

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

**GHANA**

**KNUST**

**District Assemblies and Rural Development in Ghana: Analysis of Infrastructure  
Provision in Selected Communities in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality**

**By**

**Francis Kwasi Gyapong**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Geography and Rural Development, College  
of Humanities and Social Sciences in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the  
degree of**

**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

**NOVEMBER, 2015.**



## DEDICATION

I dedicate this piece of work to my late uncle, Mr. J.E. Gyapong who nurtured me during my formative ages; relatives, friends and loved ones who have shown me bountiful love, care and concern.



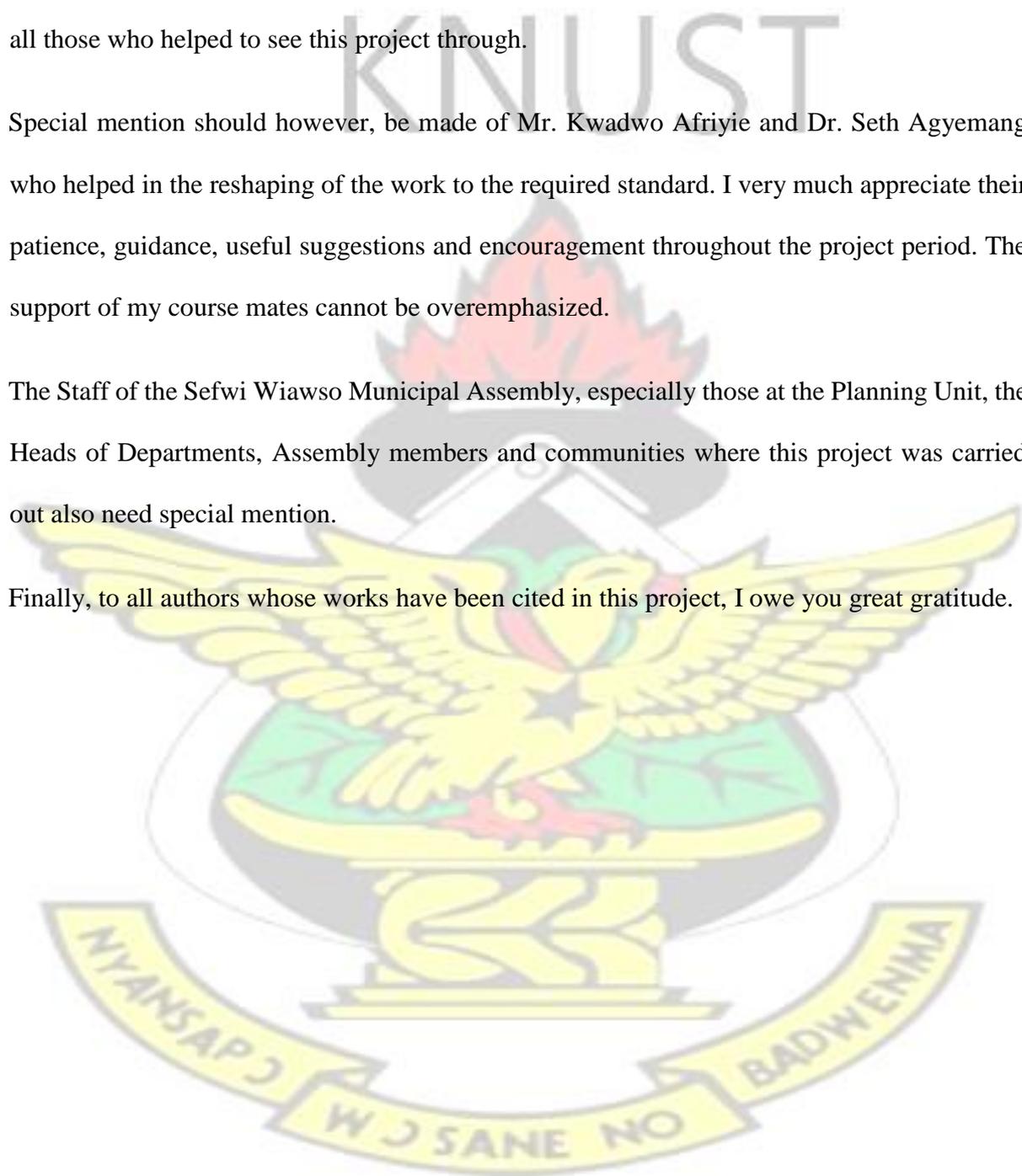
## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to acknowledge, with many thanks, the support, assistance and encouragement of all those who helped to see this project through.

Special mention should however, be made of Mr. Kwadwo Afriyie and Dr. Seth Agyemang who helped in the reshaping of the work to the required standard. I very much appreciate their patience, guidance, useful suggestions and encouragement throughout the project period. The support of my course mates cannot be overemphasized.

The Staff of the Sefwi Wiawso Municipal Assembly, especially those at the Planning Unit, the Heads of Departments, Assembly members and communities where this project was carried out also need special mention.

Finally, to all authors whose works have been cited in this project, I owe you great gratitude.



# KNUST

## ABSTRACT

Many rural areas in Ghana are plagued with deficit in infrastructure. In spite of the effort of the government at providing those places with basic infrastructure such as roads, water, electricity and school buildings mostly through the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies, the problem still persists. In the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality, this situation has been observed in which the Assembly's effort at providing certain basic infrastructure so far has been urban-bias. The study had the object of analysing the rural-urban distribution of infrastructure and the factors that were considered in the process, as well as the level of participation of the people and the effect infrastructure provided by the Assembly has had on the living condition of the people. One hundred and forty-four (144) residents from four communities (two rural and two urban) and six staff of the Assembly were selected as respondents for the study. Primary data were collected using questionnaires, interview and focus group discussions whereas secondary data were obtained mainly from the Assembly's records such as Development Plan and Composite Budget, reports and publications.

Percentages, frequency charts and cross tabulation using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Excel for Windows were used to present the findings. The study revealed that the distribution of infrastructure is skewed in favour of the urban settlements in the

Municipality. Party political considerations, as well as low level of participation characterise the provision of infrastructure such as roads, water, electricity and school buildings in the Municipality. The study also revealed that infrastructure provided by the Assembly has had positive effect on the living condition of the people over the last decade. It was recommended that the Assembly should adopt policies that will ensure equitable distribution of infrastructure among urban and rural communities, do need assessment and create conducive environment for the people to participate fully in the activities of the Assembly.



## TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>DECLARATION.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>DEDICATION.....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....iv	<b>iv</b>
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT .....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	<b>xii</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS .....</b>	<b>xiii</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction .....	1
1.2 Problem Statement and Research Questions.....	5
1.3 Objectives of the Study .....	8
1.4 Justification and Significance of the Study .....	9
1.5 Organisation of the Study .....	9
<b>CHAPTER TWO .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>11 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.</b> <b>..... 11</b>	
2.1 Introduction .....	11
2.2 Definition of concepts .....	11
2.2.1 Meaning of the term ‘rural’ .....	11
2.2.2 The concept of Rural Development .....	13
2.2.3 Objectives of Rural Development .....	16
2.2.4 Approaches to Rural Development in Ghana .....	17
2.3 Theories of Development – Core versus Periphery .....	20
2.4 ‘Infrastructure’ Explained .....	22
2.4.1 Types of Infrastructure .....	23
2.4.1.1 Economic infrastructure .....	24
2.4.2 Social infrastructure .....	24
2.5 Policy Guidelines for the Distribution of Infrastructure in Ghana .....	24
2.6 The role of Infrastructure in Rural Development .....	26

2.7 District Assemblies and Decentralisation in Ghana .....	27
2.7.1 The Role of District Assemblies in Rural Development in Ghana .....	29
2.7.3 Functions of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in Ghana .....	31
2.7.4 The Role of District Assemblies in the Provision of Infrastructure in Ghana .....	32
2.7.5 Challenges of District Assemblies in Ghana .....	33
2.8 The concept of ‘Participation’ .....	34
2.8.1 ‘Participation’ Defined .....	35
2.8.2 Participation in Rural Development.....	36
2.8.3 Benefits of Participation in Rural Development .....	37
2.8.4 Arguments Against Participation in Rural Development .....	38
2.9 ‘Living Condition’ Explained .....	39
2.10 Conceptual Framework .....	40

### **CHAPTER THREE**

.....	<b>44</b>
<b>PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>44</b>
3.1 Introduction .....	44
3.2 Location and size of the Municipality. ....	47
3.3 Physical Features .....	48
3.3.1 Relief and Drainage .....	48
3.3.2 Climate and Vegetation.....	49
3.3.3 Effect of climate and vegetation on the infrastructure development of the Municipality. (The relationship between climate and vegetation and key variables in the study) .....	50
3.3.4 Soils and Agricultural Land use .....	51
3.4 Demographic Characteristics .....	51
3.5 Human Resource Development and Basic Social Services .....	53
3.5.1 Education and Literacy .....	53
3.5.2 Health Care .....	53
3.5.3 Water and Sanitation .....	54
3.5.4 Electricity .....	54
3.5.5 Transportation and Communication Services .....	54
3.6 Economic Activities in the Municipality .....	55
3.7 Structure of the Municipal Assembly .....	57
3.8 Methodology of the Research .....	58

3.8.1 Selected Communities .....	58
3.8.2 Target Population .....	59
3.8.3 Sample size determination .....	60
3.8.4 Sources of Data .....	61
3.8.5 Sampling Techniques .....	61
3.8.6 Methods of Data Collection .....	62
3.8.7 Methods of Data Analysis .....	63
<b>CHAPTER FOUR .....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>RURAL-URBAN DISTRIBUTION OF INFRASTRUCTURE IN THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY .....</b>	<b>64</b>
4.1 Introduction .....	64
4.2 Background of Respondents .....	64
4.3 Distribution Pattern of Infrastructure Projects .....	66
4.4 Specific Infrastructure Distributed by the Assembly in the Selected Communities. ....	69
4.4.1 Distribution of Road Projects.....	70
4.4.2 Distribution of Electricity .....	73
4.4.3 Distribution of Water Facilities .....	75
4.4.4 Distribution of Educational Infrastructure .....	77
4.5 Conclusion .....	81
<b>CHAPTER FIVE .....</b>	<b>82</b>
<b>PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURE IN SELECTED COMMUNITIES WITHIN THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY - PERSPECTIVES OF RESPONDENTS .</b>	<b>82</b>
5.1 Introduction .....	82
5.2 Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure Projects. ....	82
5.3 Participation in the Infrastructure Development of the Municipality between 2002 and 2012.....	84
5.3.1 Participation of the People in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Selected Communities Between 2002 and 2012. ....	85
5.3.2 Participation and Information Dissemination about Infrastructure Projects .....	88
5.3.3 Provision of Specific Infrastructure and Respondents Participation -between 2002 and 2012 .....	90
5.3.4 Participation in the Distribution of Infrastructure and how the People Benefit .....	92
5.3.5 Participation in the Distribution of Infrastructure and Level of Satisfaction	

of the People .....	93
5.4 Effects of Infrastructure Projects on the Living Conditions of the People in the Municipality .....	94
5.4.1 Living Conditions of Respondents Before Infrastructure Projects were Undertaken.....	94
5.4.2 Living Condition of Respondents After Infrastructure Projects Between 2002 and 2012 .....	96
5.4.3 Aspect of Living Condition Affected by Infrastructure Projects Between 2002 and 2012 .....	100
5.5 Conclusion .....	102

**CHAPTER SIX .....**  
**104 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....**  
**104**

6.1 Introduction.....	104
6.2 Findings.....	104
6.2.1 Distribution of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality.....	104
6.2.2 Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality .....	105
6.2.3 Participation in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Municipality. ....	105
6.2.4 Effects of Infrastructure Projects on the Living Conditions of the People .....	107
6.3 Conclusions .....	108
6.4 Recommendations .....	109
6.4.1 Introduction .....	109
6.4.2 Distribution of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality.....	109
6.4.3 Factors that Influence the Distribution of Infrastructure .....	110
6.4.4 Participation in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Municipality .....	111
6.4.5 Effects of Infrastructure Provision on the Living Conditions of the People .....	113

**REFERENCES .....**  
**114**

**APPENDICES**

APPENDICES .....	133
Appendix One: Specific Projects and participatory activity of respondents between 2002 and 2012 .....	133
Appendix Two: Aspects of Living Conditions of Respondents affected by Infrastructure	

Projects Between 2002 and 2012 .....	134
Appendix Three: .....	135
Appendix Four: .....	145
Appendix Five:.....	153
Table 4.1: Background of Respondents.....	65
Table 4.2: Occupational Background of Respondents .....	65
Table 4.3: Distribution Pattern of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality – Perspectives of Respondents.....	66
Table 4.4: Major road projects in the Municipality .....	71
Table 4.5: Distribution of Water Facilities According to Town/Area Councils.....	75
Table 4.6: Distribution of schools according to circuits in the Municipality .....	77
Table 4.7: Views of Respondents on Specific Infrastructure Projects Undertaken by.....	78
the Assembly in the Various Communities Between 2002 and 2012 .....	78
Table 5.1: Views of Respondents on Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure .....	81
Projects in the Municipality .....	81
Table 5.2: Participation of the People in the Provision of infrastructure .....	84
Table 5.3: Participation and Information Dissemination about Infrastructure Projects .....	87
Table 5.4: Participation and how the People Benefit .....	91
Table 5.5: Satisfaction with Community Participation .....	91
Table 5.6: Living Condition of Respondents Before Infrastructure was Provided .....	93
Table 5.7: Views of Respondents on the Effect of Infrastructure Provision on their.....	96
Living Condition Between 2002 and 2012.....	96

### **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1: Structure of District Assemblies in Ghana .....	30
Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework on District Assemblies/Decentralisation and the Provision of Public goods and Services .....	40
Figure 2.3: Conceptual Framework on Decentralisation, District Assemblies and Rural Development .....	42
Figure 3.1: District Map of Ghana Showing the Study District .....	45
Figure 3.2: Map of Sefwi Wiawso Municipality showing the study .....	46

### **ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS**

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ARSA	Asian Rural Sociology Association
CBA	Community-based Approach
CIS	Congresso Internacional Sobre
COFISA	Cooperation Framework on Innovation Systems between Finland and South Africa
CPRC	Chronic Poverty Research Centre
DA	District Assembly
DAs	District Assemblies
DHA	District Health Administration
EC	European Commission
eJADE	electronic Journal of Agricultural and Development Economics
EJSR	European Journal of Scientific Research
ESCWA	Economic and Social Commission for West Asia
EU	European Union
EWB	.Engineers Without Borders
FES	Friedrich Ebert Foundation
FHH	Female-headed households.
GDHS	Ghana Demographic and Health Survey
GLSS	Ghana Living Standard Survey
GoG	Government of Ghana
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HDI	Human Development Index
HODs	Heads of Development
ICAN	Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development

IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
ILGS	Institute of Local Government Studies
IMF	International Monetary Fund.
IRD	Integrated Rural Development
ISODEC	Integrated Social Development Centre
ISD	Information Services Department
ISRDS	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategies
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
LEADER	Liaison among Actors in Rural Economic Development
LG	Local Government
MGPDD	Malawi German Programme for Democracy and Decentralisation
MHH	Male-headed households.
MLGRD	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
MBO	Municipal Budget Officer
MFO	Municipal Finance Officer
MCE	Municipal Chief Executive
MPO	Municipal Planning Officer
NTFPS	Non-Timber Forest Product
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organisation of Islamic Countries.
OSAGI	United Nations Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues.
PRA	Remote Rural Areas
RCRSC	Royal Commission on Renewing and Strengthening our place in Canada
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
RD	Rural Development
RDT	Rural Development task Team

RNE	Royal Norwegian Embassy
RTI	Royal Tropical Institute
SA	South Africa.
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme.
SESRTCIC	Statistical Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries.
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SWDA	Sefwi Wiawso District Assembly
SWMA	Sefwi Wiawso Municipal Assembly
UN	United Nations.
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNH	United Nations Habitat
UNMIT	United Nations Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
URS	Umhlaba Rural Services
UNSCD	United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
WB	World Bank.
WH	White House

## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

#### 1.1 Introduction

Rural infrastructure development has in recent years been given a great deal of attention both in development plans and programmes and in the utterances of government officials and policy makers across the world (Brown, 1986). It has in fact attracted tremendous international attention and advocacy. There is persuasive evidence that adequate infrastructure provision is a key element in improving the living condition of people. Also, a number of studies have argued that generalised access to infrastructure services in rural areas plays a key role in helping bridge the developmental gap between urban and rural settlements. Owing to this, the World Summit for Social Development held in Copenhagen in 1995 called for infrastructure development; the Millennium Summit in 2000 also focused among other things on developing the rural areas and in 2003 the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development was created from a growing consensus that a collective action is needed in rural development to achieve the MDGs. The commitment made in the Maputo Declaration by African leaders to raise the budget share of rural development (AU, 2003) and the support such a move has received from the World Summit on Food Security (WSFS, 2009) is a tacit admission that rural areas everywhere in the world and most especially on the African continent need to be given greater developmental attention.

This perhaps may be due to the fact that a significant portion of the world's population live in rural areas, albeit in different proportions across the globe. In 1950, about 70% of the world's population lived in rural areas and it was projected to fall to 39% by 2030

(Trzyna, 2007). In Sub-Saharan Africa, 62.7% of the people lived in the rural areas (UNPD, 2010). Currently, Ghana has 49.1% of its people living in the rural areas (GSS, 2012).

Rural areas anywhere in the world are noted for their primary activities (CIS, 2006). Generally, these activities contribute hugely to national income generation (De Gennaro and Fantini, 2003). In all agrarian economies like Ghana, a greater chunk of its agricultural exports is obtained from the rural areas. The rural areas are also the food basket of most countries and are huge market grounds for manufactured goods, supplying raw materials for industrial use. They are also sites for large scale mining, lumbering and fishing activities (OECD, 1994).

There exists however a paradoxical situation in many countries in the world that in spite of the attention given and their efforts towards national growth and development, the rural areas are poorly developed in many respects, especially in terms of availability of basic infrastructure vital for human and economic development such as roads, electricity, water and schools (Kruseman and Vullings, 2007). The rural areas in most parts of the world are neglected or discriminated against in the provision and distribution of infrastructure. In Latin America for instance, nearly 95 percent of those living in cities have access to potable water, and over 80 percent access to sanitation facilities. This compares poorly to rural areas with less than 50 percent coverage for water and sanitation (Brushett and Indu, 2006). About 63 percent of the urban population in Africa has access to an improved water source, compared with about 14 percent of the rural population. Similarly, about 42 percent of the urban population has access to improved sanitation versus about 7 percent of the rural population, and only 12 percent of rural households have access to electricity (UN Habitat, 2011).

The provision and rehabilitation of infrastructure is a basic step for rural development

(Kruseman and Vullings, 2007). The World Bank's (1994) World Development Report landmark study on infrastructure highlighted the critical role of infrastructure in the development process in general and particularly rural development. Improvement in rural infrastructure triggers development of, and higher productivity in agriculture (RTI, 2005). Infrastructure serves as a means for wider development ends. It forms the foundation on which economies are built. They are a means for ensuring the delivery of goods and services that promote prosperity and growth and contribute to quality of life, including the health and social well-being of people (OECD, 2007). All these make infrastructure a very important dimension of rural development. For it is through the provision of infrastructure that rural development becomes visible and meaningful, even though rural development can be achieved through several alternative means.

There have been several attempts worldwide to correct the seeming imbalance in infrastructure development between the urban and rural areas. The LEADER (Liaison among Actors in Rural Economic Development) programme was introduced in the EU and South Africa in 2007 and 2008 respectively (URS, 2009); the Agricultural Rehabilitation and Rural Development Act (ARDA) 1961 through to the recently introduced place based development in Canada (Blake, 2003); from the Rural Infrastructure Work to the community-based approach which came into being after the introduction of the Decentralisation Act (1992) in Nepal (Tatsumi and Narenda, 2010); the Growth Centre Strategy in Zimbabwe (Manyahaire, 2011) and the revised triple policies of Rural Health, Self Help Well Digging and Rural Programme Agriculture in Nigeria introduced in 2002 (Bachmann, 2007) are all rural development strategies adopted by the respective countries to achieve rural development ends.

It has been the view of many Ghanaians that national development can be more meaningfully assessed on the basis of the level of development in the rural areas (Woyome,

1988), in the form of construction and maintenance of good road networks, provision of potable water, electricity, health and educational facilities (GSS, 2005; Kazuko and Nim, 2010). Owing to this, the efforts of Ghana towards rural development started way back in 1943 when the idea to establish the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development and later in 1946 the Department of Social Welfare and Housing to oversee issues relating to rural development was mooted. Subsequently, approaches such as the Social Amenity Approach, the Increased Agricultural Approach, the Accelerated Project Implementation Approach, Regional Development and Growth Pole Strategy were adopted, all in an attempt to bring about meaningful rural development (Brown, 1986; Boakye, 2010).

One after the other, these policies failed to address the critical needs of the rural dwellers *let alone* bridge the infrastructure gap between urban and rural areas in the country. This may be due to the highly centralised nature of development planning in the country (Brown, 1986). Brown further identified lack of local participation as a bane to rural development planning in the country, opining that grassroot participation should be a principle for rural development.

Decentralisation and the move towards community driven development have been the most important new developments in rural development practice in Ghana since 1988 (Zeeza, *et al.*, 2007). The decentralisation policy was introduced as an alternative development strategy and as a vehicle for rural development. The policy brought into being the assembly system (metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies) of local governance with the passage of PNDCL 207 (MLGRD, 2010). This was further boosted through the integration of the decentralisation policy in the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana and the subsequent enactment of the Local Government Act. Articles

240 (1), 241 (3) and 245 (a) of the 1992 Constitution and article 10 of the Local Government Act, Act 462 of 1993 provide for the creation, the authority and functions of district assemblies. District Assemblies were given legislative, executive, budgeting and planning authority in the Constitution so as to be the fulcrum and champion of development in the various districts.

The Directive Principle of State Policy 36 (2) (d) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana calls for —... even and balanced development of all regions and every part of each region, and, in particular, improving the conditions of life in the rural areas, and generally, redressing any imbalance in development between the rural and the urban areas. What is seen in the country decades after the implementation of the decentralisation programme which ushered in the district assembly concept however is that there is a widening gap between the rural and urban areas in the provision and access to development projects, especially infrastructure facilities, contrary to stipulation of the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana.

## **1.2 Problem Statement and Research Questions**

Recently, rural development as a strategy, process and as a policy or programme has become a key issue to all development stakeholders in Ghana. The government, NGOs and international bodies think that it is the most effective means of improving population distribution, promoting the social and economic development of rural areas thereby bridging the gap between the urban and rural areas, getting the grass root people involved in the design and implementation of development projects (Ross, 2002), managing and or utilising the funds or resources of the districts and ultimately yielding optimum benefits to the rural dwellers in Ghana in terms of changes in their living conditions.

Development thrives on infrastructure and so for the rural areas to develop, there is the need for them to be provided with infrastructure. Again, for holistic national development to occur, rural areas must be provided with infrastructure to help bridge the development gap between the urban and rural communities and also to help improve the living conditions of the rural dwellers. Generally, basic infrastructure in most rural areas in Ghana are in deficit. This situation is not quite different in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality.

With 101 communities and 64.2% of the people living in rural areas (GSS, 2012), it is mostly a rural setting. The Municipality has limited access roads and transportation. It has very poor road network most of which is unusable during the rainy season. The Municipality has high illiteracy level standing at 55 percent of the total population in the Municipality (GSS, 2005). Only 27.9% of the people in the Municipality have access to electricity. Pipe borne water is available to only 7.9% of the people with 35% and 35.2% relying on well and borehole as their sources of water respectively (GSS, 2005). Even so, these amenities exist mainly in the urban settlements in the Municipality, much to the neglect of the many rural settlements.

It is evident from the situation in the Municipality that the ‘Need factor’ which is used in the distribution and allocation of the DACF to address the imbalance in development and infrastructure among the districts in Ghana (Azeem *et al.*, 2003; Botchie, 2000) is not applied in the distribution of infrastructure. Meanwhile, the law requires that the needs of the vulnerable groups in the society and rural areas such as education, health, electrification, water supply and so on should be prioritised and satisfied (Azeem *et al.*, 2003). This also undoubtedly contravenes the constitutional clause (The Directive Principle of State Policy 36 (2) (d) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana) which calls for

—... even and balanced development of all regions and every part of each region, and, in particular, improving the conditions of life in the rural areas, and generally, redressing any imbalance in development between the rural and the urban areasl.

This situation raises the question as to what factors are considered first in designing projects and then those that account for the siting of projects. The indication here is that population density has been the yardstick for siting projects— a point that has been contested strongly by Brown (1986). Brown further states that such situations are always a function of advocacy and the influence wielded by urban dwellers, or it is to do with the visibility associated with undertaking such projects in urban conglomerations.

At the local level, the policy of decentralisation as epitomized in the district assembly concept has the potential to ensure participation of the people in the design and implementation of development or infrastructure projects (Offei-Aboagye and OseiWusu, 2008). In a study conducted by Azeem *et al.*, (2003), they however observed that community members were not often consulted in the selection of DACF projects, which in most cases led to the implementation of projects that were disparate from their felt needs. This situation replicates itself in the district under study – the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality. Decisions relating to the provision of infrastructure are taken in most cases centrally at the Assembly, sidelining completely the people at the grassroot for whom and about whom such decisions are made. The aggregate effect is that the needs of the people, especially those in the underserved areas are not met, resulting in the failure of many rural development programmes rolled out by the state.

From the fore-going, it is evident that in spite of the numerous programmes embarked upon by the state (the latest being the district assembly concept) to correct the ruralurban disparity in infrastructure, the contribution of the rural areas to national development and

contrary to the constitutional provision of equitable rural-urban development, the problem still persists in the Municipality. Though numerous studies have been conducted in areas of decentralisation, district assemblies and rural development, most of them failed to capture rural-urban distribution of infrastructure projects and its attendant issues such as the factors considered in the distribution process, the level of participation of the people and above all the effects of development projects on the living conditions of the people, especially rural dwellers. Again, those studies were carried out in contexts different from the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality.

The study therefore assesses how District Assemblies distribute infrastructure projects among rural and urban settlements and how such projects affect the living conditions of the people, most especially the rural dwellers, using the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality as a case study.

Based on the problem statement, the study sought to find answers to the following key questions:

1. Is the Assembly distributing infrastructure projects equitably among the rural and urban settlements in the Municipality?
2. What factors influence the distribution of infrastructure projects?
3. To what extent are the populace allowed to participate in the design and implementation of infrastructure projects?
4. What has been the impact of the infrastructure projects embarked upon by the Assembly on the living conditions of the people?

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The study generally sought to find out how infrastructure projects are distributed and or provided across the Municipality and the effect such infrastructure have had on the living conditions of the people, especially the rural dwellers. The specific objectives were to:

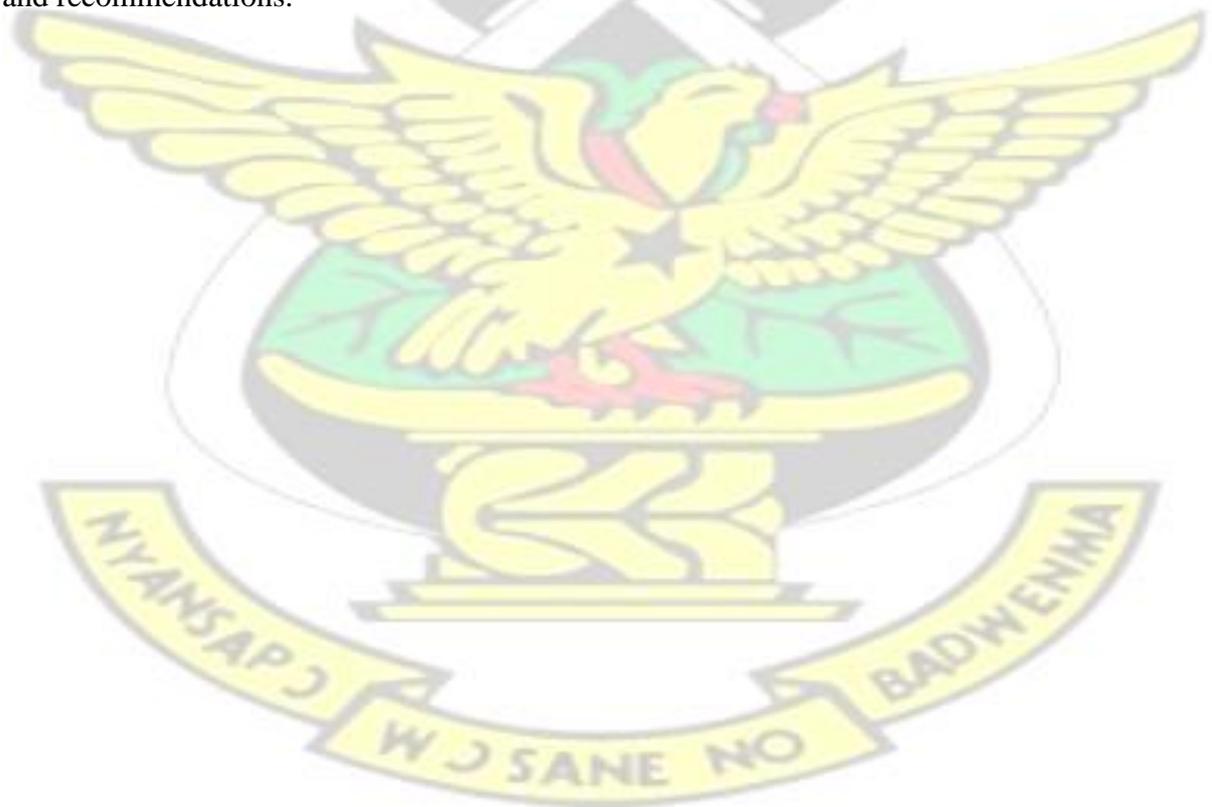
1. Examine the rural-urban distribution of infrastructure projects in the Municipality;
2. Identify the factors that influence the pattern of distribution of infrastructure projects in the Municipality;
3. Assess the extent to which the people participate in the provision of infrastructure; and
4. To explore the views of respondents about the effects of infrastructure projects on the living conditions of the people in the Municipality

### **1.4 Justification and Significance of the Study**

The outcome of the study would help the Sefwi Wiawso Municipal Assembly get a clearer picture of, and appreciate the underdeveloped nature of the rural areas in the Municipality better so as to take steps to remedy the situation. The findings would also assist the Municipal Assembly explore ways of further involving the people at the grassroots in decision-making because it is the people who know and understand their developmental issues better. Central government, donors, NGOs and other development partners may use the outcome of the study as it may give them an insight into how the Municipality is generally writhing in underdevelopment and ways through which the people could be taken out of that quagmire. This work presents information that can assist policy makers and planners to formulate and evaluate strategies that seek to address the infrastructure imbalance between rural and urban settlements in the country, especially those in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality.

