the field work was conducted.

#### **1.9.6 Organization of the Study**

This study is divided into six chapters. Chapter One deals with the introduction to the study. Here, the background of the study has been explored. It also examines the statement of the problem being studied. It again took a look at the purpose and objectives of the study and as well put forward the research questions that were investigated.

Chapter Two concentrated on review of relevant and related literature. The findings of the reviewed works were critically assessed in this chapter.

Chapter Three looked at the methodology. It examined the sample population, the sampling techniques adopted, test instrument for the study and the statistical tools that were used for data analysis.

Chapter Four dealt with the presentation of results obtained from the fieldwork through the use of test instruments and analysis of data.

Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study. It also looks at the implications of the findings as regards policy making and policy execution.

The final chapter contains recommendations based on the findings of the study and a future dimension for replication or otherwise.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2.0

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

The issue of development in a developing country can be seen from two ends – the side of the government and that of the local communities. It is believed that community development includes one that is freely identified and undertaken by the local communities themselves with a recognised pattern. It is stimulated by group organisers and has become aware of common needs through repeated discussions (Batten, 1967). It follows that for any effective and meaningful development, the role of the government or local governments and the members of the communities must be harmonised.

Most communities, all over the world, define themselves either by geographical, historical, ethnic, class, or cultural unity, although internal differences within them can also be perceived. Economic and political domination may exist within them even though they appear to be homogeneous. For the purpose of promoting participation in self-help development it is necessary, then, to identify groups with common interests in order to build alliances that will give them greater capacity to confront existing power structures and to create alternative structures (Kuper and Kuper, 1985).

Perhaps the greatest problem shared by depressed communities around the country is an inadequate supply of jobs and the generally low quality and limited future of most of those which are available. This more than any other single factor drives the hopelessness and despair born of neighbourhood economies disproportionately comprised low wage jobs, welfare dollars, food and whatever else a body might do for cash (UNDP, 1994).

## 2.2 Leadership as influential increment

The issue of self-help development or community development is greatly influenced by issues of leadership. The concept of leadership has largely lost its value for the social sciences although it remains indispensable to general discourse. There is a great variety of ways in which one individual stands out from others in social situations and in which the one may be said, therefore to be "leading" the others. There are diverse ways that any one concept can encompass them all as "leadership". This makes leadership lose its specificity and precision that is necessary to scientific thinking (Gibb, 1988). In general, it is an essential feature of the concept of leading that, influence is exerted by one individual upon another or a few individuals influence a larger number.

In all human organisations, a sort of routine role performance is exhibited. This kind of individual behaviour goes beyond required performance and realises more fully the potential of a given position for organisational influence. In the view of Katz and Kahn (1978) the essence of organisational leadership is to consider the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation. This influential increment derives from the fact that human beings are in positions of authority and power.

The concept of influential increment according to Katz and Kahn (1978) and Tannenbaum (1962) has relevance for organisational effectiveness in several ways. The expert and referent power develops within a group. There is literally an increase in the total amount of control that such a group can exert on its members leading to an increased

group performance. The more the leader has control over the members then the latter are more prepared to cope with the groups' initiative in development.

Recalling the study by Hossain et al (1978) from Bangladesh, the poor participation by the people was as a result of the composition of the leadership of the organisations – the 'swanirvar' (self-reliance), the 'gram shava' (village assembly) and the 'gram sarkar' (village government). In theory the executives of the organisations, that is, the members of swanirvar, gram shava, and gram sarkar committees were to come from all socio-economic groups. Though all the various socio-economic groups had a form of representation, they were not elected by members of the particular socio-economic groups; they were nominated by influential individuals, and were selected unopposed.

### **2.3 The concept of voluntarism and voluntary associations in community development**

Self-help development of today's communities to a large extent hinges on voluntarism and voluntary associations. An association is a group organised for the pursuit of one interest or of several interests in common.

A voluntary association generally contains three key elements. As an organised group of persons it is firstly formed in order to further some common interests of its members. Also, its membership is voluntary in the sense that it is neither mandatory nor acquired through birth. Finally, it exists independently of the state (Sills, 1959) and crosses political boundaries in its service areas (Knowles, 1977).

Voluntary associations have become more common and significant as societies advance in technology, complexity, and scale, hence the attention given it in the domain of self-

help development. For instance, voluntary associations, according to Brown (1951), have been highly developed in West Africa, where they play an explicit part in the process of government.

In situations of rapid social change towards self-help development, voluntary associations are important as a means of organising people in order to achieve new ends, such as the raising of capital, the regulation of prices, and the provision of extra labour. They are also of great significance to the social scientists in that they reveal cultural values and goals that the participants themselves are unable to formulate. Ottenberg (1955) reported that associations formed in the villages of Afikpo Ibo in eastern Nigeria subscribed loans to help members needing capital for developing trade or farming. They made bicycle paths, improved water supplies, and gave scholarships to promising students.

Voluntary associations in the cities have many features similar to those in villages, but they differ in that initially they serve only as bereavement benefit society, which takes the kin group's responsibilities in the event of death. It is in the sphere of economic activity that urban associations most evidently create relationships on a new pattern. Irrespective of sharp differences that exist between voluntary associations in rural/urban areas (Norbeck, 1962) they are both numerous and influential in rural communities undergoing rapid urbanisation (Anderson and Anderson, 1958; Little, 1965).

Thompson (1980) sees voluntary organisations as being self-governing, self-financing, non-profit group of people who willingly join the efforts to achieve certain objectives by embarking on certain activities or through provision of services. As the element of willingness runs through the activities of voluntary organisations Badu-Nyarko (1997)

observes a volunteer as someone who willingly devotes and offers his or her service for a campaign or purpose of his or her own volition not restrained or forced in whatever form. Hossain and associates (1978) found that as required by the local administration, most of the unions prepared lists of different committees and their office bearers, which were available for visitors to see. They however "... came across many office bearers who were not even sure as to which committee they belonged, in developmental activities" (Bhadur and Rahman, 1982:101).

One limitation of self-help movements as found by Hossain et al (1978) was that the movements were confined to repairing of roads of a few hundreds yards, planting trees (which were not maintained afterwards) and digging irrigation canals (only in few villages), often with partial contribution from the government in the form of wheat under the food-for-work programmes.

A general comprehension about self-help projects is that they could be utilised to camouflage the exploitation of the disadvantaged groups by the well-to-do sections of the community. But, in rural areas, those who sell manual labour belong to the economically disadvantaged groups. Hossain et al (1978) found in Bangladesh that those who hired out labour services mostly belong to the less than 2.0-acre land ownership category. But the benefits of these projects accrued mostly to the well-to-do sections of the community who controlled the means of production. For instance, in the case of irrigation and drainage projects the benefits accrued to landowners, larger owners getting larger benefits. Similarly, in the case of road construction and repair the benefits accrued

mainly to the farmers, traders and businessmen through enhancement of marketing facilities.

Since many belonging to the economically better off sections are not used to undertaking manual labour (Bhaduri and Rahman, 1982) their contribution to self-help projects carried out by mobilisation of labour may, if not compensated by cash payment, be less than in proportion to their would-be benefits. That is, local elite groups may be able to contrive to make the "labouring" classes contribute most to these projects, while they themselves and others of their classes would be the main beneficiaries. The self-help projects would then help perpetuate exploitation of the poorer groups by the richer groups and also help accentuate inequality in income.

#### **2.4 Help from voluntary organisations to communities**

Community development of modern times cannot be devoid of self-help activities and for that matter voluntarism. This stems from the fact that voluntary organisations are found the entire world over and more specifically in most of the developing countries. Today, voluntarism is playing an important role as regards international co-operation for development (Gunasingha, 1991). It is now common to see governmental agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) relying heavily on voluntary services to carry out programmes and projects to a successful end. For instance, in Ghana, the establishment of the People's Educational Association in 1948 under the Department of Extra Mural Studies (now Institute of Adult Education) helped many people in both the urban and rural sectors to further their education, learned new skills and built careers in the organisations they worked (Agbodeka, 1999).



Other voluntary organisations include the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA). One challenging characteristic of many of these voluntary agencies is inadequate funding. As a result the voluntary agencies do not have the necessary personnel or their personnel are not well enough trained to be effective (Bown and Tomori, 1979). Such voluntary organisations also found in the form of Town and Youth Development Associations and old students/alumni of various institutions in the country with a chief objective of helping to bring development to their institutions. In order to sustain such voluntary associations in organisations and communities volunteers who excel in their performance are rewarded on special occasions or during festivals in the case of communities. Such areas of contribution include mobilisation of funds through fund raising activities and other resources to support development activities (Quaye, 1991).

People may offer voluntary services depending on their perceptions and other diverse reasons. Pappas (1996) observed two major factors that influence people's commitment to voluntary activities in the community. These are the desire to help the needy or the underprivileged to develop their potentials. The other factor emanates from deep-seated religious convictions and the desire to gain work experience.

To Kotler (1985), voluntarism helps to bring high-minded individuals with varied interest in a programme to contribute their time, energy, ideas and experience to a course they have embarked upon. This creates a sense of ownership of the programme and helps the members of the community to develop interest in the programme and monitor the volunteers.

It was found out that in the past, the “better off” sections of the community mainly benefited from development programmes, and the poor and underprivileged sections remained deprived (Hossain et al, 1978). To offset this one of the objectives of the ‘*swanirvar*’ movement was to organise the disadvantaged groups of the society under their own leadership, and to help them to become self-reliant. Despite this lofty idea, a poor rate of participation was recorded. This was as a result of a negative attitude of the masses towards the organisation (Hossain et al, 1978).

## 2.5 Community Participation

Community participation is the process whereby members of the community are involved in initiating, making, as well as implementing decisions concerning their lives within and beyond their immediate communities. It is an endogenous process empowering members of the community with the continuing capability to critically understand their reality and initiate appropriate actions to deal with it with a view to attaining social, cultural and economic development (Development Dialogue, 1985). Community participation, therefore, involves collective action of the people against socio-economic and political forces of oppression within the community and in the wider national and international context.

Issues bordering the under privileged, especially those in the rural areas of Third World countries with regard to mobilisation and encouragement to participate in decision making have been widely debated and popularly accepted by development thinkers and practitioners. The notion of participation is being applied in agriculture, health, nutrition, education, social work, and other rural development programmes. For instance,

development practitioners in Malaysia are beginning to appreciate and accept participation as a means for widening and redistributing opportunities to enable the rural people to take part in decision making that affect their lives (Songan, 1993).

The emphasis on development through people's participation and "self-help" in recent years is another experiment in solving the agrarian and rural problems without fundamental changes in the existing structure. The self-help approach aims at mobilising local resources to satisfy local needs, reducing the pressure on limited government funds, ensuring maximum utilisation of human and material resources, developing a sense of participation among people, and ensuring equity through representation of various interest groups in the development process. This approach requires that the identification of local problems, preparation of plans, and the implementation of projects are done by the local people themselves with assistance from government officials (Hossain, Mahmood and Ahmad, 1978).

Hossain and his colleagues also found that in areas where the local movement was directly initiated and supervised by government officials, the organisations were either limited to paperwork only or were not functioning properly. But where local leaders took the initiative in starting the movement, regular meetings were being held in almost all the villages with success and better future prospects.

## **2.6 Deterrent factors in community participation**

Despite the importance placed upon participation as a requisite for development programmes to succeed, many organisations or localities still experience poor participation of the clients in their programmes. In a study in Malaysia, Songan, Sanggin,

Shah, and Wok (1985) found that only about 25 percent of the peasants in the extension villages of the University of Agriculture, Malaysia, in Sarawak participated in the planning and implementation of the extension programmes intended to improve their living conditions. Again, Sagan (1987) reported that the Agricultural Model village Programme of the Departments of Agriculture in one village in Sarawak was not successful because the farmers did not participate in the programme.

The situation where beneficiaries of a programme refuse to take active participation had drawn the attention of policy makers as well as project implementers. One reason that accounts for this is that those who owned resources like land refused to lease the land or have resisted land development efforts in the state (Jernal Azam, 1987). Lang (1987) cited by Songan (1993) mentioned that there was a delay in implementation of projects as a result of the peasants' poor response and lack of participation.

Songan (1993) undertook a study on the perceptions about obstacles to participation of peasants in the land development project of the Sarawak Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority (SALCRA) in the Kalaka and Saribas districts, located in the Sri Aman Division, Sarawak, Malaysia. It was reported that approximately 85 percent of the total population in the project area could be classified as poor. It was found that the greatest dispositional obstacles were their scepticism and worries about the success of the project. They did not trust what government officials told them because they were worried that the project would not succeed. They had seen similar projects implemented by the government in the past fail, for example Sarawak Development Finance

Corporation (SDFC) – the Rubber Planting Scheme B, implemented in 1964. One respondent is quoted in part as saying:

We are not very sure whether the project will work the way that it is explained to us. Throughout our lives, we have seen many cases where there are failures in other projects that have been implemented by the government, although the people who carry them out are educated. That is why people like us do not want to participate yet, because we need to make our decisions (IIZ/DVV No. 41:170).

Some of the respondents were worried that through the project the government would take away their right to their land. They thought that the government was using the schemes as pretence to take their lands away from them. One respondent lamented:

We are still not clear about the purpose and intensions of the project...we are worried that the government will take away our land.... Some of us think that the project will not succeed ...and we are still very sceptical (IIZ/DVV No 41:170).

Again, Songan (1993) found that dispositional constraint was the failure fully to understand the concept and objectives of the projects. It was also found that some respondents did not want to participate in the project because they had a “wait and see” attitude. They wanted to see how it worked out before making a decision. Also they were sceptical about the success of the project and were not participating in it. Other peasants did not want to participate in the project because they were comfortable with what they already had and were happy with their present way of life. They felt that the cash obtained through the subsidy schemes given by the Department of Agriculture were sufficient for them to live comfortably.

Apart from these, some respondents perceived that the government planned the projects without involving the people in the decision-making process. They said the government officials and politicians cajoled them into participating in the project. Others did not

participate because they were deterred of political influence. From Songan (1993) studies one realises that many obstacles were responsible for non-participation in land development projects. These obstacles were both internal and external and could be categorised as dispositional, situational, and operational in nature. This finding is consistent with the study of Darkenwald and Marriam (1982) that the reasons for non-participating are usually multiple and interrelated in complex ways. The act of facilitating learning according to Brookfield (1986) is one that is sufficiently complex and challenging as to make suspicious of any pre-packaged collections of practice injunctions.

#### **2.7 Strategies needed as a base for self-help development**

The Ghana Living Standard Survey Fourth Report (GLSS 4) of October 2000 says that nearly 32 percent of all adults in Ghana have never been to school. Only about 33 percent have Middle School Leaving Certificates/Basic Education Certificate Examination. Only 10 percent have secondary or higher level qualification. The majority of the working population (55%) is in agriculture.

The primary purpose of poverty alleviation and reduction programmes is to halt the further deterioration in living standards experienced by vulnerable and disadvantaged groups and strengthen their prospects for a decent life. Boosting agricultural growth by applying new technologies is one of the most important ways to reduce rural poverty. However, the impact of such efforts on the rural poor depends on initial conditions, the structure of relevant institutions and incentives (Chodi, 2001).

It is known that agricultural stagnation has harmed the rural poor in sub-Saharan Africa by creating food shortages and higher prices that have reduced their ability to buy food and find work. Experience with the Green Revolution showed that rapid agricultural progress made a big difference in reducing rural poverty in parts of South Asia. Datt and Ravallion (1998) (World Development Report, 2000/2001) have found that higher crop yields reduce both the number of rural poor and the severity of rural poverty. But these effects are strong only if certain conditions are met. Since the rural poor are quite different, we need to understand how macroeconomic changes and policies can affect them. The three major ways in which policies affect the rural poor are through markets, infrastructure (including public services), and transfers (World Development Report, 2000/2001).

The markets in which the rural poor participate are those for products, inputs (labour and non-labour) and finance (from formal and informal sources). Several important features of these markets can affect conditions in rural areas. The infrastructure that directly affects the rural sector's productivity and the rural poor peoples quality of life includes the economic (transport, communications, extension services and irrigation) and the social (education, health care, water and sanitation). Given that most elements of a country's infrastructure are provided through public funding, the level of spending, cost effectiveness, quality of service and access to the rural poor to infrastructure and public services have important impacts on human capital and productivity in rural areas.

Transfers, which are both private and public, provide some insurance against anticipated and unanticipated shocks. Most of the rural poor depend on private transfers among households, extended families and other kinship groups. An important point is that these

channels – markets, infrastructure and transfers – do not work in the same way for all of the rural poor because each group has quite different links to the economy.

The World Development Report (2000/2001) identified several policy components for national strategies - involving the government, the private (for profit) sector, and civil society - to reduce rural poverty. The right to adequate land and water is of key importance in reducing rural poverty in many developing countries. A broad based land reform programme including land tilling, land redistribution and fair and enforceable tenancy contracts - can make small (marginal) landowners and tenants more efficient producers and raise their standards of living.

The rural poor need to build and strengthen their human capital so they can get out of poverty and contribute more to the economy and society. Basic health care and education (literacy, schooling, and technical training) - particularly for women and children - are essential building blocks and should be accessible at reasonable cost.

The rural poor cannot, however, make the best use of their resources, including human capital, if either the quantity or the quality of some of the key parts of the country's physical infrastructure (irrigation, transport and communications) and support services (research and extension) is inadequate. The social and physical infrastructure and services can be funded and maintained best, that is, they will be cost-effective and of reasonable quality if the target groups are involved in designing, implementing and monitoring them as well as in ensuring accountability of the government officials responsible for them.

Although economic growth rates in many developing countries improved during the 1990s, many of the people continue to live in extreme poverty. Progress is being made

for example, in increasing life expectancy, school enrolment, and rates of adult literacy and in reducing infant mortality but it has been painfully slow, and the gap between the industrial and developing worlds remains enormous. In Africa, setbacks in efforts to combat poverty have occurred in countries suffering from armed conflicts and the ravages of the AIDS crisis (International Monetary Fund, 2001).

Focusing development co-operation on accelerated poverty reduction is today's central development challenge. The extent of challenge is such that efforts will need to be made simultaneously on the programmes and procedures of international development agencies and other lenders need to reinforce country-led efforts to reduce poverty. Also countries' own efforts need to be complemented by global action to increase aid flows. The consensus today is that development assistance should support integrated strategies that are formulated by the recipient countries. These strategies should aim primarily at reducing poverty by achieving faster growth to benefit the poor.

Years of practical experience gained by agencies alike have made it clear that any policy strategy will fail, in either design or implementation, unless the country truly "owns" it, with governments leading and civil society participating and contributing (International Monetary Fund, 2001). To the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, this can be approached in four ways.

- Policy formulation by making it to be more open, transparent, and above all country-driven, with international financial institutions and other donors playing an active but supporting role.

- Each strategy is expected to be grounded in a country specific understanding of the nature and causes of poverty and of the links between public actions and the dimensions of poverty (income, opportunity, access to markets and public services, security, vulnerability to shocks, etc.). This is because the poor themselves are often best placed to identify priorities for action; poor communities need to be consulted.
- Bringing an additional perspective to policy design as public consultation is a way to improve monitoring and accountability in implementation.
- Poverty Reduction Strategies Papers (PRSP) must stress a well-designed poverty reduction strategy and establish indicators that can be used to track economic and social progress (International Monetary Fund, 2000).

In May 2000, Uganda became the first country to produce and publish its PRSP, followed by Burkina Faso in June. A number of other countries (including Benin, Guyana, Honduras, Kenya, Mali, Mauritania, Nicaragua, and Tanzania) were at the advance stage of formulating their strategy papers (Ghanaian Times, March 8, 2001). These initial efforts, however, have also highlighted a number of emerging challenges.

Many observers have noted the inherent tension between having countries take full ownership of their strategies and the requirements that the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank assess. These institutions look at whether a particular strategy provides an adequate basis for the institutions' concessional lending and debt relief to the country. This puts the beneficiary countries and their communities in a dilemma.

Of course the development obstacles facing many poor countries go well beyond the challenges of implementing the PRSP approach. In the early part of year 2001, the

combination of lower commodity prices and higher oil prices resulted in terms of trade losses of more than 15% in one-half of HIPC countries. Environmental problems and conflicts are major obstacles to poverty reduction in some developing countries. Natural disasters are prevalent: floods in Mozambique, hurricane damage in Honduras and Nicaragua, and drought in Kenya - to name but a few - have cost the countries concerned dearly, in economic as well as human terms (Ghanaian Times, 08/03/2001).

Against this background, even a well-designed and well-implemented poverty strategy is not a silver bullet that will deliver rapid prosperity. But formulating such strategies should ensure that, over time, the collective efforts of the international community become more efficient in improving the lives of the poor. With this, grounds for optimism is provided and that the undeniably difficult challenges ahead could be met.

## **2.8 Skills for development at the Community Level**

Increasing the skills and capabilities of workers is key to economic success in an increasingly integrated and competitive global economy. Investing in people can boost the living standards of households by expanding opportunities, raising productivity, attracting capital investment, and increasing earning power. The importance of investing in human capital, especially education, for economic growth and household welfare is recognised worldwide; this realisation has contributed to unprecedented global increases in schooling in recent decades. Yet these investments alone do not always lead to more rapid growth; in the wrong environment, investments in people may only yield misspent or idle resources (World Development Report, 1995).

## 2.9 The role of Human Capital in self-help development

The livelihoods of farmers, industrial labourers, and service workers depend increasingly on their acquiring such basic skills as literacy and numeracy, as well as more specialised skills and the ability to manage complex tasks and organise the work of others. The human resources investments required learning these skills – investments in health and nutrition, and in education and training – beginning at an early age and extending over a lifetime. Such investments create the human capital necessary for raising the productivity of labour and the economic well being of workers and their families. Raising individual productivity rests on several factors of which education is very essential. Education can be either general or specific. World Development Report (1995) recognises general education as:

Education that gives children skills that they can later transfer from job to job and the basic intellectual tools necessary for further learning. It augments the ability to perform standard tasks, to process and use information and to adapt to new technologies and production practices (IIZ/DVV No. 46, 1996:197-198).

The above, according to the report, has become evident through the adoption of high-yielding varieties of food grains in China and India. That after accounting for farm size and other production factors, studies found that better educated farmers in China's Hunan Province were likely to adopt the more productive hybrids. In India, the report adds that areas where relatively few farmers had primary schooling at the onset of the green revolution experienced less growth than areas with the same technological opportunities but better educated farmers.

