UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPEMNT STUDIES

GOVERNANCE OF SOCIAL SERVICES - THE CASE OF POTABLE WATER AND BASIC SANITATION SERVICES DELIVERY WITHIN WA MUNICIPALITY.

BY

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April, 2018

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own original research whose findings have not been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere and that all citations in the work have been duly acknowledged.

Candidates Signature: ……. Date: ……

Name: MUSAH MOHAMMED AMIN

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies (UDS).

Supervisor's Signature: …… Date: ……

Name: …….....

ABSTRACT

The global recognition of governance in policy formulation has resulted in a shift from attention to a macro-level (national/global) questions of policy making and state-society relationship. As social development experts looked for answers to problems of access sustainability, 'governance' entered the vocabulary of social services operation and delivery as a means toward realising those answers. However, the approach to governance has been largely statist in the realm of a globalised world. The policy direction relative to water and sanitation in Ghana, just as any developing economy, has been toward expanding access coverage across the country to meet the global goal. Therefore, concentration on access expansion had left little room for policy makers, researchers and the academia alike to delve more into investigating the nature of user-provider relationship, beyond access to services. Hence, through exploratory as well as survey design, this study focused on governance practice at the organisational level, as relates to service delivery. The motivation is to establish a service user-provider relationship framework relative to the existing policy regime. In that regard, extent of user-participation in the service delivery framework within the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana was determined. The findings of the study indicated an element of governance at the organisational level in relation to the operations of water and sanitation services providers. The organisational management of service-provider makes room for interactive and responsive participatory channels, revealed in this study. However, the extent of participation significantly varied between water and sanitation service-users. Whilst the sanitation management service had shown high user-participation, that of water instead was very low. On this basis, the study concluded that, the policy regime determines which and how service-provider operates relative to delivery of water and sanitation services. However, it is the nature of organisational management of the service-provider which determines the extent of user-participation in the user-provider relationship in the sector. Therefore, the study recommends for a deliberate policy to promote effective competition in both water and sanitation sectors, among service-providers. This will lead to a more user-inclusive in management operations of service providers, hence promoting participation (i.e. governance).

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my supportive parents- Alhaji Mohammed Al-Amin Yussif and Hajia Mariama Tanye.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LISTS OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ACKRONYMS

APRM-African Peer Review Mechanism

CBOs-Community Based Organisations

CDD-Center for Democratic Development

CIDA-Canadian International Development Agency

CSOs-Civil Service Organisations

CWSA-Community Water and Sanitation Agency

DANIDA-Danish International Development Agency

DFID-Department for International Development

DHS-Demographic and Health Survey

ECA-Economic Commission for Africa

EPA-Environmental Protection Agency

ERP-Economic Recovery Programme

ES-Environmental Sanitation

ESP-Environmental Sanitation Policy

GLSS-Ghana Living Standard Survey

GPRS-Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy

GSS-Ghana Statistical Service

GWCL-Ghana Water Company Limited

GWSC-Ghana Water and Sewerage Corporation

HIPC-Highly Indebted and Poor Country

IDA-International Development Assistance

IIAG-Ibrahim Index of African Governance

IMF-International Monetary Fund

ISODEC-Integrated Social Development Center

IWRM-Integrated Water Resources Management

MDGs-Millennium Development Goals

MLGRD-Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development

MMDAs- Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies

MWRWH-Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing

NDDSS-Network Distributed Decision Support System

NDPC-National Development Planning Commission

NEPAD-New Partnership for African Development

NG-Network Governance

NGOs-Non Governmental Organisations

NPG-New Public Governance

NPM-New Public Management

PA-Public Administration

PHC-Population and Housing Census

PNDC-Provisional National Defense Council

PPA-Public Procurement Authority

PPP-Public Private Partnership

PURC-Public Utility Regulatory Commission

SCIE-Social Care Institute for Excellence

SDGs-Sustainable Development Goals

SOEs-State Own Enterprises

UDS-University for Development Studies

UNDP-United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF-United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

USAID-United States Agency for International Development

UWR-Upper West Region

WHO-World Health Organization

WMA-Wa Municipal Assembly

ZGL-Zoomlion Ghana Limited

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Over the past decade, governance as a concept has moved to center stage in the international development agenda (United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2008; Kendie and Martens 2008; Hassal 2009), and this is reflected in the multiple-definitions and interpretations of the concept (USAID, 2008). While many of the definitions emphasize on policy making and implementation, most relate to accountability relationship framework among stakeholders at global, regional, national and community levels (Berkel and Borghi, 2007; World Bank, 2012). The global recognition of governance in policy formulation, according to the USAID (2008), has resulted in focusing attention on searching for answers to questions of policy making and politics at the global level, and state-society relationship at the national level.