## 1.5 Organisation of the Study

The research is organised into six chapters. Chapter one deals with the introduction and background of the study. Chapter two covers the review of relevant literature and the conceptual framework of the research. The methodology adopted and background to the study area is in chapter three. Chapter four covers infrastructure distribution in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality. Both secondary and primary data were analysed for a clearer view of the distribution pattern. The secondary data present the documented infrastructure that has distributed by the Assembly, whereas the primary data deals with the views of the respondents on how infrastructure has been distribute in the Municipality for comparison. The fifth chapter presents residents' perspectives on the provision of infrastructure in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality. Chapter six is mainly on summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at placing the study in a scholarly context by reviewing the main contributions made by researchers on the concepts of decentralisation and rural development, and the main linkages between them which culminate into the provision of infrastructure and the consequent improvement in the living conditions of the people. It unveils some of the global views that people have shared particularly on the concept of decentralisation and rural development.

The literature review has seven parts. The first part presents the concept of rural development and its sub-themes. The second part looks at approaches to rural development in Ghana. Part three looks at ‘infrastructure’ whereas the fourth part is on ‘living condition’ as a concept. Decentralisation and how it is related to rural development forms the fifth part and the sixth section is on the concept of participation in the provision of infrastructure. Lastly, this chapter presents the conceptual framework underpinning the study.

#### 2.2 Definition of concepts

##### 2.2.1 Meaning of the term „rural“

The need for a definition for rurality in general is an old issue faced by geographers for many years. There has not been a universally accepted definition for ‘rural’ due to the vagueness of the concept, the enormous variations in the criteria used by different nations and the fact that rurality is perceptual. In wider debates on rurality three major discussion points dominate: (1) population density and size of settlements, (2) land use, and its dominance by agriculture and forestry, and (3) "traditional" social structures and issues of community identity and heritage. (OECD, 1994; Waldorf, 2007).

Laila (2008), Brown and Cromartie (2004) have proposed that the concept —rural should not be defined to cover just the territories or the sizes of settlements, but also the typical characteristics of the residents of these territories. The definition should therefore cover the multidimensional nature of the concept including the physical environment, the level of construction, accessibility, resources, the nature, scope and costs of economic activities, autonomy and governance, innovations, the quality of life, contacts among individuals, values and opportunities (Hugo *et al.*, 2003; Brown and Cromartie, 2004; Tilt *et al.*, 2007).

Further, the definition could be stretched to cover particularly economic development, including the level of services and the existence of links to the regional or central town of the relevant region. Other indicators include back-and-forth migration, the frequency and availability of public transportation services, the administrative status and historical name of the local government territory, the identity and indicators of the sense of place, the sense of community and the sense of isolation and naturalness, the level of quiet or the distance from a source of noise, the darkness of the sky at night, and the beauty of the surrounding landscape (Plowden, 1995; Coombes and Raybould, 2001; Hill, 2003; Champion and Hugo, 2004; Bowler, 2005). Thus a rural area is defined by the following: population distribution, size of the settlement, infrastructure and economic activities.

In many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, a population density of 5000 is used, thus a settlement with less than five thousand people is rural (Carl and Gribble, 2011). Many commentators define rural areas as those with less than 10-20 per cent of their land areas covered by the built environment (OECD, 1994).

Brown (1986) strongly objects to the use of population density and the extent of the settlement as a yardstick for tagging a place as rural. He opined that if these criteria are adhered to, it will not make economic sense to provide amenities to such places. The level

of infrastructure development has been used lately to classify a place as rural. To the proponents of this view point, a settlement is rural only when it lacks social amenities like good roads, schools, hospitals, good drinking water (GSS, 2005) and so on.

Umebau (2008) identified some general characteristics of rural areas: low income, low savings, low investment, low capital formation, poor infrastructure facilities, gross illiteracy, high social interaction, local politics, disguise or under-employment, informal groups, high rural-urban migration, low technological base, abundant untapped resources resulting from the lack of skilled manpower, the sense of communality and close-knit networks.

In Ghana, a threshold of less than 5000 people is the prime consideration for a settlement to be described as rural (GSS, 2012). In this study however, the term ‘rural’ is used to mean an area with less than 5000 people and a poorly developed infrastructure such as roads, schools, water facilities and electricity.

### **2.2.2 The concept of Rural Development**

No matter the level of a nation’s socio-economic, political and technological advancement, the rural sector still plays an important role in its total economy, hence the need to give it the desired attention. In supporting this view Williams (1978) opined that without sound rural development there can be no balanced national economic development. This implies that economic development of a nation requires the growth and modernisation of both the rural and urban areas (Umebau, 2008).

Owing to this realisation, rural development has gained currency and has consequently been central to the development effort across the world (Ashley & Maxwell, 2001). In that regard, rural development has emerged as a distinctive field of policy, practice and

research, resulting from a general disenchantment with previous approaches to development planning at national and sectoral levels.

In spite of the importance attached to it, the analysis of rural development is hampered by the continuing lack of a comprehensive definition. Different streams of definitions and descriptions have been given to the subject but none seems to have had a universal or general acceptance (Van Der Ploeg *et al.*, 2001).

Whereas some of the definitions see rural development as a process and approach, others see it as a strategy and as a phenomenon. Apart from these, the content and the ingredients for the various definitions also vary significantly simply because rural development is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept. They all however conclude by stating explicitly or implicitly that rural development efforts lead to the improvement of the living condition of the people in rural areas.

The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA, 2006) defines rural development as a process of improving the overall rural community conditions, including economic and other quality of life considerations such as the environment, health, infrastructure and housing. Umehau, (2008) see rural development as a process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increases in rural resource productivity with the overall objective of enhancing rural income and increasing employment opportunities in rural communities. Singh (1999) agrees with these authors but stresses that rural development efforts should especially seek to improve the living conditions of the rural poor. This, he said, implies the engagement of individuals, communities and nations in pursuit of their cherished goals that will help make a gamut of changes by which a social system moves away from a state of life perceived as unsatisfactory towards a materially and spiritually better condition of life. To Umehau (2008) rural development is an

integrated approach to the provision of physical, social and institutional infrastructure with an ultimate goal of bringing about qualitative changes which culminate in improved standard of living of rural population.

According to the World Bank (1975), rural development is —a strategy aimed at the improvement of economic and social living conditions, focusing on a specific group of poor people in a rural area. It consists of the poorest group among the people living in rural areas to benefit from development. Chambers (1983) cited in ILARD (2009) adds that rural development enables a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. As a strategy, it is designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people – the rural poor (Singh, 1999, and Kazuko and Nim, 2010).

To sum up the content of the various definitions of rural development, a check list of dimensions is provided to include: the development of agriculture and allied activities (Kazuko and Nim, 2010), village and cottage industries, craft, socio-economic infrastructure (such as roads, electricity, primary education, primary health care, good drinking water and sanitation) (Singh 1999; Water Aid, 2009), community services and facilities, proper utilisation and mobilisation of resources, social development through private sector participation and above all human resource in rural areas (Singh, 1999 and Okorley et al., 2009).

This study however uses rural development to mean any strategy, process or programme that has the ultimate objective of providing infrastructure such as roads, schools, electricity and potable drinking water to underserved rural communities.

### **2.2.3 Objectives of Rural Development**

The main objectives of rural development in all societies, irrespective of their economic, political and socio-cultural system is to bring about the modernisation of rural areas through a transition from traditional isolation to integration with the nation, and also ensuring that they have an equal share in development through access to resources, inputs and services, and that they can participate in the design and implementation of development programmes (EU, 2011). It constitutes a process of planned change for which one approach or the other is adopted for improvement and or transformation of conditions of life and opportunity of the rural populace (RDT, 1997).

Specifically, it seeks to a) increase the availability and improve the distribution of lifesustaining goods and services such as food, shelter, clothing, health, electricity, security and other basic needs; b) to raise the per capita purchasing power and improve its distribution by providing better education, productive and remunerative jobs c) reduction of ignorance through mass literacy and education and d) expand the range of economic and social choices to individuals by freeing them from servitude and dependence (Singh, 1999; Ross, 2002; Janvry and Sadoulet, 2007; Umebau, 2008). Obot (1987) suggests that rural development achievement could be measured in the areas of roads, water supply, housing, electricity, building of model communities, access to quality education, improved health care delivery and many others, all of which are ultimately to bridge the development gap between the rural and urban areas in a given geographical area, or it is to better the living standards of the rural folks.

### **2.2.4 Approaches to Rural Development in Ghana**

Ghana has had a chequered history of rural development. Governments of Ghana over the years have made several attempts to raise the living standard of the people who reside in rural areas (Kudiabor, 1974) with varied degrees of successes and failures. These attempts

were made after the realisation that an improvement in the working and living conditions of the rural population should be the first step towards the achievement of a balanced urban-rural development (Brown, 1986).

The Department of Social Welfare and Community Development established in 1943 and later in 1946 the Department of Social Welfare and Housing, represented the maiden attempt at rural development. The main strategy for rural development at that time was the community development approach leading to the growth of civic responsibility. The department sought to develop the communities by stimulating the local populace to undertake self-help projects to improve their living standard (Brown, 1986; Boakye, 2010). This approach failed to yield the desired results due to lack of finance and technical knowledge, misapplication of facilities and its inability to develop the livelihood skills of the people (Brown, 1986; Boakye, 2010).

The Social Amenity Approach was also adopted as a strategy for rural development in the 1960s under the C.P.P Government. It was pursued under various national comprehensive planning and community development programmes. It emphasised the provision of social amenities for rural areas with the ultimate aim of bridging the gap in the living conditions between urban and rural dwellers and in that process stem the tide of the unidirectional rural-urban migration (Brown, 1986). This approach succeeded in developing various parts of the country, mainly the forest zones, and also helped bridge the gap in resource allocation in the country. It failed however to fully achieve the intended goals due to the fact that it neglected livelihood sources of the people, inequitably distributed resources between rural and urban settlements, lacked competent administrative staff and the fact that it was a top-down approach that stifled local initiatives. It was expensive to run due to the rural areas' demand for a wide range of substantial social services, whereas the

financial, manpower and organisational resources for effective delivery of social services are often extremely limited (Brown, 1986; Boakye, 2010).

The Increased Agricultural Production Approach to rural development had a self-help undertone. It was adopted in 1970 under the Progress Party Government. It sought to basically improve agricultural productivity, born from the realisation that the predominant economic activity in the rural areas was agriculture. This in effect would financially empower the rural folks to be able to provide for themselves the needed amenities. This approach chalked remarkable success. Since agriculture is the mainstay of the economy in rural areas, any attempt at providing inputs to farmers (as it did) goes a long way to enhance agricultural productivity and by extension empower the rural dwellers financially. It also was able to halt the menace of rural-urban migration. However, land tenure issues and improper monitoring of the system dislocated the approach from its core business of improving agriculture. Also, the rising cost of living, high prices of foodstuffs and under-utilisation of the productive capacity of several agroindustries in the country are all indicative of the fact that the Increased Agricultural Production Approach could not make a significant impact on the Ghanaian consumer (Brown, 1986; Boakye, 2010).

The Accelerated Project Implementation Approach to rural development in Ghana, which centred around Regional Planning Committees, was to ensure that the machinery for the effective and prompt implementation of the various projects and programmes catalogued in the annual budget were available. It was adopted in 1986 under the P.N.D.C. government. The committees were to identify their own potentials, initiate moves towards development, report on progress of government projects and forge links between public and private entities. Project execution was facilitated and the element of participation gave the approach an appreciable level of success. The demise of the

Regional Planning Committees due to lack of legal backing, and also the inability of the committees to identify the priority needs of the communities however caused the collapse of this approach. Again, (an approach such as) the Accelerated Project Implementation approach failed as result of the Regional Planning Committees' inability to serve as a link between regions and the central planning agencies in Accra in matters of economic development. The lack of sufficient authority and a prudent budget to deal with local development issues, which transcended sectoral decision accounted for the failure of the strategy. Also, the mandate given them was weak and blurred resulting in their inability to carry through their job (Brown, 1986).

The Regional Development and Growth Pole Strategy used the concept of region as its basic unit and as such all the planning were centered around it. The approach sought to coordinate goals of the nation and the aspiration of the local communities, strengthen regional development planning, reduce all kinds of developmental disparities between regions and also create a number of development centres as centres for agricultural activities and industrial development (Government of Ghana, 1970; Kudiabor, 1974). It rested on the argument that if development resources were concentrated in carefully selected urban centres, it will eventually trickle down to less-developed areas, including the rural hinterlands. The approach did not live up to the billing because the 'trickling down' did not take place. Using the whole nation as a growth pole, a region as a growth centre, a district as a growth point and village as a development service meant that local understanding and participation was lacking in the design and implementation of projects (Brown, 1986). Failure to take off, failure to control out-migration, limited investment, underdeveloped infrastructure, lack of security of tenure of properties at these centres, limited funding options and on the whole economic crisis were some other lapses that floored the programme. Most growth points and centres were just chosen ahead of others

without either a natural resource base to exploit or an initial locational advantage, thus the high prevalence of decline in both service provision and economic growth (Manyahaire, 2011).

Looking at the foci of these approaches, they were eventually to lead to infrastructure development across the nation. The communal self-help projects under the Department of Social Welfare and Housing; the emphasis on the provision of social amenities for rural areas in order to bridge the rural-urban developmental gap under the Social Amenity Approach; empowering the rural folks to provide for themselves the needed amenities under the Increased Agricultural Productivity Approach; identification of communities' potential for development and accelerated project implementation under the Accelerated Project Implementation Approach and the reduction in the developmental disparities that the Regional Development and Growth Pole Strategy sought to achieve give credence to the fact that infrastructure development was key to all the approaches.

### **2.3 Theories of Development – Core versus Periphery**

There has been much debate and controversy about development regarding how it should be defined and pursued. To better comprehend the myriad of issues relating to development and developing societies, a large body of theory has emerged since the 1950s (Potter *et al.*, 2004). These theories may be regarded as sets of ostensibly logical propositions, which aim to explain how development has occurred in the past, and/or how it should occur in the future. (Hettne, 1995). These theories are distinctive by virtue of the fact that they involve the intention to change society in some defined manner (Hettne, 1995).

The list of theories is endless but there are variations in the framework applied to different countries and regions. The influence of such theories has changed over time following the emergence of new ones. For example, the modernisation paradigm that once dominated

policy, practice and theory is being replaced by a new rural development paradigm (van der Ploeg, 2000). The theories include the modernization theory, dualism, core-periphery, dependency theory, world system theory and so on. For the purposes of this study, the core-periphery theory will be examined closely.

The 'core' versus 'periphery' theory posits that each nation has a centre or core (c) and periphery (p). The core is marked by the greatest concentration of traits or characteristics.

The regions at the centre (C) not only possess higher incomes but also have easier access to the many amenities of life such as housing, health, schools and also better quality of these amenities than the periphery (P) nations or individuals (Ambrosio-Albalá and Bastiaensen, 2010). The centre nation grows more than the periphery with the centre of the periphery nation acting as a transmission belt for value forwarded to the centre nation (Brown, 1986). Within regions the influence of particular cultural or economic characteristics are concentrated within the core and diminish as one moves away from the core. Countries of the core or centre are the sites of global economic (and especially industrial) power and wealth, and the associated political and military strength and influence. Core countries feature higher-skill, capital-intensive production. Politically, they collectively establish and enforce the rules of the global order and, through these advantages, appropriate surplus from non-core countries (Wallerstein, 1974).

The periphery on the other hand is marked by the least concentration of traits or characteristics. It is also marked by outer influence of cultural or economic traits (Hettne, 1995). The periphery is always fully controlled by the core in matters of administration and decision making. According to Wallerstein, (1974), the periphery is the backwater of the world system. It provides low-skill production and raw materials for industries elsewhere. It has poor living conditions and bleak development prospects.

The aggregate effect of this arrangement is that whether because rich nations are intentionally exploitative or unintentionally neglectful, the co-existence of rich and poor nations in an international system dominated by such unequal power relationships between the center (the developed countries) and the periphery (the LDCs) renders attempts by poor nations to be self-reliant and independent difficult and sometimes even impossible (Ambrosio-Albalá Bastiaensen, 2010). Consequently, De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) have observed that there is no example of any country having been in the periphery and moving all the way into the core.

Applied to this study, the core can be likened to the urban communities while the periphery could be seen as the rural communities in the Municipality. It can be stated hypothetically that the urban communities which are located mostly at the centre or core of the Municipality enjoy relative plenty (infrastructure), whereas the rural areas in the Municipality are at the periphery, deprived relatively of certain basic infrastructure and have little or no prospect of catching up with the urban communities in terms of infrastructure development.

#### **2.4 „Infrastructure“ Explained**

The meaning of infrastructure has been shifting from one focusing on physical fixed assets such as roads, airports, sea ports, telecommunications systems, water distribution systems and sanitation (what might be called ‘public utilities’). It now often embodies notions of softer types of infrastructure such as information systems and knowledge bases (Masika and Baden, 1997). Infrastructure refers to —physical facilities [roads, airports, utility supply systems, communication systems, water and waste disposal systems etc], and the services [water, sanitation, transport, energy, communication and information, education, health care and shelter flowing through those facilities to enable, sustain or enhance societal living conditions](Masika and Baden, 1997 ;Wikipedia). Yoshino and

Nagakigashi (2000) also defined infrastructure as the capital stock that provides public goods and services. Infrastructure, according to Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005) refer to those basic services without which primary, secondary and tertiary productive activities cannot function. Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005) further explain that infrastructure is elements in the package of basic needs, which a community would like to procure for better living. These facilities form a set of interconnected structural and basic elements that provide framework supporting an entire structure for better living and development (Olayiwola and Adeleye, 2005).

In this study however, infrastructure is used to mean all physical facilities provided with the ultimate intent of shoring up the living conditions of the people for whom and to whom they are provided. In this study, attention will be focused on infrastructure such as road network, school buildings, water facilities and electricity, and to a lesser extent markets and agricultural infrastructure.

#### **2.4.1 Types of Infrastructure**

The UN Habitat (2011) and Casey (2005) identified two generally accepted categories of infrastructure namely, economic and social infrastructure. Despite their categorisations, they are most commonly discussed in terms of their characteristics - longevity, scale, inflexibility and higher investment costs.

##### **2.4.1.1 Economic infrastructure**

Economic infrastructure (e.g. electricity, roads, and ports) serve as inputs to the production of household consumables such as water and sanitation. Economic infrastructure can further be subdivided into three categories: utilities (power, piped gas, telecommunications, water and sanitation, sewerage and solid waste disposal), public works (roads and water catchments in dams, irrigation and drainage) and other transport

sub-sectors (railways, waterways and seaports, airports and urban transport systems) (Casey, 2005; UN Habitat, 2011).

#### **2.4.2 Social infrastructure**

Social infrastructure, on the other hand, encompasses services such as health, education and recreation. It has both a direct and indirect impact on the quality of life. Directly, it enhances the level of productivity in economic activities, indirectly, it streamlines activities and outcomes such as recreation, education, health and safety. The indirect benefit of improved primary health care, for example, is improved productivity, which in turn leads to higher economic growth and real incomes. Social infrastructure also facilitates investment in human capital that ensures better utilisation by some of the economy's physical capital stock and thereby raises the productivity of the workforce (UN Habitat, 2011). Casey (2005) categorises them into health; individual, family and community support; education; arts and culture; information; sport and recreation; housing; community development; employment and training; legal and public safety; emergency services, and public and community transport.

#### **2.5 Policy Guidelines for the Distribution of Infrastructure in Ghana**

Ghana has no generic, broad or strategic framework and policy for infrastructure distribution. Infrastructure distribution in Ghana is done through sectoral policies: transportation policy, water policy, national electrification scheme, environmental policy and so on. These are complemented with national legislations like the national constitution, National Development Framework, Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) I and II, and the like. Even so, most of these are driven by personal and political interest thereby resulting in —poor prioritisation of infrastructure projects throughout the country (EWB, 2010).

The best guideline, though not too explicit, for the distribution of infrastructure is the Directive Principle of State Policy, 36(1) (d) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana which calls for —... even and balanced development of all regions and every part of each region, and, in particular, improving the conditions of life in the rural areas, and generally, redressing any imbalance in development between the rural and the urban areasl.

Aside, there is a formula for distributing the District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF) which can also be adopted in the distribution of infrastructure by the various assemblies to ensure equity. The law streamlining the use of the Fund by the various districts requires that the needs of the vulnerable groups in the society and rural areas such as education, health, electrification, water supply and so on should be prioritised and satisfied (Azeem *et al.*, 2003). Consequently, the formula was designed to include the following components: the ‘\_Need Factor’ (the weightiest or the factor that takes the highest rate) - is to address imbalances in development; ‘\_Responsiveness Factor’ - to motivate the district to generate more income locally; ‘\_Equalisation Factor’ - to ensure each district has access to specified sum from the Fund and ‘\_Service Pressure’ -to assist in improving existing services which as a result of population pressure are deteriorating faster than envisaged. Though the rates are changed regularly, adopting this guideline will ensure that the rural areas which are underserved and are always in need of infrastructure would be considered before the urban centres by the various district assemblies in the distribution of infrastructure (Azeem *et al.*, 2003).

The government of Ghana has admitted that there are problems with infrastructure provision in all parts of Ghana and has called for new ideas to aid the provision of infrastructure. These problems range from funding, distribution, access, quality of existing infrastructure, management and maintenance of infrastructure resulting from the non-

involvement of the grassroots people so as to make the projects their own (Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, 2009).

## **2.6 The role of Infrastructure in Rural Development**

Infrastructure in all its forms provide the foundations for virtually all modern-day economic activities, constitute a major economic sector in their own right, and contribute importantly to raising living standards and the quality of life (Yoshino and Nakahigashi, 2000; AU, 2011). For these reasons, places which are deficient in infrastructure are likely to lag behind in all respects and also suffer from underdevelopment.

Most rural development programmes and policies are therefore drawn to include, among other things, the provision of infrastructure, since deficit in infrastructure is one of the visible signs of underdevelopment. Umebau (2008) outlines the following as the objectives the infrastructure bit of any rural development programme is meant to achieve: restraining the growth of unplanned squatter settlement; improving employment opportunities and training of the rural inhabitants; enlightenment thereby restraining migration into the already crowded urban centres; increasing agricultural productivity by means of adequate irrigation and easy mechanisations; improvement in the rural environment and significantly increasing living conditions of the rural people. Reeder (2009) also believes that improvement in infrastructure — particularly transportation infrastructure like roads and bridges which are probably the most fundamental form of infrastructure — are critical to rural areas with a high stake in the agricultural economy.

Reeder (2009) however thinks that an ample supply of electricity and other forms of energy is a prerequisite for rural development, adding that rural communities can as well derive sizeable economic benefits from water and sewer projects, including increases in jobs, private investments, and property tax bases. In Ghana for example, Wolter (2008) observed after studying the donor support to the public sector that the majority of the projects focus

on improving the economic infrastructure especially roads in rural areas. Not only are a large number of donors active in this area but infrastructure (mainly transport) also receives over 40 per cent of total donor funds (Wolter 2008). Olayiwola and Adeleye (2005) sum up the discussion by saying that rural infrastructure development is a positive action in so far as it aims to improve the welfare of the people.

## **2.7 District Assemblies and Decentralisation in Ghana**

The introduction of decentralisation into the political administration of Ghana has brought about the creation of one hundred and seventy (170) metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies to whom authority, resources and responsibilities from the centre have been transferred (MLGRD, 2010). ARC (2001) maintain that the needs of the modern state to provide some services to at least part of its citizenry, to exercise political control over its territory and to bolster its legitimacy require that a degree of authority is delegated and some decisions are made outside of the political and administrative centre. The district assembly model of local government was based on the twin components of decentralisation and grassroot participation (Koranteng and Munawwar, 2011). According to the decentralisation legislation introduced by Act 462 of 1993 and article 241 (3) of the 1992 Constitution, the assemblies were created to be the highest political entities in the districts. They are vital links and pivot in the new decentralised development planning system in Ghana (Botchie, 2000). They have the ultimate responsibility for the overall development of the districts through the deliberative, legislative and executive functions they are expected to perform (Zeeza, 2007). District assemblies are therefore the institutions set up to execute the agenda and strategies of the decentralisation concept.

The concept of decentralisation was introduced into the political administration of Ghana as a cure for cumbersome decision-making at the centre; a means of achieving greater popular participation and of empowering local communities; an aid to planning, improved

policy implementation and more effective delivery of services; a way of generating additional resources and as vehicle to bring about development (ARC, 2001). Others also attribute the popularity of decentralisation to broader causes, in particular the failure of socialism and the spectacular demise of most of the highly centralised regimes with which it was associated (Petrasek, 2002). Again it was introduced because central state agencies lack the ‘time and place knowledge’ to implement policies and programmes that reflect people’s ‘real’ needs and preferences (Johnson, 2003).

Conversely, decentralisation is seen by many as an imposition on countries by foreign governments and donor agencies. Critics also point out that decentralisation brings about local government institutions which may subvert or destroy the authority of older, traditional systems and also encourage wealthier regions to operate as self-sufficient territories to the detriment of poorer regions. National governments can also use decentralisation to slip out of their responsibilities (Petrasek, 2002). There exist overlapping responsibilities and duplications of effort between central and local governments. ‘Elite capture’ (Johnson 2003), ineffective and inefficient delivery of physical and planning responsibilities due to weak administrative and technical ability at the assemblies are bound to occur in certain parts of the country (ARC 2001).

### **2.7.1 The Role of District Assemblies in Rural Development in Ghana**

The need to restructure development strategies in order to improve rural infrastructure, income, employment opportunities, general welfare and livelihoods in the rural districts prompted Ghana to focus development attention and action on the districts (Botchie 2000). The district assemblies are the local governance structures in Ghana responsible for planning and implementing, managing rural development and are agents of development projects (Engel, 1999; Koranteng and Munawwar, 2011). Section 10(4) of Act 462 urges the district assemblies to take such steps and measures as are necessary to the execution of

approved development plans of the district. District Assemblies have now become a central linchpin of the new paradigm of rural development. Its

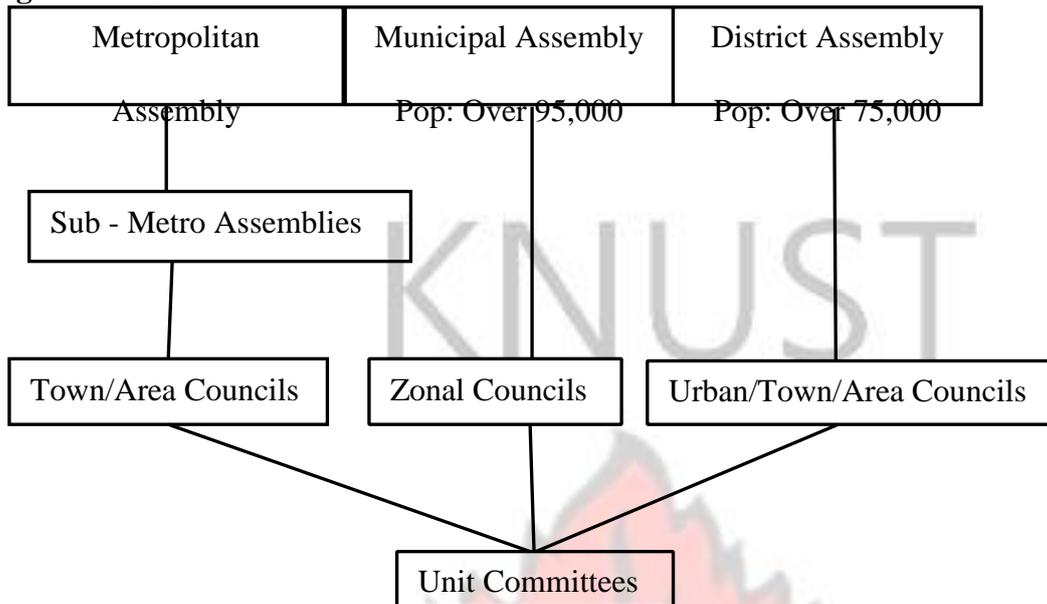
institutionalisation is seen as a means of improving service delivery to the rural dwellers, and the best way of encouraging popular participation so that rural people will participate in their own development (Hyden, 1983 cited in Ezeanyika, 2010).

District Assemblies are expected to ensure that people living everywhere in the district, especially those in the rural areas have access to basic services and infrastructure such as feeder roads, electricity, primary education, primary health care, good drinking water and sanitation, (Okorley *et al.*, 2009). They and their other substructures are therefore tasked with the responsibility of delivering basic services and dealing with waste management, the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries, craft, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and facilities, proper utilisation and mobilisation of human and physical resources, social development through private sector participation and above all human resource in rural areas and the other areas within their jurisdiction (Singh, 1999; Water Aid, 2009; Kazuko and Nim, 2010).

### 2.7.2 Structure of District Assemblies in Ghana

Each of the 170 assemblies in Ghana has a number of sub-divisions. These are the Urban/Town/Zonal/Area Councils and the Unit Committees as captured in figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1: Structure of District Assemblies in Ghana**



Source: Koranteng and Munawwar (2011).

All assemblies in Ghana consist of two-thirds elected members and one third appointed by the President in consultation with key stakeholders in the districts. The President also appoints the Metropolitan/Municipal/District Chief Executives (MMDCEs), who are the heads of the assemblies, with approval from the members of the assemblies. The elected and appointed officials of the assemblies are assisted by a team of civil servants, such as the Coordinating Directors, Planning Officers, Budget Officers, and Finance Officers, who provide managerial and technical support for the MMDAs (Owusu and Afutu-Kotey, 2010).

### **2.7.3 Functions of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in Ghana**

The overriding objective of the district assemblies is to transform the social lives of the people through the provision of social services and infrastructure. Owing to that, district assemblies have been assigned a wide range of responsibilities. They are the pivots of administrative and development decision-making and are the basic units of government

administration. In all, about 87 functions, ranging from environmental sanitation to infrastructure provision, have been delegated to the assemblies (Kuusi, 2009).

Section 10(1) of the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) and Section 2 of the National Development Planning Act, 1994 (Act 480) provide details of the functions of the district assemblies as follows:

To give political and administrative guidance, direction and to supervise all other administrative authorities in the district; To exercise deliberative, legislative and executive functions; To be responsible for overall development of the district and ensure the preparation of (a) development plans of the district, and (b) the budget of the district related to the approved plans; Effective mobilisation of the resources necessary for overall development of the district; Promotion of productive activity and social development; to co-ordinate, integrate and harmonise the execution of programmes and projects under approved development plans for the district; formulate and execute plans, programmes and strategies for the effective mobilisation of the resources necessary for the overall development of the district; Promote and support productive activity and social development in the district and remove any obstacles to initiative and development; Initiate programmes for the development of basic infrastructure and provide municipal works and services in the district and responsible for the development, improvement and management of human settlements and the environment in the district.