Specific education, on the other hand, can equally be referred to as training and further training. Training of this sort is where people learn to acquire useful experience that will be helpful when doing other similar things in the future. Productive learning does not

end with schooling. Most individuals continue to build their skills throughout their working lives, through training on the job and in formal training centres. Training is an investment from the perspective of both workers and employers (World Development Report, 1995). Almost all private and public organisations have training and development programmes. Some organisations spend as much as 15 percent of their total payroll on training activities (Goldstein, 1980; Wexley and Yukl, 1984).

Training for work exhibits a similar relationship with productivity. Enterprise-based training in Taiwan, China, has been associated with a significant rise in output per worker, with the largest gains realised in firms that invested simultaneously in training and technology. As in the case of the green revolution, human capital bears an especially high return when the opportunity to take advantage of new ideas is present (World Development Report, 1995). Increasing the human capital of workers boosts their earning power, because market-oriented economies reward the skilled worker who is able to deliver more output, or an output that is more highly valued in the market place.

Human capital is necessary but not sufficient as far as increased productivity and its by-product of development are concerned. More education usually means more productive individuals. In line with this, since 1960, world enrolments at all levels of education combined have increased fivefold. In early 1990s more than five of every ten secondary school graduates live in low- and middle-income countries. In 1960, only three in ten did. It was estimated in 1960 that one third of all adults in developing countries were literate; in 1990 more than half were. This trend spans all regions, although the variance in outcomes remains large (World Development Report, 1990; Carnoy, 1986; UNESCO, 1980).

Despite the increased levels of education that people have received, the question that is asked by development-minded people is “why has economic growth remained elusive in many parts of the world, in spite of rising levels of schooling and other forms of human capital? The World Development Report (1995) ascribes two reasons to this.

First, human capital can be poorly used. Greater investment in human capital can neither compensate for nor overcome an environment inimical to economic growth. Second, human capital investment can be of the wrong type or poor quality. Expenditures on human resources often fail to provide the quantity, quality, or type of human capital that it might have if the funds have been better spent (IZZ/DVV No. 46, 1996:199).

Educational growth, accordingly would not only contribute forcefully to economic development, but would also equalise opportunities between social classes and income distribution and develop a more employable labour force (Kuznets, 1995; Schultz 1963).

But at the same time, the absolute number of illiterates in the Third World has increased (World Bank, 1980), the poorest 50 percent of the population remained essentially as poor as before; income distribution, if anything, became more unequal (Adelman and Morris, 1973); and open unemployment increased (Carnoy, 1978).

Carnoy (1982) argued that the increased education brought to Third World populations was not relevant to the development of their societies and, for that reason, it did not fulfil the distribution and employment needs of those countries. He continued that:

The curriculum or the organisation of the school system has been “insufficient” or “traditional” so that the children are “incorrectly” pushed either out of school too early – not realizing their full potential – or channelled into training that is difficult to employ in a “modernizing” economy.... It is characterized by high dropout rates, poor overall student performance, lack of materials, and overproduction of humanities graduates and underproduction of engineers and doctors, poor research and development capability, lack of rural education, ... (Carnoy, 1982 in Altbach and Kelly, 1986:74).

It has been found that under-utilisation of the education and skills of workers are mostly a problem of lack of labour demand due to inappropriate development strategies. This has

become apparently clear in many regions, including Southeast Asia. The work forces of Viet Nam and the Philippines have historically had higher educational attainment than other countries in the region. However, both of these economies have grown relatively slowly, largely because both countries adopted development strategies – central planning in Viet Nam; import substitution in the Philippines – that proved incapable of taking full advantage of their stock of human capital. This is in comparison with some of the successful performers in Southeast Asia, who in contrast, initially had relatively low levels of human capital but pursued strategies that expanded education and the demand for labour simultaneously (World Development Report, 1995).

The Philippines and Viet Nam did realise a return on their human resources investments through remittances, and upon the adoption of a more market-based approach to development. The Report added that what the Philippines and Viet Nam demonstrate is that the expansion of human capabilities delivers its full potential only when there is a corresponding increase in market-driven demand for labour skills. Finally, it can be asserted from the Report that human capital tends to be relatively unproductive where the skills acquired in school do not match market opportunities, or where higher education is promoted at the expense of primary and secondary schooling. It is necessary then that improvements in education policy are needed to ensure that expenditures on schooling yield productive investments in human capital.

## 2.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Development revolves on certain development indicators. Central to these is the availability of resources – both human and material. Thus resources in whatever form serve as agents of innovation or prime movers of change. They are strategic for development and create the type of innovators needed in newly modernized economies (Carson, 1962).

### 2.10.1 The Human Agent of Change

The managers or top administrators in large private and public establishments are considered as human agents of change. That is, they function to organize and stimulate the efforts of others. The prime movers of change are the creative people in government services, in private activities, and in education including ‘change-designers.’ Others are “change pushers”, who are able to persuade, coach and inspire people to put new ideas to work. But whether they are designers, pushers, or a combination of the two, the prime movers of innovation must have extensive *skill* and *knowledge*. Thus, they must be drawn from the ranks of high-level manpower – entrepreneurial, managerial and administrative personnel, and top-ranking political leaders (Carson, 1962).

### 2.10.2 Strategic Areas of Innovation

For change to be effected, certain areas of change or innovation need to be explored. For the newly developing countries, one of them is the area of agriculture. As perceived by Arthur Lewis, most of these countries need to modernize agriculture and to re-organise rural life. To him, if agriculture is stagnant, it offers only a stagnant market, and inhibits the growth of the rest of the economy (Lewis, 1961).

However, more is required than improvement in agricultural production. Rural communities need to be organized to provide new work opportunities for under-utilized rural labour force and to provide higher standards of living, health and education for the people. The innovating institutions may be community development projects to enlist the participation of villagers in self-help development and to utilize underemployed manpower constructively.

Another area is the need for encouragement of small industrial, commercial and financial establishments in the private sector, for these are powerful transmitters of change. The way out is that the government (and for that matter the District Assemblies) should create a favourable climate for the small-scale entrepreneurs who are change-pushers. This can be done in two ways:

1. Provide services such as market information, technical information, credit, and manager-training courses; and
2. Deliberately encourage a "spillover" of experienced manpower from the larger public and private establishments (Harbison, 1961).

One other area is that of developing education. In countries that are committed to rapid achievement of universal primary education, it is necessary to utilize teachers. There is the need therefore to train large numbers of teachers as change-pushers.

Again, the planning function is needed in newly modernizing countries that are convinced that development plans are prerequisites of accelerated growth. The most needed innovation now is perhaps not in the formulation of plans but in the art of getting them understood, accepted, and implemented. There is the need for persons in

government ministries and District Assemblies who know how to put plan to work, and also for persons who are skilled in explaining the plan to the masses and enlisting to some degree their participation in its implementation. A great deal of emphasis needs to be placed on the skills of communication and human relations.

A closer look at the rural sector, often neglected during the pursuit of the drive for greater industrialization, has revealed new problems, or highlighted old ones which plague the areas where most of the people in developing countries live (Case and Niehoff, 1973), for instance, rural employment and underemployment, land reform that press for solution. A case in point is President Robert Mugabe's move to take white-owned farms in a revolutionary fashion in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the need for improvement in rural infrastructure (roads, water and sanitation), the excessive migration of rural people to the cities that has stimulated a greater concern for development and to improve the availability of goods and services particularly beneficial to the rural people, the weakness of local government, as well as generally lower level of public services in the rural areas.

Concurrent with all the above has been an increase in political unrest and in pressures on government to find more satisfactory solutions to problems of hunger, disease, unemployment, malnutrition and all the attendant depressants of the human spirit. For example, the government of today is forced to find solutions to the added problems of the rising crime wave. There appears to be a greater realization of the importance of human needs as the prime focus of political effort and human resources as the central ingredient of hope for meeting the needs. To this end, Harbison proposed that education and

development could best be fostered in a framework in which human resources are considered paramount (Harbison, 1973).

### 2.10.3 Challenging norms

Norms are the unwritten rules of an organisation or area that govern how people are supposed to behave and what they are supposed to believe. These behaviours and beliefs come to be considered by the organisation's people as "normal". Often the norms need to be challenged and changed or they will inhibit achieving a vision. However, because they are considered as "normal", people in the organisation are frequently not aware of them; thus, they have no sense of how they might inhibit the vision and little sense of how to change them.

A number of studies have been conducted into the joint efforts of group structure and composition upon group sufficiency in problem solving situations. In one such study, Shaw (1960) found that people of homogeneous structure are more willing to work effectively to help themselves in decentralised administration (power) ( $r = -.59$ ) than in centralised administration ( $r = -.08$ ) (Shaw, 1960).

Although conflicts occur in small groups, there is also considerable co-operation among members who have common motives and interests, work together to produce a group product and share the resulting rewards. Group performance is the process and outcome of member's joint efforts to achieve a collective goal. This can be seen in three domains. These are leadership, productivity and decision-making (Levine and Moreland, 1990).

### 2.10.3.1 Leadership

Leadership is a universal aspect of human groups (Hollander, 1985), perhaps because group performance is facilitated by the exercise of organisational, directive and motivational functions. By group productivity, it is the tangible outcomes of group members' activities that can be evaluated in terms of quality.

An important aspect of group performance is decision-making. Groups frequently struggle for consensus on issues that affect the welfare of their members and/or outsiders. Both the process and outcome of decision-making are influenced by the kind of task the group is working on. These tasks include generating plans, generating ideas, solving problems with a correct answer, and solving conflict of viewpoint (McGrath, 1984).

One way to increase the effort of group members in devotion to task is through participative goal setting, where members decide together on their production goals (Pearson 1987). This stems from the relationship between goals and individual performance (Locke, Shaw, Saari, and Lathan, 1981).

### 2.10.3.2 Participation

In all societies, it is clear that some version or vision of citizenship lies behind programmes of political education, or any form of education for participation. The rapidly increasing dependence of societies on the learning capacities of more and more of their citizens, over longer and longer periods of their lives, an inescapable consequence of technical and industrial development, means the "mobilization" of all societies that pursue such objectives (Deutsch, 1953). This means increased demands for participation in public life, on citizens and by citizens. To survive, every nation has had to examine the

degree to which those demands contribute to the maintenance or development of the sense of nationality, cultural identity, or national purpose among the citizenry. If these are perceived to be in danger, then some self-conscious intervention in the form of political or citizenship education directed towards increased participation ensues (Titmus, 1989).

There are four factors that affect participation. These, according to Cropley are: Motivation, Relations of Productions, Social Class and System Factors. Many studies of motivation for participation in adult education view it as defined by the goals people hope to reach by means of participation, such as job advancement, acquisition of new skill, or development of new friendships. The question of participation then becomes a matter not of ascertaining what it is that people want, but rather establishing which factors dispose some people to regard what they are doing as a good thing. However, others may see the same thing as irrelevant to their lives, boring or snobbish (Cropley, 1989).

Welford (1980) pointed out that a particular "motive" might be satisfied by a variety of actions, while a particular action may be the result of many motives. The behavioural strategy actually adopted by an individual person is thus dependent upon a combination of factors going well beyond simply the presence or absence of a particular goal and the availability or otherwise of a suitable adult programme. These factors include attitudes, priorities and beliefs. Furthermore, the readiness to participate in a certain course of action is influenced by the perceived "costs" involved and the benefits to be obtained, in this context the loss of time of one's personal activity like working in one's own farm.

Although adults participate in activities of a group, they are obviously affected by factors within the individual. It is also influenced by "framework conditions" which help to

determine whether adults regard particular activities as desirable or undesirable, pleasant or unpleasant, suitable or unsuitable. These conditions are circumstances within which people live.

Studies of participation consistently show the effects of "second creaming" (Gengtsson, 1975). This participation is disproportionately high on the part of people who already have the highest levels of initial education. It is established that people from different backgrounds tend to find a system difficult to understand or frequently find that there is a conflict between their norms and those which prevail in other systems represented by work mates, peers, family and the like (Titmus, 1989).

Participation is thus affected by the role people play in the groups to which they belong, by the tactics they prefer for dealing with the external world, by their degree of willingness to accept certain kinds of external authority, their preference for particular strategies.



## CHAPTER THREE

### 3.0

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter looked at the entire procedure regarding how the study was conducted. It looked at the respondents selected for the study from the target population. It also covered the research design adopted with reasons for the choice of this design. It again looked at the survey research instruments that were used and the means through which data were collected. Again, it explained how the pilot study and the fieldwork were conducted. Finally, it discussed the type of tools used to analyse the data collected.

#### 3.2 The Profile of the Study Area

The Gomoa District is part of the Central Region of Ghana. The Central Region has a total land area of 9,826 square kilometres with a population density of 161 per square kilometre. This makes it the region with the second highest population density after Greater Accra that has a total land area of 3,245 square kilometres with a population density of 897 per square kilometre (2000 Population and Housing Census, GSS 2000).

The Gomoa District is the most populous district in the Central Region with 196,576 inhabitants. Approximately 54.4 percent are females (male: 89,636; female: 107,120) (2000 Population and Housing Census). The Gomoa District stretches from the sea to the hinterland sharing boundaries to the north with Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam and Agona districts with Mfantiman in the west and Awutu-Efutu-Senya in the east. The district is

divided into two constituencies – the Gomoa East and West Constituencies. There are 81 Assembly Members with 15 Town/Area Councils.

### 3.2.1 Communities

There are 197 communities with Apam as the district capital. The urban towns in the district are Apam, Dago, Mumford and Nyanyano. The urbanization ratio is 26% - hence the district is basically classified as rural. Migration is both rural-urban and rural-rural. It has a high dependency ratio of 114:8 (Ghana Living Standard Survey, GLSS 2000; Gomoa District Assembly, October 1999).

### 3.2.2 Resources

In terms of resources, the Gomoa District has sea for fishing and mining of salt at the low-lying areas like Apam and Mankoadze. Out of the total land size of 1022.3 sq. km., 700 sq. km are arable land for cultivation of variety of crops. However, just 40% (280sq. km.) of the arable land is put under cultivation (Ghana Statistical Service GSS, 2000). There are two major vegetation zones – the coastal savannah and moist semi-deciduous forest with few rain forests at some places for cultivation of cocoa and coffee on a small scale. The total annual rainfall is between 700mm – 900mm in the southern coastal savannah and 900mm – 1100mm in the semi-deciduous forest areas.

Feasibility studies by the Gomoa District Assembly/Ghana Statistical Service indicated that the following crops do well in the district that could be planted on a large scale for export: maize, cassava, yam, pineapple, cashew, palm oil, sunflower and vegetables. As regards employment structure, agriculture employs about 80% of the economically active

population as compared to 65% at the national level. Fishing employs about 8% of the local agricultural labour force.

Other activities include livestock, soap making, salt production, brick and tile production, pottery and gari processing (Ghana Household Survey, 1995).

The Gomoa District shares a Ministry of Agriculture District Office with the Awutu-Effutu-Senya District located near Winneba Junction. There are only 14 extension officers with 32 operating areas. There are few extension officers to help the numerous farmers on the field.

### 3.2.3 Infrastructure

Infrastructural provision is inadequate. About 75% of the district has access to pipe borne water, but its regular supply leaves much to be desired in some of the communities.

Other infrastructures are two market centres, a cold store, an ice plant, two silos, 440 local cribs and about 1,130 canoes. There are also about 14 tractors, a combine harvester, maize shelter, rice processor, cassava processor, corn millers, sugarcane crusher and palm oil extractor all owned by private individuals (Gomoa District Assembly 1999 Survey).

A pilot study in some of the communities in the Gomoa District revealed that while some of the communities are seriously embarking on self-help activities in collaboration with the district assembly projects, others are not. It has been observed that the youth of Gomoa Oguan community had been able to embark on hunting expedition to raise fund to complete their electrification project. In a similar vein, a number of communities are connected to the national electricity grid through self-help activities. One thing that is

found in many of the communities in the district is the fact that income-generating activities are mostly done on individual basis. The few group income-generating activities are found with the adult literacy classes groups.

Considering the literacy rate in the district, the number that has so far passed through the adult literacy classes is relatively low. Since 1990 when the pilot programme began till August 2000, the total number that successfully passed out stood at 17,183 of which 12,653 (73.6%) are females and 4,530 males (NFED/MOE 2001).

Currently, there are not many activities of Non-Governmental Organizations with regard to self-help development. However, studies done in the district had shown that in most of the communities there are high levels of commitment and self-help spirit towards development projects. This has not been translated into action in some communities (Gomoa District Assembly, 1999). Interviews with the community showed that they were willing to embark on such activities.

In the area of sanitation, there are problems identified especially with the coastal communities at the beaches with regard to waste disposals. A pilot study by the researcher has revealed that as a result of poverty, some of the communities are in serious woodcutting business for making charcoal ostensibly to reduce their state of poverty. This, coupled with bushfires, has resulted in environmental degradation.

Other areas where attention is needed for development are road networks, lorry parks, market facilities and electricity. It has been identified that there are only two markets in the district. These are at Apam and Dawurampong. It is worth noting that the market at

Apam has lost its briskness over time due to low patronage. The small market structure at Dawurampong is closely sited along the road without parking space. This has inconvenienced participants over time. The participants have therefore redirected their ware to other marketing centers like Kasoa, Mankessim, Bawjiase, Accra and other places (Gomoa District Assembly, 1999).

#### **3.2.4 Schools in the District**

It is also found that most of the communities have schools. Attendance in some of the schools is, however, poor as in some cases parents fail to pay the school fees of their wards. For instance, a Kindergarten school block at Gomoa Abonko near Apam has become a white elephant. Parents are unable to pay the annual fee of one thousand cedis (¢ 1000) and a daily canteen fee of three hundred cedis (¢ 300) (under a subsidy by a citizen).

#### **3.3 Ethical considerations**

Attention was paid to ethical considerations that arose from the study. These issues included the following.

- The respondents were informed of all aspects of the research that were likely to influence their willingness to participate and answer all inquires of respondents on features that could have adverse effects.
- The investigator was as open and honest as possible, that is, he made full disclosure of the purpose of the study to the respondents.



- **Again, informed consent** was secured from the respondents before they participated in the research. They were provided with an explanation to the research.
- **In addition**, respondents were provided with the opportunity to receive the results of the study in which they participated.
- The respondents were informed that the researcher would maintain the **confidentiality** of data obtained from them, and as well preserve their anonymity. They were also informed that the research findings would be used for the intended purposes (Patton, 1990; McMillan and Schumacher, 1993; Creswell, 1994).

### **3.4 Research Design**

This study employed the survey method. This is because the researcher employed the characteristics of a qualitative research procedure. Thus, the investigator selected a sample of respondents and administered questionnaire and conducted interview using an interview guide to collect information on variables of interest. These variables measured included sex, age, occupation, educational background, place of residence (rural/urban and /or coastal/non-coastal), electoral constituency and years of participation as an Assembly Member.

The survey method was used to learn about participants' attitudes, values, demographics, behaviour, opinions, habits, desires and ideas. Surveys are used frequently in business, politics, government, sociology, public health, psychology and education because accurate information is obtained for large numbers of people with a small sample. Chances were good that the researcher has more than once been part of a survey team as

pointed out by McMillan and Schumacher (1993) and Babbie (1990). This study intended to generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitude or behaviour of the population.

One other reason why the researcher used a survey was due to the fact that the area of study had varied population characteristics.

Considering the advantages of survey designs, such as the economy of the design, rapid turn-around in data collection and the ability to identify attitudes of population from a small group of individuals as presented in Creswell (1994), Babbie (1990), Sudman and Bradburn (1986) and Fink and Kosecoff (1985) coupled with the population of the area of study (nearly 200,000) the use of a survey design was therefore appropriate for this research.

A qualitative method of research allowed the researcher an opportunity to combine three kinds of data collection procedures. These were in-depth, open-ended interviews; direct observation; and written documents (Patton, 1990). By directly interviewing the respondents and as well observing their behaviour helped the researcher arrived at a more valid data.

Multiple sources of information were sought and used because no single source of information was enough to provide a comprehensive perspective on the programme. The use of combination of observation, interviewing, and document analyses helped the researcher to validate and crosscheck findings. Thus, using a combination of data types increased the validity as well as the strength of this approach compensated for the

weakness of another approach (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). Observations provided a check on what was reported during the interviews; interviews on the other hand, permitted the observer to go beyond external behaviour to explore the internal states of persons who were observed (Patton, 1990).

### **3.5 Respondents**

The Gomoa District has a population of 196,756 (2000 Population and Housing Census, GSS). A total of 270 respondents were used for the study. They included 70 members from the Gomoa District Assembly (GDA) and 200 inhabitants from ten communities. Since the Gomoa District has two constituencies, five communities were selected from each Constituency – Gomoa East and Gomoa West. One hundred respondents (50% male and 50% female) including opinion leaders were selected from each constituency. This was to ensure that each gender was given equal opportunity to participate in the study. For the Gomoa East Constituency the communities that were selected for the study were Nyanyano, Afransi (urban communities), Potsin, Fetteh and Buduatta (rural communities). Those from the Gomoa West were Apam, Dago (urban communities), Abonko, Eshiem and Mankoadze (rural communities). From these communities Nyanyano, Fetteh, Apam, Dago and Mankoadze were coastal communities while the rest were from inland communities.

### **3.6 Sampling design**

Since there was no access to names in the population to enable the researcher sample the respondents directly, the households were used. In the first place communities in the district were clustered taking into consideration the Gomoa East and West

**Constituencies.** Though the Gomoa District has been divided into two traditional areas – Gomoa Akyeampim and Gomoa Ajumako, the clustering was not based on that. This was due to the fact that the communities in the two traditional areas are mixed up. The constituency demarcation was more convenient as it gave two separate blocks and an opportunity for the researcher to make some level of comparison between the two constituencies.

An advance discussion was made with the District Chief Executive (DCE), the District Co-ordinating Director (DCD) and the Presiding Member (PM). This helped the researcher to know when the GDA had a session for the distribution of questionnaire to the members. A formal appeal was sent to the DCE and the DCD to inform the members for such an exercise. On the day of administration of questionnaire, however, it came to light that the DCD who was supposed to send a circular did not do so.

During a visit to the GDA in connection with this study on April 9, 2002, the DCD informed the researcher that an Assembly Session had been scheduled to take place on April 22, 2002 at Apam Town Hall at 9.30 in the morning.