Ayee (2000) cited in Crawford (2004) categories these specific functions into deconcentrated, delegated and devolved public services, thus indicating the involvement of other actors, mainly central government departments and agencies, and their differential powers.

#### **2.7.4 The Role of District Assemblies in the Provision of Infrastructure in Ghana**

Acts 462 and 480 designated the assembly as the development planning authority in the district. Section 10 (sub-sections 3 and 4) of Act 462 states that the assemblies ‘... develop basic infrastructure and works and provide services’. The Assemblies are responsible for the implementation of government programmes and projects in their areas of jurisdiction. These include environmental sanitation, education, primary health care, provision of water and infrastructure (Crawford, 2004). They are responsible for the identification, design and the implementation of all infrastructure projects such as roads, schools, water, and electricity and so on. For example, the Gomoa District Assembly has invested some resources in the construction of new market infrastructure at Buduburam and Dawurampong (Yankson, 2008). The Asante-Akim South District Assembly between 2006 and 2009 provided market structures for Adomfe, Ofoase, Tanokrom and Dadieso, and boreholes for Kurofa, Akim, Praso, Gyadem and Ahyiresu (Eghan, 2008). The Asutifi District in 2009 provided borehole and community library for Dadiesoba and Hwidiem respectively.

#### **2.7.5 Challenges of District Assemblies in Ghana**

The lofty ideas for which the district assembly concept was introduced into the governance structure of Ghana are dauntingly challenged in so many ways, in spite of efforts made by successive governments to address them.

According to the MLGRD (2002), the challenges facing the assemblies in their quest to support rural development programmes include absence of maps to firmly identify boundaries that will enable DAs to plan for the development of their areas of jurisdiction; the shortage of adequately trained human resources at the local level; inability to make the sub-district structures function because of their size and lack of funds to pay core staff; the insatiable nature of rural needs vis-a-vis the meagre financial resources of the assemblies;

inability of assemblies to optimise their internal revenue mobilisation process and lack of participatory bottom-up planning.

The District Chief Executives (DCEs) who are expected to be managers at the district level are not but rather overloaded with a lot of workshops and meetings, most of which may not be productive and relevant to their managerial roles (Ayee, 1997). There is also unpredictability and lack of transparency of District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF) and lack of discretion afforded to district authorities over the allocation of funds coupled with weak financial position of DAs (Ayee, 1995).

The non-partisan nature the district assemblies are supposed to take is a mirage because in the 1994, 1998 and 2002 District Assemblies and Unit Committees Elections it was an open secret that most, if not all, political parties either sponsored or supported individual candidates to win seats in all the DAs, contrary to the constitutional provisions. Assemblies are therefore divided along party lines – a situation which sometimes stifles development (Ayee, 1995).

Collaboration between the eleven line departments or organisations of central government at the district level remains one of the unresolved issues that have stalled the implementation of Sections 37, 38 and 161 of Act 462. Associated with this problem is the apparent conflict between certain decentralised departments or organisations and the line departments or organisations, namely, Ghana Education Service created by Act 506, 1995; Ghana Health Service and Teaching Hospital created by Act 525, 1996; Ghana National Fire Service created by Act 537, 1997; Forestry Commission created by Act 571, 1997; Ghana Library Board established under Act 327; and National Disaster Management Organisation (NADMO) established under Act 517. All these services and organisations are listed among the decentralised departments of MDAs under Act 462

which means that they are to be regulated by the Municipal assemblies, even though they individually have acts establishing them as autonomous or quasi-autonomous bodies (Ayee, 1995).

## **2.8 The concept of „Participation“**

Participation in development through decentralisation is an important aspect of many democracies. Article 35 (5d) of Ghana's Constitution for instance requires the state to take appropriate measures to ensure decentralisation, and to give opportunities to people to participate in decision-making at every level in national life and government.

Participation in development evolved in response to the growing awareness that the various approaches employed for rural development, such as community development, integrated rural development or basic needs do not often lead to significant rural development. It also resulted from the realisation that much of the failure of government and donor-sponsored rural development programmes has come from trying to apply topdown, 'outsider knows best' methods (Guimaraes, 2009). Twumasi (1995) for instance argues that accepting already made solutions to rural development policies from distant people who have little knowledge of the communities affected directly by the policies will exacerbate rural development problems. As Shah (1999) puts it, when participation is not used, a project is perceived as belonging to the organisation rather than belonging to the community. Consequently, several agencies have been promoting the participation of people in development through various programmes (Guimaraes, 2009).

### **2.8.1 „Participation“ Defined**

Participation has been variously defined. Usually, these definitions are often a rendition of the organisational culture or the ideas of the individual defining it. It has been broadly conceived to embrace the idea that all —stakeholders‡ should take part in decision making

and it has been more narrowly described as the extraction of local knowledge to design programmes (Jennings, 2000). It has also been defined to mean sensitising people to make them more responsive to development programmes and to encourage local initiatives and self-help; involving people as much as possible actively in the decisionmaking process as regards their development; organising group action to give to hitherto excluded disadvantaged people control over resources, access to services and/or bargaining power; promoting the involvement of people in the planning and implementation of development efforts as well as in the sharing of their benefits; and in more general, descriptive terms, "the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions which enhance their well-being (Boon and Uphoff 1979). In all of these Shah (1999) provides the guiding principles by stating that each of the definitions is acceptable depending on whether they have been defined as a function of their operational reality and if they evolve in response to changes in the operating environment.

Participation in the development literature refers to involvement of local population in the creation, content and conduct of a programme or policy designed to change their lives. It concerns organised efforts to increase control over resources and regulative institutions in given social situations on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto deprived and excluded from such control (Ghai, 1990; Jennings, 1999; Guimaraes, 2009). Adebo (2000) gives a much broader meaning of participation. According to him, participation in its broadest sense means to sensitise people and, thus, to increase the receptivity and ability of rural people to respond to development programmes, as well as to encourage local initiatives. The World Bank (1994) defined participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them.

Participation is seen in different shades and forms by many. Whereas some see it as a process, others see it as a means to an end and an end in itself. As a process, it captures both expert and lay knowledge in the management of rural development efforts. Participation may exist as a process of consultation, as decision-making, as partnerships for implementation, as capacity building, as expressing a need, as covering bases, as ownership and as a mechanism for decentralisation (Armah, 2009).

As a means to an end, participation involves harnessing local people's resources and support as an input into a programme on the assumption that this will improve its effectiveness and efficiency. Participation can also serve as an end in itself, with the overall purpose being to strengthen the capacity of local people to participate, whether in the economic or political sphere or both, as the only sure way of overcoming their dependency or marginality (Armah, 2009).

### **2.8.2 Participation in Rural Development**

With regard to rural development, participation includes people's involvement in decision-making processes, in implementing programmes, their sharing in the benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes (Adebo, 2000). It is the participation of people in a mutual learning experience involving themselves, their local resources, external change agents and outside resources. People cannot be developed; they can only develop themselves by participating in decision and cooperative activities which affect their well-being (Oakley *et al.*, 1999).

Rural development has become more participation-oriented. This is indeed so because it assists in getting a more accurate and representative information about the needs, priorities, and capabilities of local people, to be able to apply scarce resources efficiently, to be able to adapt programmes to meet local conditions, for the mobilisation of resources to augment

or even substitute for local government resources, for cooperation in new programmes and improved utilisation and maintenance of government facilities. It is driven by a belief that citizens can be trusted to shape their own future. It is not just about meeting people's needs. It is about helping to create an environment where people can more effectively identify and address their own needs leading to self-development and self-reliance (Jennings, 2000). It requires recognition and use of local capacities and avoids the imposition of priorities from the outside. It should seek to empower the people by helping them develop their skills and abilities to enable them manage better, have a say in or negotiate with existing development delivery systems (Oakley *et al.*, 1999).

### **2.8.3 Benefits of Participation in Rural Development**

Participation in rural development activities provides the people with the opportunity to contribute their quota to national and local development initiatives in addition to the space it provides them to adapt policies to suit their local needs, aspirations and expectations (Chambers, 1983). Oakley *et al.*, (1999) identify the following as the benefits that are likely to be derived from any form of participation in rural development:

It leads to the satisfaction of the infrastructure needs of the people; It brings about more accurate and representative information about the needs, priorities and capabilities of local people; It brings more reliable feedback on the impact of government initiatives and programmes; It leads to the adaptation of programmes to meet the local conditions so that scarce resources can be employed more efficiently; It ensure the tapping of local technical information that can otherwise be costly to obtain or to learn about the fact that rural people have more technical expertise than usually recognised; It leads to the mobilisation of local resources to augment or even substitute for local government resources and people learn to utilise and maintain government facilities and resources.

#### **2.8.4 Arguments Against Participation in Rural Development**

It is widely acclaimed that participatory rural development is quite efficient and effective in addressing the needs of the rural people. It ensures that the views and priorities of the rural areas are tackled head on with all the arsenals available. A school of thought however questions this assertion and posits that participation is not necessarily an improvement on the original top-down governance approach. This opposing view contends that there is the need to look at the issues at stake from the arena of complexity since a mere reversal of governance approach seems to be insufficient to tackle multidimensional problems (Armah, 2009).

Irvin (2006) and Oakley *et al.* (1999) also share this view. They argue that negotiating with people (which is the greatest weapon of participation) delays the start-up of programmes. They also fear that people will grow apathetic and oppose projects when consulted and therefore participation of the people in any development project should not be given any prominence. There could also be over involvement of less experienced people in the various stages of projects – a situation which is counter-productive to any developmental effort. The number of people who will be required to support participation may increase leading to an increase in the cost of any development project which involves participation. The method and type of participation to choose to suit any rural development project is another argument raised against participatory rural development (Oakley *et al.*, 1999).

#### **2.9 „Living Condition“ Explained**

Living condition, which is most often used with the same meaning as standard of living, describes the immediate life circumstances of families and their members. It is a way to measure how well the needs and wants (material wellbeing) of citizens are being met by a country's economic system, which defines the quality of life of people (Encarta, 2010).

Living conditions are primarily determined by economic resources, but cultural factors, regional customs, past events and education have a strong influence on the standards the people expect. There are great individual differences in subjective evaluation of standard of living. Even when belonging to the same age group, sex and nationality or background, people may have differing ideas about what particular factors constitute an adequate standard of living (Encarta, 2010).

There are many measurable aspects of living conditions. It includes factors such as income, quality and availability of employment, class disparity, poverty rate, quality and affordability of housing, hours of work required to purchase necessities, gross domestic product, inflation rate, number of vacation days per year, affordable (or free) access to quality healthcare, quality and availability of education, life expectancy, incidence of disease, cost of goods and services, infrastructure, national economic growth, economic and political stability, political and religious freedom, environmental quality, climate and safety, and many others (Encarta, 2010).

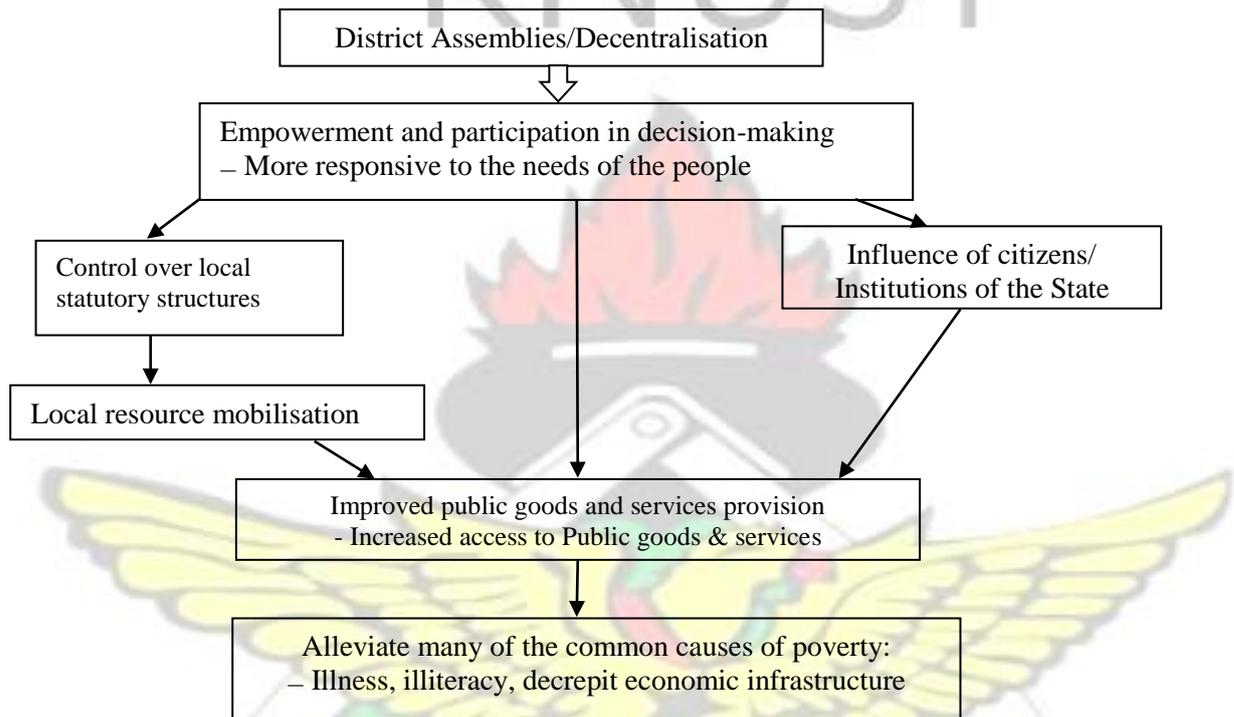
In this study, however, emphasis is laid on the infrastructure bit of the components of living conditions listed above and how its distribution has impacted the living conditions of the people in the rural areas.

### **2.10 Conceptual Framework**

Based on the literature review and objectives of the research, a comprehensive conceptual framework of analysis ought to be developed for the study. Varying models have been developed to express the relationship between decentralisation (district assemblies) participation, rural development and how each of these, or a combination of all or some of them lead to changes in the lives of people.

Figure 2.2 shows decentralisation and poverty reduction developed by Asante to examine the relationship between decentralisation and poverty alleviation(Asante, 2003).

**Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework on District Assemblies/Decentralisation and the Provision of Public goods and Services**



Source: Asante (2003)

Figure 2.2 shows the conceptual linkage between district assemblies/decentralisation and Provision of public goods and services. According to Asante (2003), decentralisation/ district assemblies are assumed to promote poverty reduction through the following positive linkages:

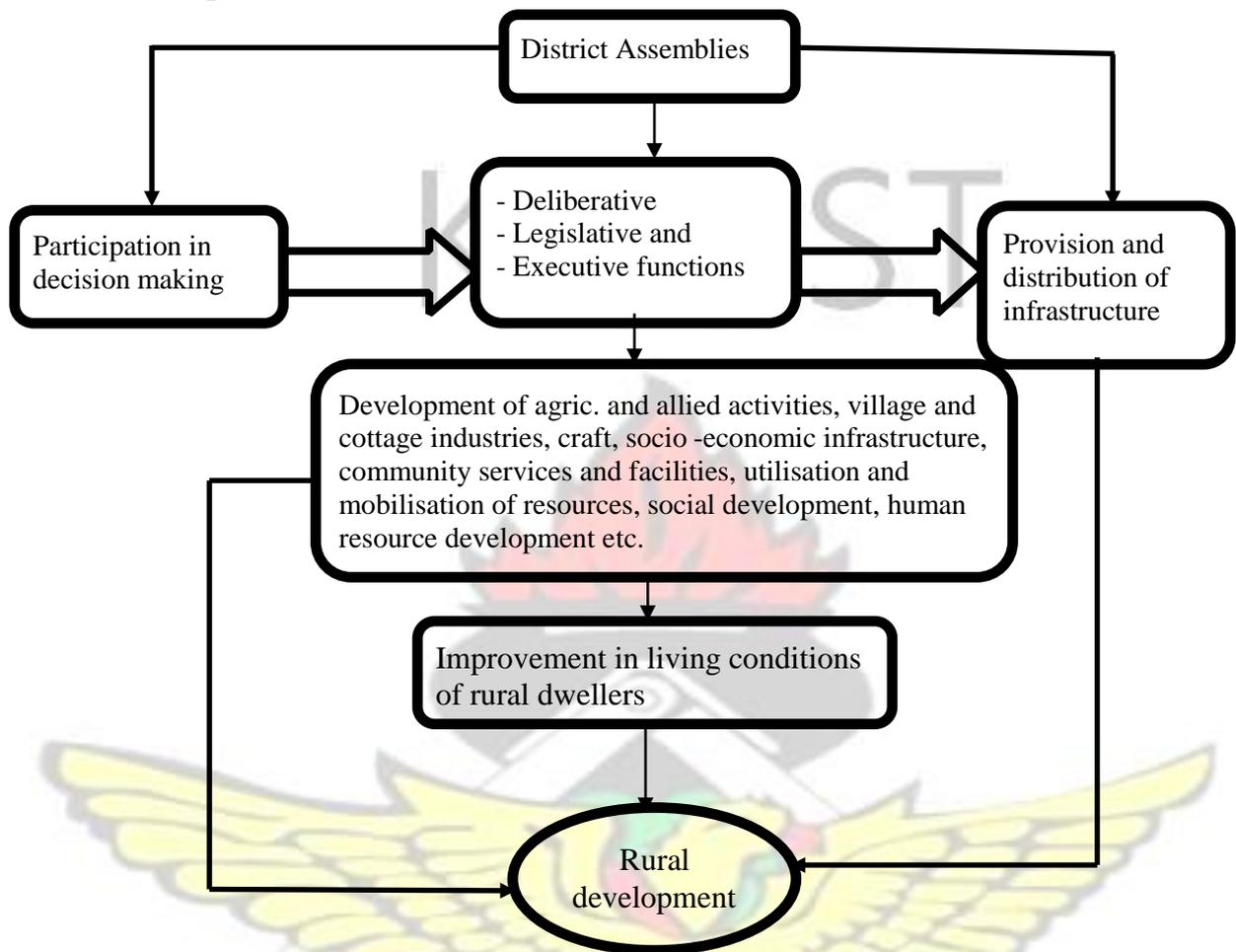
- (i) Political devolution can aim at reducing poverty through empowerment strategy. This involves creating `space` for people to effectively participate in the decision making process;

- (ii) Poverty reduction and decentralisation might also be linked through a resource mobilisation strategy. When people are given greater control over local statutory structures, they may be motivated to commit more assets to the common good; and
- (iii) Decentralised government may also be seen as a more effective means of delivering basic social services, thus reducing many of the common causes of poverty such as illness, decrepit economic infrastructure and illiteracy.

Though the model tries to establish a link between decentralisation (district assemblies) and poverty reduction, it has been criticized in certain areas. For instance, Jutting *et al.*, (2005) think that decentralisation and the district assembly concept would not be implemented solely for the direct purpose of poverty alleviation but rather for the total development of a country; the UNDP (2005) also states that a number of important studies and think-pieces have underlined that decentralisation, in and of itself, does not lead to poverty reduction. Hossain and Moore (2001), Katsiaouni (2003), UN (2004), Boex *et al.*, (2006), and Skira (2006) in their respective studies have also concluded that decentralisation has no direct effect on poverty reduction as much as it does the provision of services.

Gunatalika (2001) and Okorley (2009) however find a link between district assemblies/decentralisation and rural development with the district assemblies as the implementing agents of the tenets of decentralisation, with the key assumption that through good participation, district assemblies will be efficient and effective in meeting livelihood goals of rural people – which include enhanced income and living standards. The framework given by Asante (2003) is therefore modified to include only district assemblies and how their activities lead to the provision of infrastructure in the rural areas which eventually lead to improvement in the living conditions of the people. (Refer to Figure 2.3)..

**Figure 2.3: Conceptual Framework on Decentralisation, District Assemblies and Rural Development**



Source: Author (2012) - Adapted from Asante (2003).

Figure 2.3 establishes the link between decentralisation, district assemblies, rural development and the ultimate product of improvement in the living conditions of the rural dwellers.

The district assemblies with their deliberative, legislative and executive functions, affords the people opportunities to be part of the governance system through participation in decision making thereby improve the governance system of the areas where it is practised (Hyden, 1983; Appiah, 2000; Steiner, 2005; Osei-Akoto, 2007;.Okorley *et al.*, 2009; Koranteng and Munawwar, 2011)

The district assemblies were instituted, among other things, to oversee activities that lead to rural development. Engel (1999) writes that the Ministry of Local Government and

Rural Development (MLGRD) assumes the responsibility for rural development tasked with the responsibility for the overall development of the country. Since the district assemblies are the local agents of the MLGRD, development in the rural areas as a responsibility has been sublet to them to provide infrastructure facilities such as roads, schools, hospital/clinics, electricity and potable water. These, among others, eventually lead to improvement in the living condition of the people, and these activities eventually lead to rural development.

Based on the above conceptual framework, this research focuses on the participation, distribution/provision of infrastructure and the access provided thereof and how all these affect the living conditions of the people in rural areas.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter examines the background to the study area. It seeks to describe the geographical characteristics, the demographic characteristics (with emphasis on the population size, the growth rate and population density), the social characteristics regarding the educational status and health situation, the economic development and the current political structure within the Municipality. It also presents the method with which the research was carried out.

Figure 3.1 shows the study area in national context and Figure 3.2 also shows the study areas in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality.

# KNUST



Figure 3.1: District Map of Ghana Showing the Study District

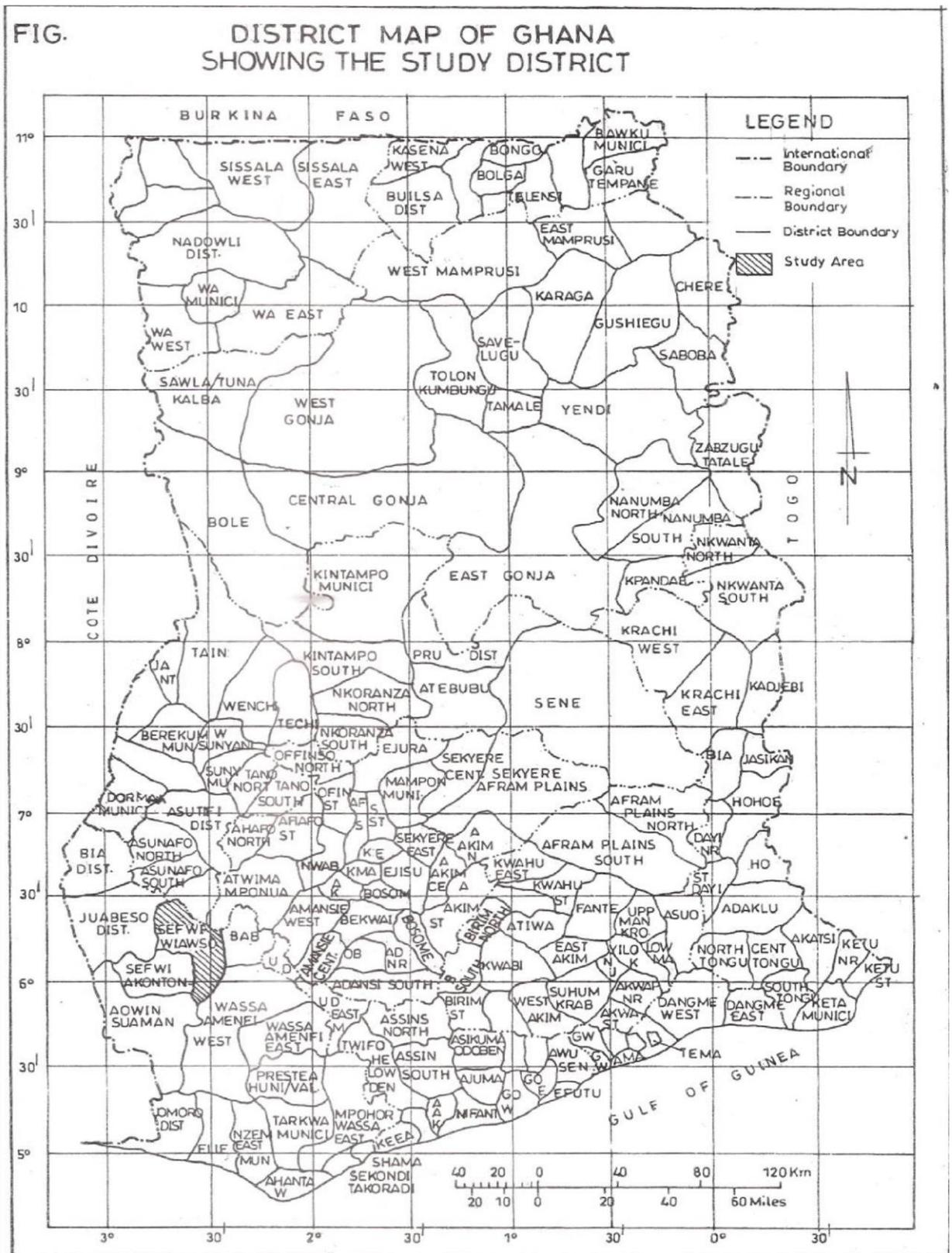
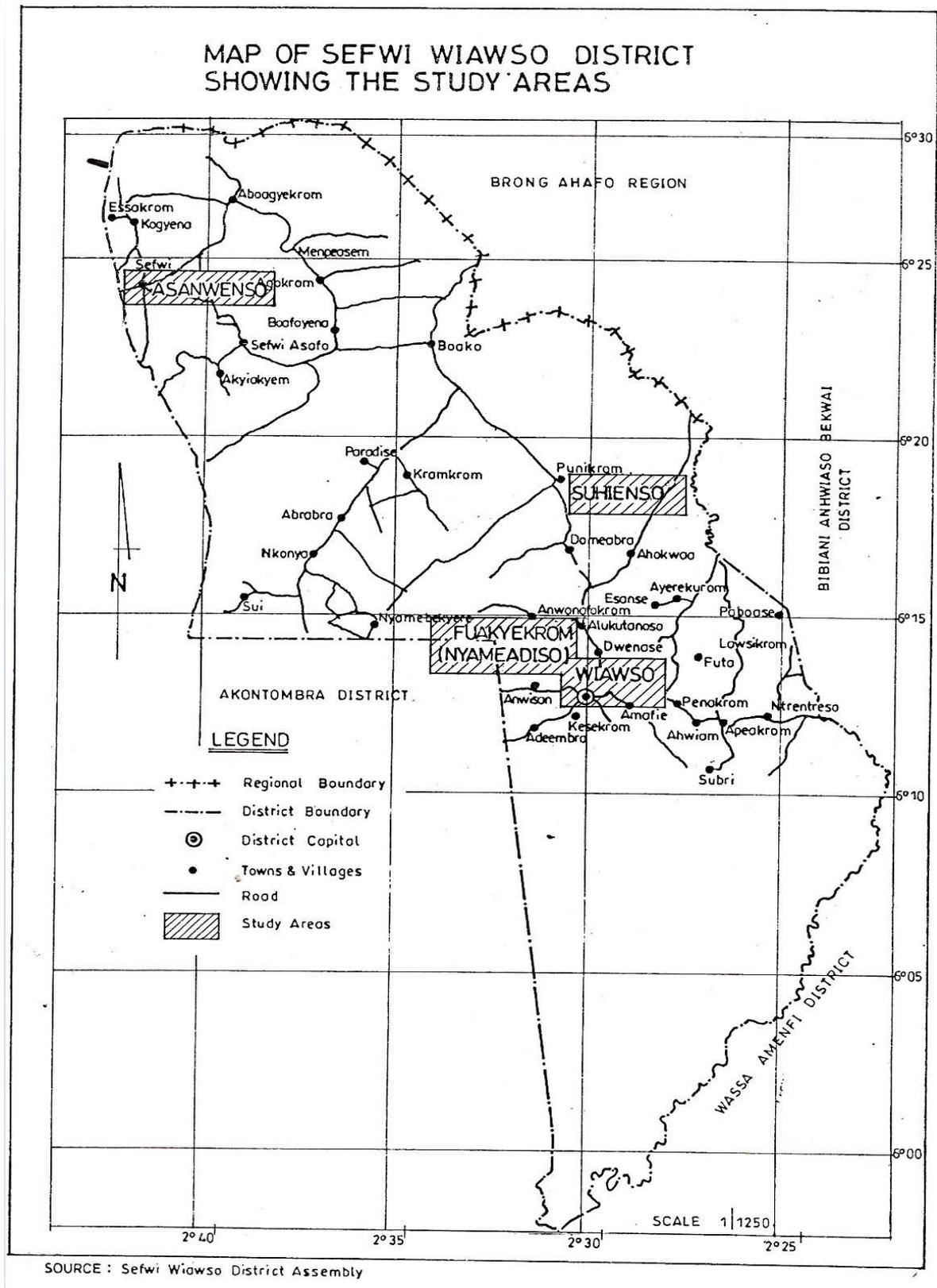


Figure 3.2: Map of Sefwi Wiawso Municipality showing the study



### 3.2 Location and size of the Municipality.

The Sefwi Wiawso Municipality which lies in the north-eastern part of the Western Region, is located between latitudes 6° N and 6° 30' N and longitudes 2° 45' W and 2° 15' W (Project Novella, 2003).

It is irregular in shape with two sides having straight edges. The capital, Sefwi Wiawso is almost at the centre of the Municipality. The capital is 156km from Kumasi, the Ashanti Regional capital and the closest metropolis, and 260km away from Sekondi/ Takoradi, the Western Regional capital (Project Novella, 2003).

It is bordered to the north by the Brong Ahafo Region, to the west by Juabeso and Bia Districts and by Aowin/ Suaman to the south. It is also bordered by Bibiani-AhwiasoBekwai District to the east and Wassa Amenfi District to the south-east. (Refer to figure 3.2).

The Municipality is the seventh largest in the Western Region. It covers an area of 1280 sq.km, representing about 7 per cent of the land area of the Region (SWDA, 2011).

From the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the Municipality has a population of 117,704 as against 148950 in 2000, declining by about 21%. The decline may be principally due to the carving out of the Akontombra District from the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality in 2007. The Municipality has a male and female population of 58,767 and 58937 representing 49.9% and 50.1% respectively (SWDA, 2011). The dominance of females in the Municipality can be attributed to the entry of more females than males to perform farming tasks which are relatively less labour-intensive not to warrant male dominance as it was the case in the past. This presupposes that there has been a lot of immigration into the Municipality. The Municipality has 101 communities, comprising five urban and 96 rural communities. It is therefore predominantly rural in character. It has twenty six electoral/town/area councils currently (SWDA, 2011).

Considering the number of communities in the Municipality, it may be practically impossible for the Assembly to provide fully the infrastructure needs of each and every community. At best the needs of the communities may be partly satisfied due to constraints of finance and other logistics.

### **3.3 Physical Features**

#### **3.3.1 Relief and Drainage**

Most parts of the Municipality are made up of undulating terrain. The occasional granite outcrops give the Municipality its undulating nature and form part of long hilly ranges referred to as Bit I Range. These are strongly dissected and steep. A greater stretch of the Municipality is hilly in nature having steep slopes and sometimes cliffs. For example, the entire settlements of Bosomoiso, Aboduam, Amafie and the Municipality capital, Sefwi Wiawso are all situated on hills with interesting historical underpinnings. The Municipality has an altitude ranging from 152 to 510 metres above sea level ((SWDA, 2011). The highlands, which rise above 305 metres, lie in a north-south direction to the western part of the Municipality. The highest point, (the Krokoa Peak which is 510m above sea level) lies roughly to the south-west of the Municipal capital (SWDA, 2011).

Drainage derives mainly from the Tano River and its tributaries (including the Suhien, Kunuma, Sui and the Yoyo) which cut through the Municipality roughly in a north-south direction and enters the sea in Cote d'Ivoire. Apart from the Tano River, there are numerous streams that drain the area. In fact, almost all the settlements have one water body or the other close-by which is for all domestic, agricultural and sometimes industrial purposes (Project Novella, 2003; SWDA, 2011).

### 3.3.2 Climate and Vegetation

The Sefwi-Wiawso Municipality falls within the Tropical Rainforest Climatic Zone, with high temperatures throughout the year and moderate to heavy rainfall. The annual temperatures range from 25° C to 35°C. Variation in monthly mean temperature is slight. The mean monthly maximum in the hottest month (February or March) is 31-33°C, and the monthly minimum in the coldest month (August) is 19-21°C (Vordzogbe *et al.*, 2005).

There are two long wet seasons separated by short, relatively dry season. The rainfall recorded is between 1500mm and 1800mm. The rainfall pattern is bimodal with maxima in May-June and September-October (Project Novella, 2003).

Although rainfall levels are high, production could be significantly expanded if irrigation techniques are applied. This could be achieved especially along the Tano River and within the areas covered by its tributaries. Indeed, improved farming techniques introduced by investors in the sector would expand output considerably and such enterprises could take advantage of the existing local and external markets for cash and food crops.

Humidity is relatively high, ranging between 90 per cent at night and 75 per cent during the day. The dry season is characterised by relatively low humidity, but relatively higher during the rainy season (Project Novella, 2003).

The vegetation is mostly of Moist, Semi-Deciduous type with such important timber species as Odum, Mahogany, Sapele and Wawa (Vordzogbe *et al.*, 2005).

There are three (3) main forest reserves in the Municipality, totalling 612.22 sq. Km. The forests of the Municipality are being encroached upon at alarming rate, resulting in the degradation of large sections of hitherto pristine forests (Bridgewater, 1996; SWDA, 2011).

In trying to cope with an ever-increasing number of people in the Municipality, virgin forests in the area are being increasingly converted into agricultural lands, thus further depleting the already threatened forest cover of the Municipality (GSS, 2005). Bad agricultural practices such as bush burning, and other activities like intense logging, fuelwood harvesting and pollution have resulted in poor soil quality and land degradation in certain areas in the Municipality (Vlodzogbe *et al.*, 2005). Also, the heavy rainfall experienced in the Municipality causes erosion of the soils, especially on the hilly areas and slopes leading to serious leaching in most of the farmlands (SWDA, 2011).

### **3.3.3 Effect of climate and vegetation on the infrastructure development of the Municipality. (The relationship between climate and vegetation and key variables in the study)**

The climate of the Municipality greatly affects infrastructure and their distribution. The road network for example is exposed to the extreme vagaries of the weather. Because the Municipality lies within the Tropical Rainforest Climatic Zone, the heavy rains render most of the roads, especially those that are not tarred soggy, muddy and therefore impassable. The worse hits parts are those areas that have clayey sub-soil, making the construction and maintenance of existing roads costly. In the dry season also, the stagnant pools of water that characterise the rainy season give way to gullies and gaping holes in the middle of most of the roads. The windy conditions that characterise the rainy season also demolish school infrastructure and sometimes grids of electricity connectivities.

The Moist, Semi-Deciduous type of vegetation in the Municipality with such important timber species as Odum, Mahogany, Sapele and Wawa (Vordzogbe *et al.*, 2005) gives rise to serious lumbering activities. The heavy timber trucks that ply the roads contribute substantially to the worsening condition of the roads in the Municipality. The vibrating effect of timber trucks and the falling-off of timber logs onto the roads destroy the roads.

Due to the cost involved in providing infrastructure, most communities in the Municipality located behind forest reserves are heavily discriminated against in the distribution of infrastructure. These situations contribute significantly to the poor state of development of the Municipality.

### **3.3.4 Soils and Agricultural Land use**

The main geological formations that cover the Municipality are the lower and upper Birimian. Soils develop mainly from Birimian Phyllites and, to a lesser degree, from interspersed granites. These soils are adequate for impressive natural forest growth and traditional agricultural activities. The most widespread type of soil is the Forest Ochrosols, which covers most of the northern and western parts of the Municipality. The Forest Ochrosol – Oxysol intergrades is found in the southern parts, while the Oxysols form a narrow strip from Sefwi Wiawso in a north-eastern direction up to the southern part of Bibiani. The Forest Ochrosol and Oxysol are rich for the cultivation of cash crops like Cocoa, Palm tree, Cola, Cocoyam, Coffee, Cashew and many others. This explains why the Municipality is arguably the leading producer of cocoa in the region, and one of the leading producers in the country (Project Novella, 2003;SWDA, 2011).

### **3.4 Demographic Characteristics**

The population of the Municipality, its composition, sex, age structure and distribution, has a very crucial effect for the purposes of planning, especially for the provision and the spatial distribution of essential basic social services.

The population of the Municipality at its creation in 1988 was a little over 73,000. By the year 2000, the population had more than doubled to 148,950, representing 7.75% of the region's population. The 2010 Population and Housing Census showed that Sefwi Wiawso Municipality had a population of 117,704. The decline may be principally due to the

carving out of the Akontombra District from the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality in 2007. The Municipality has a male and female population of 58,767 and 58,937 representing 49.9% and 50.1% respectively (SWDA, 2011) with a population growth rate of 3.2%, as compared to the national and regional growth rates of 2.4% and 3.2% respectively (SWDA, 2011; GSS, 2011).

The Municipality has fertility rate of 4.8% and a dependency ratio of 91.2, meaning for every 100 people 91 people are depending upon them. The economic implication of this situation is that there will be low savings and investment leading to unemployment and poverty (GSS, 2005).

Urban dwelling in the Municipality rates 23.4% as against 36.3% for the region. There are 20,369 houses and living quarters, 29,460 households and an average household size of 5.1. About 30% of the houses in the Municipality have thatch roofs, indicating that there are rural life forms in the Municipality. About 66.5% of the population resides in compound houses. The predominant settlement pattern in the Municipality is the dispersed settlement with most of the settlements being rural (GSS, 2005).

The high pressure on existing socio-economic infrastructure and the constant demand for the expansion and provision of basic infrastructure is critical fallout of this population phenomenon. Though this may be an advantage to the District in terms of increased DACF allocation, managing and addressing the development challenges and constraints are disproportional to the receipt from the common fund (SWMA, 2013).

### **3.5 Human Resource Development and Basic Social Services**

#### **3.5.1 Education and Literacy**

The status and level of education of community members has become an indispensable yardstick for measuring the extent of understanding and receptivity of projects in local communities.

The SWMA (2013) reveals that there are 114 nursery schools in the Municipality of which 39 are private whilst 75 are public. There are 119 primary schools made up of 39 private, 80 public and 78 junior high schools comprising 24 private and 52 public. According to the SWMA (2013), four public senior high schools and one vocational school are found in the Municipality. Higher academic institutions in the Municipality include a College of Education and Health Assistants Training School.

Majority of the public basic schools lack toilet and urinal facilities, libraries, computer laboratories and furniture. About sixty percent (60%) of the public school blocks need rehabilitation. Some of them do not have the required classroom blocks and classrooms resulting in over-crowding in some of the basic schools in the Municipality. Two of the senior high schools in the Municipality have serious issues with infrastructure in general (SWDA, 2011).

#### **3.5.2 Health Care**

A number of health facilities exist in the Municipality. The Municipality is divided into three (3) health sub-districts for effective health care delivery. These include Wiawso, Anyinabrim and Asafo. In all, there are twenty-three health facilities in the Municipality. They include two hospitals one of which is privately owned by the Catholic Church, three clinics all of which are privately-owned, two private maternity homes and sixteen

(16) other health centres and posts (DHA, 2011). There are 37 general nurses, 21 midwives, 4 public health nurses, 39 community health nurses and 4 medical doctors in the Municipality, bringing the doctor-patient ratio to 1:37,238 (SWMA, 2013).

### **3.5.3 Water and Sanitation**

According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2005), 50 per cent of the dwellings in SefwiWiawso use wells as their main source of water. About 19.1% of the people in the Municipality use boreholes; 27.6% rely on rivers and streams with the rest relying on the other sources of water. There has been remarkable improvement in the situation since then. According to the SWMA (2013), generally, communal access to potable water in the Municipality increased from 62% to 90% by 2013.

### **3.5.4 Electricity**

Only 27.9% of the people in the Municipality have access to electricity. A greater majority of the people rely on kerosene for their lighting needs. A few of the people rely on rechargeable lamps and the others use candles and torch lights to lighten their homes (GSS, 2005). The Assembly has embarked on a mission to extend electricity to all parts of the Municipality. As a result, it is estimated that about 53 percent coverage of electricity has been achieved (SWMA, 2013).

### **3.5.5 Transportation and Communication Services**

The Municipality has a total length of 93.5km of tarred road. The rest of the roads are feeder and access roads which are dusty, gullied and pot-holed almost through the year. Due to high rainfall and dense vegetation, road construction and maintenance cost are comparatively high and accounts for the poor nature of the roads, greater parts of which become unmotorable during the lengthy raining season (Project Novella, 2003). As a result, most of the mini buses and taxis that commute between the Municipal capital and

the nearby villages are in poor state, charge exorbitantly and sometimes overload (SWDA 2011).

### **3.6 Economic Activities in the Municipality**

The economy of the Municipality is agro-based mainly centered around the cultivation of cash and food crops. Ahenkan and Boon (2011) report that about 80% of the labour force in the Municipality is involved in agriculture. Within almost every part of the Municipality, crops including Cocoa, Oil palm, Pineapple, Plantain, Yam, Rice, Tomatoes, Garden eggs, Citrus, Pepper, Cassava, Cabbage, Cocoyam and Maize are grown. According to Mull (2003), the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality is the largest cocoaproducing district in the Western Region.

It must be stressed that with the heavy and evenly distributed rainfall in the Municipality, it is not impossible for farmers to engage solely in farming activities throughout the year. However, agricultural productivity in the Municipality is low relative to the number of people involved due to small farm holdings. It is also because these crops are seasonal. Production yields are highly dependent on weather and other conditions. This effectively means that the income of most of the growers tends to be low, seasonal, and irregular. Farmers usually have adequate resources during the harvest period, while income levels decline sharply in the lean or planting season, leaving many farmers vulnerable to economic pressures. (Mull, 2003; SWDA, 2011).

Other known agricultural activities in the Municipality include bee-keeping, grass-cutter production, snail, livestock and birds rearing, as well as production of mushrooms and medicinal plants (Ahenkan and Boon, 2003). The other major occupations are teaching, carpentry, trading, masonry and some others are engaged into auto-mechanics. It is interesting to note that even those who engage in non-farm activities and as such see

farming as secondary and supplemental to their major economic activity practice farming at an appreciable level (Project Novella, 2003; SWDA, 2011).

There are gold deposits in almost every part of the Municipality. Gold deposits can be found in river and streambeds and alluvial deposits in places near Kokokrom, Anyinabrim, and adjoining areas like Akontombra and Nsawora/Nkwadum areas. Large deposit of gold has been discovered at Akoti and its surrounding areas. It is being mined in commercial quantities by Chirano Goldmine Limited., an Australian mining firm. Diamond deposits too, found to the south of Wiawso near Bopa, are yet to be exploited (Project Novella, 2003; SWDA, 2011).

Mull (2003) has intimated that the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality is one of the largest producers of timber in the Western Region and Ghana as a whole. The major timber species found in the Municipality are Sapele, Odum, Wawa, Emire, Mahogany and Red cedar. Some logging/lumbering companies that exist in the Municipality include Suhuma Timber Company, A.G. Timbers, Bondplex Company, Bibiani Logging and Lumber Company Ltd., Western Veneer and Buadac Timber Company Ltd. All these companies have been given large tracts of the primary and secondary forest reserves as concessions by the Forestry Services Division of the Forestry Commission.

There are full ranges of financial services available in the Municipality. Ghana Commercial Bank, Home Finance Company (HFC), Access Bank, Opportunity International and Agricultural Development Bank, and lately Inter Continental Bank all operate branches in the Municipality, providing banking hall and other financial intermediation services. The Asawinso and Upper Amenfi Rural Banks also operate in the Municipality with banking services that extend right to the grassroots. Also, there are Susu and Loans firms in the Municipality, prominent among which is Boafo Ne Nyame.

The State Insurance Company provides insurance services around the Municipality (MLGRD, 2006). The Municipality houses almost all the government departments and agencies including a regional office of COCOBOD.

The vast mineral, agricultural and financial resource base of the Municipality could be harnessed for infrastructure gains. For example, the royalties accrued to the Municipality as a result of the exploitation of the mineral and agricultural resources could be channeled into the development of infrastructure. Mining and cocoa purchasing firms could also take up infrastructure development as part of their corporate social responsibility.

### **3.7 Structure of the Municipal Assembly**

The Local Government Act 462, which is a legal enactment as a follow-up to the constitutional provision, states that there are three kinds of districts, which are the principal units of local government, of which there are 170 in Ghana – metropolitan, municipal and district. Each of them has an Assembly as the highest political authority in the district: a Metropolitan Assembly, Municipal Assembly or a District Assembly. The Sefwi Wiawso Municipality is one of them.

The Sefwi Wiawso Municipality Assembly is the highest political, administrative and planning authority, representing the Central Government in the Municipality, with a mission to improve the quality of life of the people by harnessing and utilising all resources for sustainable development.

The Assembly has a membership of 45 comprising 31 elected members and 14 Government appointees representing the Traditional Council in the Municipality. The Municipal Assembly has a 17 member Executive Committee headed by the Municipal

Chief Executive and comprises the Chairmen and Secretaries and other selected members of the following committees: Finance and Administration, Development Planning, Works Committee, Justice and Security, and Social Services.

The Municipality consists of 2 Town Councils and 4 area councils with 31 Unit Committees (UCs) and electoral areas (SWDA, 2011).

Each unit committee is made up of 5 elected members. The functions of unit committees include public education, organisation of communal labour, raising of revenue, ensuring environmental cleanliness, implementation and monitoring of self help projects. (SWDA, 2011)

Projects undertaken by the Assembly include the construction and maintenance of feeder roads, school classroom blocks, clinics and provision of water and Kumasi Ventilated Improved Pit latrines (SWDA, 2011).

### **3.8 Methodology of the Research**

#### **3.8.1 Selected Communities**

Rural areas everywhere in the world are discriminated against in the provision of infrastructure. In order to have a comparative view therefore, and to be able to empirically confirm or refute the age-long assertion in the Municipality that the urban centres are better developed and resourced in terms of infrastructure than the rural areas, the study was conducted in two rural and two urban communities. Per the threshold of 5000 people in Ghana and the consideration of this study of infrastructure as the basis for classifying settlements, Asawinso and Wiawso are urban whereas Nyameadiso and Suhwenso are rural.

Four communities were purposively selected since they possessed the characteristics that the study was interested in. These communities were arrived at after a careful perusal of

the profile of the communities in the Municipality, to enable the researcher select two urban and two rural communities for a comparative study. Wiawso and Asawinso are the two prominent towns in the Municipality in terms of their sizes and population, infrastructure such as roads, good drinking water, schools and electricity, their economic/commercial viability and the type of occupation of the people. Both towns are large and home to people from almost all the ethnic groups in Ghana, making them heterogeneous in nature. They both have adequate supply of the infrastructure such as good road network, electricity, potable water and good educational infrastructure, and are huge commercial centres in the Municipality. Majority of the people in the two settlements are into the secondary and tertiary sectors of production. Nyameadiso and Suhwenso on the other hand are the two rural communities selected and they are similar in terms of socio-economic conditions, as well as being limited in size with population less than 5000, inadequate supply of infrastructure, predominantly farming communities with virtually no commercial viability. These make the two classes of settlements – Asawinso and Wiawso on one hand, Nyameadiso and Suhwenso on the other - disparate in nature, providing enough basis for a comparative study between them.

### **3.8.2 Target Population**

The target population included staff of the Sefwi Wiawso Municipal Assembly, opinion leaders and heads of households of the four communities in the study area namely Asawinso, Wiawso, Nyameadiso and Suhwenso. From the Municipal Assembly, the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE), Municipal Planning Officer (MPO), Municipal Finance Officer (MFO), Municipal Budget Officer (MBO) and two workers at the General Office were selected and treated as key informants. Based on the total population of the selected communities of 24,036, and using the mathematical formula given below, 144 respondents were sampled for the study.

### 3.8.3 Sample size determination

The target population consists of randomly selected residents of the selected communities and purposively selected staff of the Assembly.

Using the formula  $n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$

Where n= sample size, N= Population size and e= level of precision (Gomez and Jones, 2010). With 8% margin of error, 144 respondents out of 24036 people who constitute the population of the selected communities and a few selected staff of the Assembly were chosen. Table 3.1 indicates how the sample size was determined. **Table 3.1: Sampled Population from the Selected Communities**

Communities	Population	Calculation	Percentage	Size
<b>Wiawso</b>	8714	$\frac{8714 \times 100}{24036} = 36.2$	$\frac{36.2}{100} \times 144$	52
<b>Asawinso</b>	13296	$\frac{13116 \times 100}{24036} = 55.3$	$\frac{55.3}{100} \times 144$	80
<b>Nyameadiso</b>	1085	$\frac{1085 \times 100}{24036} = 4.5$	$\frac{4.5}{100} \times 144$	7
<b>Suhwenso</b>	1121	$\frac{1121 \times 100}{24036} = 4.6$	$\frac{4.6}{100} \times 144$	7
<b>Key informants</b>	-	-	-	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>24036</b>	-	-	<b>150</b>

Source: SWDA (2011).

The sample size of 150 included key informants who are Municipal Assembly staff (MCE, MFO, MPO, MBO and two others).

### **3.8.4 Sources of Data**

Data for this study were obtained from two major sources namely primary and secondary sources. The primary data were obtained from the field by administering questionnaires and conducting interviews, observations and focus group discussions (FGDs) using the heads of households. Secondary data on the other hand were obtained from the Assembly's records such as Development Plan and Composite Budget, reports and publications, journals, working papers, documented rural development policies and from the internet. The data obtained have been analysed in chapter four of this study along the lines of rural-urban distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality – the first objective of the study.

### **3.8.5 Sampling Techniques**

The study adopted the case study research design. In order that every side of the urban communities would be covered, cluster sampling technique was adopted. The two urban communities therefore were put into four clusters each, using the major roads as common denominators. Each cluster in Wiawso was allocated 13 whereas clusters in Asawinso were allocated 20 questionnaires each. Respondents from each cluster were selected systematically by the study team when the questionnaires were being administered. Every 10<sup>th</sup> house was sampled in both urban communities. Heads of the various households were the target in the various houses. Where a house contained more than one household, simple random sampling was employed to select one of them for the study. In the rural communities however, only the simple random sampling technique was employed. The houses were numbered, balloted and those selected were followed up for the questionnaires to be administered. In each of the houses, the heads of the households were the target.

Purposive sampling was also employed in selecting key informants such as the Municipal Chief Executive, Municipal Finance Officer, Municipal Planning Officer, Municipal Budget Officer and two others officials of the Assembly who work at the

general office. According to Orcher (2007), purposive sampling allows the researcher to conveniently sample from a population with specific set of characteristics for the study – in this case it is due to their headship of various departments of the Assembly.

### **3.8.6 Methods of Data Collection**

Since questionnaire is appropriate as data collection tool for people who have a fair level of education (Kumekpor, 2002), the research team translated into the local language for those who could not read and write and their responses were recorded by the team members themselves. The questionnaire was carefully structured and designed according to the objectives of the study. The researcher painstakingly explained each question to respondents who found difficulty in understanding some questions without influencing their responses in any way. In respect of the staff of the Assembly, the study was interested in knowing their individual views on issues from the positions they occupy. Interview was therefore conducted with them. They were all interviewed in their respective offices with their consent to record the responses they gave. With regards to the respondents, the study was interested in consensus and how they collectively perceived issues as heads of their respective households.

Focus group discussions were conducted with respondents from the selected communities. In all, six focus group discussions were conducted in the four selected communities, two in each of the urban communities, and one in each of the rural communities due to their sizes and population. In Asawinso and Wiawso, five household heads from each of the four clusters were purposively selected to form two groups of ten.

The same method was applied in the rural communities, but this time only one FGD was conducted in each of them. Two research assistants assisted in recording the answers that were given by the respondents. The sessions lasted one hour with the researcher acting as the moderator.

### **3.8.7 Methods of Data Analysis**

Quantitative data obtained from the field through questionnaires administered were analyzed with Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS v16.0) and Excel for Windows. Tools such as percentages, frequencies and cross-tabulation were used in the analysis. The results have been presented in the form of percentages, frequency charts, tables, graphs and cross-tabulation. Qualitative data obtained mainly from the interviews, focus group discussions and observations conducted were analysed by means of content analysis. In this study, the analysis of distribution of educational infrastructure in the Municipality extend beyond circuits into which the selected communities fall, to include other circuits for a better and bigger pictorial view of the situation. The data analysed on the distribution of infrastructure were obtained from both secondary and primary sources so as to get a clearer picture of the distribution pattern of infrastructure in the Municipality. Data were analysed using the period 2002 – 2012 as the reference point.

## **CHAPTER FOUR RURAL-URBAN DISTRIBUTION OF INFRASTRUCTURE IN THE SEFWI**

## WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at the distribution of infrastructure projects in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality, from the rural-urban perspective. It aims to respond to the first objective of the study which is to examine the rural-urban distribution of infrastructure projects in the Municipality. Data for this were obtained mainly from the database of the Municipal Assembly and from the perspectives of respondents.

The analysis is based mainly on the distribution of infrastructure projects such as roads, electricity, educational infrastructure and potable water. It looks at the spatial distribution of such projects, especially between the selected urban and rural communities in the Municipality.

### 4.2 Background of Respondents

In all, there were a total of 144 respondents selected from the four communities and six (6) staff of the Assembly. In terms of sex, there were 101 males representing 70.1 percent as against 43 females representing 29.9 percent of the total population (Refer to Table 4.1). Most of the respondents (81.3%) sampled in the study fall between 20 and 60 age bracket while those above 60 years were only 9.7 percent (Table 4.1). This indicates that the majority of the respondents were in the working population.

The number of secondary school leavers out numbers all the other categories. Out of the 144 respondents sampled, 43.8 percent have been to the secondary school and 26.3% of the respondents are post secondary leavers. However, 18.1% of the respondents ended their education at the basic level. Some of the people sampled (9%) have had tertiary education and 2.1% have had no formal education (Table 4.1). Those who are married constitute 62.5%. Only 3.5% of the population are either divorced or widowed (Table 4.1). The

Municipality is dominated by farmers as 31.9 percent of the respondents cited farming as their occupation (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.1: Background of Respondents**

Sex			Age			Educational level			Marital status		
	Freq	%		Freq	%		Freq	%		Freq	%
Male	101	70.1	20-29	3	20.1	Basic	26	18.1	Married	90	62.5
Female	43	29.9	30-39	24	16.7	Secondary	63	43.8	Single	38	26.4
			40-49	35	24.3	Post Sec.	39	27.1	Divorced	5	3.5
			50-60	66	45.8	Tertiary	13	9	Widow/ widower	5	3.5
			>60	14	9.7	Never schooled	3	2.1	Separated	6	4.2
Total	144	100		144	100		144	100		144	100

Source: Field Study, 2012

**Table 4.2: Occupational Background of Respondents**

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Farming	46	31.9
Mining	2	1.4
Teaching	43	30
Banking	2	1.4
Business	26	18.
Artisan	15	10.4
Others	10	7
Total	144	100

Source: Field Study, 2012

In all, the background of the respondents portrays that it is a male dominated Municipality (since heads of households were used as the unit of analysis) with most of the people belonging to the active or working group. It is a Municipality with average level

of education as most of the people have had secondary education. It is also an agrarian and rural Municipality dominated by farmers.

#### 4.3 Distribution Pattern of Infrastructure Projects

Information from the database of the Assembly indicates that, generally, there is skewness in the provision of major infrastructure projects in the Municipality. The urban communities usually benefit from the infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly more than rural communities. For example, the Assembly undertook development projects between 2006 and 2009 as part of its plan to ensure socio-economic development. Fifty-three (53) percent of such projects were provided in urban communities as against 47 percent in rural communities. Again, out of 42 different projects documented by the Assembly to have been undertaken in 2011, the urban settlements and their contiguous communities had 71.4% of such projects as against 28.6 percent in rural communities (SWDA, 2011). Juxtaposed with the predominantly rural nature of the Municipality (64.2 rurality), it can be concluded that the distribution pattern of infrastructure in the Municipality is urban-biased and that it is not evenly done.

Views of the respondents confirm the observation made from the documented report of the Assembly on the provision of infrastructure projects. Table 4.3 presents views of the respondents on the level of fairness/evenness or otherwise of the distribution of infrastructure/development projects in the Municipality.

**Table 4.3: Distribution Pattern of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality – Perspectives of Respondents.**

Communities	Even		Skewed in favour of urban areas		Skewed in favour of rural areas		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
<b>Asawinso</b>	30	20.3	35	24.3	13	9.0	78	53.6

<b>Wiawso</b>	23	16	19	13.2	10	7	52	36.2
<b>Nyameadiso</b>	1	0.7	6	4.2	-	-	7	4.9
<b>Suhwenso</b>	-	-	6	4.2	1	0.7	7	4.9
<b>Total</b>	54	37	66	45.9	24	16.7	144	100

Source: Field work, 2012

About forty-six percent of the respondents (45.9%) are of the view that the distribution is skewed in favour of urban areas. This includes 86 percent of respondents from the rural communities in this study. This means that a lot more respondents from the rural communities view the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality as skewed against their communities. This view is also shared by Brushett and Indu (2006), UN Habitat (2011) and Kruseman and Vullings (2007) that the distribution of infrastructure across the globe is skewed in favour of urban settlements. This view is also more in tune with the practical situation on the ground (and the finding from the records of the Assembly of skewness in the distribution process) where visible signs abound regarding differences in infrastructure between the rural and urban settlements in the Municipality, with the urban areas being always ahead.

Staff of the Assembly think otherwise. All of them (including the MCE, MFO, MPO, MBO and two others) are of the view that the distribution of infrastructure by the Assembly is fairly done. This they explained in an interview that all the factors worth considering (including participation of the people, the population, needs assessment and the prioritisation of those needs) are brought on board in the process and so the situation can only be described as fair. In the words of the Planning Officer,

*“every settlement in the Municipality has gotten what it is entitled to or what it is supposed fairly to get”.*

From Table 4.3, 37 percent of the respondents (comprising those who ticked *‘fair’* and *‘even’* on the questionnaire) are of the view that the distribution of infrastructure/development projects in the Municipality is fairly/evenly done. Out of the 37%, only 2% are from the two rural communities - Nyameadiso and Suhwenso as against 34.6 percent from urban communities. This means that majority of the respondents who are of the view that the distribution is fairly done are from the urban communities. That notwithstanding, the general implication of the above response is that the Assembly has either supplied the infrastructure needs of the sampled communities (rural and urban alike) without considering anything that will let some communities benefit from the process than others, or each community has been given what it deserves or what befits it. That indeed is the position of the Constitution of Ghana enjoining all assemblies to ensure an even and balanced development of each region, in this case each community. The aggregate effect of this in terms of development is that all communities will be at the same level of development in the Municipality.

There is yet another aspect of the skewness in the distribution of infrastructure, this time in favour of rural settlements. This view is held by 16.7 percent of the respondents. The understanding here is that some parts of the towns are deprived as pointed out in a focus group discussion conducted in Wiawso. Therefore seeing some villages other than those selected for the study with well maintained roads and school buildings makes them (some of the respondents) conclude that the rural areas benefit more than the urban centres from the distribution of infrastructure. At the said FGD at Somaakuro – a suburb of Sefwi Wiawso, and Asawinso Zongo, it was concluded that

*‘our parts of the towns were deprived and that some villages are even better off than them’.*

This means that whereas many people (including rural and urban dwellers) in the Municipality think the rural areas are deprived, some urban dwellers rather are not content with what the Assembly has provided by way of infrastructure but instead feel that the urban communities are discriminated against in the provision of infrastructure.

#### **4.4 Specific Infrastructure Distributed by the Assembly in the Selected Communities.**

The previous section looked at the distribution pattern of certain infrastructure projects in the Municipality. The Assembly in its documentation of distribution of infrastructure such as good road network, potable water, electricity and educational infrastructure admits that the process has invariably been in favour of the urban settlements in the Municipality.

This section analyses data on the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality from the documented report of the Assembly and from the perspectives of respondents. This is to help achieve the first objective of the research

The Assembly is expected to undertake varied infrastructure projects in the various communities. Ninety percent of the respondents indicated that they were aware of the expectation on the Assembly of having to provide infrastructure in the various communities. Only 10% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of this responsibility that the Assembly is expected to shoulder. Toyobo *et al.*, (2011) also found out in a study that the people were aware of the local authority's responsibility and were in high expectation of the authority carrying out those responsibilities.

In relation to the above, respondents in this study were required to do multiple ticking of infrastructure projects provided by the Assembly in their respective communities.

Therefore, in Table 4.7, each infrastructure is looked at from the total respondents.

##### **4.4.1 Distribution of Road Projects**

Accessibility is very important for the development of a country (Toyobo, *et al.*, 2011).

Road transport is by far the most important mode of transportation or accessibility in the Municipality, providing the vehicle for accelerated progress (SWDA, 2011). About 99% of all the economic activities that take place in the Municipality are carried out on roads. A greater number of the settlements in the Municipality are connected by road (SWDA, 2011).

The Municipality has 234.5km of highways (constituting 31.4% of the road network in the Municipality) and 514km (68.6%) of feeder roads (SWDA, 2011). The road network, which is the most important economic infrastructure, is generally in bad shape (SWDA, 2011). This has resulted in many of the settlements being isolated from the rest of the country (Rawley, 2005).