### **3.7 Selection of study area**

In connection with the selection of the study area, the names of the communities that constituted the study area for the survey were written on strips of paper. These were grouped into two – Gomoa East and West constituencies (there are 101 communities in Gomoa East and 96 communities in Gomoa West constituencies). The papers for each constituency were then put together in a basket and shuffled. For Gomoa East Constituency, three communities were selected randomly from the basket. Each draw

was not replaced to ensure that each community had an equal chance of being selected. The two urban communities Nyanyano and Afransi were purposefully selected because these were the only communities in the Gomoa East Constituency that has urban status.

The method was repeated to select three communities from the Gomoa West Constituency. However, two out of the three urban communities in this constituency were selected. Apam, the district capital was selected purposefully, while a random technique was used to select the other urban community of Dago.

Evaluation is inherently and inevitably political to some extent (Patton, 1990; Turpin, 1989). In such a study therefore, it was necessary to consider sampling politically important site or unit of analysis. "The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth" (Patton, 1990:169). Information-rich cases according to Patton are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. This justified the selection of Apam and other urban communities, as they were more likely to get political attention as regards policy framework and resource sharing.

For the ten communities that were used for the study, information concerning the research was sent to them through their Assembly Members on April 22, 2002 – the day questionnaires were administered to the Assembly Members. The researcher went to the communities to gather information from the respondents using interview guide for the focus group interviews. In each community two sessions of two groups were organised. These were made up of one male group and one female group. There were therefore 20 groups in all. Ten respondents constituted a group for the interview.

The researcher ensured effective participation of the respondents by typically selecting a relatively homogeneous group of people (all male, all female). During the discussion respondents got to hear others' response and made additional comments beyond their own original responses as they heard what other people said. It also helped to weed out false or extreme views. Besides, focus group discussion used tended to be highly enjoyable to the respondents (Patton, 1990), as they expressed their joy after the discussion to the researcher. It was conducted carefully, and this provided a rich way of gathering qualitative evaluation information.

### **3.8 Instrumentation**

A 34-item self-designed questionnaire was used as the instrument. The major content in the instrument included the cover letter, demographics, attitudinal items, behavioural items, factual items and closing instructions. A number of questions relating to the research objectives were asked. Questionnaires were used for the respondents from the District Assembly. Some of the questions were close-ended and open-ended. The questionnaire had seven segments. These were the biodata, the role of the District Assembly and Assembly Members in development, projects in relation to poverty reduction, resource allocation, resource sharing, local institutions for development and collaboration between community leaders and the district assembly. For the members of the ten communities, an interview guide containing twenty-nine items with probe questions was used in a focus group interview.

### **3.9 Pre-testing of Instrument**

The test instrument was pre-tested to establish its validity and this helped to improve the items on the questionnaire. The questionnaires for the Assembly Members were pre-tested at the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED), where fifteen Assembly Members responded. This was made possible through a discussion that the researcher held with the DCE and the DCD. It was conducted in March, 2002 before the general administration in April, 2002 in the Gomoa District. The choice of the AEED was due to the fact that it shares common demographic characteristics with the Gomoa District and also has common features in terms of development.

The interview guide for the focus group interview was pre-tested in two communities in the Gomoa District that were not included in the communities selected for the main study. These were Abrekum (in Mankoadze/Abrekum Electoral Area) and Kokofu (in Kokofu/Mampong Electoral Area), both in the Gomoa West Constituency. In each of the communities, two groups of five persons each made up of two male and two female groups were used. It was found out that the respondents gave common responses to some of the items. Those items that elicited similar responses were combined to reduce the length of items on the interview guide.

### **3.10 The Fieldwork**

The fieldwork took off smoothly as planned. Two major activities conducted were the administration of questionnaire to Assembly Members and Focus Group Discussions in selected communities.

### **3.10.1 The Administration of Questionnaires to Assembly Members**

The administration of the questionnaires was done first due to the fact that membership of all District Assemblies in Ghana was to be dissolved. This was because their term of office (four years) was due and the National Electoral Commission had scheduled new District Assembly Elections for June, 2002.

On April 22, 2002 that was scheduled for the Assembly Meeting, the researcher got to the Office of the DCD at 8.00 in the morning. The DCD informed the researcher that some of the participants had started arriving at the venue. The DCD gave the researcher permission to go and start administering the questionnaires to those who had arrived.

On getting to the hall, it was realised that the few Assembly Members who had arrived were moving around the hall. At about 9.30 in the morning, the Presiding Member (PM) arrived. The researcher quickly met him and informed the PM about the research. The PM called the members into the hall. He then formally informed the members of the presence of a student from the Institute of Adult Education, University of Ghana, Legon, to administer some questionnaires to them. He asked them to take advantage of the late start of the session to fill out the questionnaires.

The researcher was given the opportunity to address the respondents as regards the aims of the researcher. He also made it clear to them the issues that were in connection with the study. With the help of some of the Assembly Members, the questionnaires were distributed to about two-thirds of the members who were present at the time. The rest were distributed as and when members arrived at the venue. The leadership of the house allowed the researcher to sit in as an observer throughout the Assembly Session which

started at 10.00 a.m. Only seven of the respondents submitted their filled-out questionnaires before the start of the session.

The first part of the session ended at 1.30 p.m. The break lasted for 30 minutes where the members took a snack. During the interval, a number of the respondents finished and submitted the questionnaires they had filled. Others asked the researcher to wait till the close of the day, as the session was fully loaded with issues to be discussed. The proceedings for the session resumed at 2.00 p.m. It went on till 4.45 p.m. Few minutes before the close of the meeting the DCD asked the PM to announce to the respondents who had then not submitted the questionnaires to do so immediately the session was over. At this juncture an Assemblyman volunteered and went round. He collected the rest of the questionnaires before the closing prayer was said. At the end of the day, 74 respondents returned their questionnaires. The researcher thanked the leadership and the entire house for their co-operation.

It was found out later that four of them did not fill out the questionnaires as required and were not included in the final analysis. Six of the Assembly Members did not attend the meeting and could not therefore be reached by the researcher for their responses. At the end of the exercise it was found out that 87.5% of the Assembly Members responded to the questionnaires.

### **3.10.2 The Focus Group Discussion in the Communities**

After the communities for the study had been selected their Assembly Members were consulted to know the ideal days and appropriate times that the people could be available

for the interview. This information was conveyed to the various communities that were selected on the day that the questionnaires were administered at the Assembly Meeting.

The researcher on reaching the community with a trained assistant, consulted the opinion leaders and informed them of the exercise. The respondents were selected using the households. The use of opportunistic sampling was not ruled out. Fieldwork often involved on-the-spot decisions about sampling to take advantage of new opportunities during actual data collection. This helped to take advantage of unforeseen opportunities after the fieldwork has commenced. This according to Patton (1990) is a primary strength of qualitative strategies in research – thus permitting the sample to emerge during fieldwork.

Arrangements were made earlier for forms at an open but shady space where all the selected respondents and the researchers sat comfortably. Some respondents however, preferred to stand throughout the discussions. This was preceded by an informal conversation to reduce any tension that has built up among the respondents.

This was followed by an introduction by the researcher and his assistant. The researcher then informed respondents of the purpose of the discussion. This helped allay their fear of spending a longer duration. The introduction was made brief – simple, straightforward and understandable. The purpose of particular questions were explained in a form of prefatory statement that informed the respondents why the researcher was asking what he asked as pointed out by Patton (1990).

The respondents were asked to introduce themselves according to the demands of the interview guide, which they did. They mentioned variables of age, level of education and occupation. The researcher and his assistant recorded the information given by respondents on prepared response sheets. During the major interview, the researcher moderated and as well took notes alongside the assistant.

The researcher and the assistant compared notes immediately after each discussion session. This enabled them to build up consensus. By this, the researcher went over the discussion notes to make certain that they made sense, uncovered areas of ambiguity and reviewed the quality of information received from the respondents. This helped to check the validity of qualitative data gathered from the field (Patton, 1990).

The moderator ensured that no one or any outspoken person(s) dominated during the interviews. Again, attempts were made as much as possible to employ all respondents to make contributions on issues that were raised. Some few respondents who were observed to be naturally reserved did not respond to all issues put forward. On issues that sought for factual information, some were frank to say that they did not know and as such did not respond to those issues.

In order to maintain control of each focus group interview, the researcher maintained awareness of how the discussion was flowing, how the respondents were reacting to questions and what kinds of feedback were appropriate and helpful to maintain the flow of communication. Long-winded responses, irrelevant remarks and digressions in the discussion were checked. This allowed the discussions to centre on critical issues. This the researcher did by occasionally reminding respondents of the question that was asked.

Interestingly, some of the respondents were very focused and drew the attention of their colleagues when the latter digressed to the admiration of the researcher and his assistant. The researcher ensured that the conduct of some members did not affect or intimidate other respondents.

Bearing in mind the objectives of the study, the researcher asked the right questions to get the desired responses and gave appropriate verbal and non-verbal feedback to the respondents. After each discussion, attention was paid to individuals who liked to speak to the researcher alone. That provided a valuable source of information to the study.

The researcher keenly observed the behaviour of the respondents – gestures, expressions and other body movements. Patton (1990) reports that non-verbal communication in human groups is very important in research. Hence, while recording the language of respondents it was equally important that the interviewer-observer did not overlook non-verbal forms of communication. It was upon this that in-depth discussions were held with some of the respondents after the group interview.

The discussion was carried in the mother tongue of the study area (Fante) since the researcher is very proficient in the Fante Language. It is axiomatic in anthropology that one cannot understand another culture without understanding the language of the people in that culture. The way things are said tell what is important to that culture (Patton, 1990). Using the native language helped the researcher to put issues in direct course to solicit the desired responses.

### 3.11 Data Processing and Analysis

Information obtained through the questionnaires was first, carefully coded for computer analysis. A descriptive analysis of all independent and dependent variables in the study was conducted. These included means, standard deviations and range of scores for the independent variables under consideration. Table presentations were made where appropriate.

For the close-ended and open-ended items on the questionnaires for the Assembly Members, the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used to measure the level of significance at the probability level of 0.05. The choice of the Chi-square was on the basis that the scores that were obtained from the survey were nominal such as percentages and proportions (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993).

The variables examined included:

1. Residence of respondents, that is, Rural / Urban;
2. Number of years that respondents have spent as Assembly Members with the District;
3. Gender view – the responses of Male /Female respondents;
4. Occupation;
5. Level of education of respondents;
6. Age of respondents; and
7. The length of time respondents had stayed in the district.

A cross tabulation was carried out between the independent and dependent variables that were in line with the objectives of the study. The construct computation method or cross-



analytical method was used to analyse responses from the members of the communities generated through focus group discussions.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

#### 4.1 Assembly Members

#### 4.2 Background information of respondents

In determining the objectives of the study the background information of the respondents was necessary to consider taking concrete decisions. Some variables were thus considered important. These were sex, age educational background, occupation and number of years served in the Assembly. Table 4.1 showed the sex distribution of the respondents

Table 4.1

Sex Distribution of Respondents from the District Assembly

Sex	Assembly Members
Male	65 (92.8%)
Female	5 (7.2%)
Total	70 (100%)

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

A total of 70 respondents who were Assembly Members took part in the study. The composition was that there were five women sixty-five men. The other sixty-five were male participants.

### ***Age of respondents***

Age differences are important in decision making as different age groups have different perceptions and attitudes on issues of development. The age distribution of the assembly members was presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

#### **Age Distribution of Respondents from the District Assembly**

<b>Age Group</b>	<b>Assembly Members</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
20-39	3	4.3
40-49	42	60.0
50-59	15	21.4
60 and above	10	14.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

Table 4.2 shows that 60% of the participants were between the ages of 40 – 49 years. Those who were sixty or more years constituted 14.3%. Those between the ages of 20 – 39 were only 4.3%. The other 21.4% were between the ages of 50 – 59. The mean age of the respondents was 37.75 years.

### ***Educational background of respondents***

The level of education of respondents has influence on decision-making. In order to have a critical look at peoples' educational background and their attitude towards self-help development, the study paid attention to this factor of the respondents. This is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Distribution of Level of Education of the Assembly Members

Level of Education	Number	Percentage
Up to Middle / JSS	23	32.9
Secondary	12	17.1
Technical/ Vocational	7	10.0
Teacher Training	12	17.1
Tertiary	16	22.9
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

From Table 4.3, it was found out that of the 70 assembly members, 32.9% had up to Middle/JSS education. Those with tertiary education constituted 22.9%. Ten percent had Technical/Vocational education while 17.1% each had Secondary or Teacher Training education.

***Occupational distribution***

Participation in self-help activities was closely related to the availability of time of the affected individuals. This was also related to the individuals' occupation. To identify who participated in self-help development projects respondents' occupation was examined. Table 4.4 depicted the occupational activities of respondents

Table 4.4

## Occupational Distribution of the Assembly Members

Occupation	No.	Percentage
Farming	18	25.7
Public/Civil Servant	13	18.6
Teaching	13	18.6
Artisans	10	14.3
Total	70	11.4
Trading	5	7.1
Fishing	3	4.3
Others	8	11.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

The single largest occupation of the respondents was farming which constituted 25.7%. This was followed by 18.6% each of teachers and public/civil servants. Those in fishing were 4.3%. Those in occupations such as carpentry, tailoring and other related artisans constituted 14.3%.

#### 4.2.1 Role of Assembly Members in Development

As regards the issue of specific steps that the District Assembly has taken to develop human resources, participants from the Assembly made multiple responses. These were presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

## Human Resource Development Activities

Step Taken	Frequency	Percentage
Skill acquisition programmes	16	23.19
Non- formal education	23	32.90
Vocational/ training	15	21.74
Seminars/symposium/durbars	16	23.19
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

It was found out that non-formal educational activities were the major means used for human resource development. It was supported by 31.88% of the respondents from the Assembly Members. The other activities including skill-acquisition programmes and vocational training received 23.19% and 21.74% respectively.

### ***Channels of information dissemination***

Effective development takes place where the necessary information for development is sent to the target group. However, there were many channels through which this was done. The study found out from the respondents the means through which development information from the District Assembly was sent to the people as presented in Table 4.6. Many of the participants suggested more than one channel through which information was disseminated.

Table 4.6

Channels through which development information was sent

Channels	Frequency		Total	Percentage
	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Radio broadcast	3 (4.3)	63 (95.7)	70	100
Information van	16 (22.9)	54 (67.1)	70	100
Assembly Member	64 (91.4)	6 (8.6)	70	100
Opinion leaders	15 (21.4)	55 (78.6)	70	100
Durbars and festivals	21 (30.0)	49 (70)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

On how development information from the District Assembly was sent out to the communities, 91.4% of the respondents said it was done through the Assembly Members. One other source was the opinion leaders. This was said by 35.7% of the respondents.

The use of radio broadcast was found to be the medium that was least used (4.3%), while 30% indicated further that durbars and festivals were used in their areas.

The responses of the Assembly Members on how they have helped their communities to undertake development activities were summed up in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Help to Communities by Assembly Members

Help to Community	Frequency	Percentage
Mobilizing for communal labour	25	35.7
Initiating development project	20	28.5
Community education	4	5.7
Fund raising/contributions	7	10.0
Organising co-operatives	2	2.9
Lobby at D/A for projects	2	2.9
No response	10	14.3
Total	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

Table 4.7 shows that 35.7% of the assembly members mobilized their electorate for communal labour, 28.5% initiated development projects and 2.9% said they either organized co-operations or lobbied at the district assembly for projects.

#### 4.2.2 Projects in Relation to Poverty Reduction

One problem faced by the people in the developing countries is poverty. To overcome this, efforts had been made to reduce the level of poverty in the Gomoa District. An attempt was also made to find out projects in relation to poverty reduction organised by assembly members. The responses of the assembly members on efforts made were presented in Table 4.8.

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Table 4.8

Development Activities that took place in the District

Development Activities	Frequency	Percentage
Infrastructure development	27	38.6
Mobilizing farmers into co-operatives	15	21.4
Financial assistance	9	12.9
Provision of social services	7	10.0
Revenue mobilization	1	1.4
Educational facilities	1	1.4
No response	10	14.3
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

The study found that attention has been given to infrastructure development. This was said by 38.6% of the assembly members. The next area of development that the district has paid attention to was in the area of mobilizing women and farmers into co-operatives, which was mentioned by 21.4% of the respondents. The areas of revenue mobilization and educational facilities received the lowest response.

#### 4.2.3 Community participation

When the question of whether members of the community participated in development activities 94.3% said yes. To a follow up question on community participation for reasons for their participation, a myriad of responses emerged. These are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Reasons for Participation in Development Activities

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Want development/ improve SOL	25	35.7
Motivation/ Communal spirit	18	25.7
Increased level of awareness of bye-laws	7	10.0
Leadership influence	5	7.2
Felt need projects	3	4.3
Good citizenship/ sense of duty	2	2.9
Participatory planning process	1	1.4
Accountability rendered	1	1.4
No response	8	11.4
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

The people's want for development to improve their standard of living was the prime reason for their participation. The next reason for participation was the existence of communal spirit among the people. The results from Table 4.9 showed that there was low participatory planning process (1.4%) and low rendering of accountability. Two other reasons that received 10% each were motivation/enthusiasm and increased awareness or education that has enlightened them on the existence of bye-laws.

#### 4.2.4 Non-participation in community activities

Even though the communities made efforts at developing through self-help, some individuals did not participate in such communal activities. A number of responses were given to be factors that militated against participating in community activities. This is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

## Reasons for Non-Participation

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Poor education	15	21.4
Chieftaincy disputes	9	12.9
Use time for personal issues/poverty	8	11.4
Apathy/ frustration/ disillusion	8	11.4
Government should undertake projects	8	11.4
Lack morale/ spirit of participation	7	10.0
Political affiliation/sabotage	4	5.8
Lack of accountability	2	2.9
Proceeds go to leaders	1	1.4
Activity awarded on contract	1	1.4
No response	7	10.0
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

It was noted that 21.4% of the respondents said some people did not participate in development activities because of poor education or uncooperative attitude on the part of the people. One other factor for non-participation was chieftaincy disputes. Also 11.4% were of the opinion that as a result of poverty, people used the time to attend not to communal activities but undertake their personal activities. An equal percentage of 11.4 stated that members of the community thought projects should be undertaken by the government or they were frustrated by the system and showed apathy towards community work. A few respondents (1.4%) thought proceeds from projects went to the leaders or they thought that the project had been awarded on contract.

As pointed out, a number of sectors were identified as potential for necessary attention and improvement. Apart from farming and fishing, the other areas identified included small-scale industries and promotion of private business enterprises. Respondents were

asked to indicate those sectors that needed great emphasis for development in the district.

The multiple responses made by respondents were put in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Sectors that need Emphasis for Development

Sectors	Frequency		Total	Percentage
	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Fishing	21 (30.0)	49 (70)	70	100
Farming	54 (77.1)	16 (22.9)	70	100
Small scale industries	34 (48.6)	36 (51.4)	70	100
Private business enterprises	16 (22.9)	54 (77.1)	70	100
Others	5 (7.1)	65 (92.9)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

It was found out that in both the coastal and forest areas, farming was predominant. Thus, 77.1% showed support for this sector. Thirty percent of the respondents said the fishing sector needed a push. The areas of small-scale business and private business enterprises were supported by 48.6% and 22.9% respectively.

In embarking on development projects a number of problems in one form or the other were likely to be encountered. The study found out from respondents the nature of problems that they encountered in that respect. In a multiple response the assembly members identified the problems summed up in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Problems Faced in Embarking on Development Projects

Problems	Frequency		Total	Percentage
	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Lack of financial support	60 (85.7)	10 (14.3)	70	100
Land acquisition	30 (42.9)	40 (57.1)	70	100
Lack of fishing inputs	14 (20.0)	56 (80.0)	70	100
No experts to guide	6 (8.6)	64 (91.4)	70	100
Others	2 (2.9)	68 (97.1)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

It was found out that 85.7% of the respondents indicated that the major problem facing them on development projects was lack of financial support. One other problem bordered on land acquisition with 42.9% supporting the statement. Others indicated that there were no experts to guide the farmers or fishermen when it came to technicalities.

After they had identified these problems that hindered self-help development, and the fact that some of the problems could not be dealt with in the short term, respondents suggested efforts that were needed to raise self-help development. A number of suggestions given by the respondents were presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13

Efforts Needed to Raise Self-help Development

<b>Efforts to raise self-help development</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Education/ communication	25	35.7
Financial / material assistance	17	24.3
Mobilizing the people	5	7.1
Aid from NGOs	5	7.1
Mobilizing funds	3	4.3
Participatory planning / transparency	3	4.3
Organise durbars/festivals	2	2.9
Resolve chieftaincy disputes	2	2.9
No response	8	11.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

Table 4.13 showed 35.7% of the respondents were of the view that the effort that was most needed to raise self-help development was through education and improvement in communication. Also 24.3% said the issue could be tackled by giving financial assistance to the people. Resolving chieftaincy disputes (2.9%) and organising durbars and festivals (2.9%) were among the suggestions made by the respondents.

One important factor needed in community development is identification of needs. These could be real or felt needs. To determine the real needs of the people, respondents indicated that their real needs could be determined through their suggestions as presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

**Determining the Real Needs of the People for Public Expenditure**

<b>How to determine needs</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Through local government structures	18	25.7
Participatory planning /needs assessment	14	20
Creating a data base	7	10
Education	4	5.7
Rely on information from leaders	3	4.3
Community to submit annual budget	2	2.9
No response	22	31.4
Total	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

In determining the real needs of the communities 25.7% of the assembly members suggested that it was done through the local government structures like the assembly members, area /town council and unit committees. Also, 20% said there was the need to have participatory planning process or need assessment must be conducted. Ten percent were of the view that the district must create a database, which will serve as a baseline for other activities. In addition, 5.7% said it must be based on improved education to the people while 4.3% said that there was the need to rely on information from leaders. Some participants (2.9%) suggested that the communities must submit their annual budget proposals to the assembly for consideration. However, 31.4% of the participants did not respond to this issue indicating that they did not have information about determining the real needs of their communities.

Apart from farming, one other major occupation in the Gomoa District is fishing. The fishing expedition is not without its inherent problems. One of these was poor access to fishing inputs. Participants indicated how they got access to fishing inputs. Their responses were grouped and presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

Getting Access to Fishing Inputs

Getting Access	Frequency	Percentage
Forming co-operatives for assistance	19	27.1
Loans from financial institutions	15	21.4
Education on use of new technology	4	5.7
Subsidy on fishing inputs	3	4.3
Break input monopoly of chief fishermen	2	2.9
No response	27	38.7
Total	70	100.0

From Table 4.15, it is seen that 27.1% of the participants said that the fishermen have to form co-operatives to attract financial assistance from the District Assembly. Again, 21.4% called for loans from financial institutions. While some called for education on the use of fishing technology (5.7%) and subsidy on fishing inputs (4.3%), 2.9% said that the monopoly over fishing inputs by 'chief fishermen' must be broken to ensure fair distribution of fishing inputs.