Though the road network in the Municipality is generally poor, certain communities are better-off than others in terms of the nature of their roads. The settlements by the side of the Sefwi Wiawso-Sefwi Bekwai highway are fortunate to be connected by a first class road. Again, the newly-constructed Dwinase-Asawinso road has linked all the settlements by its side with a first class road. Apart from these, the only other settlement with tarred road linking it is Aboduam – a farming community off the Sefwi Wiawso – Sefwi Bekwai highway.

The distribution of road projects in the Municipality is hugely skewed in favour of Sefwi Wiawso – the capital of the Municipality. The township of Sefwi Wiawso has enjoyed good road network for over 20 years now. In fact it is the only town in the Municipality which has tarred internal roads. Even so, plans are in the offing to construct another 11.5km of ‘\_Wiawso Town Roads’ within the framework of a 5-Year Western Regional Development Plan (SWDA, 2011). As part of that, Otchere (2010) reports that work has begun on the first phase of the Sefwi-Wiawso town roads under a programme being sponsored by the Japanese International Co-operation Agency (JICA).

Table 4.4 gives a list of major road projects completed with bitumen and those still under rehabilitation in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality. It must be stressed that communities such as Wiawso, Dwinase, Asafo and Boako are urban in nature whereas the rest are peri-urban. This implies that the communities that are not listed here are all rural and have poor road network.

**Table 4.4: Major road projects in the Municipality**

DESCRIPTION	LENGTH	TYPE	CONDITION
<b>Abodum-Dwenase</b>	12.0km	Bitumen Surface	Good
<b>Dwenase-Benchema Barrier</b>	45.0km	Bitumen Surface	Good
<b>Boako-Ntonso</b>	11.0km	Bitumen Surface	Poor
<b>Dwinase-Anhwiam</b>	10.0km	Under Rehabilitation	
<b>Wiawso Township</b>	11.5km	Bitumen Surface	Good
<b>Abodum Township</b>	2.0km	Under Rehabilitation	
<b>Asafo Township</b>	2.0km	Under Rehabilitation	

Source: Sefwi Wiawso District Assembly (2011).

The roads indicated in Table 4.4 are either tarred or are proposed to be tarred. Out of the 234.5km of highways in the Municipality, only 93km (39.6%) has either been tarred or it is proposed to be tarred. Twenty nine percent (29%) of the highways with bitumen surface is in good condition, 4.7% in poor condition and 6% of the entire highways in the district is under rehabilitation (SWDA, 2011). This implies that a greater stretch of the road network in the Municipality is not in good shape. Judging from the fact that access roads constitute an important component of the development of a district's economy (Yankson, 2008), the nature of the road network in the Municipality has implications for economic and commercial activities in the Municipality as so much time and other resources will be used up in the process of using the roads, eventually raising the cost of living and doing business (Igbuzor, 2006; Mogue *et al.*, 2009).

There is inequality in the distribution of road infrastructure in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality in favour of settlements along Aboanidua-Wiawso-Asawinso highway corridor (SWDA, 2011). From Table 4.4, all the settlements indicated, apart from Aboduam which is on a branch road, are along the Sefwi-Bekwai-Wiawso-Asawinso highways. For instance, Wiawso which already has 11.5km of tarred road has been earmarked for another road construction project as reported by Otchere (2010), giving credence to the fact that there is skewness in the distribution of infrastructure, especially road infrastructure in the Municipality. Compared with the situation in the rural areas, the roads as observed by the research team are in deplorable conditions. Some of them have not been attended to for so long a time. For example, the road linking Dwinase and Suhwenso is so bad that passengers sometimes have to disembark from their vehicles and push their trucks through muddy stretches of the road.

The rest of the roads in the Municipality are feeder roads which are in poor condition all year round. Toyobo *et al.*, (2011) also noticed in a study that majority of the roads in their area of study were very bad. The bad roads in the Municipality rarely see reshaping, re-gravelling or resurfacing. When they do, the frequency varies as one journeys farther from the Municipal capital. Those settlements that are closer to the Municipal capital relatively see frequent reshaping, re-gravelling and resurfacing of their roads. Even so, such roads in most cases lie unattended to for most part of the year due to the high cost involved in maintaining them. As a result, some of the settlements that are far away from the capital are cut off from the rest of the Municipality, especially during the rainy season.

From Table 4.7 on page 79, 42 percent (out of 144) of the respondents were of the view that the Assembly had provided their communities with road infrastructure. Out of this, 40.6 percent are from the urban communities, namely Wiawso and Asawinso as against 1.4 percent from the rural communities. This means that the urban communities have

motorable roads in and around them. This confirms the observation made from the analysis of the documented report of the Assembly, as shown in Table 4.4. It also means that, on the whole, the road network in the Municipality is poorly developed, just as Cheru (2010) observed in a West African sub-regional study of road corridors.

#### **4.4.2 Distribution of Electricity**

The Municipality is connected to the national electricity grid. The supply of electricity in the Municipality is the responsibility of the Electricity Company of Ghana. The Company identifies areas requiring electricity and provides the service depending on the availability of resources within the Municipality.

There is inequality in the distribution of electricity in the Municipality. The distribution is in favour of settlements along Aboanidua-Wiawso-Asawinso highway corridor. Wiawso, Asawinso, Asafo and Boako are the beneficiaries simply because of their classification as urban settlements within the Municipality (SWDA, 2011). It does happen that even new suburbs that spring up in urban communities get connected to electricity grid earlier than the long-established rural communities. This has further boosted the level of economic/commercial activities in such settlements. The sizes of the settlements have also been affected positively as such places have become places of choice. This expansion has decreased negatively the size of the arable lands lying closer to the settlements as such lands are claimed for putting up buildings instead of agricultural activities.

Some communities, which are predominantly rural, do not enjoy electricity from the national grid. Some of them are Bowobra, Shell, Mile 3, Mile 4, Sui Junction, Nyamendae I, Nyamendae II, Keteboi, Garibakrom, Aboso, Larbikrom, Ojibi,

Kumikrom, Awutu, Rome, Kwasi-Addaekrom, Dwenewoho, Nsuekrom, Afedikrom, Apentemadi, Betekye, Alomu and Gyatokrom (SWMA, 2011). This situation, couple with the deplorable nature of the roads, causes the residents to migrate to places with electricity. As a result, these settlements do not see expansion as well as are depopulated.

Most of the settlements without electricity are far away from the Municipality capital. Those distant communities that have electricity experience relatively frequent power outages due mainly to difficult terrain and certain peculiar situations such as vegetational interference. One other issue is the way and manner electricity is extended to the (socalled) villages in the Municipality. Unlike the few urban settlements in the Municipality, getting the rural communities connected to electricity requires that those communities procure their own poles, contribute financially and above all the residents have to support the project with their labour. This is sheer discrimination because residents in urban settlements are not treated this way. In the event that the people in the rural areas are not able to act as described, they perpetually do not get connected to electricity. Besides, the non-insistence on the part of the people for electricity is an issue worth considering. The supply and use of electricity come with charges, in most cases monthly. Because most people in the rural areas are not in the position to foot the monthly bill, they normally do not insist on getting connected to electricity. This situation has affected the industrial base of such communities as agro and rural industrialisation that should have been sparked by electricity is absent. This situation contributes to lowering the standard of living of the people as they are deprived of a basic necessity of life – electricity.

From Table 4.7 on page 79, 56.6 percent of the respondents indicated that their communities had been provided with electricity. Strikingly, all the 56.6 percent are from urban communities. As it was observed from the analysis of the information obtained from the Assembly's records, there is low penetration of electricity in the rural areas in the

Municipality. The AU (2011) also observed a lower penetration of electricity in Africa in general and in rural Africa in particular, accounting for the low growth performance. Toyobo *et al.*, (2011) noted that one of the basic requirements for achieving complete rural area transformation is constant supply of energy. It can hereby be reasoned that the rural communities in the Municipality and beyond are not transformed in so many facets of life due to the absence of electricity.

#### 4.4.3 Distribution of Water Facilities

The Assembly admits that there is irregular supply of water in the Municipality. Lack of potable drinking water in some rural areas of the Municipality has also been reckoned by the Assembly. This to be expected, especially when the UN has identified 11 percent of the global population without improved source of drinking water and 40 percent of the population in sub-Saharan African are without improved drinking water (UN, 2015).

The production and supply of water in the Municipality is fraught with severe constraints and challenges. These include inability of beneficiary communities to pay their contribution on time due to their low-income levels, land litigation and high incidence of water-borne diseases like guinea worm (SWDA, 2011). These reasons and many others account for the current water situation in the Municipality which is captured in Table 4.5

**Table 4.5: Distribution of Water Facilities According to Town/Area Councils.**

Area/Town Council	Population	Water facility			Coverage (%)
		Bore Hole	Hand Dug Well	Stand Pipe	
Ahwiaa	33,922	31	7	11	50.0
Wiawso	16,963	8	2	22	94.0
Dwinase	33,525	21	17	10	44.3
Boako	43,659	11	29	4	23.0
Asafo	15,294	2	13	18	87.3
Asawinso	19,347	1	16	27	98.0

Source: SWDA (2011).

From Table 4.5, the level of coverage favours the town councils, namely Wiawso and Asawinso with 94 and 98% of coverage respectively. Dwinase area council has the highest number of water facilities (48, but low compared with the population) yet it has the second least coverage (44.3%) only after Boako Area Council. This is likely to affect the quantity of water per person per day which is between 50 and 100 litres (UN, 2015). It is also likely to affect cost (which should not exceed 3 percent of household income) and the collection time (which should not exceed 30 minutes) (UN, 2015). Indeed the infrastructure deficit in the water sector undermines the ability of many businesses to produce goods and services in an efficient manner. Improving water infrastructure therefore means increased access to potable water, reduced incidence of water-borne diseases and improved sanitation (GoG, 2010).

From Table 4.7 on page 79, 47.3 percent of the respondents indicated that their communities had been provided with potable water. Out of this figure, 44 percent are from urban while 3.3 percent are from rural communities. This means that the urban areas are better served with potable water infrastructure than the rural areas, as observed also from Table 4.5 where the urban communities which also constitute town councils – Wiawso and Asawinso – have higher coverage of 94 and 98 percent respectively. This situation may not be different from what Fry (2006) observed: ‘water is not distributed evenly over the globe, even naturally’. Fry (2006) further stressed that the supply of potable water requires a huge amount of capital investment in infrastructure such as pipe networks, pumping stations and water treatment works. Consequently, some countries are unable to provide adequate drinking water for their citizens due to the cost involved in doing so, resulting always in such imbalance as observed from Tables 4.5 and 4.7.

#### 4.4.4 Distribution of Educational Infrastructure

The Municipality has a fair share of educational institutions ranging from nursery to tertiary institutions. One policy objective under education is to increase equitable access to and participation in quality education at all levels. This is manifested in the number of schools spread across the Municipality, as shown in Table 4.6. The communities listed in the table are circuit centres under which other communities fall. Data on these circuits were obtained from the Assembly for a comparative analysis between the rural and urban circuits. Some of them therefore fall outside the scope of the study. However, for the sake of comparison, they have been looked at along the rural-urban dichotomy.

**Table 4.6: Distribution of schools according to circuits in the Municipality**

CIRCUIT	PUBLIC SCHOOLS							PRIVATE SCHS		
	K G	PRY	J H S	S H S	TRG. COLL	TOTAL	%	K G	PRY	J H S
Anyinabrim	10	10	7			27	12.8	8	8	8
Asafo	11	12	8			31	14.7	3	3	-
Asawinso	10	11	8	1		30	14.2	14	14	7
Bosomoiso	11	12	9			32	15.2	-	-	-
Dwinase	12	13	7			32	15.2	6	6	4
Sui	8	9	4			21	10	3	3	1
Wiawso	13	13	9	2	138	18	8.5	5	5	4
Total	75	80	52	3	1	211	100	39	39	24

Source: SWDA (2011).

The Assembly is responsible for the provision of educational infrastructure and furniture (Act 778, Clause 2 Section 3) leaving the management aspect to the Municipal Directorate of Education. Consequently, the Assembly's initiative in the education sector over the period has been the expansion of educational infrastructure including teachers' accommodation. However, majority of the public schools lack proper school buildings, toilet and urinal facilities, libraries, computer laboratories and furniture. About sixty percent (60%) of the public school blocks need rehabilitation. Kindergartens do not have playgrounds and recreational facilities (SWDA, 2011).

The urban centres have more educational facilities (SWDA, 2011). From Table 4.6, out of 211 public schools ranging from kindergarten to teacher training college, Wiawso

Circuit is leading in the distribution of such schools with 18 percent, followed by Dwinase with 15.2 percent. This is attributable to the high population of Wiawso and the fact that it is the Municipal capital. Asawinso has more private schools than the other circuits perhaps due to vast expanse of the township and it being one of the fastest growing settlements. It may also be due to the fact that government schools, though affordable, are highly inadequate in absorbing the increasing number of pupils. Bosomoiso circuit has no private educational institution perhaps due to the inability of proprietors and parents to foot the bills of establishing and enrolling their wards in private schools respectively.

**Table 4.7: Views of Respondents on Specific Infrastructure Projects Undertaken by the Assembly in the Various Communities Between 2002 and 2012**

Projects	Total Freq	Percent	Asawinso		Wiawso		Nyameadiso		Suhwenso	
			Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Roads	63	42	34	22.6	27	18	1	0.7	1	0.7
Edu. infrastructure	102	68	52	34.7	47	31.3	1	0.7	2	1.3
Market	62	41.3	33	22	28	18.7	-	-	1	0.7
Potable water	71	47.3	41	27.3	25	16.7	3	2	2	1.3
Electricity	85	56.6	41	27.3	44	29.3	-	-	-	-
Agriculture	28	18.7	10	6.7	7	4.7	5	3.3	6	4

Source: Field survey, 2012.

From Table 4.7, 68% of the respondents see educational infrastructure as the major infrastructure project undertaken by the Assembly in the Municipality. Crawford (2009) also found out after studying all assemblies in Ghana from 1997 to 2009 that education alone consumed 34% of their resources. Majority (50.9%) of these respondents are from Asawinso with Nyameadiso having the least number of respondents (1%). In all, 97 percent of the respondents who ticked educational infrastructure are from the urban communities. Education, by this action of the Assembly, can be described as a factor that

stimulates economic growth (Yoshino and Nakahigashi, 2000) and that it should be seen and treated as productively accumulated capital to be provided basically and freely by the government (Zhao and Kanamori, 2007). Increased spending on education through the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality, complemented by quality teaching as well as teaching and learning materials, means that in the long run there will be a large pool of highly trained, skilled and educated professionals from which the Municipality and for that matter the nation can benefit, judging from the fact that education is the key to development – a view expressed by the Finance Officer of the Assembly in an interview.

Table 4.7 also shows that the least support is to agriculture (18.7%) and this is quite surprising judging from the fact that majority of the people are into agriculture (Boon, 2011). Zhao and Kanamori (2007) in a study in China found a similar trend in which infrastructure spending on agriculture was described as extremely low. This was explained by Yoshino and Nakahigashi in an earlier study (2000) that the effect of agriculture infrastructure on productivity had clearly been declining over time. In many countries where agriculture is the mainstay of the economy, there is a high dependence of rural population on agriculture for their income and livelihood (Zhao and Kanamori, 2007). Diminished investment in agricultural infrastructure means that there will be a diminished potential for lasting growth, wealth creation and prosperity in the country in general, and most specifically in the rural areas in the Municipality (AUC and NEPAD Agency, 2011). It will also perpetuate the cycle of poverty in the Municipality as the expected yield from agriculture that will fetch the desired level of income will not be forth coming. Wolter (2008) however explains that agricultural support systems do not necessarily take the form of infrastructure spending. Instead, supports always come in the form of technological infusions and mechanisation systems, extension services, subsidies on agricultural inputs and institutionalisation of agriculture-friendly land tenure systems.

It is observed from Table 4.7 that the urban communities have all the infrastructure being studied provided by the Assembly, even though some have been provided far and better than others. Educational infrastructure for example has been well provided in both of the urban communities than agricultural infrastructure and support services. Agricultural infrastructure, which is the least provided in the urban centres, is the most provided in the rural communities. The other infrastructure which has been well provided in the rural communities but not as much in the urban communities is potable water. Apart from these, all the others are woefully catered for in the rural areas in the Municipality within the period under review. This finding validates the claim of many writers including UN Habitat (2011), Brushett and Indu (2006) that distribution of infrastructure is always skewed in favour of urban areas, leaving the rural communities to complain (Ayee, 2003; 1996), as happened in the two focus group discussions conducted in Nyameadiso and Suhwenso.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

From the data analysed so far, it can be concluded that the Municipality is generally underdeveloped in terms of infrastructure provided by the Assembly, compared with other municipalities in the country. The few urban areas in the Municipality have been provided with more infrastructure projects than the rural areas. Of the infrastructure analysed such as road, water, educational infrastructure and electricity, road stands out as the least provided by the Assembly. This is not surprising because the Western Region is known to have one of the worst road networks in the country.

## **CHAPTER FIVE PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURE IN SELECTED COMMUNITIES WITHIN**

## **THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY - PERSPECTIVES OF RESPONDENTS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of data in response to the second, third and fourth objectives of the study. The chapter relies mainly on data obtained from respondents, that is, heads of households from the four study communities and staff of the Assembly. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs).

It specifically deals with factors considered in the process of providing infrastructure, the participation or involvement of the people and how the infrastructure provided by the Assembly has affected the lives of the people in the Municipality.

### **5.2 Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure Projects.**

The previous chapter analysed the distribution of infrastructure in the study area using both primary and secondary data. The conclusion was that distribution of infrastructure is skewed in favour of the urban as against rural communities in the Municipality as expressed by 45.9% of the respondents (refer to Table 4.3).

This section attempts to look at the second objective of the study which is factors that are considered in the distribution of infrastructure in the study area. Information for this section was elicited from the respondents from the selected communities as well as some staff of the Assembly, namely the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE), Municipal Planning Officer (MPO), Municipal Budget Officer (MBO), Municipal Finance Officer (MFO) and two other Municipal Assembly staff. Views expressed by the respondents are captured in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Views of Respondents on Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality**

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
----------------	------------------	----------------

<b>Political</b>	85	59
<b>Economic</b>	17	11.8
<b>Need factor</b>	15	10.4
<b>Population</b>	13	9
<b>Convenience</b>	1	0.7
<b>Acquaintance/familiarity</b>	1	0.7
<b>Missing items</b>	12	8.3
<b>Total</b>	144	100

Source: Field study, 2012.

From Table 5.1, 59 percent of the respondents felt that political considerations influenced the provision and distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality. As stated earlier, the DAs are excessively politicized (Ayee, 1995; Botchie, 2000). This may be due partly to the appointment of the DCE by the President (refer to article 243, clause 1 of the 1992 Constitution) and not more than 30% of Assembly Members (refer to clause 5, 1 D of Act 462 and article 242 clause D of the 1992 Constitution) who are most likely to be members of the ruling party. The Assemblies are therefore sharply divided along political lines such that discussions have political undertone (Botchie, 2000). Botchie (2000) further notes that although the Assembly is supposed to be non-partisan, the DCEs and other top members of the DA continue to exhibit bias in terms of allocation of resources, consultation and impact on the Assembly's decisions. Consequently, the Assembly cannot function as a viable team for the development of the entire district. Ayee (2003), Azeem *et al* (2003) and Crawford (2010) confirm that political interference exist in the selection and distribution of infrastructure among communities in the districts in Ghana. This means that projects generally are embarked upon in certain geographic areas by the Assembly to politically win the support of the populace.

It was realised from the focus group discussions held at Nyameadiso and Suhwenso that local and intra-district political considerations also play a part in the distribution and siting of projects. Usually, the elite, affluent and the influential people in the Municipality

influence the infrastructure distribution process, hence the urban communities which are preferred places for such people attract a lot of the infrastructure projects than the rural communities. They can also influence the exact place where projects are sited in the various communities. In some cases, projects are sited at their convenience, leaving the masses to suffer in utilising them as a result of accessibility problems.

The staff of the Assembly however, think that the needs of the people come first and so the MCE, MPO, MFO and two general office workers of the Assembly stated the ‘need factor’ as the most essential consideration in all cases for the siting of infrastructure projects. Putting the needs of the people first ensures that there is a drift towards equitable distribution of projects than any other consideration which will only result in unfairness in the process. That way, every community gets its basic needs provided, meaning no community gets so much of the infrastructure to the neglect of the others.

### **5.3 Participation in the Infrastructure Development of the Municipality between 2002 and 2012.**

Having analysed the factors underpinning the location and distribution of infrastructure in the previous section, this section seeks to assess the extent to which the people at the grassroots participate in the infrastructure distribution process in the Municipality. For it is through participation that the people get involved in the decision-making processes, implementation of infrastructure development programmes, their sharing in the benefits of the programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes (Adebo, 2000).

Data for this section was obtained primarily from respondents from the selected communities and the selected staff members of the Assembly.

### 5.3.1 Participation of the People in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Selected Communities Between 2002 and 2012.

Generally, the level of participation of the people in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality was low within the period under review. Majority (54.1%) of the respondents sampled for the study from the selected communities answered in the negative to the question of whether or not they were involved in the provision of infrastructure in their communities (Refer to Table 5.2). Azeem *et al.*, (2003) also found out in a study of four districts in Ghana that community members were not often consulted in the selection of projects, which in most cases led to the implementation of projects that were disparate from the felt needs of the people. According to the MPO, several factors account for the limited participation of the people in the provision of infrastructure, paramount of which is the highly technical nature of some of the projects. Such projects to a large extent therefore require technical minds and people with the required expertise to plan, design and execute them. The OECD (2007) notes that using the technical expertise of people to run such projects has advantages that far outweigh the extra cost that goes with them.

The above notwithstanding, there are specific stages in which the respondents reported participating in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality. The stages and the level of respondents' participation have been captured in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2: Participation of the People in the Provision of infrastructure**

Communi- ties	Participation						Stage of participation									
	Yes		No		Total		NI		PF		PI		PH		PA	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Asawinso	30	20.3	48	33	78	53	14	9.5	8	5.4	6	4	3	2	1	0.7
Wiawso	27	18.8	25	17	52	36	11	7.4	11	7.4	4	2.7	2	1.4	1	0.7
Nyameadiso	4	2.8	3	2.1	7	4.9	2	1.4	1	0.7	-	-	-	-	1	0.7
Suhwenso	5	3.5	2	2	7	5.5	3	2	1	0.7	-	-	-	-	1	0.7
<b>Total / (%)</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>(45.4)</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>(54.1)</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>(100)</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>(20.3)</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>(14.2)</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>(6.8)</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>(3.8)</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>(2.7)</b>

Source: Field Study (2012)

### **Key to Table 5.2**

NI	Need Identification
PF	Project Formulation
PI	Project Implementation
PH	Public Hearing
PA	Plan Approval

Table 5.2 reveals that 64.3 percent of the respondents from rural communities (taking the population of Nyameadiso and Suhwenso to stand alone) in the study said they do participate in the provision of infrastructure in their communities as against 43.9 percent of the urban population (taking the population of Wiawso and Asawinso to stand alone and not as a fraction of the sample size). As it is the case in many parts of the country, infrastructure projects in urban areas are in most cases given out fully on contract with little or no involvement of the people (Dulleck and Jianpei, 2011). However, in the rural areas, projects are partly given on contract with the people in most cases providing labour. This enables the people participate in the process, and hence make the project more community-owned (Focus Group Discussion at Nyameadiso, 2012).

*“When the school building was being constructed, the women carried water, blocks and the men carried the mortar”*, a middle-aged man noted at a focus group discussion at Nyameadiso. Sandro (2002) identified that when it comes to participation, most people in rural settings provide labour, sometimes in return for material incentives.

The MCE and the Planning Officer of the Assembly however stated that the people in the suburbs of the settlements where projects are sited are assembled, briefed and their ideas and views are sought throughout the process, from the conception of projects to their completion. The view of the respondents therefore cannot be accurate.

Table 5.2 again reveals that 47.3 percent of the respondents participated in the provision and distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality within the period under review. Thirty

(30) out of 70 (representing 43%) respondents who answered in the affirmative were involved at the need identification stage of the projects. This is so because the development planning process at district and community levels starts with the participation of local communities in the identification of problems and determination of their needs and aspirations (ISODEC, 2004). Fifty six percent (56%) of the rural respondents who participated in the provision of infrastructure also did so at the need identification stage as against 41% of the urban respondents. The rural communities in the Municipality have a gamut of needs, some of which are critical. Due to the limited resources of the Assembly resulting in its inability to provide all those needs, the people in the rural communities are always called upon or are consulted more than those in the urban centres in the identification of such needs that they would want the Assembly provide.

During focus group discussion in the rural communities, it was confirmed by discussants that most of the interactions they have had with the Assembly with regard to infrastructure projects have happened at the need identification stage. The discussants intimated that they always want the most pressing needs met before any other ones, and so the ideal time they are consulted by Assembly in most cases is when the search is on for what infrastructure to provide.

*After, we may or may not be brought into the picture again depending on the type of project. In most cases when we are needed after the first phase, it is the leaders of the community who attend to such calls. The whole community can be asked sometimes to provide communal labour if it is say a school building project", a middle-aged woman in Suhwenso stated.*

### **5.3.2 Participation and Information Dissemination about Infrastructure Projects**

One of the resources for participation is information (Ofei- Aboagye, 2006 cited in Agyeman-Duah 2008) and indeed communication and information flow are essential for

participation and participatory capacity of the people (Armah, 2009). The study therefore sought to find out how informed the people are about infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly.

The study revealed that majority (69.3%) of the respondents have ever been informed about infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly (refer to table 5.3).

**Table 5.3: Participation and Information Dissemination about Infrastructure Projects**

Communi- ties	Informed				Source of information									
	Yes		No		Assembl yman		Chief		Assembly Officials		Unit Comm.Mem bers		Others	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Fre	%	Freq	%	Fre	%	Freq	%
<b>Asawinso</b>	52	38	29	19.3	34	22.7	1	0.7	4	2.6	15	10	0	0
<b>Wiawso</b>	39	26	15	10	29	19.3	2	1.3	1	0.7	6	4	1	0.7
<b>Nyameadiso</b>	6	4	1	0.7	5	3.3	0	0	0	0	1	0.7	0	0
<b>Suhwenso</b>	7	4.7	0	0	2	1.3	0	0	1	0.7	4	2.6	0	0
<b>Total/ (%)</b>	104 (69.3)		45 (30)		70 (46.7)		3 (2)		6 (4)		26 (17.3)		1 (0.7)	

Source: Field study (2012)

If the rural population in the study stands alone, ninety three percent (93%) of them are informed about projects undertaken by the Assembly as against 67 % of the urban population. This means that both the rural and urban dwellers are informed adequately about infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly. However, the rural dwellers are a little more informed about projects than urban dwellers. This may be due to the communal nature and the smallness of the sizes of rural communities which make information dissemination faster and better than urban settlements.

Assemblymen are the dominant (47 percent) source of information about projects undertaken by the Assembly. They (the Assembly members), according to Agyemang

(2010), are closer and are seen to be the hub of information for the people they represent at the Assembly. They are also duty-bound to inform the people they represent on decisions of the Assembly and provide adequate information about their particular community to the Assembly (Ofei-Aboagye, 2006).

The Assembly Members in both rural and urban communities are relevant in the dissemination of information about projects undertaken by the Assembly as expressed by the respondents. This finding finds expression in Act 462 clause 16 (1, e) which mandates Assembly Members to \_report to the electorate the general decisions of the Assembly and its executive committee ...'. Yankson (2008) also found out from a study in the Gomoa District that the District Assembly Members are the main source of information and contact point between the communities and the Assembly. The Assembly Members in the rural settlement however are a little more important (50%) than those in urban settlements in the dissemination of information from the Assembly (46%) because according to the MCE, in an interview, the rural communities do not have any other means of getting information or having their views on issues heard by the Assembly apart from the Assembly members, unlike the urban communities which can rely on many sources, including a more direct contact with radio stations. It could also be attributed to the communal nature of the rural communities which always demands a bit more visible, active leader to mobilise the people for communal activities.

In a focus group discussion on this issue at Kwasipatabo, a suburb of Wiawso however, the participants expressed a contrary view to that of the respondents. The participants intimated that their Assembly Member had not been performing the duties he is supposed to perform such as meeting them regularly on happenings at the Assembly and to listen and carry their problems to the Assembly. The study by Yankson (2008) also revealed the

communities only occasionally met with their Assembly members and only to be informed by the Assembly members of any development project earmarked for their communities.

### **5.3.3 Provision of Specific Infrastructure and Respondents Participation -between 2002 and 2012**

As part of an attempt to assess the extent to which respondents participate in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality, respondents' views on the kinds of projects, specific activities they carried out and the level of satisfaction they obtained in the participatory process were sought. Appendix 1 shows the views of respondents.

Majority (54.3 percent out of 70) reported having participated in road construction. Binswanger and Barnes(1989) note that participation of the people in the provision of serviceable roads not only increases agricultural productivity but also reduces costs of inputs and outputs and supports the emergence of small businesses in rural areas. Eighty nine percent (89.4%) of those who reported having participated in road construction come from urban communities. Specific activity that they carried out in the participatory process is communal labour. According to the Planning Officer, because there was restriction on government funding for the provision of infrastructure and social services, the Assembly encourages the people to provide labour as local counterpart funds for certain projects.

In a similar study in the New Juaben Municipality, Agyemang (2010) found out that the involvement of the community in the provision of health and educational infrastructure was mostly limited to provision of communal labour, especially on projects which were not on contract. It was however found out in a focus group discussion at Asawinso that those who were involved in the construction of the roads were rather employed as construction hands and not as communal labourers. The discussants unanimously also indicated that some of the people whose lands lie near the road were involved in the road construction since their lands were swallowed up by the road or had their lands used as

sources of filling materials – a situation that called for constant consultation and negotiation between the people concerned and the executors of the project. The people couldn't have provided communal labour or financial contribution or any other support apart from views expressed through the Assembly Members since road projects are always fully given out on contract, the MCE explained.

According to 33% out of 70 respondents, they participated in the provision of educational infrastructure during the period under review. Out of this, 70% of them were respondents from the two urban communities – namely Asawinso and Wiawso. Again, communal labour was the main activity they reported having provided toward the provision of educational infrastructure. This is no surprise judging from the fact that education is regarded as the key to development and that it is a factor that stimulates economic growth (Yoshino and Nakahigashi, 2000). The participation of the people in the provision of educational infrastructure was confirmed at a focus group discussion –

*the whole community can be asked sometimes to provide communal labour if it is say a school building project, else we do not come in again after the phase of searching for what project to undertake-* a middle-aged woman in Suhwenso stated. Project that the people least participated in is agriculture (according to 2.9% out of 70 respondents). This is so because, as seen from table 4.5, agriculture received the least support from the Assembly, according to 18.7% of the respondents. This confirms the finding of Zhao and Kanamori (2007) in a study in China, that due to low investment in agriculture, the involvement of the people in agriculture-related issues had been also low.