Pre-financing of self-help development projects in rural communities becomes inevitable where the level of poverty is high. As found out in the Gomoa District the poverty rate is 48%. A very important issue in line with that was the direction of District Assembly financed projects. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate where the resources were directed. This was shown in Table 4.16.



Table 4.16

Where district assembly financed projects were to be directed

Direction of Financed Projects	Frequency		Total	Percentage
	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Co-operative groups	43 (61.4)	27 (38.6)	70	100
Individuals	10 (14.3)	60 (85.7)	70	100
Opinion leaders	10 (14.3)	60 (85.7)	70	100
Others	16 (22.9)	54 (77.1)	70	100
No response	2 (2.9)	68 (97.1)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

In a multiple response majority of the respondents (61.4%) were of the view that as far as resource allocations were concerned, the District Assembly financed projects must go to co-operative groups. An equal percentage of 14.3 said it should go to individuals and/ or opinion leaders.

#### 4.3 Local Institutions for Development

Community development, and for that matter self-help development, hinges on local institutions such as traditional rulers, existence of identifiable development-oriented groups and the local government institutions like the Unit Committees, Area Councils and Zonal Councils. Related to these was whether the leaders of such developmental institutions were committed to the course of development.

##### 4.3.1 Commitment of district leaders towards development

When participants were asked whether the leaders in the district were committed to development activities in the district, 71.5% of the 70 participants from the district assembly said the leaders were committed. However, 21.4% said that the leaders were not committed while 7.1% did not respond at all to the issue.

Participants were asked to give reasons for the responses made. A number of responses that emerged were grouped and presented in Table 4.17 (a) and (b).

Table 4.17(a)

Reasons showing Commitment of Leaders Towards the Development of the Gomoa District

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Mobilize for communal labour	10	14.3
Initiate development projects	4	5.7
Cooperate with development activities/ make input in government appointees	18	25.7
Give land for projects	3	4.3
Use project funds judiciously	5	7.1
Generate/mobilize funds	4	5.7

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

It can again be deduced that majority of the respondents (71.5%) who said the leaders were committed to the course of development in the Gomoa District. Of this 62.8% gave reasons for what they said. From Table 4.17(a) it could be observed that 25.7% of them said the leaders cooperated with development activities and as well made input as far as government appointees were concerned, for example, the appointment of the District Chief Executive. Others said they mobilize for communal labour (14.3%), used project funds judiciously (7.1%), initiated development projects (4.3%) and as well helped to mobilized funds for development (5.7%).

Table 4.17(b)

Reasons showing non-commitment of Leaders Towards the  
Development of the Gomoa District

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Work for personal benefits	2	2.9
Relate poorly with communities/ show less interest	3	4.3
No response	21	30.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

From Table 4.17(b), one can deduce that of the 21.4% who said the leaders were not committed, only 7.2% gave reasons for their stand. Thus, 4.3% said the leaders related poorly with and show less interest in communal activities while 2.9% also said some of the leaders work for personal benefits to the neglect of the community.

People's commitment to an activity, to some extent, is a function of how they were endowed with the issue at hand. To get one endowed is through training for skills acquisition. This is because leaders are at one time or the other selected from the various community members. The study therefore examined this by taking a look at institutional training facilities that existed in the district. Table 4.18 showed the responses.

Table 4.18

Existence of training facilities in the district

Training facilities	Number	Percentage
Vocational institutions and apprenticeship centres	26	37.1
No training facility	19	27.2
Fire fighting volunteers	1	1.4
No response	24	34.3
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

When respondents were asked to indicate the type of training facilities that existed in the district as far as skill development was concerned, it became glaring that 27.2% did not know that any training facilities existed as they stated that none existed in the district. Also, 34.3% did not respond at all to indicate whether some training facilities existed or not in the district. On the other hand, 37.1% mentioned vocational training while 1.4% said fire-fighting volunteers existed in their electoral areas in the district. This showed that though some form of training centres existed in the Gomoa District, many of the residents were not aware of such training centres.

#### 4.3.2 Collaboration Between Community Leaders and District Assembly

Effective self-help development revolves on collaboration, coordination and co-operation. This could be achieved when a healthy relationship existed among the leaders. The study inquired from participants how the District Assembly and the community leaders have collaborated as regards self-help development activities. It looked at co-operation, reasons for co-operation or non-co-operation and efforts at coordinating development efforts. Table 4.19 showed the extent of co-operation between the community leaders and the District Assembly.

Table 4.19

Level of co-operation between community leaders and district assembly

Extent of co-operation	Number	Percentage
Co-operating	32	45.7
Non-co-operating	18	25.7
Very co-operating	17	24.3
No response	3	4.3
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

When participants were asked to indicate the level of co-operation that existed between community leaders and the District Assembly as shown in Table 4.19, nearly a quarter of them (24.3%) indicated that they were very co-operating, 45.7% said they were co-operating and just a little above quarter (25.7%) said they were not co-operating. Of the 70 participants, an insignificant (4.3%) number did not respond to the question on co-operation.

### ***Relationship Between Local Leaders and District Assembly***

The relationship of body of agencies that function together for self-help development was seen on how the functionaries related among themselves. As shown in Table 4.20, the local leaders related with the District Assembly in a number of ways.

Table 4.20

#### **Relationship Between Local Leaders and District Assembly for Development**

<b>Type of relationship</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Regular interaction with D/A structures	15	21.4
Send bordering issues to D/A / council of state	10	14.3
Personal contributions	9	12.9
Lobby/negotiate at D/A for community projects	6	8.5
Leaders mobilize funds	5	7.1
United with assembly members	3	4.3
Apathy /expect government to do everything	2	2.9
No response	20	28.6
Total	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

As can be seen from Table 4.20, 21.4% indicated that there had been regular interactions between the local leaders (chief and opinion leaders) and the D/A structures towards development. It was also indicated by 14.3% of the respondents that the local leaders sent issues bordering them to the district assembly or at times to the council of state

representative in the region. An insignificant number of the respondents (2.9%) indicated that there were some elements of apathy on the side of some of the local leaders towards the district assembly or they expected that all their needs were to be catered for by the government.

#### 4.4 Means of Information Dissemination

Respondents answered the question of how information was sent to the various communities in the district. Different environmental settings have varied means of communication. The value of information was much related to the source. It was observed that though similar means were used the frequency with which they were used differed as regards urban/rural communities. This was presented in Table 4.21. In both situations, however, the Assembly Members employed more than one means of communicating development issues to their electorate.

Table 4.21

Area of Residence by Means of Sending Development Information to the Communities

Means of Sending information	Urban		Rural		Total	%
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Assembly members	25 (35.7)	0 (0)	39 (55.7)	6 (8.6)	70	100
Information vans	9 (12.9)	16 (22.8)	7 (10.0)	38 (54.3)	70	100
Durbars/ festivals	8 (11.4)	17 (24.3)	13 (18.6)	32 (45.7)	70	100
Opinion leaders	5 (7.1)	20 (28.6)	10 (14.3)	35 (50.0)	70	100
Radio broadcast	2 (2.8)	23 (32.9)	1 (1.4)	44 (62.9)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

As can be found out from Table 4.21, in both cases, urban and rural Assembly Members served as sources of information. Thus, 35.7% and 55.7% of the urban and rural assembly members respectively indicated that they carried development information from the assembly to their electoral areas.

It was also found out that opinion leaders from both urban (7.1%) and rural (14.3%) communities sent information to their people. The use of information vans was more in urban areas (12.9%) than rural areas (10%).

#### *Help to communities by assembly members*

Assembly Members have roles to play in their various communities. While some of such roles were scheduled by the concept under which the local government operates, the members themselves carved out other roles to ensure development in their areas. The Assembly Members in the rural areas employed other tactics and roles that were not found with their counterparts from urban areas. Table 4.22 showed the responses given by the Assembly Members.

Table 4.22

#### Area of Residence by help from Assembly Members to Community

Help to Community by Assembly Member	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	Percent-age	No.	Percent-age	No.	Percent-age
Mobilize for communal labour	8	11.4	17	24.2	25	35.6
Initiate development project	6	8.6	14	20.0	20	28.6
Fund raising/contributions	2	2.9	5	7.0	7	9.9
Embark on community education	2	2.9	2	2.9	4	5.8
Organise co-operation	–	–	2	2.9	2	2.9
Lobby at D/A for projects	–	–	2	2.9	2	2.9
No response	7	10.0	3	4.3	10	14.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>35.8</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>64.2</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$\chi^2 = 6.868$ ;  $df = 6$ ;  $p > .05$

Mobilisation for communal labour was one important role employed by 11.4% of urban and 24.2% of rural respondents. As required of them 8.6% of urban and 20% of rural respondents had initiated development projects in their communities. The Assembly Members also shared the same opinion as regards embarking on community education. On the other hand, 2.9% each of the assembly members from rural communities organised co-operatives and lobbied at the District Assembly for development projects. The Chi-Square statistic did not show any difference with respect to help given by Assembly Members in urban and rural communities.

The Assembly Members had three different levels of education. These were lower education, average education and higher education. These levels were matched against the type of help that they offered their communities. This gave a clue to the type of help that people with different levels of education gave to their communities. Table 4.23 showed these relationships.



Table 4.23

## Level of education by assembly members' help to the community

Help given to the Community	Lower Education		Average Education		Higher Education		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
communal labour	8	11.4	9	12.9	8	11.4	25	35.7
Initiate development project	7	10	3	4.3	10	14.3	20	28.5
Fund raising/ contributions	1	1.4	4	5.7	2	2.9	7	10
Organise co-operation	2	2.9	-	-	-	-	2	2.9
Lobbying	-	-	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	2.9
Embark on community education	2	2.9	1	1.4	1	1.4	4	5.7
No response	2	2.9	1	1.4	7	10	10	14.3
Total	22	31.5	19	27.1	29	41.4	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002* $X^2 = 17.9122$ ;  $df = 21$ ;  $p > .05$ 

One role that was significantly played by the assembly members irrespective of their level of education was that they all mobilised their people for communal labour in their various communities. It emerged that 11.4% of those with lower education, 12.9% of those with average education and 11.4% of those with higher education performed it. In addition, 10% of those with lower education, 4.3% of those with middle education and 14.3% of those with higher education initiated development projects. Those with middle education did more on fund raising and personal contributions (5.7%) as compared to 1.4% of those with lower education 2.9% of those who had higher education. Only the assembly members who had lower education (2.9%) organised co-operative activities in

their communities. The Chi-Square calculations did not reveal any difference between people's level of education and help they offer to their communities.

***Development activities in the district***

In an attempt at looking at development indicators in the district, assembly members indicated the type of self-help development projects that were embarked upon in their communities. It was considered against the rural/urban setting of the people. The development activities undertaken in the communities were presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24

Area of residence by development activities embarked on in the district

Development in the district	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Infrastructure development	10	14.3	17	24.3	27	38.6
Provision for social services	5	7.1	2	2.9	7	10.0
Revenue mobilisation	–	–	1	1.4	1	1.4
Financial assistance	2	2.9	7	10.0	9	12.9
Educational facilities	–	–	1	1.4	1	1.4
Formation of co-operatives	3	4.3	12	17.2	15	21.5
No response	5	7.1	5	7.1	10	14.2
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$$X^2 = 7.5252; df = 6; p > .05$$

It came out that 24.3% of rural communities had benefited from infrastructural development as against 14.3% of the urban communities. On the other hand, 7.1% of the urban communities had social services provided as compared to 2.9% that went to rural communities. Ten percent of the rural people and 2.9% of their urban counterparts

benefited from financial assistance. The use of co-operatives for self-help development was more prevalent in rural communities (17.2%) as it was only 4.3% in urban areas.

### **Participation**

As indicated in Table 4.24, a number of development activities were embarked upon. The willingness of the people towards these could be seen through participation. Participation was very important in self-help development. To know the levels of participation in self-help activities in the communities, assembly members indicated how their community members participated in such activities. This was presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25

Area of Residence by Community Members' Participation in Development Activities in the Gomoa District

Response	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Participation	24	34.3	42	60.0	66	94.3
Non participation	1	1.4	3	4.3	4	5.7
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$X^2 = 0.2134$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > 0.05$

To the question of whether people in their communities participate in development activities, 94.3% made up of 34.3% of urban and 60% of rural participants said the members of their communities participated in development activities.

The willingness of the people that made them participate in self-help development projects was based on a number of reasons. This was examined against the area of

residence of the people. These included their preparedness to improve their standard of living, sense of duty, presence of communal spirit, increased level awareness of by-laws and its implications. Others were participatory planning process that was adopted, leadership influence and accountability on the part of the leaders.

#### **4.5 The Activities of the Existing Co-operatives**

On what the existing co-operatives do, 8.7% each of the urban and rural participants said they embarked on communal labour for clearing their surroundings, 12.9% said they embarked on community education/ participated in development activities (2.9%-urban, 10%-rural). Also, 24.3% embarked on co-operative farming (11.4%-urban, 12.9%-rural) while 7.1% were involved in mobilizing funds for development (2.9%-urban, 4.2%-rural). It was found out at this point that 38.6% said there were no co-operatives or if they were there, they performed no functions as far as they were aware.

#### ***Sectors that needed greater emphasis***

As identified earlier, some communities had more than one resource that could be developed. This generated multiple responses from the respondents as some of them indicated that more resources could be given attention. Their responses were matched on rural/urban basis and presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26

## Area of residence by sectors that needed greater emphasis for development

Sectors that needed attention	Urban		Rural		Total	%
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		
Farming	16 (22.8)	9 (12.9)	38 (54.3)	7 (10.0)	70	100
Fishing	13 (18.6)	12 (17.1)	8 (11.4)	37 (52.9)	70	100
Small-scale industries	12 (17.1)	13 (18.6)	22 (31.4)	23 (32.9)	70	100
Private businesses	8 (11.4)	17 (24.3)	8 (11.4)	37 (52.9)	70	100
Artisanship	2 (2.9)	23 (32.9)	3 (4.2)	42 (60.0)	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

An area that the respondents indicated that greater emphasis had to be laid was the farming sector as stated by 22.8% of the urban and 54.3% of the rural respondents. The other area that the people placed attention was small-scale enterprises development as indicated by 17.1% of urban and 31.4% of rural respondents.

Laying emphasis on particular resources available for development did not escape certain problems that were inherent in the system. This had to do with accessibility to facilities that the people could lay hands on. These involved land acquisition, financial support base, fishing inputs and extension services specialists.

#### 4.6 Problems faced in the course of embarking on development projects

A common pattern emerged as regards the sex of participants and their views on problems faced in embarking on development. That is, both the male and female participants said inadequate financial support was the greatest problem followed by issues that militate against land acquisition, lack of the needed fishing inputs and others.

However, while 2.9% of the males identified other factors such as litigation on land and chieftaincy disputes, none of the female participants said so.

In order to have an in-depth knowledge about the problem faced by the people in embarking on development projects, the educational background of the Assembly Members was matched against the problems as shown in Table 4.27. Many of the respondents indicated one or more problems that faced the District Assembly in embarking on development projects.

Table 4.27

Level of Education of Respondents by problems they faced in the Course of Embarking on Development Projects

Problems Faced	Lower Education		Average Education		Higher Education		Total	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	%
Lack of financial support	20	28.6	18	25.7	22	31.4	30	42.9
Land acquisition	9	12.9	5	7.1	16	22.9	60	85.7
Lack of fishing inputs	7	10.0	4	5.7	3	4.3	14	20
No experts	5	7.1	0	0	1	1.4	6	8.5
Others	2	2.9	-	0	-	0	2	2.9

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

Note: *Multiple responses were made.*

From Table 4.27, 12.9% of those with lower education (primary/ middle/JSS) 7.1% of those with average education (secondary/ technical /vocational) and 22.9% of those with higher education (teacher/nursing training/tertiary) identified land acquisition as a major problem that hindered development. Again, lack of financial support was a problem to

the respondents as far as their educational background was concerned. Thus, 28.6% of those with lower education, 25.7% of those with average education and 31.4% of those with higher education indicated that.

In addition, 10% of those with lower education and 5.7% of those with average education said one other problem that militated against development was lack of fishing inputs. Of the 8.5% who said there were no experts to guide them 7.1% had lower education, implying that those with lower education needed more guidance in undertaking self-help activities.

Among those with lower education lack of financial support was identified by 12.9%. Also, those with middle education said lack of financial support was the greatest problem that hindered development. Involving those with higher education, 31.4% identified that lack of financial support has affected development while another 22.9% of them said there were problems with land acquisition.

After identifying a number of problems that faced the people in their bid towards self-help development, they suggested certain efforts that could be taken to raise self-help development. Different localities employed different means to solve problems associated with self-help development. The issues were examined against the background of rural/urban communities. Efforts made to raise self-help development were thus summed up and presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28

Area of residence of respondents and how to raise self-help  
Development in the Gomoa District

Efforts to raise self-help development	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No.	%
Education/communication	8	11.4	17	24.3	25	35.7
Financial/material assistance	5	7.2	12	17.1	17	24.3
Organizing durbars/festivals	4	5.7	3	4.3	7	10
Aid from NGOs	4	5.7	1	1.4	5	7.1
Mobilising funds	2	2.9	1	1.4	3	4.3
Participatory planning/transparency	1	1.4	2	2.9	3	4.3
Resolve chieftaincy disputes	–	–	2	2.9	2	2.9
No response	1	1.4	7	10	8	11.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>35.7</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>64.3</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$\chi^2 = 13.0019, df = 7, p > 0.05$

The respondents were asked to indicate the efforts that were needed to raise self-help development. Some variations were observed between the urban and rural respondents.

The factor that was identified by 11.4% of the urban and 24.3% of rural respondents was the need to educate the people and improve communication in the district. Another factor identified by 7.2% of urban and 17.1% of rural respondents was financial or material assistance.

It was also realised that 5.7% of urban respondents called for aid from NGOs while 2.9% of rural respondents said chieftaincy disputes had to be reduced if not eliminated. Also, 5.7% of urban respondents said the people had to be mobilised for self-help development

activities when festival and durbars were held. The Chi-Square statistic showed that no significant difference existed between the rural and urban communities with regard to efforts to raise self-help development.

#### **4.7 Resource Sharing Mechanism**

One problem encountered by developing partners in developing countries is inadequate resources. The Assembly Members therefore, expressed their views on means of effective resource allocation in their district and how they were spent. The resources available to the district assembly for development programmes were inadequate due to the fact that revenue mobilised was low. The major source of the assembly funding came from the District Assemblies Common Fund (DAFCF). Its distribution favoured the urban communities to the disadvantage of the rural communities. In this light, the respondents stated effective means through which the resources were allocated. These opinions were presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29

Area of residence by means of effective resource allocation in the Gomoa District

Effective means of Resources allocation	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Increase quantum/extend poverty alleviation fund coverage	4	5.71	12	17.14	16	22.85
Allocate resources to co-operate groups	8	11.4	2	2.9	10	14.3
Aid from NGOs	-	-	8	11.4	8	11.4
Provision for social /economic infrastructure facilities	2	2.9	3	4.3	5	7.1
Provision of materials for self-help projects	2	2.9	2	2.9	4	5.71
Construction of break waters for fishing	-	-	2	2.9	2	2.9
No response	9	12.9	16	22.9	25	35.7
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002* $\chi^2=11.7229$ ,  $df=6$ ,  $p> 0.05$ 

One important way of allocating resources identified by respondents was to increase the quantum of the Poverty Reduction Fund and as well extend the coverage to reach more people in all communities. This view was expressed by 22.85% of the participants made up of 17.14% and 5.8% of rural and urban participants respectively.

Another 14.3% (11.4%- urban; 2.9%- rural) of the participants said resources must be allocated to groups. Again, 11.4% of the respondents from rural communities said aid from NGOs would be of an immense help, while 2.9% from rural communities said there was the need to construct breakwaters for safe landing in the fishing communities. One other factor identified was provision of social and economic infrastructure.

While the urban respondents called for allocating resources to co-operative groups, the rural respondents said the quantum of the poverty reduction fund has to be increased and its scope widened to benefit many. The  $X^2$  statistic showed that there was no difference between area of residence (urban/rural) and the effective ways of resource allocation in the district.

Following the responses on effective means of resource sharing mechanism suggested by the assembly members, they further indicated the direction of the assembly's financed projects. While some suggested that individual projects could be financed, others still indicated that financial assistance should go to opinion leaders and co-operative groups. Table 4.30 showed the opinion of the assembly members.

Table 4.30

Area of residence by the direction of the district assembly's financed projects

Direction of assembly's financed projects	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Individuals	7	10.0	3	4.3	10	14.3
Opinion leaders	-	0.0	10	14.3	10	14.3
Co-operative groups	15	21.4	28	40.0	43	61.4
Others	3	4.3	4	5.7	7	10.0
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$X^2 = 7.2727$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > 0.05$

From Table 4.30 it was observed that 21.4% of the urban and 40% of the rural respondents were of the view that the district assembly's financed projects has to go to

co-operative groups. Also 10% of the urban and 4.3% of the rural respondents respectively said the assembly has to finance the activities of individuals.

Among the rural respondents it can be deduced that 14.3% of them were of the view that financed projects by the assembly have to be passed through the opinion leaders. The urban counterparts did not support this view. From this it can be said that the rural respondents had some level of confidence in the opinion leaders than those in urban communities. The chi-square statistic however, did not show any difference between rural and urban residents as regards where the assembly directed its financial assistance on projects in communities.

#### 4.8 Local Institutions For Development

In examining the local institutions for self-help development, the commitment of the leaders towards such activities was considered in relation to urban/rural community leaders. Table 4.31 showed the level of commitment of the leaders.

Table 4.31  
Area of residence by commitment of the leaders towards  
development in the Gomoa District

Commitment of leaders	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Committed	18	25.7	32	45.7	50	71.4
Not committed	4	5.7	11	15.7	15	21.5
No response	3	4.3	2	2.9	5	7.1
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$X^2 = 1.8214$ ,  $df = 2$   $p > 0.05$

Those who were committed, 25.7% were from the urban areas with 45.7% residing in rural areas. This may seem to suggest that the rural people were more committed than

the urban people. However, among the urban people those who were committed were 72% and that of the rural respondents were 71.1%, showing no difference in the level of commitment in the two areas. For those who were not committed 5.7% of them were urban people and 15.7% were from the rural communities. The chi-square statistic showed that there was no difference between area of residence and commitment of leaders to development projects.

Among the 71.4% who said the leaders were committed to the course of the district, 67.1% were males and 4.3% were females. There was 18.6% male and 2.9% female who said the leaders were not committed. The other 7.1% who did not respond were all male participants.

The level of education of the assembly members was examined in relation to the commitment of the leaders towards self-help development. Responses given by the assembly members were presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32

Level of education by commitment of leaders towards development in the Gomoa District

Level of Education	Committed		Not committed		No response		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Lower Education	16	22.8	5	7.1	2	2.9	23	32.8
Average Education	13	18.6	4	5.7	2	2.9	19	27.2
Higher Education	21	30	6	8.6	1	1.4	28	40.0
Total	50	71.4	15	21.4	5	7.2	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

$X^2 = 3.6322$ ,  $df = 8$ ,  $p > 0.05$

From the table it was seen that 22.8% of those with lower education, 18.6% of those with average education and 30% of those with higher education indicated that the leaders were committed towards self-help development in the district. Of those who said the leaders were not committed, 8.6% had higher education, 7.1% had lower education and 5.7% had average education. The chi-square statistic did not show any difference between level of education of people and commitment of leaders towards self-help development.

Respondents were asked to indicate the skills training facilities that existed in the district. Some of the respondents identified educational institutions, apprenticeship centres and voluntary institutions that train people in various skills for development. This was looked at in relation to their area of residence as presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33

**Area of Residence by Participant Knowledge of Existing Facilities for Training and Development**

Existing training facilities	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Educational institutions/ apprenticeship centres/ fire fighting volunteers	11	15.7	16	22.9	27	38.5
No institution for training	7	10.0	12	17.1	19	27.2
No response	7	10.0	17	24.3	24	34.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>35.7</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>64.3</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2002* $X^2 = 1.725$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p > 0.05$ 

The study found that 15.7% of the urban and 22.9% of the rural people identified the existence of training institutions in the district where individuals acquired skills. However, 10% of the urban and 17.1% of the rural people said there were no institutions for skill training and acquisition programmes.

The  $X^2$  statistic showed that there was no difference between area of residence (urban/rural) and availability of skill training and acquisition centres for human resource development ( $X^2 = 1.725$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). A critical follow up in the study showed that some people in the district were not aware of the training institutions that existed in their localities.

Again, the awareness of the assembly members of training institutions that existed in the district was matched against the educational background of the members as presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34  
Educational Background by Knowledge of Training Institutions

Level of Education	Existence of Training Institutions		No Training Institution		No Response		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Lower Education	7	10.0	6	8.6	10	14.3	23	32.9
Average Education	4	5.7	8	11.4	7	10.0	19	27.1
Higher Education	16	22.9	5	7.1	7	10.0	28	40.0
Total	27	38.5	19	27.2	24	34.3	70	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

As can be found in Table 4.34 a larger number of those with higher education (22.9%) said they were aware of the existence of training institutions in the district with a smaller number (10%) not responding. However, of the twenty-three respondents with lower education only 10% said there existed training institutions while 8.6% of them did not know that such institutions existed. Also, 11.4% of those with average education said no training institution existed in the district.

#### 4.9 Collaboration Between Community Leaders And District Assembly

Respondents were asked about how the various leaders in the district collaborated for self-help development. This was looked at against the area of residence of the assembly members. Table 4.35 showed the responses made.

Table 4.35

Respondents' area of residence and their knowledge of the relationship between the District Assembly and Unit Committees

Type of relationship	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Co-operative	12	17.1	20	28.6	32	45.7
Non-co-operative	7	10	14	20	21	30.0
Very co-operative	6	8.6	11	15.7	17	24.3
Total	25	35.7	45	64.3	70	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*  $X^2 = 0.0971$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $p > 0.05$

It was found out that 8.6% of the urban and 15.7% of the rural leaders co-operated very well with the district assembly for self-help development. Again, 17.1% of the urban respondents and 28.6% of their rural counterparts indicated some level of co-operation. However, 10% of the urban and 20% of the rural leaders did not co-operate with the District Assembly. The  $X^2$  statistic showed that level of co-operation between community leaders and the district assembly/ unit committees did not differ from area of residence.

#### 4.10 Reasons for Co-operation:

Participants assigned reasons for saying there was co-operation or non-co-operating relationships between the assembly and the unit committees. The responses were summed up in Table 4.36 (a) and (b).



Table 4.36 (a)

Area of Residence by Reasons for co-operation between  
Assembly and Unit Committees

Reasons assigned for co-operation/ non-co-operation	Urban		Rural		Total	
		%		%	No.	%
Continued contact between them	7	10	16	22.9	23	32.9
Unit committees lead in projects	2	2.9	3	4.3	5	7.1
Information from D/A get to the people	2	2.9	4	5.7	6	8.6

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

As can be seen in Table 4.36(a) those who said there was co-operation between the district assembly and the unit committees gave three major reasons for their response.

These were that:

There was continued contact between the assembly and the unit committees as the assembly members linked the two bodies. This was indicated by 32.9% of the respondents. Also, 7.1% said the members of the unit committees led in undertaking self-help projects. Again, 8.6% of them said the people got information from the assembly through the various means discussed earlier.

**Table 4.36 (b)**  
**Area of Residence by Reasons for Non-co-operation between**  
**Assembly and Unit Committees**

Reasons assigned for co-operation/ non-co-operation	Urban		Rural		Total	
		%		%	No.	%
Continued contact between them	7	10	16	22.9	23	32.9
Unit committees lead in projects	2	2.9	3	4.3	5	7.1
Information from D/A get to the people	2	2.9	4	5.7	6	8.6
Decentralization structure not in full gear	8	11.4	4	5.7	12	17.1
Communication gap between assembly and unit committees	1	1.4	2	2.9	3	4.3
Local structures not working	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.4
Lack of incentives to unit committees	-	-	1	1.4	1	1.4
Poor education about D/A concept	-	-	2	2.9	2	2.9
District too large for regular contact	4	5.7	13	18.6	17	24.3

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

From Table 4.36(b) those who said there was no co-operation between the assembly and the unit committees mentioned several reasons. One of such reasons indicated by 17.1% of the respondents was that the decentralization structure was not in full operation. Also, 4.3% of them said a wide communication gap existed between the District Assembly and the unit committees as far as their functions were concerned. They further complained that where the local structures existed, their performance left much to be desired. Some were of the view that there were no incentives to unit committees.

Others attributed it to poor community education about the district assembly concept. This was indicated by 2.9% of the respondents.

In addition to the factors mentioned earlier, 24.3% of the respondents said the Gomoa district was too large to administer as a single unit, and that it did not facilitate regular contact between the District Assembly and other factionaries.

The Focus Group Interviews (FGIs) were conducted in line with the design of the study to solicit the views of the members on the objectives of the study. In this direction ten communities were selected. These communities were: Nyanyano, Fetteh, Buduatta, Afransi and Potsin from the Gomoa East constituency. The others were Apam, Dago, Abonko, Eshiem and Mankuadze from the Gomoa West constituency.

In each of the ten communities there were two groups of ten members each. Each of the twenty groups from the communities was made up of either all male or all female.

The ages of the focus group participants ranged between eighteen and eighty years with a mean age of 37.8 years.

The educational background, occupation of participants, major and minor activities of the various communities and the time that meetings were held were summed up and presented in Appendix C.

#### **4.11.1 Background of the Focus Group Members**

The focus groups were made up of 200 members of equal numbers of males and females.

##### *Age distribution*

The age distribution of the members of the Focus Group participants were grouped into ranges as presented in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37

## Age Distribution of Focus Group Members

Age Group (in Years)	Number	Percentage
18 – 39	24	12
40 – 49	120	60
50 – 59	41	20.5
60 and above	15	7.5
Total	200	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

From Table 4.37 it was realised that 60% of the participants were in the age range of 40 – 49 years. Those who were sixty years and beyond constituted 7.5% of the members of the Focus Group participants.

***Educational background***

The educational background of the Focus Group participants was grouped into four. These were those who had no formal education, lower education, middle education and higher education shown in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38

## Level of Education of Focus Group Members

Level of Education	Number	Percentage
No Formal Education	86	44.3
Lower Education	91	45.5
Middle Education	18	9
Higher Education	5	2.5
Total	200	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

Forty-three percent of the participants had no formal education while 45.5% had lower education. Only five percent had higher education and the other 9% had middle education.

### **Occupational Distribution**

The occupational distribution of the Focus Group participants was also considered. That helped avoid selecting people from few occupations for the interview. Table 4.39 showed the distribution.

Table 4.39

Occupational Distribution of Focus Group Members

<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Farming</b>	60	30
<b>Fishing</b>	54	27
<b>Trading</b>	34	17
<b>Public/Civil Servants</b>	13	6.5
<b>Artisans/Apprentices</b>	24	12
<b>Unemployed</b>	15	7.5
<b>Total</b>	200	100

Source: *Field Survey, 2002*

From Table 4.39, it was observed that 30% of the Focus Group participants were farmers. Twenty-seven percent were fishermen and fishmongers. It was realised that 7.5% of the people interviewed from the communities were unemployed. The other 12% were artisans, apprentices and students.

#### **4.11.2 Functions of the District Assembly**

Participants in the various Focus Groups (FGs) were asked to tell the functions of the District Assembly. That question was purposefully posed to know of the people's

awareness and the functions that the District Assembly performed for the benefit of the people in the district.

Responses from all the groups suggested that the participants knew that the District Assembly existed and that it was created to play a vital role in the formulation of the composite budget through levying and the development of basic infrastructure like putting up schools, markets, toilet facilities, provision of water, construction of roads, health posts and maintain sanitary conditions in the district.

To the question of the type of support that the communities needed from the DA, participants' views were that the District Assembly had to provide the basic infrastructure and make funds available for such activities.

#### **4.11.3 Self-help Activities**

As regards self-help activities towards community development, it was found that some of the communities have embarked on a number of them while others have not. In some of them, the people have successfully started and completed some projects either alone or with the help of NGOs, the DA and other individuals. Some of these projects were: electrification projects, places of convenience, among others.

At Gomoa Eshiem, the people of the community took three years to complete their electrification project and got connected to the national grid. They were able to do that through two main principal sources of funding. One was that during their annual Akwambo festival, the community organised fund raising activities to push the project.

Their other source of funding was through accumulated funds raised from contributions at funerals. Thus, at the death of any members of the community, all citizen of the town at eighteen years or more but not in school were made to pay one hundred cedis (₦ 100.00). Those contributions had accumulated over the years into a big sum. Part of that was added to the monies raised to complete the electrification project.

At Mankoadze, the people had put up two toilet facilities with the assistance of German volunteers. The German volunteers contributed technical assistance while the people contributed materials and communal labour. The financial component that came from the volunteers was used to purchase bags of cement. The people fetched sand from the shore and moulded the blocks for the project. The local masons helped to put up the structure. Also, local materials – wood and grass – were used to roof the facilities. This was done so that it would be easy to maintain it.

As regards how satisfactory the projects were to them, one middle-aged woman had this to say:

*"Today, our shores are neat. No one defecated there again but used the toilet facilities."*

Another old woman added:

*"We the ladies are saved from the embarrassment of going to the shore in the morning with young boys and our husbands."*

At Nyanyano for instance the people have also put up structures for a clinic, police station and a post office with attached accommodations through their own effort. These were achieved through communal labour and self-help spirit.

At Gomoa Fetteh and Buduatta however, self-help activities have eluded them. When the researcher probed further, it was revealed by participants that chieftaincy disputes and litigations have polarised the communities. These setbacks have dumped the spirit of initiative in the people. One middle-aged male participant from Buduatta said,

*" Why should I attend a call by the chief who is fighting against almost all the people in the town? He can do the work alone, hence my attitude. "*

#### 4.11.4 Community Participation.

One issue closely related to self-help activity is community participation. It was found that in communities where strides have been made towards development, the people participated fully or co-operated with any development activity initiated.

In a response to a question as how they achieved that, participants indicated that their community members were very happy to have participated in such a process. One elderly man at Afransi said,

*"You know, most of the developmental activities in this community have been achieved as a result of the peoples participation. During the days of our parents, a day was used in every week for communal labour. " He added, "It was through this that we have a number of projects like school buildings and toilet facilities built on our own initiative. "*

Some indicated by estimation that over 85% of their community members participated in activities at their own will. These they attributed to their wish for development for a better standard of living. They did this by responding to a call through gong-gong beating, which carries the symbol and authorities of the chief and his elders. At



Nyanyano, it was found out that failure to participate in communal labour attracted a fine and as well a rebuke from the elders of the town.

Answering a question as to why she participated in all communal activities, a young woman at Nyanyano said,

*“How could I abstain from such an activity? I have two children. I don't have money and there is no man behind me. If I refuse to participate and I am fined, who will pay for me?”* She added, *I don't participate for the whole day. I sometimes go to the project site very early. After I have worked for about two or three hours, I come home and put up my wares in front of our house and sell.”*

#### 4.11.5 Existence of co-operatives

In most of the communities, co-operative groups were non-existing. Where they existed, their activities were unknown or had waned with time. In the fishing communities, the fishermen have some co-operatives. Their activities, according to the participants, were more restricted and thus benefited the executives.

It was discussed at Mankoadze that the Adventist Development Relief Agency (ADRA) has helped the community and constituted some co-operative groups for cultivating cashew plantation. This plantation project was done in conjunction with other nearby communities like Onyadze, Otsewkrom and Mprumem.

Asked whether the people started the project on their own initiative, they said that the people started their farms and ADRA came in to help them introduce the cashew. A leader of one of the groups said,

*“ADRA has realised the deteriorating conditions of the people in the town as compared to some hey days of the community, hence their intervention.”*

In the communities mentioned earlier and some few others consulted the Forest management of the Yinku Forest Reserves through the District Agricultural Extension Office. The willingness of the people to replant the part of the forest that has been depleted through the activities of those who cut wood yielded a positive result. The initiative resulted in the release of part of the forest for cultivation of maize.

In return, the people have planted *acacia* seedlings provided by Forestry Management. Some of the participants expressed their appreciations on the projects. A young man said,

*“Last year, I had no fertile land to cultivate. This year however, because the land was released I paid and cultivated three acres of maize. It has helped me pay my children's fees at school. Also, many of the people here (Mankoadze) have been able to pay their financial contributions that were levied for local development.”*

#### **4.11.6 Poverty – Causes and Suggested Solutions through self-help**

Participants indicated a number of factors such as lack of employment, inadequate support from the government, poor transportation system (road network), poor planning, and low level of education, teenage pregnancies and unplanned large family sizes.

On how poverty could be reduced, the views expressed were that those in fishing communities need support for their fishing inputs, loans from financial institutions with enough time frame for repayment, formation of co-operatives for institutional support, and establishing employment centres to absorb the unemployed.

In response, participants indicated a number of factors as causes of poverty. These included lack of employment, poor support from the government, poor transportation system, poor planning, unplanned pregnancies among teenagers and large family sizes. The suggestions that participants in the various focus group discussions could be categorised as those coming from fishing communities and those from the farming areas.

At Dago, the male participants were more concerned about their inability to acquire fishing inputs and problems associated with access lands at the shores. An elderly participant said,

*"There have been several plans at constructing breakwaters for safe landing. This project had stayed on the drawing board of all governments after Dr. Nkrumah was overthrown. Who again will come and do it to help our fishing activities?"* he asked.

Another fisherman at Mankoadze said,

*"We are poor. Our business is not going on as we expected. One may not understand. The fishing industry was very expensive than it meets the eye of any ordinary person. The small canoes that we use, the nets, cork, lead, twine and other things are very expensive for many of us to acquire."*

When probed as how they got some for fishing another young fisherman said,

*"As for our group, none of us owns a canoe, a net or anything. My mother-in-law provided the inputs I use with my group. At the end of any fishing expedition that we embarked on, she has to buy all our catch."*

He explained further that,

*“She also has shares in whatever we get. She takes away a third of the proceeds for providing the inputs. She then shares the other two-thirds with us equally. That is why we need our own inputs,”*

At Apam, the above scenario was not different. One middle-aged man said,

*“Most of the big canoes and boats were owned by few people. At the end of the day, all that we get is to sell part and give the rest to our wives.”*

On how to overcome such a cycle, they all expressed the view that, if the government or the District Assembly came to their aid by acquiring the inputs for them and given some reasonable time to pay, they will be able to get somewhere. A participant at Fetteh who was a fisherman said,

*“We don't have any opportunity to acquire credit from the banks. We don't have any collateral security. Our buildings do not meet the criteria they set, and there is no one to guarantee a loan or credit facility for us.”*

One other man at Nyanyano said,

*“Sometimes, we don't even have money to buy the pre-mix fuel for our outboard motors. If you borrow money from any of our women for that purpose, it rather worsens your plight.”*

He added that,

*“By the time that the canoe landed, she was there to buy all our catch at relatively cheaper price. If you refuse, then you don't stand the chance to get any assistance from any other person.”*

The women's groups in the fishing communities had a lot to say. Some fishmongers from Apam, Dago, Mankoadze and Nyanyano complained about cost of firewood that they used in smoking fish. As most of these communities did not have woodlots, they basically bought firewood from outside their areas.

The women also complained that some of the men have not been sincere to them. They explained that when the women bought the fishing inputs for the men, the men end up selling their catch at different destinations before they come home. A middle-aged woman at Dago said,

*"I once caught those using my canoe and nets at Apam selling their catch."*

When she was asked if the men brought the proceeds home she exclaimed,

*"Ei! They will come and tell you that the sea was rough, they didn't get anything, or that the net got entangled on rocks, got torn and the catch of fish escaped. They most of the time came home to tell us stories."*

#### **4.11.7 Chieftaincy issues that affect self-help activities**

It was gathered during the Focus Group Interviews that the issue of chieftaincy disputes has rocked many of the communities in the district, which in many situations has turned the clock on progress otherwise. At some of the meetings, the participants did not hesitate to point this factor out. At Fetteh for instance, the researcher had to dodge this issue. The in-depth of the situation was probed after the meeting. This was done through consultation with some of the participants individually after the discussion.

Participants suggested that the numerous chieftaincy disputes in the district have to be resolved as soon as practicable. They said so far as such issues of chieftaincy disputes existed, there was no way self-help development could be realised. As elderly participant from Apam said,

*“As a result of chieftaincy and litigation, all salt projects in Apam came to a standstill. Investors were forced to leave the sites they acquired. This affected us a lot, especially the youth who were mostly working on these salt ponds.”*

A young male participant from Buduatta commented,

*“If the past chiefs of this town behaved like our current chief, I hope Buduatta would have been a ghost town long ago.”*

Asked why he said that he continued,

*“This is a chief who is a litigant and as well imposing. He doesn't want anybody especially the youth to challenge his opinion. He uses the police to intimidate us. Many of the youth who opposed his views have visited police cells at on time or the other.”*

#### **4.11.8 Resource Allocation/ Resource Sharing Mechanism**

The FGIs showed that different ownership system of resources, especially land, differed from place to place. In some places, the land was entirely owned by the stool while in other places it was owned by private individuals. It was found out that most of the land at Fetteh, Mankoadze, Buduatta and Apam belonged to the stool, while at places such as Eshiem, Afransi, Potsin and Abonko land was owned by private individuals in the communities.

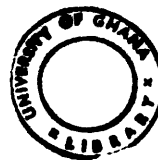
The associated problems were that, where land ownership was in private hands, the people suffered land fragmentation and those labelled as stool lands suffered from reluctance on the part of some chiefs and clan heads to release the pieces to their people.

Also some pieces of land have been vested in the government. This problem stemmed from land border disputes. For example the dispute between Gomoa and Awutu-Efutu-Senya over the ownership of a land parcel covering the Winneba Junction community (formerly Gomoa Nkwantanana) and the surrounding land of at least three-kilometre radius.

Some of the stool lands, the participants said, had been sold to private developers who now held the parcels to the detriment of the community members who wanted to put some to large scale cultivation. At the coastal towns, litigations and land fragmentation have held back developers of the salt industry. Those who own land along the shores refuse to release them en-bloc to developers in the salt industry.

The participants called for a better land tenure system that militated against land development initiatives. Also, they asked that, if possible business and financial institutions should be encouraged to give financial support to co-operative groups and individuals to enable them acquire land. A female participant said,

*“The system where land owners charge us fees at will before the land was released does not encourage farming. We don't have money to acquire land for farming. I think the government has to pay some money to land owners and put it at the disposal of those who wanted to put it under cultivation.”*



#### 4.11.9 Poverty Reduction Fund

Upon the premises that the resources in the district, especially financial assistance were not adequate to cover all those who needed it, participants were asked to tell whether such funds should go to individuals, co-operative groups or community leaders for distribution.

Almost all participants in the FGIs wrote off the idea of giving the monies to their leaders. They cited instances where monies realised from community farms and other sources were squandered by the leaders and never rendered any accounts to their people.

At Eshiem, the participants re-counted how a former assembly member sold proceeds from a community farm and never rendered any account to the people. A middle-aged woman said,

*“All the maize we harvested from the community farm were kept on a large barn at the assemblyman’s house. He sold the maize secretly and finally set fire to the small portion that he left on the barn at night. When he was finally caught he was asked to account for what he had sold but it never came to fruition.”*

While more of the male participants said the monies or the PAF must go to co-operative groups, the female participants said it should be given to individuals. The men were of the view that if it were given to groups, the group members would act in a concerted effort to repay the loan, more especially where they went into co-operative farming.

The women, on the other hand, were of the opinion that the PAF should go to individuals because in most situations women who receive loans go into trading and other private

businesses. On this note, if it were given on group basis and some individual members were unable to pay back their monies, the group cannot hold those involved making payments to that effect. One woman commented:

*"We have done it before, some of our groups /members failed to pay and the entire group was not considered the following year. If it was given to me as an individual and I failed to pay back, I was the only person to be held responsible, not my innocent colleagues."*

Some of the participants expressed their total disgust about the manner in which the PAF was given and recovered. At Buduatta, some participants said they rejected the PAF on the grounds that the conditions attached to it were harsh and inconvenient to them as far as its recovery was concerned. A middle-aged woman had this to say in support of their stand to reject it:

*"They asked us to register for the money. They brought it with the condition that we pay fifteen thousand cedis (¢15,000.00) every week till the total amount given was recovered."*

#### **4.11.10 Needs of the community**

The FG participants were asked to enumerate some of the needs of their communities. They mentioned a myriad of needs. These included: water, roads, health centres, markets, schools (both basic and secondary/vocational training centres), drainage system, dumping place, electricity, farming and fishing inputs, access to financial assistance and support for needy children. Most of the communities mentioned either some of these or almost all of these as the needs of their communities.