#### **5.3.4 Participation in the Distribution of Infrastructure and how the People Benefit**

In a bid to fully analyse participation and all its dimensions as an objective of the study, respondents' views on benefits of participation were sought. The respondents gave varied

reasons for participating in the developmental activities of the Assembly and these views have been captured in Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4: Participation and how the People Benefit**

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Project ownership by communities	5	4.6
Community needs are prioritised	15	13.8
Leads to provision of infrastructure	48	44
Improve living condition	8	7.3
Mobilisation of local resources	27	24.8
No benefit	6	5.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2012.

From Table 5.4, 44 percent of the respondents who answered that question were of the view that participation in the development activities of the Assembly leads to the provision of infrastructure. Oakley *et al.*, (1999) concluded in a study on the benefits of participation that the critical needs of the people are satisfied when they participate in the activities of the Assemblies. Staff of the Assembly namely the MCE, MFO, MBO and the MPO however believe that community ownership, sustainability and utilisation of infrastructure so provided are at the heart of participation in all its forms.

### 5.3.5 Participation in the Distribution of Infrastructure and Level of Satisfaction of the People

Table 5.5 depicts the level of satisfaction of respondents in the selected communities from participating in the infrastructure development process in the Municipality.

**Table 5.5: Satisfaction with Community Participation**

Communities	Very satisfied		Satisfied		Unsatisfied		Very Unsatisfied		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Asawinso	6	4.2	17	11.8	43	30	12	8.3	78	54.3

Wiawso	53.5		8	5.6	31	21.5	8	5.6	52	36.2
Nyameadiso	1	0.7	1	0.7	2	1.4	3	2.1	7	4.7
Suhwenso	-	-	-	-	75		-	--	7	4.7
Total (%)	12	(8.4)	26	(18.1)	83	(57.9)	23	(16)	144	(100)

Source: Field Study, 2012

From Table 5.5, 73.9 percent of the respondents are not satisfied with their level of participation in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality. Out of this, 89 percent are from the urban communities as against 11 percent from the rural communities. This implies that Interest, sense of ownership, maintenance and sustainability of projects would be affected. The people in urban communities for instance hardly organise themselves for any communal and self-help activities. In the rural areas however, due to their communal and homogeneous nature, they usually are involved directly in most of the projects that are undertaken by Assembly, hence their low level of dissatisfaction.

The rest (29.4%) however are satisfied with their level of participation in the development activities of the Assembly. Leoprapai (1997) found out in a similar study that the people were satisfied with the level at which the local authority allowed them to participate in its activities. This way, the people feel an integral part of the project and hence maintenance and sustainability will be assured (Sana, 2011).

#### **5.4 Effects of Infrastructure Projects on the Living Conditions of the People in the Municipality**

Development projects wherever they are undertaken are expected to create one effect or the other. They are mostly aligned along the lines of satisfying the critical needs of the various communities with the ultimate object of improving the living condition of the

people (Yoshino and Nakahigashi, 2000). However, the effect of infrastructure has often been less than anticipated, especially because of inadequate attention to governance and institutional frameworks. ‘White elephant’ infrastructure projects are far from unknown.

In view of the above, the study had an object of assessing the living conditions of respondents from the selected communities and the extent to which such projects have affected the lives of the people in the Municipality.

#### 5.4.1 Living Conditions of Respondents Before Infrastructure Projects were Undertaken

Table 4.7 on page 79 provides a summary of the views of respondents on infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly in the selected communities. As noted earlier the sole aim of all infrastructure projects is to better the lot or improve the living conditions of the beneficiaries. Table 5.6 presents a summary of the living conditions of the respondents before the Assembly provided the communities with any of the infrastructure under review such as road, educational infrastructure, electricity and potable water.

**Table 5.6: Living Condition of Respondents Before Infrastructure was Provided**

Communities	Living condition of respondents									
	Very good		Good		Very Bad		Bad		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Asawinso	1	0.8	10	7.6	13	9.8	19	14.4	42	31.8
Wiawso	1	0.8	9	6.8	14	10.6	17	12.9	41	31.1
Nyameadiso	0	0	0	0	13	9.8	12	9.1	25	18.9
Suhwenso	0	0	0	0	13	9.8	11	8.3	24	18.2
Total (%)	2 (1.6)		19 (14.4)		52 (39.4)		59 (44.7)		132 (100)	

Source: Field work (2012)

Generally, the living condition of the respondents before the Assembly provided them with certain infrastructure such as road, electricity, potable water and educational infrastructure was bad. Over all, 84.1 percent of the respondents indicated they had no better living condition before any of the infrastructure under review was provided in their communities by the Assembly. Eghan (2008) similarly found out that the living condition of certain communities in the Asante-Akim South District was poor before the rolling out of the Village Infrastructure Project. Almost sixty three percent (62.9%) of those who answered that question are from the urban communities while 37.1 percent of them come from the rural communities in the study. The indication here is that the people have lived in a state of deprivation for years and that their crave or demand for social amenities have not been met.

Sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents reported having good living condition before the Assembly provided their communities with the infrastructure under review. All these respondents come from the urban communities in this study. In most countries including Ghana, the urban centres are populated by elites and wealthy business people who could afford certain basic necessities in life without waiting or relying on the Assembly to provide them (the infrastructure). Such people are likely to answer in the affirmative any question regarding their living condition, even before their area authorities make any attempt to provide such necessities, hence the situation in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality as shown in Table 5.6.

#### **5.4.2 Living Condition of Respondents After Infrastructure Projects Between 2002**

**and 2012**

With the advent of infrastructure projects by the Assembly, ninety percent (90%) of the respondents who answered the question of whether or not there has been any change in their living condition responded in the affirmative (refer to Table 5.7). This finds expression in Encarta (2010) that the living condition of people is partly a function of the infrastructure they enjoy. Fifty-seven percent (50%) of the respondents indicated that road infrastructure has helped improve their living condition more than the other infrastructure. Road transport is the dominant mode of motorised transportation in Africa, accounting for 80 per cent of the goods traffic and 90 per cent passenger traffic on the continent. Considerable attention has therefore been devoted to roads because of the perception that they will ineluctably help improve the living condition of the people, especially those in the rural areas (UN Habitat, 2011). Roads contribute significantly to long-run growth in Africa (Estache *et al.*, 2006); lowering transaction costs, raising girls school attendance (MDG II/III), improving access to hospitals and medication and fostering international connectivity (UN Habitat, 2011); enhances opportunities in nonagricultural activities and non-farm activities resulting in high agricultural wages and aggregate crop indices (Lokshin and Yemtsov, 2004). No wonder the respondents reported improvement in their living condition mainly aided by the provision of road.

In the study communities, respondents from Asawinso and Wiawso in a focus group discussion reported having seen improvement in their economic activities as a result of the provision of electricity and good road network. At the FGD at Wiawso, it came to light that incidence of diseases associated with dust such as catarrh has gone down. The discussants also reported stagnation or reduction in the rate at which fares were increased.

*“The tarring of the trunk road linking Wiawso and Asawinso has helped halt the astronomical fares charged by commercial vehicle owners, thereby reducing the cost of living in Asawinso” (FGD, Asawinso, 2012).*

It was indicated at FGDs at Nyameadiso and Suhwenso that the boreholes provided by the Assembly have eased their burden of having to walk long distances, especially in the dry season, in search of water. It was also reported at Suhwenso that the school building has made education available to them.

The respondents (50%) who indicated road infrastructure as the most important project that has helped improve their living condition are exclusively urban dwellers. Rather, improvement in the living condition of the respondents from the rural communities has been caused by the provision of borehole (a source of good drinking water). Forty-three percent (43%) of the respondents from the rural communities in this study reported having improved living condition over the last decade as a result of the provision of potable water. The UN Habitat (2011) describes water as one of the critical needs for economic development, emphasising that access to water is a necessary precursor to development and other desirable MDG goals, (namely health, education, nutritional, employment and income outcomes), without which time spent on water collection, household income spent on medical treatment and water purchase will contribute to the lowering of the people’s standard of living.

**Table 5.7: Views of Respondents on the Effect of Infrastructure Provision on their Living Condition Between 2002 and 2012**

	Response	Road	Edu. Infras.	Market	Borehole	Electricity.	Agric.	Total
Asawinso	Yes	32	14	2	3	3	1	55
Wiawso		29	10	2	1	1	-	43

<b>Nyameadiso</b>		-	1	-	3	-	-	4
<b>Suhwenso</b>		-	1	-	3	-	1	5
<b>Total</b>		61	26	4	10	4	2	107
<b>Asawinso</b>	No	1	2	-	-	1	-	4
<b>Wiawso</b>		2	1	-	-	1	-	4
<b>Nyameadiso</b>		2	-	-	-	-	1	3
<b>Suhwenso</b>		2	-	-	-	-	-	2
<b>Total</b>		7	3	-	-	2	1	13

Source: Field Study, 2012

As it was indicated by 6.8 percent of the respondents that agricultural infrastructure has seen the least investment (refer to table 4.7), it was also to be expected that same will be indicated in respect of its effect on the living condition of the people. As expected, 1.6 percent of the respondents intimated that the contribution of agriculture to improving the living condition of the people has been low. These respondents might have perceived the issue of agriculture only from the perspective of infrastructure. But there is more to agriculture than just investment in infrastructure. Agriculture is a key component of development in the Municipality constituting the main source of livelihood for about 80 percent of the people in the Municipality (Ahenkan and Boon 2011). Support for agriculture (such as subsidies on inputs, extension services, introduction of modern technology and other infrastructure support systems) which Bird *et al.*, (2011) maintain is an important ingredient in policies for fostering broad-based and pro-poor economic development in districts where more than half – and often close to 75 per cent of the population still mainly depend on agriculture for their livelihoods, is expected to be massive. Indeed, the Municipality has been a beneficiary of many agricultural interventions embarked upon by the government of Ghana. The claim by 6.8 percent of the respondents (refer to Table 4.7) that agriculture has seen the least investment and that of the 1.6 percent that agriculture has had low effect on the living condition of the people cannot therefore be entirely accurate. For improvement in agriculture and all facets of it

creates employment, improves income levels and living conditions of practitioners (Bird *et al.*, 2011); improves food security, boosts demand for local products and creates conditions for rapid growth of the economy, and also improves rural livelihood in a sustainable fashion (UN, 2010).

In all, 10% of the respondents were however of the view that there has not been any change in their living conditions after infrastructure projects had been provided for them (refer to Table 5.7). From Table 5.7, 29 percent of the rural respondents sampled for this study indicated that the road network in their communities had been very poor within the period under study. Even though there are other infrastructure that have not been provided in the rural communities, they think the poor road network is more their concern than the others. This confirms Ayee's (2003) finding that most of the roads in the rural areas are deplorable, especially in wet seasons. At a focus group discussion in one of the two rural communities, this is how a middle-aged woman captured it:

*„our roads have been that poor for years. It has not seen any maintenance works for a very long time now. During dry seasons, they appear bumpy and dusty. Sometimes, especially during rainy seasons, vehicles get stuck forcing the community members to go and pull them. In some cases, the road is blocked completely cutting our community off from the rest of the country”* (Focus Group Discussion, 2012).

In reaction to the provision of infrastructure in the study, the DCE hinted that the Assembly does not have the wherewithal and the resources to embark upon such projects such as the construction of long stretches of road in the Municipality. The same view was expressed by Asenso-Okyere *et al.*, (1997) that infrastructure that are of crucial importance to the local economy such as roads, water and electricity are normally not within the capacity of the Assemblies.

### **5.4.3 Aspect of Living Condition Affected by Infrastructure Projects Between 2002 and 2012**

The aspects of respondents' living conditions the provision of infrastructure has affected have been categorised into three broad areas namely social, political and economic.

‘Social’ is used here to mean the kind of relationship and interaction between the people, as well as the comfort and joy they find in their various communities. ‘Political’ is used to mean all issues relating to leadership within households, families and communities; kingship and how they have been awakened to their civic rights and responsibilities, as well as the voice and influence they have in decision-making in their respective communities. ‘Economic’ means all issues to do with business and monetary transactions, buying and selling, production, distribution and consumption at all levels. Appendix 2 presents the various aspects of the living conditions of respondents affected by infrastructure projects between 2002 and 2012.

Social effect is the highest as indicated by 60 percent of the respondents who answered the question. Cheru (2010) maintains that investment in infrastructure improves the social well being of citizens. The improvement in the social lives of the people mainly occurred after the provision of road. The greatest social impact of infrastructure was recorded in Suhwenso where 57% of the sample population from that community expressed that view. To them their priority need has been met and that all water related challenges such as water-borne diseases, water quality, water availability and affordability, water storage and time spent in searching for water have also been effectively dealt with. According to the UN Habitat (2011), access to water and sanitation is a necessary precursor to other forms of development, especially in achieving the Millennium Development Goal of halving the estimated 1.1 billion people without access to safe drinking water by 2015.

Wiaenso has benefited economically from the infrastructure provided by the Assembly over the last ten years than the other communities in the study, as indicated by 31.5 percent of the respondents from that community. This is mainly due to the construction of roads in the township (the view of 20 percent of its respondents). Table 4.1 gives the indication that it is the only town in the Municipality which has tarred internal roads. Even so, plans are in the offing to construct another 11.5 kilometres of Wiaenso Town

Roads' within the framework of a 5-Year Western Regional Development Plan (SWDA, 2011). Estache *et al.*, (2005) observe that the strongest effect of infrastructure investments comes from roads followed by telecommunications and electricity. Investment in roads therefore leads to poverty reduction, income generation, lower transaction/transport costs, labour/employment opportunities, industrial growth and market development (UN Habitat, 2011). Thus, at a focus group discussion at Somaakrom, a suburb of Wiaenso, the discussants were elated about the fact that major roads in the township had been tarred and those in their precinct were then under construction as part of the 11.5 kilometres Wiaenso Town Roads. , ,

*We now have our road. Dust and mud are over. We can now sit or sell by the road side without any fear of dust or mud,* said a middle-aged man with joy.

Political effect of infrastructure on the living condition of the people is the least as indicated by 14 percent of the respondents who answered that question. Infrastructure empowers people politically with the attendant positive effects on efficient use of national resources (UN Habitat, 2011). Political influence came out more in Asawenso than the other communities as indicated by 15 percent of the respondents from that community. This could be attributed to the earlier finding that 88 percent of the entire sample who reported having participated in road construction (9 out of 12 respondents who constitute the

15 percent fall under road) come from urban communities (and Asawinso is one of the urban communities in this study). This gives respondents the feeling that they have the influence and voice in their community when it comes to decision making, hence the view that the infrastructure provided by the Assembly has politically impacted their living condition.

## **5.5 Conclusion**

District Assemblies are undoubtedly the pivot around which infrastructure development is centred in the country and at the grassroots. This fact has been well documented in the Constitution of the Republic of Ghana and other enactments of Parliament.

It can be concluded that the distribution of infrastructure across the rural and urban dichotomy in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality has not been equitably executed by the Assembly. The distribution is unfairly skewed in favour of the urban areas in the Municipality, leaving the rural areas to wallow in abject deprivation. In the distribution process, the study can conclude that party political considerations are the main factors that determine the siting and location of infrastructure projects. The level of participation of the people in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality has been lower than expected. This implies that the critical needs of the people are not met in most cases. However, the infrastructure provided has an appreciable level of effect on the living condition of the people.

## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Introduction

This section presents the key findings, conclusion and recommendations from the study. Though the study was conducted at the district level, some of the findings and recommendations have policy implications which might be of relevance to central government in the formulation of new, and review of existing policies on decentralisation, rural development and the concept of district assembly.

#### 6.2 Findings

The major findings of the study are centred on the distribution pattern of infrastructure projects in the Municipality, factors that influence the pattern of distribution, the level of participation of the people at the grassroots and the effects of the infrastructure projects on the living conditions of the people.

##### 6.2.1 Distribution of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality

The analysis of the issues relating to the distribution pattern of infrastructure revealed that: Distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality is skewed in favour of the urban communities. This view was expressed by a segment of the respondents (45.9%). All the informants were however of the view that infrastructure has been fairly distributed. The view of the Assembly staff is supported by 37 percent of respondents. However, majority of the respondents who said the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality has been fairly done are from urban communities which relatively have a reasonably fair amount of the infrastructure under study (good roads, educational infrastructure, good drinking water, market, electricity and agricultural infrastructure).

Even though the Assembly is expected to provide a wide range of infrastructure in the various communities, educational infrastructure dominates (68%) those so far provided by the Assembly between 2002 and 2012. The urban communities have seen more of the educational infrastructure (the view of 97% of the respondents who ticked educational infrastructure) than the rural communities. Agricultural infrastructure has received the least support from the Assembly within the period under review, according to 6.8 percent of the respondents, but this can only hold if the assistance due agriculture is seen from the perspective of infrastructure.

### **6.2.2 Factors Influencing the Siting of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality**

The following were the findings after analysis of the considerations or factors that influence the distribution pattern of infrastructure in the Municipality:

Party political consideration is stronger (59%) than the other factors that influence the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality. This, as explained in the preceding chapter, is to do with the party political stance and voting pattern of the people. Intradistrict politics was also cited at focus group discussions, in which the elite, affluent and influential members of the various communities determine the siting and pattern of infrastructure distribution in the Municipality. Officials of the Assembly however think that the distribution of infrastructure is done with the aim of satisfying the needs of the various communities and that the 'need factor' is what is followed in the process.

### **6.2.3 Participation in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Municipality.**

The following observations were made after data on the provision of infrastructure and the level of participation were analysed:

Generally, the level of participation of respondents in the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality between 2002 and 2012 is low, as expressed by 54.1 percent of the

respondents. However, the participation level of rural communities in the distribution/provision of infrastructure in the Municipality is higher (64.3%) than the urban communities (44%).

Forty seven percent (45.1%) of the respondents however participates in the infrastructure development process in the Municipality, but mainly at the needs identification stage. This view is also shared by the MCE and the MPO of the Assembly. They however believe that the people are involved in the process all the way through and not mainly at the need identification stage.

With regard to information on infrastructure projects which is a key resource for participation, it was revealed that majority (69.3%) of the respondents have ever been informed about infrastructure projects undertaken by the Assembly within the period under review, albeit mainly at the initial stage - the need identification stage. All the respondents from the Assembly agree with the community respondents, except to say that they (the beneficiary communities) are informed every step of the way.

Assemblymen are more relevant in the information dissemination process (47%), but more so in the rural areas (50% of rural respondents).

Majority (88%) of the respondents from urban communities reported participating in the provision of road projects. They mainly provide communal labour through the participation process, but the MCE disputed that claim.

Participation in the distribution of infrastructure indeed leads to the provision of the infrastructure needs of the people which represents the view of 44% of the respondents. Staff of the Assembly namely the MCE, MFO, MBO and the MPO however believe that community ownership, sustainability and utilisation of infrastructure so provided are at the heart of participation in all its forms. A small proportion of the respondents (5.5%) was of

the view that the communities do not benefit in any way from participating in the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality due to ‘elite capture’.

The level of satisfaction of the respondents in the participatory process between 2002 and 2012 is low. That was the view of 70.6 percent of the respondents, majority of whom are from the urban communities.

#### **6.2.4 Effects of Infrastructure Projects on the Living Conditions of the People**

The following observations were made on the effects of infrastructure projects on the living condition of the people:

On the whole, 84.1 percent of the respondents reported that their living conditions were bad prior to the advent of the infrastructure provided by the Assembly. The poor living condition was found more in the urban than the rural communities. Road was reported to reduce the standard of living of the people more than any other infrastructure that was absent.

There was modest improvement (according to 90% of the respondents) in the living condition of the people after the Assembly provided the communities with infrastructure, mostly road projects. Road helped improve the living condition of mainly urban dwellers between 2002 and 2012 due to skewness in its distribution in favour of urban communities in the Municipality. In the rural areas however, it was borehole (potable water) that mostly helped improve the living condition of the people.

Road projects affected heavily the social lives of the people in the communities where the study was carried out. The other effect of road was economic, and it was observed in Wiawso.

### 6.3 Conclusions

The implementation of the decentralised governance system in Ghana is to ensure effective development and to enhance grassroots participation in the provision of basic infrastructure and services that improve the quality of life of the people. This is depicted graphically by the conceptual framework in chapter two. The framework further indicates that for effective implementation of the decentralisation policy, district assemblies are designated as planning authorities vested with deliberative, legislative and executive powers and charged with the responsibility of ensuring total development at the district level. Among them is the provision of infrastructure.

The study has revealed that the Assembly has shown commitment towards providing the communities with infrastructure such as road, potable water, educational infrastructure, electricity and market. However, the commitment is not without bias. The distribution process has favoured the urban centres so much so that the rural areas are always left to complain.

The Assembly has also tried meeting the needs of the communities equitably. This has not been successful as party political considerations that usually come into play in the distribution process eventually alter the distribution process. The skewness is also caused by certain elements within certain communities, who by their influence are able to change the destination of infrastructure projects.

The study also revealed the low level of participation of the people in the infrastructure distribution process. This situation defeats the very essence of decentralisation whose bedrock is grassroot participation. The study has shown that when the people partake in infrastructure distribution processes, they get their critical infrastructure needs met as depicted on the second level of the conceptual framework.

Infrastructure provided by the Assembly has had moderate effects on the living condition of the people, especially their social lives. This means that the provision of infrastructure, which is a core mandate of district assemblies in Ghana, has the tendency to improve the living condition of people. Providing infrastructure therefore can contribute to the attainment of rural development ends as depicted by the conceptual framework.

## **6.4 Recommendations**

### **6.4.1 Introduction**

In the light of the analysis, findings and conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations are made:

### **6.4.2 Distribution of Infrastructure Projects in the Municipality.**

The Assembly should first and foremost make it a policy to distribute infrastructure equitably between urban and rural communities in the Municipality. Policies that focus on providing infrastructure in the rural areas in order to unleash the potential of those areas should be pursued vigorously by the Assembly. Critical needs assessment should be carried out by the Assembly to ascertain the needs of the various communities in order to prioritise them. This will mean that the ‘Need Factor’ (the factor that takes the largest percentage of the entire DACF purposely to address the imbalance in development and infrastructure among the districts) should be applied by the Assembly in the infrastructure distribution process. The Assembly can do so in collaboration with, and with support from the numerous cocoa, timber and mining firms operating in the Municipality, mostly in the rural underserved areas. Even though these firms pay royalties, they could be appealed to or asked to do more by providing counterpart funding for infrastructure projects or fund projects single-handedly as part of their corporate social responsibilities. This will help bridge the infrastructure gap between urban and rural areas in the Municipality

Considering the agrarian nature of the Municipality, it will be prudent on the part of the Assembly to focus more on providing agricultural infrastructure and service (without neglecting other infrastructure) such as irrigation schemes, cloud seeding technology, silos and other storage facilities, farmer-friendly land tenure systems, creation and maintenance of agro-based markets. Roads leading to farm gates should be maintained by the Assembly to enhance the evacuation of farm produce to the market. This will help achieve 'agriculture-related' rural development.

#### **6.4.3 Factors that Influence the Distribution of Infrastructure**

Certain practices in the democratic system of Ghana such as the nomination of the MCE and appointment of one-third of the Assembly members by the President over the years have created some impression in the minds of party people at the grassroots that the District Assemblies are an extension of their political parties. To avoid an overlap in the functions of the Assembly and the political parties, and political interferences in the activities of the Assembly such as distribution of infrastructure, therefore the relationship between the Municipal Assembly and the political parties should be clearly defined.

With regard to internal political interferences and 'elite capture', the Assembly should always resort to considered projects, especially those that have been captured in its development plan so as not to succumb to such pressures. The elites and the affluent in the Municipality should be encouraged to work through their respective Assembly Members to get their desired projects captured in the development plan of the Assembly.

The elite and affluent in the Municipality should also be encouraged to establish or relocate some of their activities to the rural underserved communities. This way, they will be active in the pursuit for infrastructure projects for those communities. They will also serve as reference and attraction point for more infrastructure and other people who may want to

settle in such communities. This will eventually reduce the urban bias nature of infrastructure provision in the Municipality since their influence which they used to attract infrastructure project into the urban communities will now shift unto the rural communities.

The Assembly should create enabling environment in the underdeveloped areas in the Municipality to serve as attraction to bring about even development. The Assembly can collaborate with central government to create free zone enclave, grant tax concessions, grant licenses and help entrepreneurs with such licenses secure the required lands for small scale or agro-based industries in rural areas. These industries will serve as pull as well as motivating factors for people to settle in such places.

#### **6.4.4 Participation in the Provision of Infrastructure in the Municipality**

The District Assembly concept which is based on participation in decision-making should provide an enabling environment for the people to be indeed involved in the infrastructure development process, using the participatory and transformative approach.

The people in the Municipality should be educated by the Assembly, in collaboration with other state agencies operating in the Municipality such as the National Commission on Civic Education (NCCE), on the roles they are enjoined to play by various legislative enactments in the development process, especially their participation in the infrastructure development process.

The Assembly must organise regular community fora at the community level through the Assembly and Unit Committee Members to brief the people on the activities of the Assembly and central government policies and programmes.

Officials of the Assembly must organise community tours to various communities in the Municipality to interact with the people, to appreciate and understand their problems and concerns at first hand and to plan appropriate interventions to address them.

The best way to ensure participation of the people in the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality is to let them identify their own needs. This will prepare the people for subsequent steps involved in the participation process. It will also make the infrastructure so provided, functional, useful and not disparate from the felt needs of the people.

The Assembly Members should be well resourced and remunerated to enable them carry out their duties of representing their people at the Assembly and disseminating information about happenings in the Assembly, especially to the rural communities.

The Assembly and Unit Committee Members should endeavor to mobilise the people for communal labour in support of infrastructure projects provided by the Assembly as some sort of counterpart funding. This will ensure maintenance, sustainability and community ownership of projects.

Other measures such as effective leadership from the various communities, reward for participants, punishment for defaulters of communal labour (fine), re-orientation of the people and tolerance on the part of Assembly staff of the views of the masses will go a long way to ensure active participation of the people in the provision of infrastructure in the Municipality.

#### **6.4.5 Effects of Infrastructure Provision on the Living Conditions of the People**

District assemblies are the agencies that are in close relationship with the people at the grassroots and their activities most directly affect the lives of the poor and people at the local level. It is manifestly clear from the study that the infrastructure provided by the

Assembly has had positive effect on the living conditions of the residents in the Municipality.

The Assembly should involve the various beneficiary communities especially in the area of selecting their development priorities, and subsequently throughout the rest of the stages. The exact location of infrastructure facilities in the communities should also be of prime concern to the Assembly. For projects that are wrongly situated do not yield the required benefit to the people as accessibility and utilisation may be problematic. Regularly monitoring the effect of projects embarked upon could provide a guide as to what, when and where to site such projects.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Adebo, S (2000) Participatory Rural Appraisal. Zed Books. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia Page 4-6.
- Agyemang, M (2010) An Investigation into the Effects of Ghanaian Decentralised Development System in The Provision of Health And Educational Infrastructure: The case of the New Juaben Municipality. M.SC Thesis Kumasi Page 36-50.
- Agyeman-Duah (2008) Governance in the Fourth Republic. Digibooks Ghana Ltd. Ghana. Page 5-20
- Ahenkan, A and Boon, E (2011) Improving Nutrition and Health Non-Timber Forest Products in Ghana. Vrije Universiteit. Belgium. Page 2.
- Ambrosio-Albalá, M and Bastiaensen, J (2010) The new territorial paradigm of rural development: Theoretical foundations from systems and institutional theories. Belgium University of Antwerp. Page 50.

- Appiah, F (2000) Fiscal Decentralisation and sub-National Government Finance in Relation to Infrastructure And Service Provision in Ghana. National Association of Local Authorities of Denmark (NALAD) and CDD-Ghana. Ghana. Page 8-20
- Armah, F.A. (2009) The gap between Theory And Practice of Stakeholder Participation: The case of Management of The Korle Lagoon, Ghana. Law Environment and Development (LEAD) Journal Vol. I. Switzerland. Page.1-21; 87.
- Aryee, R.A. (2005) Decentralisation and Poverty Reduction. Ghana University Press. Ghana Page 3-25.
- Asante, F.A (2003) Economic Analysis of Decentralisation in Rural Ghana. Peter Laing. Germany. Page 6-9.
- Ashley, C. and Maxwell, S (2001) Rethinking Rural Development. Rural Development Policy Review. UK. Page 19.
- Asia Research Centre (2001) Decentralisation and Development Cooperation: Issues for Donors. The Australian Agency For International Development (Ausaid). Australia. Page 7-73
- Auditor General (2008) Transmittal Letter – Consolidated Report on Special Audits into the Operations of District Assemblies, 2001-2004. MLGRD. Accra. Page 17.
- AU and NEPAD Agency (2011) Infrastructure Development as a Catalyst for Economic Growth in Africa. Africa Partnership Forum. Ethiopia. Page 1 -5.
- AU (2003) Assembly of the AU: 2nd Ordinary Session, Maputo, Mozambique Page 23
- Ayee, J.R.A. (2003) —Local Government, Decentralization And State Capacity In Ghana, In Wisdom Tettey, K.P. Puplampu & Bruce Berman (Eds.) *Critical Perspectives On Politics And Socio-Economic Development In Ghana* (Leiden: Brill), Chapter 2: 45-81
- Ayee, J.R.A. (1995) "Financing Sub national Governments In Ghana: The Case Of The

- District Assemblies' Common Fund", *Regional And Federal Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 3: (Autumn): 292-306.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (1996). The Measurement Of Decentralisation: The Ghanaian Experience, *African Affairs*, Vol. 95, No. 378: 31-50.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (1997) "The Adjustment Of Central Bodies To Decentralisation: The Case Of The Ghanaian Bureaucracy", *African Studies Review*, Vol. 40, No. 2 (September): 37-57.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (1997) "Local Government Reform And Bureaucratic Accountability", *Regional Development Dialogue*, (UNCRD, Nagoya, Japan), Vol. 18, No. 2 (Autumn):86-104.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (2000), Decentralisation and Good Governance in Ghana, unpublished paper of May 2000 prepared for the Canadian High Commission, Accra, Ghana. Page 23.
- Ayee, J.R.A (2003), —Local Government, Decentralisation And State Capacity In Ghana, In Wisdom Tettey, K.P. Pupilampu & Bruce Berman (Eds) *Critical Perspectives On Politics And Socio-Economic Development In Ghana* (Leiden: Brill), Chapter 2:45-81.
- Azeem, V.A, King, R, Boateng, S.K, Abbey, C and Mevuta, D (2003) Financing Decentralised Development – How Well Does The DACF Work: A Pilot Tracking Of The DACF In Four Districts. Accra. Page 1-60
- Bachmann, U (2007) Approaches In Rural Development On The Move – A Field Experience In Nigeria. *Rural Development News*. Page 19.
- Bardhan, P and Mookherjee, C (2006) Decentralisation and Accountability In Infrastructure Delivery In developing countries. *The Economic Journal*. Blackwell Publishing. USA Page 1.