The people of Fetteh also talked about a number of projects that the district assembly started in the previous government, which were later abandoned. One of these was a place of convenience where the trench that was dug still remained opened. They said it has become a death trap and which has already drowned a number of domestic animals.

It was found out that they have been banned from using the shore as a place of convenience. Also, the place used as dumping ground together with nearby plots has been sold out. This has gradually created a sanitation problem.

At Buduatta it was found out that the road network from the community to other nearby communities were totally out of use. This was because, culverts that were under construction had been abandoned. Again, when the route from the Accra-Winneba road was constructed the gutters at the sides were not done. This has given way to erosion that has badly affected the road such that any time it rained the town got flooded. An eighty-year-old woman said,

*“They ought to have left the old deplorable road with the small gutters than the new one without a gutter which has threatened the foundation of many buildings.”*

In all the fishing communities, that is Apam, Dago, Mankoadze, Nyanyano and Fetteh, the fishermen and fishmongers were concerned about problems they encountered in acquiring fishing inputs. They indicated that they did not have access to credit facilities. It was added that where few items were made available by the government, very few people benefited.

#### **4.11.11 Relationship Between the Assembly and Unit Committees**

The FG participants indicated that the relationship between the district assembly and the unit committees was poor. This they attributed to the fact that the Town and Area Councils were not properly constituted. They added that the relationship between the District Assembly, on one hand, and the local structure, on the other hand was poor. They said the assembly has actually lost touch with the local structures. The participants were also of the view that the leaders in the district were not committed. They said if the leaders were committed, they would have worked harder towards the building of the local structures that were partners for development.

#### **4.12 Suggestions for self-help development**

1. The participants suggested that in order to encourage self-help development, the district assembly and other development partners have to give financial assistance to support the activities of the people. This they said the rural communities in most cases could not raise enough funds on their own to support their efforts which were mostly in the form of labour.
2. They also called on the government and the district assembly to establish job opportunities so that the people in the district could get something done without travelling into the cities and other urban centres.
3. Another suggestion was that there was the need to build a good relationship between the community leaders and community members. That is, if such a relationship were built, it would have made the leadership effective in their activities. In building such a relationship they stressed for proper

communication flow among all the development partners. This was to enable the people to be aware of what went on in the communities.

4. In addition, participants indicated that the Area/Town/Unit Communities had to be established as soon as a new assembly was inaugurated. They called on the authorities (the district assembly) to ensure that those selected/elected to form the various committees were committed to serve the course of their communities. They again said the practice where citizens who were non-resident were incorporated into the committees must stop as such personalities lose contact with the communities.
5. Participants were also of the view that the leaders had to show transparency in their administration. They said some leaders were too selfish to divert project aid or grant for their personal benefit.
6. Another suggestion given by participants was that the Gomoa District shares one Agricultural Extension Office with the Awutu-Efutu-Senya District. This has resulted in high farmer-extension officer ratio, as there were few extension officers to attend to the concerns of the farmer.
7. The participants also called on the government to establish more technical and vocational centres to train more people to acquire employable skills.
8. Furthermore, they called for improvement in basic infrastructure like road network, market centres, water and sanitation. In this direction they asked that areas that have their water supply badly affected through illegal tapping had to be stopped by the GWCL.

9. They also suggested that the '*Nnobia*' system seemed better among many communities, and that their leadership had to do all that they could to re-introduce it in communities that did not have them in place. Again, they called that communal spirit among the youth had to be rekindled so that there would be a relatively active force for self-help activities.
10. In areas where participants identified that large family size was a set back, they suggested that the family planning programme had to be intensified.
11. Participants called on chiefs and the chieftaincy institutions like the Regional House of Chiefs to scout for and resolve all chieftaincy disputes. They said, without that the chiefs cannot rally their people for effective self-help development.
12. They spoke against the land tenure system and suggested that the assembly had to come in and talk to land owners to give favourable land tenure conditions to farmers.
13. They also suggested that fishing and farming inputs had to be made available to the beneficiaries on time. They called on the district assembly to step in on time.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5.0

### DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the findings of the study. It examined these findings against the backdrop of objectives of the study and literature that have been reviewed. It also discussed these in relation to the theoretical framework that was adopted for the study.

The variables that were given attention included area of residence (urban/rural), age, sex, educational background, occupation, and residence of participants. These were looked at in relation to the responses given by participants to questions that attempted looking into the objectives.

#### 5.2. Specific Steps Taken by the District Assembly to Develop Human Resource

This issue of human resource development was examined from the various dimensions through which the individuals in the district were helped to gain employable skills or skills that the people could use to organise other resources for development.

One way of ensuring economic success is by increasing the skills and capabilities of workers. This can be done through investment in human capital (World Development Report, 1995). As found in this study, a number of skill acquisition and human resource development strategies have been adopted in the Gomoa District. These were skill acquisition programmes through workshops and seminar/durbars, non-formal education

and vocational training in either formal or informal forms. Non-formal education was found to be the one that the participants identified as the method which was most used. This, however, differed as the various variables were taken into consideration. For instance, among the 31.4% of respondents who indicated that (Table 4.7), 22.8% were participants from the rural communities with the other 8.6% from urban communities. Also 14.4% of them had primary/ middle/ JSS education. This showed that more of those with lower level of education lived in rural communities.

The participation rate in the functional literacy programme was low. Through the study, it was found that some of the functional literacy classes existed on paper or by name without serious participation by those who have enrolled to learn.

Skill acquisition programmes were one other means of human resource development. A closer examination of the response showed that skill acquisition programmes in the form of workshops and seminars were more prevalent in urban areas (12.8%) than the rural communities (10%). More of the rural participants on the other hand indicated that there was vocational training. This was mostly informal training in the forms of various apprenticeships like hairdressing, dressmaking, masonry, and others. However, these were organised on individual basis rather than a general development effort of the district.

In developing the individual skills, then human resource is gradually developed through human capital investment. Training for skill acquisition is a very important component of developing organisations and societies (Goldstein, 1980; Wexley and Yukl, 1984). Investing in training without simultaneous investment in technology cannot help in

development. As found in Taiwan, China when training and technology were paired, it produced high skilled labour that resulted in higher output and higher market value of their products. This was found to be so in China's Hunan Province (World Development Report, 1995). In India it was also found that at the onset of the green revolution, areas that few of the people had primary education were less likely to use modern technology to improve their lot and therefore, remained in a poor situation.

As found in this study, one can imply that so far as the people were not capable of affording formal training that goes with technology as compared to informal training, then there is the likelihood that they will use the relatively low skills they have acquired to produce goods that are of less market value. This might have partly accounted for the increasing poverty rate from 44% in 1991/92 to 48% in 1998/99 in the Gomoa district (Ghana Living Standard Survey Report 4 – October 2000).

#### **5.2.1 How Development Information was sent from the District Assembly to the Communities**

It was found through the study that five means were used in sending information from the district to the communities. The use of assembly members was identified by 91.4% of the participants. Only 4.3% said the assembly used radio broadcast to send down information. It was found that the assembly members were used in both urban and rural communities. Following this were that while information vans were used in urban communities, their rural counterparts used durbars and festivals to disseminate information.

Access to information is a great asset to development, lack of which culminates in limitation to self-help development. The district assembly concept under the Ghana Local Government Act of 1993, Act 462 had a lot to offer to the members of the various communities as regards empowerment of the people. The people in the communities can make good use of these facilities only when they are aware of such facilities. This therefore, borders on information dissemination.

It is said that poor people have poor access to information. This stems from the fact that the rich are well organised and connected but the poor invariably are not. The poor depend basically on their own informal and fragmented networks. This cuts them from gaining access to other assets and resources. Access to information helps the poor to avail themselves with valuable prevailing indices that can help them in self-help development.

The success of community development programmes thrives on the active support and participation of the people. This is further a function of regular flow of information to the people. It is when this is done that the support of the people for maximum self-help development can be achieved. The fieldwork showed that though information from the assembly is sent to the people through the assembly members, opinion leaders and others, the base to which these pieces of information were sent was narrow. The use of radio was found to have caught the attention of fewer audiences. From the study, those who happened to have followed the events of the assembly on radio were those who were fifty years or more.

Through the focus group interviews it came out that a sizeable number of the people in the communities listened to some radio stations but did not get much of the information they have on the assembly through the radio frequencies they tuned to. This could be attributed partly to the fact that the assembly sent such information to the national frequencies and not the private ones to which more people in the communities said they listened to. For the assembly and its related bureaucracies to be accountable to the people, as was done in Uganda where the radio and newspapers began announcing the amounts of resources received by schools, there is the necessity to do much in sending information to the people.

#### **5.2.2 Help to Communities by Assembly Members**

The study found that the type of help that the assembly members have given to their communities included organising their people for communal labour, initiating development projects, fund raising, organising co-operatives, lobbying at the district assembly for projects and carrying out community education.

As shown by the assembly members they found the position they occupied as leaders and therefore, had the responsibility to organise their people for self-help development. The participant's willingness to rally the people round for development through communal labour stemmed from the grounds that they wanted to help their people. The study found that they did this with the desire to help the needy or the underprivileged to develop their potentials as found by Pappas (1966).

One interesting finding was that in many situations, project sustainability was difficult. This came to light through the roles played by the assembly members that those who

have served for relatively longer periods from five to eight years concentrated on fewer activities and projects as compared to those who have entered the assembly for the first time. It is necessary therefore, to examine community development activities and place emphasis on projects and activities that could be sustained over time. This is because if such self-help projects were sustained, the people could have helped to construct and repair roads, re-excavate canals and ponds, construct bridges and culverts, provide good source of water for domestic use and improve their health conditions.

The enthusiasm with which people were rallied for development projects was also attributed to the idea that they have raised funds and used them to initiate projects. The people did this with the aim that as they raised funds as much as they could and provided voluntary labour, they as rural communities could contribute to raise rural capital formation and improve their living conditions. The idea expressed by the participants was in conformity with the findings in rural communities in Bangladesh (Hossain et al, 1978). Thus, as they raised much funds as they could, and provided voluntary labour for self-help the people of the communities contributed to a great extent, rural capital formation. That was one way that some communities improved their living conditions.

As at the time of this study, some people complained bitterly that the pits started by the District Assembly have become death traps. They made mention that they could not count the number of their livestock that have fallen into these pits. A follow-up by the researcher at the assembly revealed that some of such projects that have been abandoned were those, which were not initially budgeted for, or even there were no records that such projects were embarked upon by the previous administration.

The implications of these findings are many and varied. In the first place it shows the marginalisation of the rural poor. This kills efforts at developing through functional units as found by Hossain et al (1978). Again, it shows that the atmosphere of village power structure does not permit free expression of choice. This could be linked to the fact that such development initiatives where the people were cajoled in embarking on such projects were likely to be seen as either development 'for' or 'in' the community, which according to Brookfield (1985) is not the best of development models.

### **5.3 Projects in Relation to Poverty Reduction**

#### **5.3.1 Development Activities Embarked on in the District**

As it was expected of, the district assembly in line with its functions, participants indicated that a number of development activities were carried out in the district with the assembly's support. High on the list were provision of infrastructural and social facilities. These included markets, school blocks, and places of convenience, water, construction of feeder roads and mobilisation, financial assistance to the poor in the form of PAF and formation of co-operatives.

All these are positive indicators of development. But one thing that leaves much to be desired was the pattern of distribution as far as urban-rural dichotomy was concerned. As seen earlier with regard to provision of social services, while 20% of the urban participants said they have received the assembly's assistance in that sector, it was only 4.4% of the rural participants that have benefited from social services. In the area of financial assistance, it was 8% and 15.6% of the urban and rural areas respectively.

Looking at the distribution pattern of social facilities for development one observes that it has not favoured the rural communities. As reported in the Ghana Living Standard Survey (GLSS 2000) there were few urban communities with an urbanisation ratio of 26% - hence the district has been described as basically rural. It follows that about 74% of the population in the district are found in rural communities.

In order to ensure development, both the urban and the rural communities were to receive a good support base with fair distribution. It is upon this framework that countries that are in the developing process have adopted the decentralisation approaches to nation building where all the sectors and divisions are to take off evenly. As Schumacher puts it "A given political unit is not necessary of the right size for economic development to benefit those whose need is the greatest" (Schumacher, 1973: 166). It follows as if the basic purpose of development was to bring to those who need it most in the district, and then each community in the district needed its own development. This assertion is not to rule out the fact that communities that serve as the district centres are to be abandoned. The size of an area under administration determines a greater need for internal structure as well as decentralised approach to development. This is the situation that the Gomoa District finds itself – covering a total area of 1022.3 square kilometres. It is therefore, necessary to pay attention to the rural communities in their bid for development. "If this need is neglected", as Schumacher points out, "there is no hope for the poor" (Schumacher, 1973: 167).

The ability of a district to embark on projects and carry them out successfully is largely determined by the financial standing of the district. However, apart from the Common

Fund Support other sources of revenue especially revenue mobilisation in the district had not been encouraging over the years.

### **5.3.2 Community Participation in Development Activities**

Self-help spirit works in a community where there is a full participation of the members of the community. As found out in the study, 94.3% indicated the people in their communities participated in development activities either initiated by the people or by the government. The Focus Group participants were quick to add that participation in community activities where their labour was needed were very encouraging. They also said like every human situation or environment one would not get all the people conforming to the general anticipation of all, hence some people though in minority did not turn up for community activities. The hypothesis that “Non-participation in community based developmental projects by the members of the communities in the district has resulted in part to the slow progress and higher level of poverty among the people” was not supported as participants indicated that there was high level of participation in community activities.

#### **5.3.2.1 Reasons for Participation**

A number of reasons were identified as what encouraged the people to participate in community programmes. One major reason was the people’s want for development. Some also said they have realised the need for self-initiative with enthusiasm. Others said community education has created a level of awareness among themselves. Other factors were the felt needs of projects that were undertaken, participatory planning process in determining the nature and location of projects, leadership influence and

transparency in project financing in rural communities. Some urban participants also said the people participated because of a sense of good citizenship.

Community participation as a process is where members of the community are involved in initiating, making and implementing decisions concerning their lives within and beyond their immediate communities. To engineer community development therefore, rests on participation. The basic rationale is that when people are involved in decision making on issues that affect their lives, they express their views and make possible suggestions into the development programmes.

Transparency and good leadership, the participants noted, had influenced their participation in community development projects. They indicated that some of their leaders have been very influential and played instrumental roles in their communities. As reported by Katz and Khan (1978) the essence of organisational leadership is to consider the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance. This is done with the routine directives of the organisation. As the communities exist as a body or an entity, the role played by their leaders like the chiefs, their elders and assembly members have a great influence in the direction of their development. This phenomenon was also identified by French and Raven (1960) as regards the type of power found to operate in the community. Some participants, as the study found out, said that the way the leaders encouraged them in self-help activities were satisfactory and rewarding. Thus the leaders helped them to identify their needs, and worked towards their aspirations.

### 5.3.2.2 Hindrances to Participation

Participants were asked to share views on obstacles to participation. It was found out that non-participation in community activities especially, towards development had a number of factors that militated against it. A critical look at the reasons they assigned (see Table 4.10) can be grouped as follows: poverty, poor education, wrong perceptions and leadership/politics.

One major reason that hindered participation was the issue of poverty. Respondents said, as a result of poverty, people always wanted to use their time for personal gains. For instance, those in the urban areas who engaged in activities like trading and other casual activities were not prepared to forgo their daily businesses and attend to community work. Some indicated that they have to engage in labour activities on daily basis in order to fend for themselves and their families. That, if they attended a communal labour which may take the working hours of the day, then they went into debt for that day or next. This implies that when people are financially handicapped, their willingness to participate in development activities that do not bring them instant income is low. This finding is a confirmation of that of Lang (1987) cited by Songan (1993) that there was a delay in implementation of projects due to the peasants' poor response and lack of participation.

Another factor that was found to have accounted for non-participation was wrong perceptions that might have resulted from poor community education, laziness or apathy on the part of the people. Issues that emerged from these were that some people shared the opinion that activities or projects that come into communities were supposed to be



undertaken by the government. In lieu of this they further have the perception that the projects were awarded on contract basis. They therefore, saw no need to go and work on such activities.

This perception and situation could be attributed to the fact that, as indicated by some participants, community education towards development had been poor in most of the communities. A follow-up at the administration of the district showed that there was no existing task force that engaged the communities in education towards development. The activities of the Non Formal Education Division of the Ghana Education Service in the district was more confined to those they have enrolled in their functional literacy classes. Their activities have not yielded the expected impact in many of the communities that have classes. From November 1990 to August 2002, of a total of 21,551 who enrolled (4,530 males; 12,653 females) the number that had successfully completed their programme were 17,183.

Closely linked with the above were leadership problems and the associated frustration, disillusion and lack of confidence in the leaders. These leadership problems the participants attributed to politicians and the chieftaincy institution. They said over the years political leaders have continued to tell communities of things the latter will stand to benefit if the communities get the former into power through voting. They continued that this type of vague promises have descended down to even Assembly Members who make promises to ensue certain development projects which are sometimes beyond the assembly's capacity to offer such a contract by law.

In some communities, lack of transparency and accountability on projects and their funding has lowered the spirit of the people to participate in development activities. In some communities it was found out that the district assembly gave them assistance in the form of bags of cement, roofing sheets and other items. Most of the materials according to them got missing through the community leaders of which some chiefs, their elders and assembly members were alleged to have used the items for their personal benefits. This behaviour has impacted negatively on some of the people to the extent that they did not participate in self-help development. Others also thought that if they worked on such projects any revenue that might accrue later will go to the leaders only, hence, their non-participation. Some people in such communities have adopted a 'wait and see' attitude.

### **5.3.3 Sectors that Needed Attention, Problems Encountered and Suggested Solutions**

The sector that needed much attention for development as pointed out by participants was agriculture. A significant number also indicated other sectors in areas of small-scale industries, fishing and private business enterprises.

These sectors, however, faced numerous problems which have affected efforts at developing them either by individuals or by a group. One of these was inadequate or lack of financial support. That is, those who wanted to go into large-scale economic activity faced problems as regards how they could raise funds for such development. The people were not able to meet the conditions that were proposed by the banking institutions. This phenomenon arose from the fact that when it came to issues on ideas and entrepreneurship, rich people easily got financial institutions to provide support. The

poor are relegated in this situation. The survival of poor people depended on the resources controlled by others, as they remained silent witnesses to exploitation and poor governance, which pervaded their lives.

It was also found that the land tenure systems of "*Abunu*" where proceeds were divided into two between the owner of the land and the developer, and "*Abusa*" where the proceeds were divided into three with a third going to the owner of the land did not favour those who tilled the land. These stringent measures were also linked to the issue of time of release. In situations where the "*abusa*" system was the type of agreement entered into, the period of release usually covered a single season in case of farming. The "*abusa*" system as was found, covered a duration of two to three years after which the tiller has to quit from the land or was forced to harvest the rest of plants on the farm. These unfavourable land tenure systems did not allow the farmers to engage in any long term planning as far as farming was concerned. One precondition that allowed farmers to work on a parcel of land was where the tiller rented the land for a fee. However, as many of the rural poor were unable to secure funds from financial institutions this type of offer usually eluded them. Those who were able to raise funds from private individuals were not able to take large parcels for relatively longer period because the capital mobilised were minimal for large-scale cultivation.

One other limitation to land use at the coastal communities was that of the shores where production of salt was potential. In some places, individuals had already bought the land outright on smaller parcel basis. It was therefore, difficult for investors who wanted to produce salt on larger scale to get the required size of land for production. At some

places, it was found that individuals held land parcels that were less than an acre. Like their counterparts in farming areas, they saw such parcels or holding as a legacy for their descendants. Thus, they mined salt at those points for years for subsistence livelihood. Related to all these were chieftaincy disputes especially over ownership of land that either thwarted or did not at all allow for use of a parcel of land. At Gomoa Fetteh for instance, the researcher had to put aside chieftaincy matters as a non-issue as far as the study was concerned. This became necessary when an utterance by one participant that the chief and his elders were holding back their sources of development. This did not go down well with some of the Focus Group participants who identified themselves with the accused faction.

It was again gathered that the chief of Fetteh sold the landing beach for the fishermen where they have used from time immemorial to some foreigners. In an attempt at developing the site the supposed investors have sacked the fishermen. This has forced the fishermen to land at a distance far away from the community with their catch.

#### **5.3.3.1 Efforts to Raise Self-help Development Projects in the District**

For people to make a conscious effort at raising their situation as far as sustainable livelihood is concerned, they must first, understand their present situation. This will help them to make some level of comparison necessary to assess their present condition. In lieu of this, the study sought to find out from participants what efforts were to be made towards achieving a situation of their willingness to raise self-help development (Table 4.13).

As observed earlier self-help development of today's communities to a large extent hinges on voluntarism and voluntary associations. Sharp differences exist between voluntary associations in rural and urban areas (Norbeck, 1962). They are both numerous and influential in rural communities that are undergoing development (Anderson and Anderson, 1958; Little, 1965). Suggestions by participants with regard to what efforts were to be made to enhance development showed that their views were just like the characteristics of voluntary associations. These included self-governing, self-financing and non-profit motive. This, they showed by their willingness to join efforts to achieve certain objectives through provision of services.

Some of the participants called for support from the government and non-governmental organisations. They were of the view that there are a great number of areas to tackle and a number of efforts to be made. The thinking of the participants is no different from the findings of Gunasingha (1991) that voluntarism is playing an important role as regards international co-operation for development. That is, with support from NGOs and government institutions, the people were ready to offer voluntary services to achieve their aspirations. They perceive themselves as being left behind in the developing world. This resulted from diverse reasons. As reported by Pappas (1996), two major factors that influence people's commitment to voluntary activities emanate from the desire to help the needy or the underprivileged to develop their potential.

#### **5.3.3.2 Patronage as an Emerging Model of Community Development**

The desire to help the needy and the underprivileged to develop their potential and build their future life has led to patronage by some individuals in a number of communities.

Such individuals take it upon themselves to ensure that their communities achieve growth and development. This they do in two ways – helping to develop the human resource base and offset some of the burden of the poor by footing bills of community projects.

This pattern has gradually grown in some communities such that they have taken them to be a means through which communities are developed. Hence, this is unknowingly becoming a community development approach in addition to the already identified typologies as proposed by Brookfield (1986). In such communities it is observed that when such individuals withhold or withdraw their support or services to the community, that community begins to retrogress in both human resource development and community growth. It can be said therefore, that patronage as a model of community development is a dangerous development because it is not likely that such patrons will continue to emerge to assist their communities. At best it will be recommended that when this factor is identified in a community, it must be inculcated into their minds that what the patron does for them is a gesture, and that, they as people should also endeavour to continue to contribute their quota towards their development.

Again, it was observed that some of the communities in which patronage existed were resourceful ones. They had the human and material resources. What was left to do was to harness the resources for development.

One unfortunate aspect of patronised communities was that where the human resources were developed through individual patron's efforts in the form of education, they failed to return to their communities to help. They ended up in the cities and other urban towns to the neglect of their communities of origin.

It must be asserted however, that this model of patronage facilitates the rate of development in communities provided the beneficiaries reciprocate in kind or cash, what they benefited to their communities at large.

#### **5.4 Resource Allocation and Resource Sharing Mechanisms**

Any meaningful development needed that certain strategic areas of innovation have to be looked at critically. This brings about the issue of resources that are available in the area under consideration. One of these areas as identified by Lewis (1961) was agriculture. This is a sector that if it becomes stagnant, it offers only a stagnant market, and inhibits the growth of the rest of the economy. The agricultural and other related sectors development however, rest on a number of other factors – the availability of other resources that serve as components in development. To achieve the purpose of using the composite parts for development need resource allocation – an alternative way of channelling and distributing the available resources in the area concerned. Resources that were abundantly available in the district for development included land for cultivation, sea for fishing and lagoons and low-lying shores for salt production.

##### **5.4.1 How more People can get Access to Land and Fishing Materials**

The inability of respondents to get access to land or fishing inputs seemed similar. A little variation was however, observed as regards getting access to fishing inputs. This was due to the fact that the individuals had no defined territories as to where they could do fishing. Their major problem was getting the means through which they could acquire the inputs such as fishing nets, outboard motors and fuel. They also faced the problem of getting training that helped them to adopt modern technology in fishing. While pre-mix

fuel was almost always in short supply, others condoned with their leaders and sold the fuel outside their communities.

In the case of land cultivation and salt production, participants suggested that litigations and disputes over land have to be settled. Also town development committees have to enter into consultation and negotiations to enable those who hold parcels of land to release them to individuals who wanted some for activities.

Participants indicated further that to ensure a smooth take off in development activities, the District Assembly has to pre-finance their activities. This, they said, enabled those who did not have the initial capital to make a start. They also suggested that one way of facilitating these was to form co-operatives in the various communities.

#### **5.4.2 How to Determine the Real Needs of Communities for Public Expenditure**

In order to determine the real needs of a community, a number of factors have to be considered. To know more about these factors that have to be considered, participants were asked to indicate how their real needs could be determined. All responses offered by participants could be classified into two. These were leadership centred and the need for a baseline assessment.

Some participants were of the view that the power of the rural communities was much vested in their leadership. It was therefore proper, according to them to consult their leadership to know their needs. This shows that they have to some extent lost the power in them or not aware of a positive role they could play in the planning of their own

livelihood. This thinking can be attributed partly to the pattern of determining rural needs where their leaders decided on activities and start to implement it.

The members of such communities were merely considered as recipients or beneficiaries of the projects – leading to a situation of learned helplessness in self-help development in their communities. ‘Learned helplessness’ is a situation where the affected groups have been conditioned to think that there is nothing they can do to uplift themselves from their slumber or where they have been put and the situation they find themselves. There is a leadership influence here and it increases with time and space as one or a few individuals influence a larger number (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Tannenbaum, 1962). If development will take place successfully in such communities while employing self-help spirit, then their leaders have to consider employing methods that are non-formalised and relaxed to reach their goal for the good of the entire community as was also found in studies by Student (1966, 1968).

It must be pointed out that in some cases where the power of initiating development activities or determining community needs were left in the hands of the leaders, less than the desired results were achieved. The various socio-economic groups may have representations who were nominated by influential individuals and selected unopposed. If the opportunity is given to such leadership with regard to when to decide for their communities, they end up marginalizing the rural poor, thus repeating their cycle of poverty. The poor become under-represented thus, affecting their ability to decide for their communities (Hossain et al, 1978).

One other means of determining the real needs of the communities as suggested by respondents was to create a database for the community. This, they explained as that there must be participatory planning or need assessment. The other is that the communities need to submit their annual budget proposal to the assembly. By so doing the problems of the assemblies would be laid bare and help planners of the district to determine their budget constraints and the type of need that could be provided within the fiscal year.

## **5.5 Local Institutions for Development**

### **5.5.1 Commitment of leaders in the district towards Development**

As pointed out earlier in this work (p.6) development does not occur in a vacuum but exists in a system that has several factors acting together for the desired results. One of these factors is community leadership and how the leaders interact with the people of the community. It implies therefore, that the policy maker, the policy implementer and those whom the policy affects have to come into play. However, whether the leaders will act in the desired way or not is also a function of the power structure of the leadership.

Participants from the district assembly had majority of them saying that the leaders in the district were committed to the development of the district. They cited reasons such as they have been mobilising their people for communal labour, initiated development projects, made inputs into government appointees, released lands for projects, and helped mobilize funds and use the funds in judicious manner. Thus, the hypothesis that: "Low level of commitment on the part of the leaders in the district has impeded developmental activities in the district" was not supported.

Those who said their leaders were not committed said some of them work for their personal benefits, show less interest in development activities and relate poorly with the communities.

The opinion held by the minority of the assembly members was however, the general view of the focus group participants. They said though some of the leaders have on certain occasions shown some level of commitment, they were almost remote from the communities. They said the leaders came into regular contact when it was approaching elections where the votes of the electorate were needed most. They came in groups of great numbers to interact with the people. Their presence ended once elections were over. Those who won the elections go to occupy their positions while those who did not win expressed feelings that their people have betrayed them by voting against them. Some of such people withdrew the few services that they used to offer their communities.

This situation that people felt that their leaders have disappointed them was that they often misunderstood the idea of economic development. This assumption goes that if the national product is increased, the benefits of such increase somehow automatically "trickle down" to large numbers of people. This is however, ineffective in Third World environments as compared to the advanced countries (Case and Niehoff, 1973). Thus much emphasis is placed on capital and industrialisation and less attention to food security and employment.

It is necessary that the existing power structure should make it a point of duty to allow the underprivileged poorer people to play an active part in the functions of the power structure.

This is in fact, what the current local government system based on the district assembly concept seeks to achieve. The understanding of the people of the functions of the district assemblies however, leaves much to be desired. This is because through the focus group discussions it was found that many of the participants' awareness of the functions of the district assemblies were limited to construction of facilities. The idea of human resource development or empowerment of the people was not considered as an important issue to talk about. To have a good knowledge of the needs of the communities required both social and political participation. This can be achieved through the assumption that a population in which there is extensive political mobilisation, either through voting, interest in, or reading about political matters, is preferable to one in which the masses are politically inactive or stagnant (Fagerlind and Saha, 1983).

#### **5.5.2 Existence of Training Facilities and Skills Development Programmes**

One way of ensuring economic success in an increasingly integrated and globally competitive economy is increasing the skills and capabilities of workers. To achieve increased living standards of households by expanding opportunities, raising productivity, attracting capital investment, and increasing earning power therefore, mean investing in people for the needed human resource.

The study found out that 37.1% of the participants from the district assembly were aware of the existing vocational institutions in the district. While 34.3% gave no response to this issue, 27.2% said that no training institution for skills acquisition existed in the district (Table 4.18). It was again found that skills development was not an organised purpose by the assembly. For those who have found themselves in some vocational

training institutions, training was through individual efforts. The district has been helping the candidates in teacher training colleges through financing, which is more of a national policy. The importance of investing in human capital (especially education) for economic development, according to World Bank Report (1995) is recognised worldwide. This has accordingly contributed to unprecedented global increases in schooling in recent decades. This has made it necessary for investment in general education as well as specific education – where training and further training is emphasised. This however, does not always register or lead to more rapid growth. This is because in the wrong environment investments in people may only yield misspent or idle resources.

In the district under review, high poverty levels (48%) existed among the inhabitants (GLSS, 2000). The effect of this is that those who are aware of existence of higher institutions of learning or for further training find it uneasy to get their wards enrolled. This is thus a wrong environment because those who get their wards general education to the basic levels are not capable of any further investment in human capital. Those who were fortunate to get the opportunity to further their education were not likely to stay in the district.

Fewer attempts at training for work have no encouraging results for productivity. As portrayed by participants' low effort at training which in modern times is accompanied by technology has affected productivity levels in the district under review. Thus, the opportunity to take advantage of new ideas is not felt. That market-oriented economies reward the skilled worker who is able to deliver more output, or one that has high market

value. If the people are able to breakthrough this, then they will boost their earning power. Since this has not been the case then, their marginal propensity to reduce the level of poverty and improve the living standard is arrested by the unfavourable environment.

#### **5.6 Collaboration Between Community Leaders and District Assembly**

Seventy percent of the district assembly participants indicated that there was co-operation between the community leaders and the district assembly as a body. On the other hand 25.7% said there had not been co-operation between the two bodies (Table 4.25). Each of these groups that expressed co-operation or non-co-operation assigned reasons to what they said.

Those who stated there had been co-operation between the two bodies indicated that there had been continued contact between the various local government structures as there had been information flow from the district assembly to the people.

Again, the Unit Committees in the various communities have been leading their people in undertaking projects designed for development.

Also, it was found that as a result of co-operating relationships that existed between the two bodies, the leaders in the various communities have found it ideal to lobby or negotiate for development projects in their communities.

Those who said there had not been co-operation between the local leaders and those of the district assembly based their arguments on their experiences. These centred on factors that seem to militate against development. These included the fact that:



Local government structures were not in full gear as expected. Thus in many of the communities or zones, the Area Council was either not in place or functioning as a unit. The district assembly concept, as it exists, is supposed to have Area Councils and Unit Committees to help mobilize opinions at the base. It is therefore necessary to have these bodies without which the functioning of the assemblies leave much to be desired. In addition, the non-functioning of the local units has created a gap between some of the communities and the district assembly as far as information flow was concerned. It was found out that though there was co-operation between the individual leaders, there were poor linkages or integration among the various structures of development in the district. Thus, the hypothesis that: "Lack of collaboration between the District Assembly and the Area/ Town Development Committees has contributed to the inability of the district to marshal resources in the district for development" was supported by the findings of the study.

The effective functioning of a structure, to a large extent, depends on how informed the people are. This could be achieved through education of the communities. As found among the Focus Group participants, many of the people in the communities whom issues of the assembly affect do not know the exact functions that the assemblies exist to perform.

The unit committee members did not receive any incentive, hence their apathy towards the general activities of the assembly and the communities.

One issue that some participants pointed out as one major problem that has resulted in poor contact or coordination among the structures was that the Gomoa District was too large as a local government unit for any effective political administration. A

suggestion was made to the effect that the Gomoa District be divided into two separate districts. This would help to ensure regular contact among the leaders on one hand and the communities on the other. It will also ensure easy administration as compared to the present situation.

It was the view of the participants that these measures could be taken to ensure that the development efforts of the district are coordinated.

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the main issues as well as the findings of the study. The study also drew some conclusions and made suggestions and recommendations. The implications of self-help development were discussed and possible areas for further study suggested.

#### 6.2 Summary

The study was conducted against the background of the fact that there were a number of community programmes which have been substantially supported by the District Assembly and others relied on self-help either in part or in whole. These efforts were made to upgrade rural settlements and small-scale technology to bring basic services even to the remotest villages. But the complexity of the task required a corresponding complex approach, and an infusion of different strategies with the central government as a catalyst for development. It was noted however, that development does not occur in a vacuum but in a system that has several factors that have to act in concert for the desired result. This called for self-help activities to supplement government funding of most development projects and programmes.

In the Gomoa District, like other poverty stricken districts in Ghana, there were numerous identified resources and probable areas where income generation activities could be undertaken. In addition to this factor was the existence of the District Assembly – a local

government structure for over a decade. However, the GLSS (2000) report showed that between 1991/92 and 1998/99 the poverty level in the Gomoa District shot from 44% to 48%. This phenomenon engaged the researcher to set out and investigate the statement that:

*The Gomoa District Assembly not been able to foster the necessary moves required for development in order to reduce poverty levels and improve the standard of living of the inhabitants of the districts.*

To investigate this problem, a number of research objectives were set. These were set on the backdrop of the fact that self-help development has become the key to development.

In undertaking the study, the issues of development, self-help, participation, change agents role in self-help activities and usage of available resources were considered.

Studies about issues of self-help development as pointed out by Carson (1962), Lewis (1961), Case and Niehoff (1973) Harbison (1973), and Schumacher (1973), among others, discuss issues of self-help development through participation and appropriate use of resources – human and material alike. It was found out from these studies and their foundations that resources in whatever form serve as agents of innovation or prime movers of change. They are strategic for development and create the type of innovators needed in communities that are fighting poverty. These change designers or pushers must have extensive skill and knowledge with keen curiosity and desire for accomplishment.

For such changes to be effected, strategic areas of innovation need to be explored, and for developing countries one area is agriculture. Thus, as pointed out by Lewis (1961) if agriculture is stagnant, its resultants are that it offers only a stagnant market and inhibits the growth of the rest of the economy. This calls for organisation of rural communities to give them the opportunities for making effective use of the under-utilised rural labour force. This revolves on participation of the people concerned in self-help development.

Another area that supplements this as transmitters of change is improvement in the conditions for the growth of small-scale industries. This in turn depends on market information, technical information, credit facilities and manager-training courses so as to encourage a spill over of experienced human resource (Harbison, 1961).

If these factors and conditions are not matched properly, then the growth of the GNP will not be registered – that the benefits of such increase will not trickle down to the large numbers of people as pointed out by Case and Niehoff (1973). The creation of the District Assemblies therefore is to ensure decentralised approach to development. But if this need is neglected, then there is no hope for the poor (Schumacher, 1973).

Based on these foundations, various studies were examined to show how some communities have developed through self-help and community participation. Some of these factors that were identified through the reviewed works were approaches to community development, influential increment of leadership and its structure, willingness of community members to volunteer their services and time, and help from voluntary organisations. Others were skills for development and human capital.

Strategies that had been adopted by some communities to register some levels of development and growth showed that certain basic adult education principles cannot be ignored as found by Brookfield (1986), that, adults work best in collaborative groups, exert control over their personal and social environments, focus on perceptions of relevance rather than being externally imposed and learn best when they engage in action and further reflection.

It was also identified that certain factors deterred some people from participating in community activities. These factors were that participation was low in communities where people were poor, experience of the past where similar projects implemented by the government has failed and poor access to information.

#### **6.2.1 Methodology**

The target population were the members of the District Assembly and people from the communities. The study used all members of the District Assembly. However, of the 80 members, 10 could not be reached. Ten communities were selected from which 20 participants of 10 males and 10 females were selected from each community. The total number of participants stood at 270.

In arriving at the participants, the communities were first classified into urban and rural areas based on the population statistics available. After that purposive and random sampling techniques were employed for selection of the communities. Purposive sampling was used to select the assembly members and random sampling used to select the respondents from the selected communities.

### 6.2.2 Instrumentation

A structured questionnaire made up of open and close-ended questions was used to solicit responses from the Assembly Members. On the other hand, an interview guide was used for the community members in a form of Focus Group Interviews.

The components of the questionnaire included a bio-data of participants, the role of the District Assembly and Assembly Members in development and projects in relation to poverty reduction. Other areas covered were resource allocation, resource sharing mechanism, local institutions for development and collaboration between local leaders and the District Assembly.

After the fieldwork, the researcher grouped all the responses and coded them carefully. This was followed by computer analysis. The analysis looked at measures of variability like the mean and standard deviation, frequencies and percentages. The analysis went further to do cross-tabulation of the independent variables and the dependent variables.

The independent variables that were cross-tabulated against the responses made by the participants included area of residence (urban/rural), age, sex, level of education, occupation, number of years that one had served as Assembly Member and the number of years that participants have stayed in the district. The Chi-Square Statistic ( $\chi^2$ ) was used to find out whether relationships or associations existed between the variables considered. This was however, restricted to questions where mutually exclusive responses were made.

### 6.3.1 Major findings

- (a) The role of the District Assembly and Assembly Members in self-help development

#### *Vocational training for empowerment*

The District Assembly had made efforts at developing the human resource base through skill acquisition but it was limited because the members of the communities have not received skill training. The efforts at empowering the people included training programmes through apprenticeship, workshops, seminars and functional literacy programmes. Of the 31.4% of areas where functional literacy programmes were undertaken, 22.8% were in rural areas. Generally, participation in functional literacy programme was low. Skill acquisition programmes in the form of workshops and seminars were confined to urban communities (12.8%) as compared to rural communities (10%). More informal training centres were found in the rural communities as compared to formal training centres established in urban areas. This was partly attributed to the fact that the rural poor could not meet the fees demanded by formal training centres like technical and vocational institutions.

#### *Information dissemination*

When it comes to sending development information from the District Assembly to the people in the communities, Assembly Members played a significant role as it was indicated by 91.4% of the participants. The use of radio was however, very low (4.3%). It was also found out that while the use of information vans was employed mostly in urban areas, durbars and festivals were used in rural communities to send information to the people. The implication therefore, is that until durbars and festivals were held, the

rural people had little access to information from the Assembly. As regards radio broadcast, the Assembly used the national frequencies in most cases, which is not popular these days especially the Radio One which operates on the Short Wave (SW) band. It is gradually becoming unpopular as its reception at certain hours of the day is poor. In addition, information sent through local opinion leaders – like chiefs – was delayed, as such news were made known to the people during durbars and festivals which are held occasionally.

#### *Help to Communities by Assembly Members*

The Assembly members assisted their communities in several ways. They helped to organise communal labour, initiated development projects, organised co-operative groups and mobilised funds. In some cases, the Assembly Members lobbied at the District Assembly for needed projects for their electoral area and carried out community education.

#### *Projects in Relation to Poverty Reduction*

The District Assembly was helping the communities in providing them with infrastructure and other social services. One disparity however, was that, while 20% of the urban areas had benefited from such facilities, only 4.4% of the participants from the rural communities indicated that they benefited from such projects. The ability to carry out development is a direct function of availability of funds. The Gomoa District as was found out, had little revenue mobilised from the communities. A heavy dependent on the District Assemblies Common Fund had been a hitch in this direction, as the amount received annually could not support infrastructural development in many communities at the same time.

### *Community Participation*

Community participation was encouraging. Participants indicated that 94.3% of their people participated in community activities either initiated through self-help or by the assembly.

### *Reasons for Participation*

Among the reasons that made the people participate in community projects and programmes were that, they have realised the need for self-help initiative with enthusiasm for improved living standards. Also, some level of awareness has been created through community education. Other factors included leadership-influence, participatory planning process and the level of transparency that were exhibited by their leaders.

### *Reasons for Non-participation*

One major reason that affected participation in community activities was the element of poverty. Some respondents felt, if they did not find any job and worked as labourers, they might go to bed hungry. They therefore, used the time for communal activities to work for people for a fee. Others attributed it to sheer laziness and negative perceptions. Some also have misconceptions about community development with the idea that development projects have to be undertaken by the government by awarding them on contracts. By this perception, they did not see the need or reason to help in projects that were supposed to have been awarded on contract.

Lack of transparency in community projects was identified as another reason for non-participation. There were instances where items like bags of cement and roofing sheets

among others meant for projects at Gomoa Buduatta got missing and unaccounted for by the leaders of the community. Also, in communities where the people at one time or the other engaged in income generating ventures, the benefits were never enjoyed by the entire community but by few self-centred leaders. All these have resulted in 'wait-and-see' attitude on the part of some people, hence, their poor or non-participation.

#### **6 (a) Sectors that needed attention**

A larger percentage (77.1%) of the participants shared the opinion that the area of agriculture has to be given a push for general development of the communities. Other areas of similar importance were small-scale industries, fishing and private business enterprises. Though, these areas were found to be good for development, much has not been done because of problems associated with land fragmentation, litigations and lack of access to credit from financial institutions. It was also found that, chieftaincy disputes have had a negative effect at development efforts. Participants thus, called for regional planning and use of existing laws on land acquisition by government - that is, Administration of Lands Act 1962, Act 123 Section 10 and State Lands Act 1962, Act 125.

#### **6 (b) Resource Allocation and Resource Sharing Mechanisms**

##### *Getting access to land and fishing materials*

**Participants called on the District Assembly to pre-finance land acquisition and fishing inputs. They called for effective organisation of co-operatives.**

### *Determining the real needs of the people*

Participants indicated that their needs could be determined through needs assessment which was not used in most cases. Donor or sponsoring agencies chose projects for communities. Thus, communities that received assistance or projects could be seen as felt needs and not the real needs which were possibly needed for necessary development.

### **(c) Local Institutions for Development**

#### *Commitment of Leaders Towards Development*

There was relatively high level of commitment on the part of the leadership. This was seen in their efforts at organising the people and initiating development oriented activities. The Focus Group Participants were of the view, however, that the leaders have distanced themselves too much from their people, a factor which did not ensure proper monitoring of projects.

#### *The understanding of the local government structure*

The understanding of the local government structure was to some extent, misconstrued by the people. Others have misconceptions about the whole system as regards what the leaders should do to help the people develop. Thus, through the Focus Group Interviews, it came out that the people did not know the totality of functions that the District Assemblies were to perform. They were mainly aware that the Assemblies should champion the course of infrastructural development. They had faint or no idea that the Assembly must harness human and material resources for development. Also, the issue of the District Assembly getting the people empowered for self-help and sustainability in life is alien to them.



### *Awareness of Training Facilities*

The people were less aware of existing training facilities that could help them to acquire useful skills for development. Where they were aware, financial constraints discouraged them to enter or send their wards to those centres for training. Moreover, many of the adults did not realise the need to engage in lifelong learning for themselves. This has probably culminated in low enrolment rate in the functional literacy programmes. Also, the District Assembly was found not to have done much at organising training facilities and workshops for the people. The exception was the assistance given to teacher-trainees in the various Teacher Training Colleges.