- Binswanger, J. And Barnes, F (1984).—The Impact Of Rural Electrification And Infrastructure On Agricultural Changes In India, 1966–1980. Research Unit, Agriculture And Rural Development Department. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Bird, K., Koiser, J and Abeckiv, DI (2011) Chronic Poverty And Remote Rural Areas Institute For Development Policy And Management University Of Manchester, UK. Page 21.
- Blake, R.B. (2003) Regional And Rural Development Strategies In Canada – The Search For Solutions. Royal Commission On Renewing And Strengthening Our Place In Canada. Canada. Page 189-213.
- Boakye, D.O. (2010) Is Rural Development Significant For Ghana's Economy? Ghanaweb. Ghana. Accra. Page 6.
- Boex, J, Heredia-Ortiz, Vazquez, J.M, Timofeev, A and Yao, G (2002) Fighting Poverty Through Fiscal Decentralisation. USAID.USA. Page 1-30
- Bojo, J., (2002) Natural Resource Management. India. Page 1
- Boon, E and Ahenkan (2011) Improving Nutrition and Health non-Timber Products in Ghana. Vrije Universiteit. Belgium Page 2
- Botchie, G (2000) Local Strategic Planning And Sustainable Rural Livelihoods, Rural District Planning In Ghana: A Case Study. Institute Of Environment And Development. UK. Page 8-80.
- Bowler, I. (2005).Rural Alternatives. In Daniels, P. (Ed.), An Introduction To Human Geography: Issues For The 21st Century (Pp. 230–245). Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Bridgewater P. B. (1996). Inventorying And Monitoring For What And For Whom? In *Biodiversity Science And Development* (F. Di Castri And T. Younes, Ed.), Wallingford: CAB. Pp. 208–211.
- Brown, C.K. (1986) Rural Development In Ghana. Ghana University Press Accra. Page

23-43.

- Brown, L., Cromartie J.B. (2004). The Nature Of Rurality In Post industrial Society. In  
Champion, T., Graeme, H. (Eds.), *New Forms Of Urbanisation: Beyond The  
Urban–Rural Dichotomy* (Pp. 269–283). Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Bushett, S. And Indu, J.A. (2006) *Infrastructure For Improved Rural Livelihoods*. World  
Bank. Page 1.
- Carl, H And Gribble, J (2011) *World Population At 7 Biliion*. PRB. USA. Page 8.
- Casey, S (2005) *Establishing Standards for Social Infrastructure*. University of  
Queensland. Australia. Page 1-8
- Chambers, R. (1983) *Rural Development*, Longman Scientific & Technical
- Champion, T., And Hugo, G. (2004). Introduction: Moving Beyond The Urban–Rural  
Dichotomy. In Champion, T., Graeme, H. (Eds.), *New Forms of Urbanisation:  
Beyond The Urban-Rural Dichotomy* (Pp. 3–24). Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Cheru, F (2010) *Infrastructure In Stimulating Growth And Reducing Poverty In  
SubSaharan Africa: Bridging The Gap Between Policy And Practice*. The Nordic  
Africa Institute. Sweden. Page 3.
- CIS (2006) Theme 5- Rural development: The New Rurality. *Oportunidades el para  
Mundo*. Madrid. Page 3.
- CLGF (Commonwealth Local Government Forum): *Local Government System In Ghana*  
(Sine Anno) [Http://Www.Clgf.Org.Uk/Userfiles/Clgf/File/Countries/Ghana.Pdf](http://Www.Clgf.Org.Uk/Userfiles/Clgf/File/Countries/Ghana.Pdf)
- Coombes, M., Raybould, S. (2001). *Public Policy And Population Distribution:  
Developing Appropriate Indicators Of Settlement Patterns*. *Environ. Plan. C:  
Government And Policy*, 19, 223–248.
- CIS (2006) Theme 5 – Rural Development: The New Rurality. *OportunidadesEl Para  
Mundo*. Madrid. Page 3.

- Crawford, G (2004) Democratic Decentralisation In Ghana: Issues And Prospects.  
Norwegian Association For Development Research. Norway. Page 1-35.
- Crawford, G (2009) Decentralisation In Ghana. Local Government System In Ghana.  
Ghana. Page 9.
- Crawford, G (2010) Decentralisation And Struggles For Basic Rights In Ghana –  
Opportunities And Constraints. The International Journal Of Human Rights Vol.  
14, No 1. UK Page 118.
- De Beer, F and Swanepoel, H (2000) Development Studies. Oxford University Press.  
UK. Page 32-58.
- De Gennaro, B And Fantini, A (2003) The Concept Of Rurality And Rural-Urban  
Relationship As Perceived By Young People. Univerita Degli Studi Di Bari. Page  
254
- DHA (2011) Database of the District. DHA. Sefwi Wiawso. Page 5.
- Dulleck, U and Jianpei, L (2011) Contracting for infrastructure projects as credence goods.  
Working Paper No 73. School of International trade and economics. China. Page 3
- Eghan, M.K (2008) A Review Of The Village Infrastructure Project As A Rural Poverty  
Alleviation Strategy In Ghana: A Case Study Of The Asante-Akim South District  
Of The Ashanti Region. M.A Thesis Kumasi Page 70.
- Encarta, (2009) Ghana, facts and figures. Microsoft Inc.
- Engel, A (1999) Decentralisation, local capacity and regional rural development. UN.  
USA Page 1
- Estache, A., B. Giannpick, L and Lingse, NI (2006) How Much Does Infrastructure  
Matter To Growth In Sub-Saharan Africa. The World Bank, Washington, DC,  
Processed. Page 66
- Estache, A. And Goicoechea, A. (2005) A Research Database On Infrastructure

Economic Performance, Policy Research Working Paper 3642, The World Bank,  
Page 50.

E. U. (2011) Agricultural Policy Briefs – Brief No4. European Commission. Geneva.

Page 1-7.

EWB (2010). <http://chapters.ewb.ca/pages/chapter- - africanpartnerships/africanhttp://chapters.ewb.ca/pages/chapter- - africanpartnerships/african-programs-sector-profiles/rural-infrastructure-in-ghana/EWB-Rural Infrastructureprograms-sector-profiles/rural-infrastructure-in-ghana/EWB-Rural Infrastructure>

- [Accessed on 4 April 2010]

Ewool, G., (2003) The GPRS And Multi Donor Budget Support. Ministry Of Local Government And Rural Development. Development Dialogue Series Page 50

Ezeanyika, S.E. (2010) Re-Examining Current Paradigms And Concepts: Rural Development, Environmental Sustainability And Poverty Alleviation In Africa. The Journal Of Pan African Studies Vol. 3 No. 6. Nigeria. Page1-30.

Fischler, F. (2000) Women Active In Rural Development. European Commission. Belgium. Page1-28.

Fry, A (2006) Water, facts and trends. World Business Council for Sustainable Development. Switzerland. Page 5-16.

Ghai, D. (1990) \_Participatory Development: Some Perspectives From Grassroots Experiences\_. *Discussion Paper No. 5*. Geneva: UNRISD.

Ghana Government (1970) One Year Development Plan July, 1970-June 1971, Accra: Ghana Publishing Corporation.

GoG (1995) Ghana – Vision 2020. The First Step 1996 – 2000. Presidential Report On

- Co-Ordinated Programme Of Economic And Social Development Policies. Gog, Accra. Page 12 – 80.
- GoG (2012) Global Partnership For Education Fund Grant. Government Of Ghana. Accra. Page 88.
- Government of Ghana (2008) Education Act 2008, Act 778: 2(3) Government of Ghana Accra Page 4.
- Government of Ghana (2010) Budget statement and economic policy for the 2011 fiscal year. Government of Ghana. Accra. Page 46.
- Gomez B. And Jones J. (2010), Research Methods In Geography. A Critical Introduction, Wiley-Blackwell, United Kingdom. Page 66 - 90
- Government Of Ghana (1996): The New Local Government System, (2nd. Edition). MLGRD. Accra. Page 7
- GSS (2005) 2000 Population And Housing Census. GSS. Ghana, Accra Page 19.
- G.S.S. (2012) 2010 Population And Housing Census Summary Report Of Final Results. Government Of Ghana. Accra. Page 21.
- Guimaraes, J.P.C. (2009) Participatory Approaches To Rural Development And Rural Poverty Alleviation. U.N. Netherlands. Page 2-10.
- Gunatalika, R (2001) Fiscal Decentralisation, rural development and poverty reduction: A Sri Lankan Perspective. Institute for Social and Economic Change. India. Page 17
- Haddad, L. (1999): *Are Urban Poverty And Undernutrition Growing? Some Newly Assembled Evidence* (Washington: FCND International Food Policy Research Institute) Page 29
- Hettne, B (1995) Development theory and the three worlds: Towards an international political economy of development. 2nd edition. Harlow: Longman. Page 121.

- Hill, M. (2003). Rural Settlement And Urban Impact On The Countryside. London: Hodder And Stoughton. Page 128
- Hossain N And Moore M (2001) Arguing For The Poor: Elites And Poverty In Developing Countries. IDS Working Paper Xxx, Institute Of Development Studies, Brighton. Page 18
- Hugo, G., Champion, A., Lattes, A. (2003). Towards A New Conceptualization Of Settlements For Demography. Popul. Develop. Rev., 29(2), 277–297.
- Igbuzor, O (2006) the Millennium Development Goals: Can Nigeria meet the goals in 2015? Action Aid. Nigeria. Page 8
- International And Local Approaches To Rural Development (ILARD 2009) Key Issues And Questions: A Review Of Literature For The Drakenstein Municipality Phuhlisani Solutions. South Africa Page 8-18.
- IIED (2000) Rural District Planning In Ghana: A Case Study. DFID.UK. Page 38.
- International Council On Human Rights (ICHR) – Local Rule (2002). Decentralisation And Human Rights. Switzerland, ATAR Roto Press. Page 10 – 14.
- Irvin, L ( 2006) Challenges and strategies for democratic participation. Eds Guy Burgess and Heidi Burgees. Southampton Communication Journal. Page 191 – 207.
- ISODEC (2004): Community-Based Planning – Final Country Review report –Ghana, September 2004, Accra, Community-Based Planning Team –Ghana, Accra. Page 11.
- Janvry, A And Sadoulet, E (2007) Toward A Territorial Approach to Rural Development. Electronic Journal Of Agricultural And Development Econs. Vol. 4, No 1. USA. Page 66-98.

- Jennings, R (2000) Participatory Development As A New Paragigm: The Transition Of Development Professionalism. \_Community Based Reintegration And Rehabilitation In Post Conflict Settings‘ Conference. Page 41
- Jenzano, P.B. (2011) The Use Of Participatory Methodologies To Increase Women Farmers Access To Productive Resources. UN Ghana. Page 3-9.
- Johnson, C. (2003) Decentralisation In India: Poverty, Politics and Panchayati Raj. Overseas Development Institute. London. Page 7-54.
- Joint GoG And Development Partner (2007) Decentralisation Policy Review. DEGE Consult. Ghana. Page 11-50.
- Jutting, J, Corsi, E and Stockmayer, A (2005) Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction In Developing Countries: Exploring The Impact. OECD. France. Page 7-59.
- Katsiaouni, O (2003) Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction: Does It Work? 5<sup>th</sup>Global Forum On Reinventing Government. Mexico City. Page 2-24.
- Kazuko, T And Nim, J., (2010) The Roles Of Communities In Rural Development. 4<sup>th</sup>ARSA International Conference. Philippines. Page 1-11.
- Khan, M.R. (2006) Women, Participation And Empowerment In Local Government. Asian Affairs, Vol. 29, No 1 CDRD Publications Bangladesh. Page 73-92.
- Koranteng, R And Munawwar, A (2011) Decentralisation In Ghana. Commonwealth Secretariat. UK. Page 1- 178.
- Kruseman, G And Vullings, W (2007) Rural Development Policy In Egypt Towards 2025. Wageningen UR. Page 29.
- Kudiabor, C.D.K. 1974. "Policy Objectives And Strategies For Integrated Rural Development In Ghana," In Rural Development In Ghana. Ghana Universities Press, Accra, Ghana, Page 26-32.

- Kumekpor, T.K.B (2002) Research Methods and Techniques of Social Science. Sonlife Press Accra. Page 39-206.
- Kuusi S (2009): Aspects Of Local Self-Government: Ghana. North-South Local Government Co-Operation Programme, The Association Of Finnish Local And Regional Authorities. Page 51
- Kyei, P.O (2000) Decentralised Poverty Alleviation In Rural Ghana. Perspectives From District Elites And Voices Of The Rural Poor. Ghana. Page 1-20.
- Laila, K (2008) Concepts Of Rurality And Urbanity As Analytical Categories In Multidimensional Research. Proceedings Of The Latvian Academy Of Sciences, Section B, Vol. 62. Latvia Page1-20
- Leoprapai, B (1997) Social Sector Decentralization: The Case Of Thailand. Institute Of Population And Social Research Mahidol University International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, Canada Page 23.
- Lokshin, M., And Yemtsov R. (2004) —Combining Longitudinal Household And Community Surveys For Evaluation Of Social Transfers: Infrastructure Rehabilitation Projects In Rural Georgia. *Journal Of Human Development* 5(2):265-277.)
- Lowe, P, Ray, C, Ward, N, Wood, D and Woodward, R (1998) Participation In Rural Development: A Review Of European Experience. University Of Newcastle Upon Tyne.UK Page 3-94.
- Lowe, P, Ray, C, Ward, N, Wood, D and Woodward, R (1999) Participation In Rural Development. EU. Ireland. Page 14.
- Mannyahaire, I.O, Rwafa, R, Mutangadura, J (2011) A Theoretical Overview Of The Growth Centre Strategy: Perspective For Reengineering The Concept In

Zimbabwe. Journal Of Sustainable Development In Africa. Vol. 13.No 4.USA.  
Page 1-13.

Masika, R. and Baden, S. (1997). Infrastructure and Poverty: A Gender Analysis. Report prepared for the Gender Equality Unit, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), BRIDGE Report No 51, Brighton: IDS Page 51

McCarten, W and Vinod,V (2005) Democratic decentralisation and poverty reduction in Madhya Pradesh - Searching for an institutional equilibrium.World Bank. India.  
Page 2

Ministry Of Local Government &Rural Development (2002) *Decentralization In Ghana: Implementation Status And Proposed Future Directions* (Accra: Ministry Of Local Government And Rural Development), March: 1-28.

Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2009). Speech by Chief Director of MFEP at the 2009 Ghana public-private partnership conference, Ghana. Sept. 1—11, 2009. Page 40

MLGRD And Maks Publications And Media Services (2006) Western Region – Sefwi Wiawso. Ghana Districts. Ghana.

MLGRD (2008) Inter-governmental Fiscal Decentralisation Framework. Gog. Accra. Page 1-30

MLGRD (2010) Accelerating Decentralisation And Local Governance For National Development –Draft Decentralisation Policy Framework. Gog. Accra. Page 2.- 6

Modimolle Local Municipality (2009) Local Economic Development Strategy. Urban-Econ. South Africa. Page 27.

Mogues, T. *et al.* (2009) Do external grants to District Governments discourage ownrevenue generation? IFPRI. UK. Page 18.

Montgomery, M.R., (2009) Urban Poverty And Health In Developing Countries. PRB

- Population Bulletin USA. Page 1-10.
- Mull, D.L. (2003) Analysis Of Job Tasks And Activities Performed By Children In Cocoa Production. USAID. USA. Page 10-20
- Nemes, G (2005) Integrated Rural Development – The Concept And Its Operation. Institute Of Economics. Hungary. Page 35.
- National Development Planning Commission (2005) Growth And Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) 2006 – 2009. Government Of Ghana Accra. Pages 59 And 89.
- Nkrumah, S.A. (2000), ‘Decentralisation For Good Governance And Development: The Ghanaian Experience’ In *Regional Development Dialogue* Vol.21 No.1, Pp.53-67
- Oakley, P. *Et al* (1999) Projects With People: The Practice Of Participation In Rural Development. ILO. Switzerland Page1-20.
- Oates, W.E (2005), — Toward A Second- Generation Theory Of Fiscal Federalism. *Journal Of International Tax And Public Finance*, Vol12, No 4, Pp 349-73.
- OECD (1994) Tourism Strategies And Rural Development. OECD. Paris. Page 6-17.
- OECD (2004) Tourism Strategies And Rural Development. OECD. Paris. Pages 9 And 10
- OECD (2007) Infrastructure To 2030. Vol. 2.Mapping Policy For Electricity, Water And Transport. OECD. Paris. Page 13-21.
- OECD (2007) Principles For Private Sector Participation In Infrastructure. OECD.USA. Page12
- Ofei-Aboagye, E (2006) The Local Government System Of Ghana. ILGS. Ghana. Page 21.
- Ofei-Aboagye, E. And Osei-Wusu, D (2008) The District Coordinating Director As A Manager In The Decentralisation System. ILGS And FES. Ghana. Page. 1

- Okorley, E.L, Gray, D and Reid, J (2009) Ke factors of Success for Decentralised Public Agricultural Extension: An Expanded View from a Ghanaian case study. Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa. Vol. 10 No 4. USA. Page 2-7.
- Olayiwola, L.M. and Adeleye, O.A (2005) Rural Infrastructural Development in Nigeria: Between 1960 and 1990 – Problems and Challenges. Obafemi Awolowo University. Nigeria. Page 1-6..
- Osei-Akoto, I, Osei, R.D, Quarmin, W and Adiah G.A (2007) Public Spending At The District Level In Ghana. Institute Of Statistical, Social And Economic Research (ISSER). Accra. Page 2-40.
- Otchere, F (2010) Sefwi Wiawso Roads Facelift Begins. Ghanaweb.Com. Date Accessed: 12 April, 2012
- Owusu, G And Afutu-Kotey, L (2010) Poor Urban Communities And Municipal Interface In Ghana: A Case Study Of Accra And Sekondi-Takoradi Metroplis. African Studies Quarterly Page 32
- Parker, A.N (1995) Decentralisation: The way forward for rural development. Agricultural and Natural Resource Department. Norway. Page 5-40
- Petrasek, D. *et al* (2002) Decentralisation And Human Rights. International Council On Human Rights Policy. Switzerland. Page 13- 56.
- Plowden, B. (1995). Measuring the Unmeasurable: Twenty Indicators for the Countryside. CPRE. London: Council for the Protection of Rural England. Page 5-34
- Population Reference Bureau (2011) Human Population: Urbanisation PRB.USA Page 1
- Potter, R.B *Et al.* (2004) Geographies of development. 2nd edition. Harlow Prentice Hall. USA. Page 45.

- Project Novella (2003) Socio-Economic Survey On The Purchase Of Allanolackia Nuts In East Akim, Wassa Amenfi, Kwaebibirim, Fanteakwa, Mpohor Wassa East And Sefwi Wiawso Districts In Ghana. Assessment Report. Friends Of The Nation. Ghana. Page 32-41.
- Rawley, C (2005) Child Labour Pilot Project Assessment Report – Ghana Youth Education And Skills USAID. Ghana. Page.1.
- Republic Of Ghana (1992) Constitution Of The Republic Of Ghana. Government Of Ghana Accra. Page 152.
- Republic Of Ghana (1993) Act 462, Local Government Act. Government Of Ghana. Accra Page 12.
- Reeder, R (2009) Rural Development Strategies: Infrastructure . US Department of Agriculture. USA. Page 1-3
- Richter, D *Et al.* (2002) Decentralisation and Local Self-government. Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development. Bonn. Page 1.
- Ross, J (2002) Building Partnerships For Food Security . UN System Network On Rural Development And Food Security. FAO. Italy Page 12-43.
- RTI (2005) Village Participation in Rural Development – Manual. World Bank. Netherlands Page 17-62
- Rudengre, J (2008) New Rural Development Policy. International Support Group. Vietnam. Page 1-4.
- Rural Development Task Team (1997) Rural Development Framework. Department of Land Affairs. South Africa. Page 3-9.
- Sana, M.C. (2011) Decentralisation And The Policies Of Participation: A Case Study Of Project Planning And Implementation In Asutifi District. Thesis – KNUST, Ghana. Page 57

- Sandro, C (2002) A Manual On Monitoring And Evaluation For Alternative Development Projects. UNODC Regional Training. Thailand. Page 59.
- Singh, K (1999) Rural Development: Principles Policies And Management, Sage Publications, New Delhi. Page 2-79.
- Shaffer, E., Afiven, A and Sebijis, K (2006) Rethinking Community Economic Development. Economic Development Quarterly, 20:79-74
- Shah, M.K, Kambou, S.D and Monahan, B (1999) Embracing Participation In Development. Care Health And Population Unit. USA. Page 54-180.
- Sharma, K.C (2010) Book Review: Local Government In Ghana. Commonwealth Secretariat.UK. Page 2-50
- Skira, M. (2006) Fiscal Decentralisation And Poverty. Andrew Young School Of Policy Studies. USA. Page 2-23.
- Steiner, S (2005) Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction: A Conceptual Framework for The Economic Impact. German Overseas Unit. Germany. Page 3-25.
- SWDA (2011) Medium Term Development Plan. SWDA. Ghana. Page 1-173.
- SWMA (2014) The Composite Budget of the Sefwi Wiawso Municipal Assembly. SWMA, Sefwi Wiawso. Page 3.
- SWMA (2013) Educational Facilities in the Municipality SWMA. Sefwi Wiawso. Page 2-10.
- Tatsumi, K. And Narendra, M.J. (2010) The Roles Of Communities In Rural Development: Potentials Of Community-Based Approach In Nepal. 4<sup>th</sup> Asian Rural Sociological Association International Conference. Philippines. Pages 94 And 95
- Taylor C. J. (1960). *Synecology And Silviculture In Ghana*. London, UK: Thomas Nelson And Sons. Page 44.
- Toyobo A, Diconjie, F and Feribod, T. (2011) The Relevance Of Infrastructural

- Facilities To Rural Housing Development in Lagelu Local Government.  
International NGO Journal. Nigeria Page 3.
- Trzyna, T. (2007), *Global Urban And Protected Areas: Challenges And Opportunities Posed By A Major Factor For Global Change And Creative Ways Of Responding*, CIPA Environmental Studies, Series No. 12, California Institute Of Public Affairs, Sacramento, USA. Page 52.
- Twumasi, A.K (1995) Rural Urban Migration And Socio-Economic Development In Ghana. Journal Of Social Development. USA. Page 2-22
- Umebau, E.E. (2008) Rural Development And Management. National Open University Of Nigeria. Nigeria Page1- 73.
- URS (2009) Introduction Of The LEADER Approach To Rural Development In South Africa – A Comparison And Assessment. COFISA. South Africa. Page 1-3
- UN (2004) Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction: Africa And Asia Experience. UN. Senegal. Page 3-100.
- UN (2010) UN Integrated Mission In Timor-Leste – Summary Of Timor-Leste’s Strategic Development Plan – 2011-2012. UN Timor-Leste. Page 25
- UNDP (2005) Fiscal Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction. UN.USA Page 2-25.
- UNIDO (2003) Apathy Of Poverty: Developing Rural And Women Entrepreneurship. UN. Austria. .Page 2-34.
- U. N. Habitat (2011) Infrastructure For Economic Development And Poverty Reduction In Africa. U. N. Nairobi. Page 1-25
- UNPD (2010) An Overview Of Urbanisation, Internal Migration, Population Distribution And Development In The World. UN.USA. Page 3.
- UNDP (2009) Human Development Report 2009 UN: Overcoming Barriers: Human Mobility And Development. UN.USA Page 1

- USDA (2006) Rural Development – Farm Bill. Theme Papers.USA Page 1
- Vagliani, W.W. (1994) Participatory Development And Gender: Articulating Concepts And Cases. OECD.USA. Page 1-51
- Van Der Ploeg, J.D, Henk, R, Brunori, G, Knickel K, Mannion, J, Marsden T, Roest, K, Sevilla-Guzman, E and Giiman, E and Ventura. (2001). Rural Development: From Practices And Policies Towards Theory. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 40(4), 391408.
- Vordzogbe V.V., Caiquo, B and Amaoin, S (2005). The Flora And Mammals Of The Moist Semi-Deciduous Forest Zone In The Sefwi-Wiawso District Of The Western Region, Ghana. *West African Journal Of Applied Ecology*, 8(1): 1-14.
- Waldorf, B (2007) Measuring Rurality In Context. Vol. 8 No. 1 USA. Page1 – 4
- Wallerstein, I (1974) The Modern World System: Capitalist Agriculture And The Organs of the European World-economy in the Sixteenth Century New York Academic Press. USA. Page 45 – 60.
- Water Aid (2009) Effective financing of local governments to provide water and sanitation services. Water Aid Ghana. Ghana. Page 8
- Wikipedia: Date Visited: 12/9/11
- Wolter, D (2008) Ghana – Agriculture Is Becoming A Business. OECD Accra. Page 14.
- Work, R (2002) Overview Of Decentralisation Worldwide: A Stepping Stone To Improved Governance And Human Development. UNDP. Philippines. Page 2-20
- World Bank (1975) World Development Report - 1974/75 (2001a) Rural Development Strategy: ([Http://Wbln0018.Worldbank.Org/Essd/Rdv/Vta.Nsf/Gweb/Strategy](http://Wbln0018.Worldbank.Org/Essd/Rdv/Vta.Nsf/Gweb/Strategy)) Switzerland.
- World Bank (1994).Infrastructure For Development, World Development Report, New York: Oxford University Press. Page 56.
- Woyome, W.K. (1988) A Study Of The Rural Development Policy, Strategies And

Programmes Of The Progress Party Government. KNUST, Ghana Page 1.

WSFS (2009) Declaration Of WSFS. FAO. Rome. Page 1-7 [www.Ghanadistricts.Com](http://www.Ghanadistricts.Com).

[www.un.org/en/global issues](http://www.un.org/en/global issues) Date visited: 19 th March, 2015

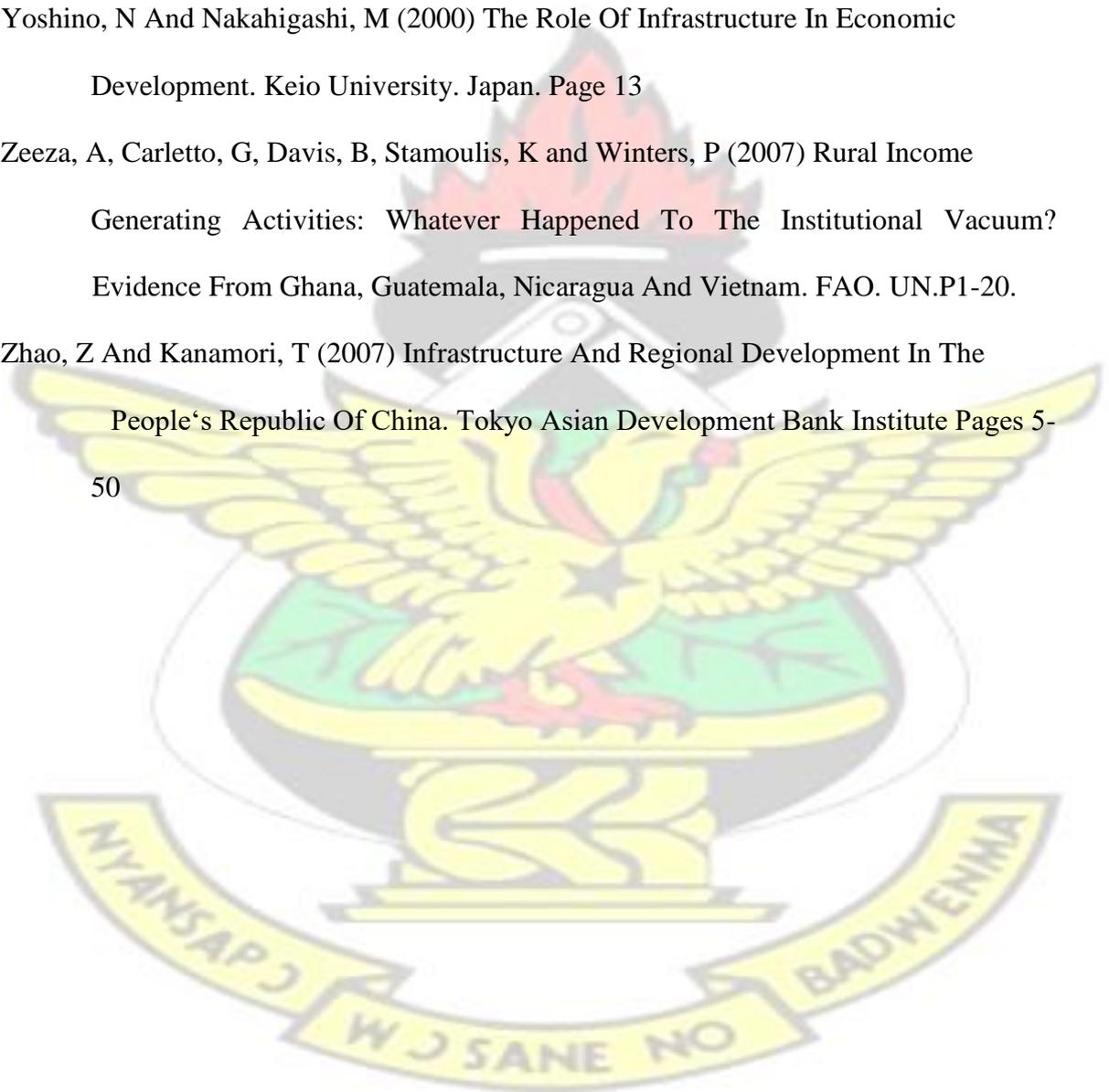
Yankson, P.W.K. (2008) Decentralisation And Poverty Reduction In The Gomoa District of Ghana. Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift – Norwegian Journal of Geography 62:3. Norway. Page 230 – 240.

Yoshino, N And Nakahigashi, M (2000) The Role Of Infrastructure In Economic Development. Keio University. Japan. Page 13

Zeeza, A, Carletto, G, Davis, B, Stamoulis, K and Winters, P (2007) Rural Income Generating Activities: Whatever Happened To The Institutional Vacuum? Evidence From Ghana, Guatemala, Nicaragua And Vietnam. FAO. UN.P1-20.