#### **(d) Collaboration between Community Leaders and the District Assembly**

Effective development hinges on co-operation, coordination and collaboration. These factors help in integrating development efforts. However, these elements of development were not maintained. The total development efforts in the district were thus uncoordinated. Isolation of programmes and projects has therefore, not helped the various and numerous attempts made by the people over the years, to develop the district. There is the lack of collaboration between the District Assembly and the Area/Town Development Committees which has contributed to the inability of the district to marshal resources in the district for development.

Lack of collaboration and coordination has resulted from the fact that the various structures of the local government three-tier structure was not in full operation. This was because in some electoral areas, the Unit Committees were either not existing or have

disintegrated. As for the Area Councils, the respondents found them to be either ineffective or non-existent.

The inability of the district to collaborate development efforts also came from the fact that the Gomoa District is administratively large. Thus, with a population of 196,576, over 197 communities/settlements covering a land area of 1022.3 sq. km, the District Administration had a heavy task to overcome. The district has 75% of its population in the non-monetised rural sector; hence, it is described as rural. It has an effect on the Assembly's ability to mobilise revenue. This in the long run, determines the extent of developmental activities that it could embark on.

Probing the issue further, the study unravelled that many of the bushfires that have become annual rituals in the district all along the Accra-Winneba-Cape Coast road were deliberate activities of the herdsmen. That, during the dry season, the herdsmen did not find enough grazing grounds for their cattle. They therefore, set fire to certain portions of the grassland with the aim that the grass would spring afresh so that they could get grazing grounds for their cattle. This activity went a long way to destroy farms and woodlot programmes that have been embarked on in the district.

Certain projects have been abandoned in a number of communities. The study revealed that some of such abandoned projects had no records at the district office for the needed attention.

#### **6.4 Conclusions**

The District Assembly as well as the individual Assembly Members had made efforts at developing the district in the various communities. It is rather disheartening that such attempts at development were concentrated on infrastructure without the commensurate education on how the people would use those facilities for further development. The general perception and misconceptions of many of the people were that there would be a trickle down effect of infrastructural development with the mere existence of such structures.

The presence of such infrastructures was more or less seen as a competition in the various communities with no vision on what structures would do for them. Thus, the fact that such structures were found in some communities meant that they must also have similar things whether it was a felt need or not.

Also, as the district continues to battle with poverty, the people were not much aware of what benefits they could receive from the District Assembly to help them better their conditions. Many were those whose thought that the District Assembly must 'put money in the pockets' of the individuals. The question that one may ask is "If this is possible at one time or the other, how sustainable can it be as a long time solution?"

This view has resulted from the fact that people's thinking of the idea of sharing the 'national cake' is for each and everyone to get an individual share of the GNP without thinking that they have to work towards that.

The majority of the people are not well aware of the functions of the District Assembly. All knowledge centres on infrastructure provision from the government. The issue of empowerment through skill acquisition programmes is less known. The Assembly's effort in this area has also not been encouraging, probably, due to inadequate fiscal support. Attempts at revenue mobilisation to augment this sector have been in limbo, as other areas where some income could be generated continued to dangle at the law courts over decades.

The district also battled with a large population with relatively low level of literacy. Yet the Functional Literacy Programme has not been well patronised by the target groups or individuals.

Furthermore, 'patronage' as a community development typology or model has rather become a recipe for non-participation and little or no self-initiated projects. This phenomenon has wrongly re-oriented some communities to think that the affluent or well-to-do citizens of those communities must be responsible for development in their communities. This became evident where people in those affected communities openly criticised such patrons as rather not doing much for the people.

The nature of poverty reduction strategies has been holistic in its implementation in the district. The programme came as a package from the national level with little or no changes at the decentralised levels. That is, the conditions that were set out for urban communities were no different from rural ones, nor that of commercial centres different from non-commercial centres. As a result of this, the implementation strategy as regards poverty reduction have not saved many recipients from their state of poverty.

Resource allocation and resource sharing mechanisms have not been favourable for development in general in the district. Land holdings posed several problems. While small land holdings have not favoured large scale commercial farming, those who have larger parcels, like chiefs and clans, also failed to release them to developers – partly due to litigations and disputes. Also, as the resources that existed in the district in terms of finance and logistics were inadequate for fair distribution, the pattern of distribution continued to favour the urban people as compared to their rural counterparts. This is in terms of both project allocation or distribution and poverty reduction related activity.

Local institutions, especially the informal sector, have not as yet received enough booster or attention. Many of these informal training institutions continued to employ the old techniques and methods that were not very productive. The cost of going in for the formal skill acquisition or training centres also put many prospective parents and guardians off. They were not capable to sustain their wards in those institutions though they tried hard to get them enrolled.

Effective community development centres on collaboration. Collaboration is achieved through co-operation and coordination. In the district, there was co-operation among the members of the various components of the local government structure. However, the necessary linkages and networks have not been fostered. The absence of effective coordination among the structures has been a setback. This is partly attributed to the fact that in some of the electoral areas or Zonal Councils, the Unit Committees and Area Councils were not in place to knit the system together.

The existing agreement has affected collaboration of the development structures in the district. Collaboration could help to increase the scope of the vision so that the total vision is greater than the sum of its parts (Adams, 1986). It is therefore a powerful and effective means of co-creating. In situations where collaboration was exhibited, some of the participants played the roles of amplifiers, technicians and supporters.

## **6.5 Recommendations**

### **Practical and Policy Implications**

In reference to the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made for practical and policy implications as far as the District Assemblies and self-help development are concerned.

1. One area that needs attention is resource mobilisation and resource development. The Central Regional Coordinating Council (CRCC) and the Central Regional Development Company (CEDECOM) have taken a step to resolve issues affecting land acquisition. A meeting was thus held where the parties concerned – that is, chiefs and landowners on one hand and the RCC and CEDECOM on the other. This has resulted in an agreement that developers who need land must consult CEDECOM first. The aim here is to help the parties concerned – the developers and landowners – to understand how each will benefit from any deal that is arrived at (Office of the Regional Coordinating Council, 2002). This bold step taken by these bodies need to be sustained. Also, the attempt at creating land banks in the Central Region and for that matter, the districts for easy access should be encouraged.

2. There is the need for the district to pay attention to the development of human skills through formal training centres. This could be done through support from the District Assembly and other development partners. Also, assistance must be given to the informal training institutions so that they can improve their ways of training by incorporating effective training methods.
3. Training is in the interest of workers and in market economies as a response to underlying economic circumstances. In the interest of national development, the government and, for that matter, the District Assembly should intervene in the market for training if there are particular market failures or imperfections, or to pursue goals other than economic efficiency. This is because as regards general education, individuals may under invest in training because of lack of information or credit market failures, because a spill over effect drives a wedge between private and social returns. It would be fruitful then for the district to invest in skills.
4. The District Assembly and the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development must make frantic efforts at reconstituting those structures that are not functional or not in place, especially the Unit Committees and Area / Zonal Councils.
5. The element of networking among the local government structures and development partners must be catalysed.

6. There is the need for intensive conscientisation of the people through the functional literacy programme. Again, workshops and seminars must be organised regularly to educate the people as to how they can use the existing facilities to empower themselves for development. The stakeholders must therefore be brought together for development.
7. It is also recommended that the Assembly must constitute an Information Dissemination Task Force to help in sending issues that affect the livelihood of the people in the communities through the Assembly Members and Unit Committees.
8. In addition, there must be gradual integration and monitoring of all activities in the district by the District Assembly's monitoring and evaluation team.
9. In the course of helping the poor through the PAF, the location and activities of the beneficiary communities have to be considered. This is because the assistance may be needed at different places at different times. Hence, there is the need to take into consideration time, space and activities of communities in disbursing financial assistance. Moreover, it must be done in a manner that the advantaged urban residents will not be favoured more than their rural counterparts.
10. Change agents like the District Assemblies and community leaders must help communities through participatory research or needs assessment to enable them identify their real needs rather than embarking on projects that were felt needs which would not help to develop the communities in the near future.



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10. What are the predominant occupational activities in the community?

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....

**PART II**

**Role of Assembly Members in Development**

11. What specific steps has the District Assembly taken to develop human resource?

- Skill acquisition programmes
- Non-Formal education
- Vocational training
- Others .....

12. How is development information from the District Assembly sent to the communities?

- Through radio broadcast
- Use of information vans
- Through the Assembly Members
- Through the opinion leaders (like chiefs)
- Use of durbars and festivals
- Others .....

13. How have you helped your community in self-help development?

- .....
- .....

**PART III**

**Projects in relation to poverty reduction**

14. What development activities are embarked on in the district?

- .....
- .....

15. Do the people in the community participate in development activities?

Yes  No

16. What make the people participate?

.....  
.....  
.....

17. Why is it that some people in the communities in the district do not participate in self-help developmental activities? .....

.....  
.....

18. Have the people in your area formed groups that embark on self-help development projects?

Yes  No

19. What do such groups do if any? .....

.....  
.....

20. Which of the following sectors do you think will need a greater emphasis for development in the district?

Fishing  Farming  Small scale industries

Private business enterprises

Others .....

21. What problems are likely to be faced by the people in the district in the course of embarking on development projects?

Land acquisition                       Lack of financial support

Lack of fishing inputs               No of experts to guide

Others .....

22. What efforts should be made to raise self-help development projects in the

District? .....

.....

#### PART IV

##### Resource Allocation

23. What resources are available in your community/electoral area for development?

Land                       Sea                       Salt

Others (specify) .....

24. How can the District Assembly determine what the real needs of the people are for public expenditure?

.....  
.....  
.....

25. How can more people get access to land? .....

.....  
.....

26. How can more people get access to fishing materials?

.....  
.....



**PART V**

**Resource Sharing Mechanism**

27. Suggest any **method(s)** that can be used to make more effective resource allocation? (Assuming that there are insufficient resources available to finance projects).  
.....  
.....  
.....

28. **Whom** should District Assembly's financed projects go to?

- Individuals       Opinion leaders       Co-operative groups  
 Others (Specify) .....

**PART VI**

**Local Institutions for Development**

29. Do you see the leaders in the district to be **committed** towards the development of the district?

- Yes                       No

Give reason.....  
.....

30. What training facilities exist in the district?

.....  
.....

31. How are skills development programmes organised in your community if any?

.....  
.....

**PART VII**

**Collaboration between Community Leaders and District Assembly**

32. What relationship exist between the District Assembly and the Unit Committees in the district?

[ ] Very co-operating      [ ] Co-operating      [ ] Non-co-operating

Give reason .....

33. In what way(s) can the total development efforts at the District Assembly be effectively coordinated?

.....

34. How do local leaders relate with the District Assembly towards development?

.....

**Thank you.**

**APPENDIX B**

**AN INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP RESPONDENTS**

The goal of this research is to find out the role of the District Assembly in relation to self-help development in the Gomoa District. Your responses will be held in strictest confidence and your anonymity protected.

**PART I**

**PERSONAL DATA**

- i. Name of Community: .....
- ii. Group No: .....
- iii. Ages of Interviewees: .....

Sex:

All Male [     ]

All Female [     ]

**Educational Background**

No Formal Education: .....

Up to Primary Six: .....

Up to Middle Form Four/ JSS: .....

Up to Secondary: .....

Vocational/ Teacher Training: .....

Tertiary: .....

**iv. Occupation**

Farming: .....

Fishing/ Fish mongering: .....

Trading: .....

Public / Civil Servant: .....

Unemployed: .....

Others: .....

**v. Community's predominant occupational activity:**

Major .....

Minor .....

Others .....

## **PART II**

### **A. Role of the District Assembly/ Assembly Members in Development**

1. What do you think the district assembly do? (Functions)
2. What form of help do the district assembly give to this community?
3. Do you think that the people living in the district can receive support from the District Assembly?
4. In your own assessment, what benefits do you think the people of this community have enjoyed since the Gomoa District was separated from the former Awutu-Efutu-Senya District Council?

### **B. Projects in relation to poverty reduction**

5. What form of self-help activities do the people of this community do?
6. Why is it that some people in this community do not participate in self-help developmental activities / communal labour?
7. Are there some people in this community that have formed groups with the aim of embarking on self-help development?
8. Has the members of this community initiated a development project and called for the assembly's assistance?

## **PART III**

### **C. Resource Allocation**

9. One problem facing the people of this community is poverty. What is being done about it?
10. How can more people get access to land?
11. How can more people get access to fishing inputs?
12. Are there some litigations and chieftaincy disputes affecting this community's development?

#### PART IV

##### D. Resource Sharing Mechanism

13. Whom should the District Assembly's financed projects be given?
14. What, do you think the people of this community need most for development?

#### PART V

##### E. Local Institutions for Development

15. Has the district assembly been organising programmes for skill acquisition and development to enable the people to develop on their own?
16. Do you see the leaders in the district to be committed towards its development?

#### PART VI

##### F. Collaboration between leaders and District Assembly

17. What relationship exists between the District Assembly and the Unit Committees/ Area Councils?
18. Do you see the leaders in the district as committed to its development?
19. How can local leaders relate with the District Assembly towards development of this community?

**NOTE:** *All questions were followed with PROBES depending on the responses given by the interviewees.*



**APPENDIX C**

**Summary Data on Focus Group Respondents**

Serial ANN No.	VARIABLES	Nyanyano		Fetteh		Buduatta		Postin		Afransi	
		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6	Group 7	Group 8	Group 9	Group 10
1	Sex	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2	Number in Group	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
3	Age Range	21-46	18-40	25-65	25-57	21-50	29-80	24-50	22-40	18-54	19-49
4	Mean Age	28.6	27.4	50.3	50.5	39.8	47.2	30.5	27.2	36.3	28.7
<b>Educational Background</b>											
5	No Formal Education	5	5	6	1	-	7	5	5	2	3
6	Up to Primary Six	-	3	3	-	-	1	2	1	-	1
7	Up to JSS/Middle Form Four	5	2	1	8	8	2	1	2	6	5
8	Up to Secondary School	-	-	-	1	2	-	2	-	2	1
9	Vocational/ Technical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
10	Tertiary Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
<b>Occupation</b>											
11	Farming	-	-	1	1	5	5	6	5	4	3
12	Fishing	4	5	7	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	Trading	-	3	1	-	-	3	1	3	2	3
14	Public/ Civil Servants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
15	Unemployed	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	-	-	1
16	Others	4	-	-	4	4	1	1	-	2	2
<b>Major/Minor Occupations</b>											
17	Major	B	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	A	A
18	Minor	A	A	A	A	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	Other Occupations	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
<b>Duration of Interview</b>		3.40 - 4.15 p.m.	2.00 - 3.20 p.m.	9.15 - 9.55 a.m.	10.10 - 11.35 a.m.	1.05 - 2.05 p.m.	2.20 - 3.10 p.m.	10.25 - 11.15 a.m.	1.20 - 1.55 p.m.	10.30 - 11.35 a.m.	2.35 - 3.25 p.m.

*Continued on next page*

Continued from previous page

SSS	Serial No.	VARIABLES	Dago		Apam		Abonko		Eshiem		Mankoadze		Grand Total
			Group 11	Group 12	Group 33	Group 14	Group 15	Group 16	Group 17	Group 18	Group 19	Group 20	
	1	Sex	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	2	Number in Group	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	200
	3	Age Range	22-49	28-57	19-61	24-58	18-65	25-71	21-63	18-51	19-58	25-50	-
	4	Mean Age	29.4	38.6	36.3	32.6	40.1	50.4	42.5	29.2	50.3	39.7	-
<b>Educational Background</b>													
	5	No Formal Education	4	6	4	5	5	6	3	4	5	5	86
	6	Up to Primary Six	1	3	1	2	4	4	2	3	2	3	36
	7	Up to JSS/Middle Form Four	1	-	3	3	-	-	3	2	2	1	55
	8	Up to Secondary School	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	13
	9	Vocational/ Technical	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	5
	10	Tertiary Education	1	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	5
													200
<b>Occupation</b>													
	11	Farming	1	-	-	-	5	6	5	6	4	3	60
	12	Fishing	8	8	4	6	-	-	-	-	4	4	54
	13	Trading	-	-	2	3	1	3	3	3	-	3	34
	14	Public/ Civil Servants	1	2	2	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	13
	15	Unemployed	-	-	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	15
	16	Others	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	1	1	-	24
													200
<b>Occupations</b>													
	17	Major	B	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	B	B	
	18	Minor	A	A	A	A	-	-	-	-	A	A	
	19	Other Occupations	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	
		<b>Duration of Interview</b>	2.40 - 3.25 p.m.	4.00 - 5.10 p.m.	9.15 - 10.05 a.m.	11.20 - 12.10 a.m.	1.05 - 1.55 p.m.	3.20 - 4.10 p.m.	11.25 - 12.15 p.m.	1.20 - 1.55 p.m.	10.45 - 11.35 a.m.	1.35 - 2.30 p.m.	

Key: A: Farming;

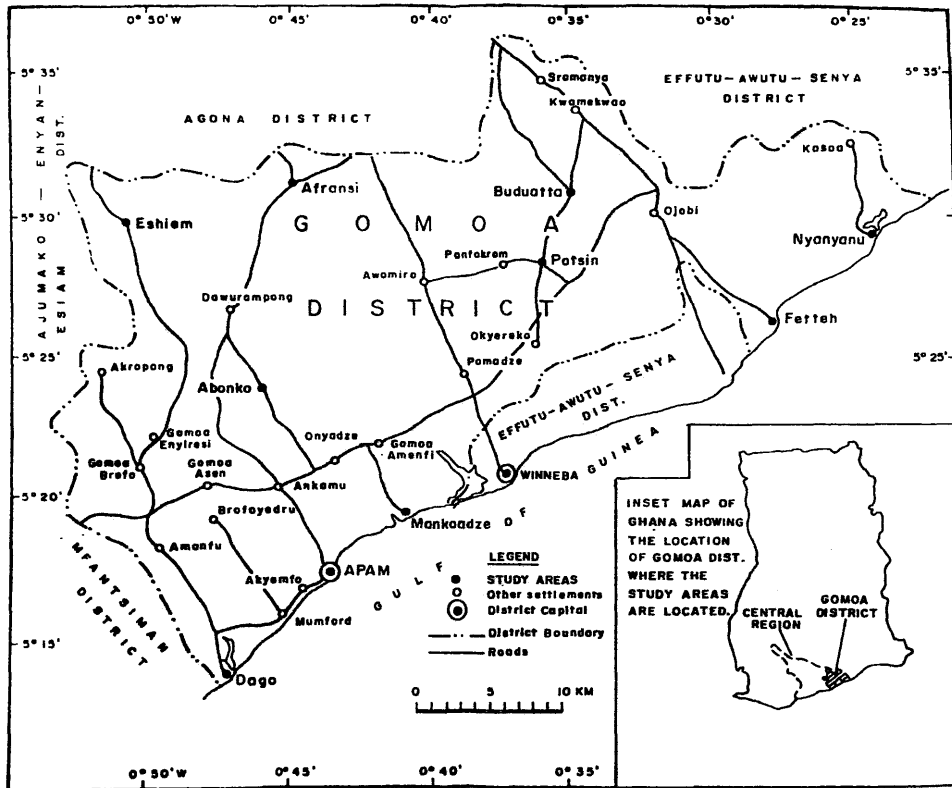
B: Fishing

C: Others

Others: ...

APPENDIX D

FIG. A MAP OF GOMOA DISTRICT SHOWING THE STUDY AREAS



## APPENDIX E

### Distribution of Assembly Members in the Gomoa District (East and West Constituencies)

Constituencies	Elected		Appointed		Total	% Composition (Constituency)
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male/ Female	Male/ Female
Gomoa East	20	0	12	2	34	47
Gomoa West	29	0	6	3	38	53
Total	49	0	18	5	72	100
<b>% Composition (Appointed/Elected Members)</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>	

Source: Gomoa District Assembly, April, 2002.

## APPENDIX F

List of Sampled Communities, their Population, and Number of Respondents  
Chosen for the Focus Group Interviews in the Gomoa District

No.	Communities	Female Population	Male Population	Total	No of Respondents
1	Nyanyano	4,213	3,678	7,891	20
2	Postin	897	756	1,653	20
3	Afransi	1,972	1,462	3,434	20
4	Fetteh	2,409	2,210	4,619	20
5	Buduatta	922	753	1,675	20
6	Apam	9,032	7,278	16,310	20
7	Dago	2,500	2,243	4,743	20
8	Abonko	331	267	598	20
9	Eshiem	1,403	1,773	3,176	20
10	Mankoadze	697	565	1,262	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>24,376</b>	<b>20,985</b>	<b>45,361</b>	<b>200</b>

Source: 2000 Population and Housing Census, Ghana Statistical Service, 2002.

**APPENDIX G**

**LIST OF ELECTORAL AREAS IN THE GOMOA EAST AND WEST  
CONSTITUENCIES**

<b>No</b>	<b>Gomoa West</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Gomoa East</b>
1	Ankamu	1	Afransi
2	Mankoadze	2	Nkwamu/ Kwame Adwira
3	Jukwaa/Mprumam	3	Obuasi
4	Akobrem / Alata	4	Gyamang/ Asikuma
5	Kantamtwnem	5	Akyease
6	Mamfam	6	Dahom/ Lome
7	Esueekyir	7	Aboso (Upper)
8	Nsawam	8	Aboso/ Benso
9	Eyipey	9	Akropong
10	Odukum	10	Ekwamkrom
11	Penkye	11	Manso
12	Akyemfo	12	Mangoase
13	Asaa – Bentsil	13	Asebu/ Pomadze
14	Nkum – Hweda	14	Oguaakrom
15	Nduam/ Wassa/ Nkran	15	Ojobi/ Akotsi
16	Dawurampong	16	Fetteh
17	Denkyira/ Abonko	17	Upper Nyanyano
18	Oguaa/Odina	18	Ennyaakor/ Oninase
19	Enyeme/ Kumasi	19	Gomoa Dominase
20	Okwawu/ Dabiso	20	Buduatta/ Odumasi
21	Mozano/ Ayanful/ Eshiem	21	Panfokrom
22	Abakwaim/ Akyempem	*	
23	Maampong/ Kokofu	*	
24	Tarkwa	*	
25	Tekyiman	*	
26	Dunkwaw	*	
27	Brofo	*	
28	Gomoameem/ Ajumakoansa	*	
29	Ngyiresi	*	
30	Assin/ Brofoyedur	*	
31	Nkoranza/ Akwamkrom	*	
32	Kyiren Nkwanta	*	

Source: Office of the Electoral Commission, Gomoa District, Apam, April, 2002.