Zhao, Z And Kanamori, T (2007) Infrastructure And Regional Development In The People's Republic Of China. Tokyo Asian Development Bank Institute Pages 5-

50



## APPENDICES

### Appendix One: Specific Projects and participatory activity of respondents between 2002 and 2012

		FC	CL	VM	MM	AM	MS	Os	Total
Roads	Asawinso	0	12	2	1	0		1	15
	Wiawso	1	8	5	2	3		0	19
	Nyameadiso	1	1	0	0	0		0	2
	Suhwenso	1	1	0	0	0		0	2
Edu. Infrastru .	Asawinso	0	6	1	1	2	0		10
	Wiawso	0	3	1	1	0	0		6
	Nyameadiso	0	2	0	0	0	0		4
	Suhwenso	1	1	0	0	0	1		3
Market	Asawinso		1	1					2
	Wiawso		1	0					1
	Nyameadiso								
	Suhwenso								
Electri - city	Asawinso	0	1	1					2
	Wiawso	1	1	0					2
	Nyameadiso								
	Suhwenso								
Agri- Culture	Asawinso			1					1
	Wiawso			1					1
	Nyameadiso								
	Suhwenso								
Total		5	40	13	5	5	1	1	70

Source: Fieldwork, 2012.

#### Key to Appendix one

FC – Financial contributions
CL – Communal labour
VM – Expression of views at meetings
MM – Expression of views through mass media
AM – Expression of views through Assembly men
MS – Monitoring and supervision
Os - Others

**Appendix Two: Aspects of Living Conditions of Respondents affected by**

**Infrastructure Projects Between 2002 and 2012**

	Liv. Con.	Road	Edu. Infrast.	Market	Water	Electri.	Agric.	Total
<b>Asawinso</b>	Social	24	10	4	2	3	-	43
<b>Wiawso</b>		17	6	2	-	2		27
<b>Nyameadiso</b>		-	2	-	-	1	-	3
<b>Suhwenso</b>		-	-	-	3	-	1	4
<b>Total</b>		41	19	6	5	6	1	77
<b>Asawinso</b>	Political	9	2	1	-	-	-	12
<b>Wiawso</b>		3	-	-	1	-	-	4
<b>Nyameadiso</b>		-	1	-	-	-	1	2
<b>Suhwenso</b>		-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total</b>		12	3	1	3	-	1	18
<b>Asawinso</b>	Economic	9	5			1	-	15
<b>Wiawso</b>		11	5	-	1	-	-	17
<b>Nyameadiso</b>		-		-	1	-	1	2
<b>Suhwenso</b>		-	-	-	1	-	1	2
<b>Total</b>		20	15	1	3	1	2	34

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

**Appendix three:**

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND**

**TECHNOLOGY FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**QUESTIONNAIRE ON “DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES AND RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF PROVISION OF  
INFRASTRUCTURE IN SELECTED COMMUNITIES IN THE SEFWI  
WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY”.**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DISTRICT ASSEMBLY STAFF**

Please read the questions carefully and answer them as much as you can.

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA**

Please tick [  ] where applicable, and supply the appropriate information where necessary.

1. Department of respondent: .....

2. Committee/Sub-Committee of the respondent

- a) Executive Committee [  ]
- b) Public Relations Committee [  ]
- c) Development Planning Sub-Committee [  ]
- d) Social Services Sub-Committee [  ]
- e) Social Services Sub-Committee [  ]
- f) Social Services Sub-Committee [  ]
- g) Works Sub-Committee [  ]
- h) Finance and Administration Sub-Committee [  ]
- i) Justice and Security Sub-Committee [  ]
- j) Others (Specify) .....

3. Sex

a) Male [ ]

b) Female [ ]

4. Age range

a) 20-29 [ ]

b) 30-39 [ ]

c) 40-49 [ ]

d) 50-59 [ ]

e) Above 60 [ ]

5. Marital status

a) Married [ ]

b) Single [ ]

c) Divorced [ ]

d) Widow/widower [ ]

e) Separated [ ]

6. Employment status in the Assembly

a) Fully employed [ ]

b) Partially employed [ ]

c) National/Voluntary Service [ ]

d) Others (Specify) .....

7. Religious affiliation

a) Christianity [ ]

b) Islam [ ]

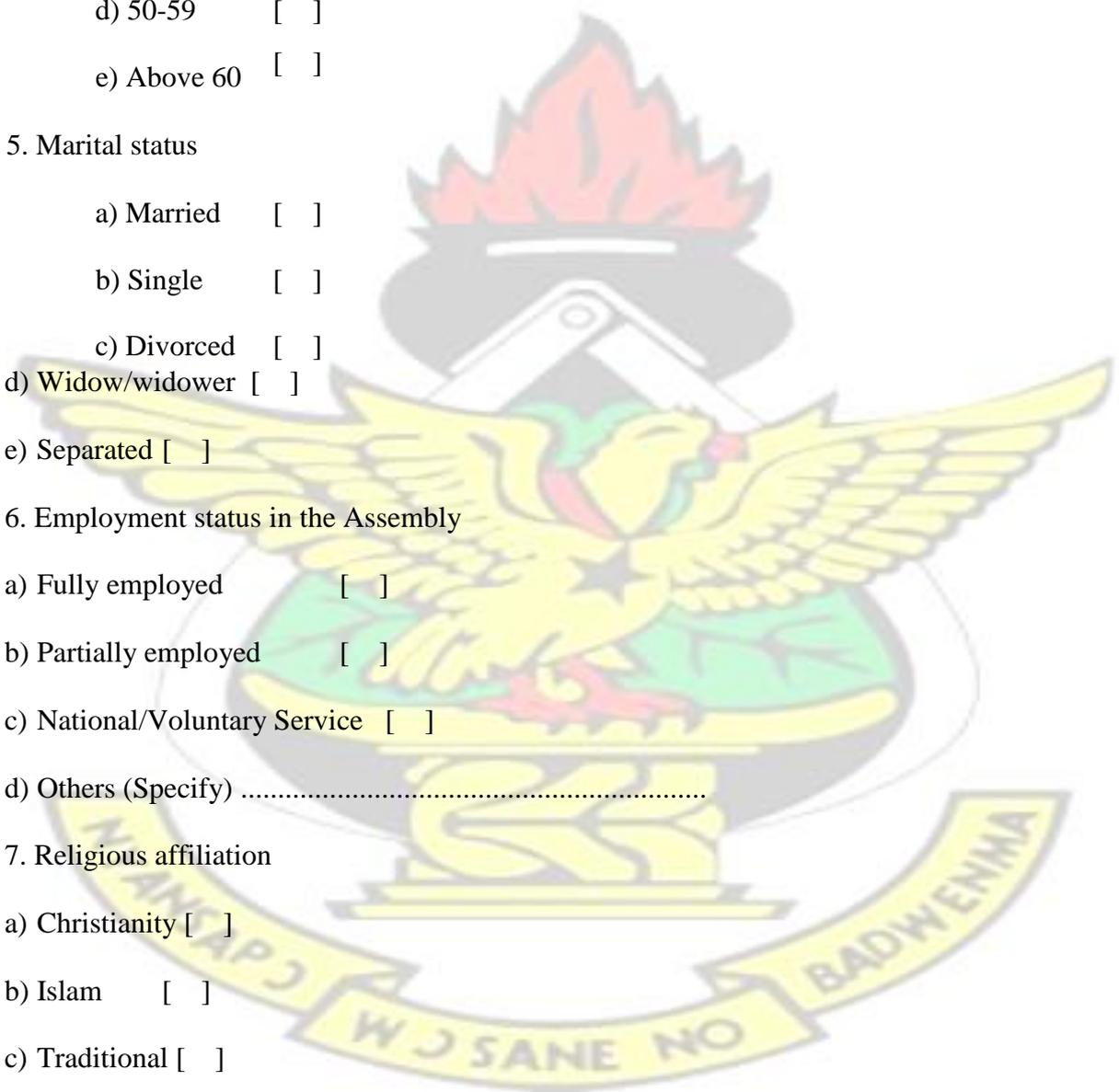
c) Traditional [ ]

Others (Specify) .....

8. Educational background

a) Basic [ ]

KNUST



- b) Secondary [ ]
- Post-secondary [ ]
- c) Tertiary [ ]
- d) Never schooled [ ]

**SECTION B: DISTRIBUTION OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN THE MUNICIPALITY**

9. Do you know any infrastructure project(s) undertaken by the Municipal Assembly in the rural communities?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

11. If yes, can you name any of them? (Tick as many as are applicable)

- a) Roads [ ]
- b) Educational infrastructure [ ]
- c) Market [ ]
- d) Borehole [ ]
- e) Electricity [ ]
- f) Agriculture [ ]

11. Do you often visit the communities in the Municipality?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

12. If yes, what is the commonest infrastructure the communities lack?

- a) Roads [ ]
- b) Educational infrastructure [ ]
- c) Market [ ]
- d) Borehole [ ]

e) Electricity [ ]

f) Agriculture [ ]

13. Which class of settlements in the Municipality lacks infrastructure the most?

a) Urban

b) Rural

14. Has the Assembly made any effort to provide those infrastructures the communities lack?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

15. If no, why?

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

16. If yes, which of them is commonly provided?

a) Roads [ ]

b) School/educational infrastructure [ ]

c) Market [ ]

d) Borehole [ ]

e) Electricity [ ]

f) Agriculture [ ]

g) Others (Specify) .....

17. How would you generally describe the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality?

a) Even [ ]

b) Fair [ ]

- c) Skewed in favour of the towns [ ]
- d) Skewed in favour of the rural areas [ ]

**SECTION C: CONSIDERATIONS FOR SITING DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS**

18. Does the Assembly consider any factor in distributing infrastructure?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

19. If yes, mention some of these factors. (Tick as many as are applicable)

- a) Political [ ]
- b) Economic [ ]
- c) Need factor [ ]
- d) Population [ ]
- e) Convenience [ ]
- f) Acquaintance/familiarity [ ]

20. If no to question 17 above, explain how the Assembly does the infrastructure distribution.

.....

.....

.....

21. Does the Assembly have any definite format/plan for distributing/siting development projects?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

22. If yes, outline some of them.

.....

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

# KNUST

## SECTION D: PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPEMNT EFFORTS

23. Have you ever informed the people about any project undertaken by the assembly?

- a) Yes [  ]
- b) No [  ]

24 If yes, at what stage?

- a) Needs identification [  ]
- b) Projects formulation [  ]
- c) Plan implementation [  ]
- d) Public hearings [  ]
- e) Plan approval [  ]
- f) Others (Specify) .....

25. How does the District Assembly disseminate such information?

- a) Through the Assembly Member [  ]
- b) Through the Chief [  ]
- c) Through the assembly officials [  ]
- d) Through the Unit Committee [  ]
- e) Other (Specify) .....

26. Have the people in the beneficiary communities ever been involved in the planning, design and implementation of any of the projects in any way?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

27. If yes, mention the project. (Tick as many as are applicable)

a) Road construction [ ]

b) Market [ ]

c) School infrastructure [ ]

f) Good drinking water [ ]

e) Electricity [ ]

f) Others (Specify) .....

28. At what stage were they involved?

a) Needs identification [ ]

b) Projects formulation [ ]

c) Plan implementation [ ]

d) Public hearings [ ]

e) Plan approval [ ]

f) Others (Specify) .....

29. What exactly did the people in the beneficiary communities do regarding their participation in the project?

a) Financial contribution and donation [ ]

b) Provision of communal labour [ ]

c) Expression of views at general meetings [ ]

d) Expression of views through the mass media [ ]

e) Expression of views through Assembly Member [ ]

f) Monitoring/supervision [ ]

g) Others (Specify) .....

20. How satisfied are they with the participatory processes in the district?

- a) Very satisfied [ ]
- b) Satisfied [ ]
- c) Unsatisfied [ ]
- d) Very Unsatisfied [ ]

31. What benefits do the communities get from participating in projects?

.....

.....

.....

32. How can community participation be improved or sustained?

.....

.....

.....

**SECTION D: EFFECTS OF INFRASTRUCTURE PROJECT**

33. What was the living condition of the rural communities before the project?

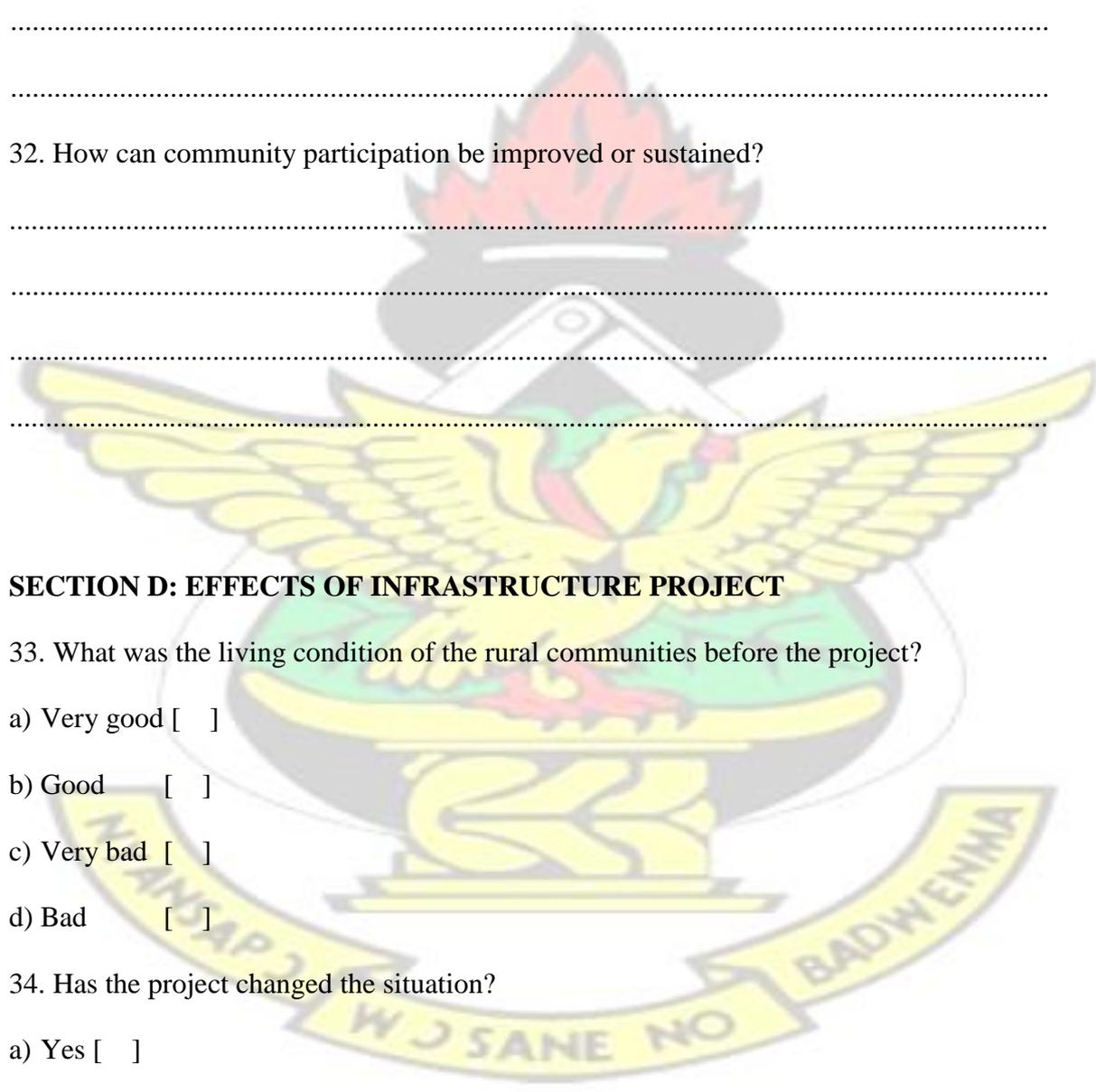
- a) Very good [ ]
- b) Good [ ]
- c) Very bad [ ]
- d) Bad [ ]

34. Has the project changed the situation?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

35. If yes, to what extent?

- a) Vey high [ ]



b) High [ ]

c) Low [ ]

d) Very low [ ]

36. If no, why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

37. In which aspect of their living condition has the project impacted?

a) Social [ ]

b) Political [ ]

c) Economic [ ]

38. How would you describe the performance of the Municipal Assembly in rural development?

a) Very good [ ]

b) Good [ ]

c) Very poor [ ]

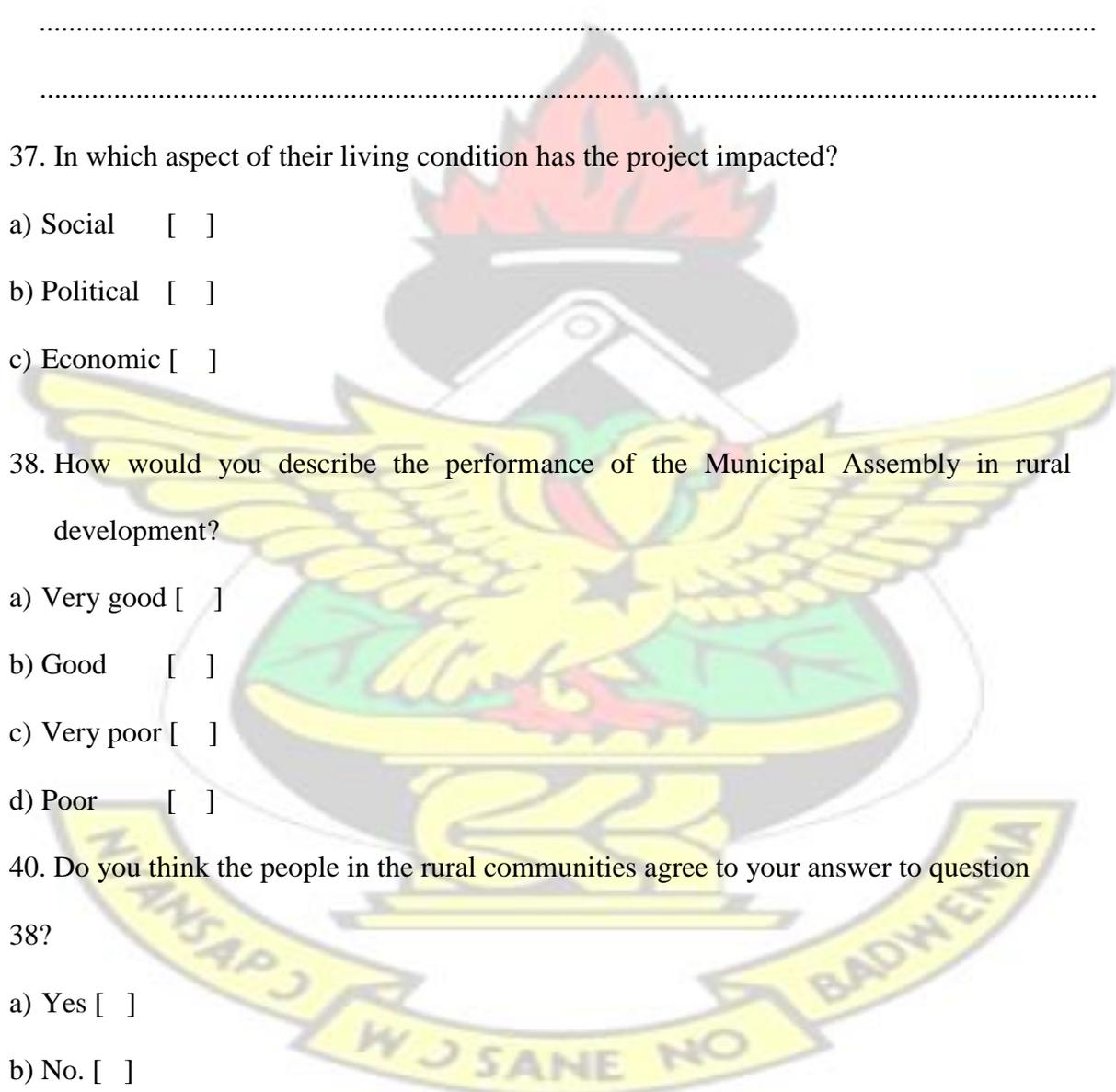
d) Poor [ ]

40. Do you think the people in the rural communities agree to your answer to question 38?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No. [ ]

KNUST



**Appendix Four:**

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

**FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**QUESTIONNAIRE ON “DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES AND RURAL**

**DEVELOPMENT IN GHANA:**

**A CASE STUDY OF PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURE IN SELECTED**

**COMMUNITIES IN THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY”.**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RURAL AND URBAN RESPONDENTS**

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA**

Please tick [  ] where applicable, and supply the appropriate information where necessary.

1. Town/village/locality of respondent:.....

2. Town/Area council of the respondent

a) Wiawso [  ]

b) Dwinase [  ]

c) Boako [  ]

d) Ahwiaa [  ]

e) Asafo [  ]

f) Asawinso [  ]

3. Sex

a) Male

b) Female

4. Age range
- a) 20-29 [ ]
  - b) 30-39 [ ]
  - c) 40-49 [ ]
  - d) 50-59 [ ]
  - e) Above 60 [ ]

5. Marital status

- a) Married [ ]
- b) Single [ ]
- c) Divorced [ ]
- d) Widow/widower [ ]
- e) Separated [ ]

6. Employment status

- a) Employed [ ]
- b) Unemployed [ ]
- c) Retrenched [ ]

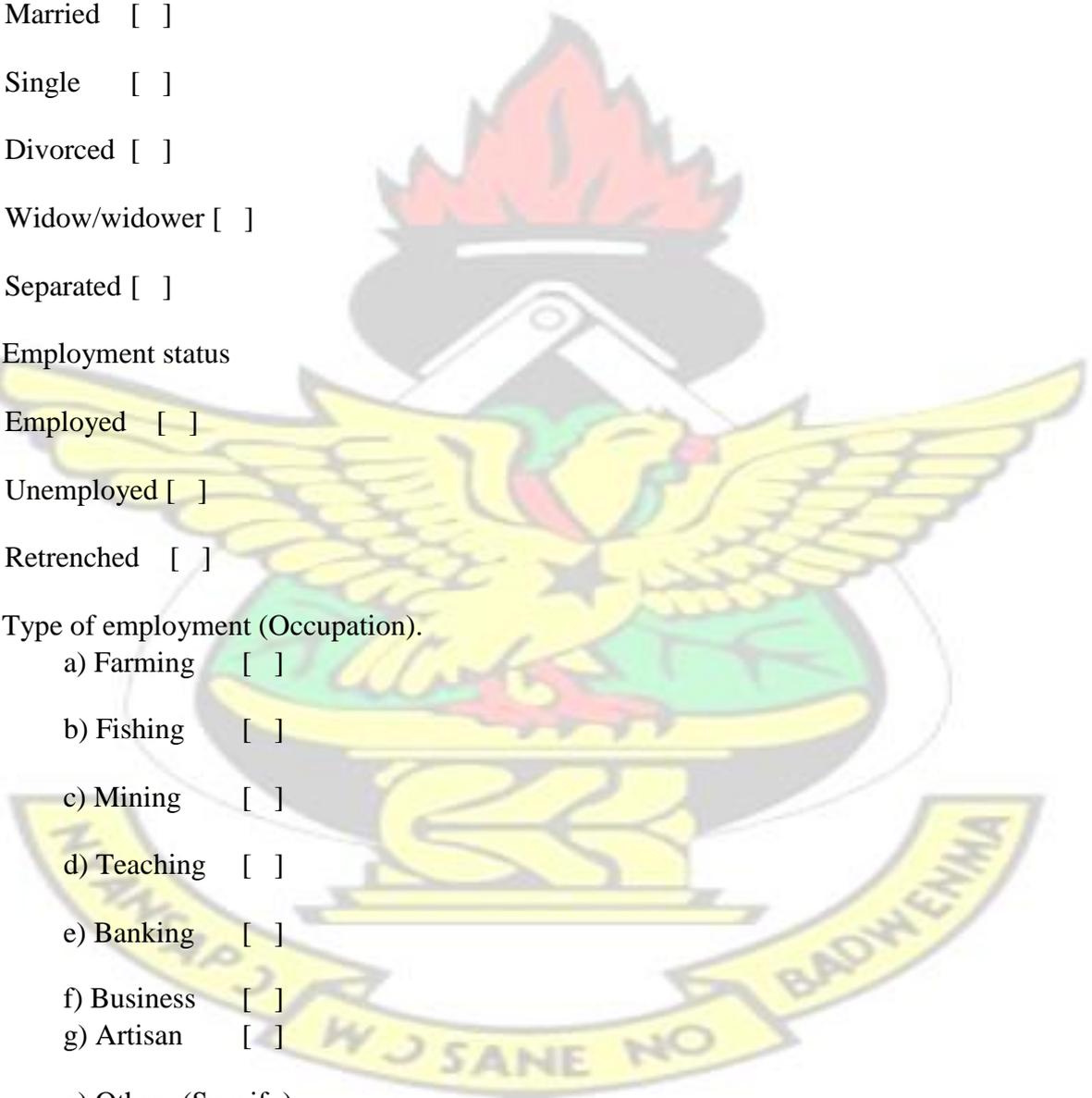
7. Type of employment (Occupation).

- a) Farming [ ]
- b) Fishing [ ]
- c) Mining [ ]
- d) Teaching [ ]
- e) Banking [ ]
- f) Business [ ]
- g) Artisan [ ]
- g) Others (Specify) .....

8. Religious affiliation

- a) Christianity [ ]

KNUST



b) Islam [ ]

c) Traditional [ ]

Others (Specify) .....

9. Educational background

a) Basic [ ]

b) Secondary [ ]

c) Post-secondary [ ]

d) Tertiary [ ]

e) Never schooled [ ]

**SECTION B: DISTRIBUTION OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECT IN THE MUNICIPALITY**

10. Do you know any infrastructure project(s) undertaken by the Assembly in your community as part of its roles?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

(If no, go to question 13.)

11. If yes, can you name any of them? (Tick as many as are applicable)

a) Roads [ ]

b) Educational infrastructure [ ]

c) Market [ ]

d) Borehole [ ]

e) Electricity [ ]

f) Agriculture [ ]

f) Others (Specify) .....

12. Why has/have such project(s) been provided in your community?

- a) To help develop the settlement
- b) To open up the place
- c) To bridge the gap between the settlement and the urban areas.
- d) That is the community's share of the national cake.
- e) Others (Specify).....

13. How would you describe your community?

- a) Urban
- b) Rural

14. Which of the following infrastructure does your community lack?

- a) Roads [ ]
- b) School infrastructure [ ]
- c) Market [ ]
- d) Good drinking water [ ]
- e) Electricity [ ]
- f) Others (Specify) .....

15. Why do you think your community lacks these infrastructures?

- a) There are substitutes [ ]
- b) We have not requested for them [ ]
- c) The assembly has no resources to provide them [ ]
- d) The towns are always considered first [ ]
- e) We can easily access them wherever they are [ ]
- f) Others (Specify) .....

16. Has the Assembly made any effort to provide these infrastructures?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

17. If yes, mention the effort.

.....

.....

.....

18. If no, why?

.....

.....

19. How would you generally describe the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality?

a) Even [ ]

b) Fair [ ]

c) Skewed in favour of the towns [ ]

d) Skewed in favour of the rural areas [ ]

**SECTION C: CONSIDERATIONS FOR SITING DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS**

20. Do you think any factor(s) has/have accounted for the pattern of infrastructure distribution in the Municipality

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

21. If yes, mention some of these factors. (Tick as many as are applicable)

a) Political [ ]

b) Economic [ ]

c) Need factor [ ]

d) Population [ ]

e) Convenience [ ]

f) Acquaintance/familiarity [ ]

g) Others (Specify) .....

22. If no, why? Explain.

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

23. Would you suggest the Assembly outlines the factors that influence project siting?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

**SECTION D: PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPEMNT EFFORTS**

24. Have you ever been informed about any project undertaken by the assembly in your community?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

25. If yes, at what stage?

a) Needs identification [ ]

b) Projects formulation [ ]

c) Plan Implementation [ ]

d) Public Hearings [ ]

e) Plan Approval [ ]

f) Others (Specify) .....

26. How do you get information from the District Assembly leading to your

participation?

- a) Through the Assembly Member [  ]
- b) Through the Chief [  ]
- c) Through the assembly officials [  ]
- d) Through the Unit Committee [  ]
- e) Others (Specify) .....

27. What exactly did you do regarding your participation in the project?

- a) Financial contribution and donation [  ]
- b) Provision of communal labour [  ]
- c) Expression of views at general meetings [  ]
- d) Expression of views through the mass media [  ]
- e) Expression of views through Assembly Member [  ]
- f) Monitoring/supervision [  ]
- g) Others (Specify) .....

28. How satisfied are you with the participatory processes in the district?

- a) Very satisfied [  ]
- b) Satisfied [  ]
- c) Unsatisfied [  ]
- d) Very Unsatisfied [  ]

29. What benefits does your community get from participating in projects?

.....

#### **SECTION D: EFFECTS OF INFRASTRUCTURE PROJECTS**

30. What was the living condition of your community before the project?

- a) Very good [  ]
- b) Good [  ]

c) Very bad [ ]

d) Bad [ ]

31. Has the project changed the situation?

a) Yes [ ]

b) No [ ]

32. If yes, to what extent?

a) Very high [ ]

b) High [ ]

c) Low [ ]

d) Very low [ ]

33. If no, why?

34. Which aspect of your living condition has the project affected?

a) Social [ ]

b) Political [ ]

c) Economic [ ]

**Appendix Five.:**

**INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY STAFF**

1. For how long have you worked in this Assembly?
2. How would you generally comment of infrastructure development in the Municipality?
3. Which one is more developed infrastructure-wise in the Municipality- urban or rural communities?
4. Why is that the situation?
5. Has the Assembly made any effort at changing the situation?

6. What has been the result so far?
7. What factor(s) does the Assembly consider in the infrastructure distribution process?
8. In your view, is/are that/those factor(s) helping distribute infrastructure equitably?
9. Do some of the communities complain about infrastructure?
10. How does the Assembly respond to such complaints?
11. Do the people always take part in the Assembly's activities?
12. Which activities do they normally take part in?
13. With regards to infrastructure, at what stage do they participate in its distribution?
14. What role do they play exactly in the provision of infrastructure?
15. What specific projects do they usually take part in?
16. How do they get the information from the Assembly with regards to projects to be undertaken by the Assembly?
17. What benefits do the people in the Municipality derive from participating in the infrastructure distribution process?
18. How satisfied are they with the level of their participation in the distribution of infrastructure in the Municipality?
19. How would you describe the living condition of the people before the Assembly decided to provide them with infrastructure?
20. Could the infrastructure provided change the situation, and to what extent?
21. How is the living condition of the people after the project?
22. Which aspect of their lives have infrastructure projects impacted the most?
23. Would you say the Assembly has done well in developing the infrastructure base of the Municipality?

# KNUST