As social development sectorial specialists looked for solutions to sustainability challenges and system failures in the delivery of social services, governance entered the vocabulary of social services delivery and specifically health-which includes clean water and improved basic sanitation (Jonoski, 2002; Franks, 2004; USAID, 2008). In that regard, countries have undertaken and continue to take a wide range of social service delivery reforms- especially in basic health care with specific emphasis on drinking water and basic sanitation (Plantinga et al., 2008). Such reforms have influenced institutional relationship and changed the ways in which citizens participate in and experience social service delivery system (World Bank, 2012). Describing social service, Teshome et al. (2012) advanced that they are public services such as water supply, sanitation management and road infrastructure that affect the lives of the poor. Particularly, water and sanitation, as social services, have received global recognition relative to how to improve access through a governance system because of their direct relationship with poverty alleviation (Rogers and Hall, 2003; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2015a).

Consequently, governance approaches relative to social services had tilted severely toward ensuring access expansion, with the poor/vulnerable as the prime target (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006, WaterAid, 2010). Therefore, projecting the need for increased access to clean water and improved sanitation, as core elements of social service, to all and most especially the poor have become universal currency in literature, the media, national policies and the global development agenda setting (Kendie et al., 2008). This is in an attempt to demonstrate the extent of effort at fighting poverty or improving standard of living among the populace, noted in Kendie et al (2008). In that regard, the prominent global goals target on water and sanitation had largely influenced direction of copious works, research and most countries' governance of water and sanitation delivery, especially in the South (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). By 2002, there was a global goal targeting water and sanitation access expansion among the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which is the goal seven (MDG-7) (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; WaterAid, 2010). Subsequent to MDG-7 is the adoption of Sustainable Development Goal six (SDG-6) in 2015, which also has a target on water and sanitation access (UNDP, 2015b). In effect, the primary target of both goals aims at increasing access to clean water and improved basic sanitation in the world, with special premium on the deprived section in the society (UNDP, 2015a). Therefore, between 2002, as at the time MDG-7 was adopted, and 2015 which marks the declaration of SDG-6, a lot of the studies and works on water and sanitation services mainly hinged on how to improve access to such services or finding reasons for lack of it, as seen in (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Kendie et al, 2008; Kanton et al., 2010; Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2014; UNDP, 2015).

The UNDP (2015b) revealed that 2.1 billion people, worldwide, have gained access to improved water and sanitation by 2015. Globally, 147 countries, including Ghana, have met the MDG-7 indicator on water, whilst only 95 countries, excluding Ghana, have met MDG-7 indicator on sanitation and 77 countries, again excluding Ghana, have met both (UNDP, 2015a). According to the UNDP (2015a), most countries in Africa struggled to meet MDG target indicators on water and sanitation due to fragile economic bases. In its progress report on MDG's in Ghana, National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) (2015) indicated that significant gains had been made in access to improved water sources by 2013. However, the reverse was the case in sanitation due to low investment in that area (i*bid*). In that regard, Ghana has the fourth lowest rate of access to improved sanitation coverage worldwide (Kanton and Kosoe, 2013). This is partly attributed to lack of effective refuse collection system from premises (Kanton et al., 2010).

Based on the 2010 Population and Housing Census (PHC), the proportion of people with access to improved sources of water in Ghana was recorded 81.6% (GSS; 2014a; NDPC, 2015). Meanwhile, only a quarter of the population in Ghana has access to improved sanitation, by 2013 (*Ibid*). According to 2013 Water and Sanitation Sector Monitoring Platform (Kanton and Kosoe, 2013), Upper West Region has the second highest number of households (78.7%) without any form of latrine/ toilet facility in Ghana. Moreover, according to the GSS (2014b), only 12% of household population is observed to have pipe-borne drinking water in their houses, whilst 27.8% rely on outside pipe-borne water and 8.4% depend on public tap/standpipe in the Wa Municipality.

Achieving even in a modest fashion the goal of social services, for all, poses very significant challenge to all of the countries in the world, but especially for transitional and developing ones (UNDP, 2000). Governments have been unable to provide, operate and maintain social services, as reflected in poor governance framework, in line with rapid urbanisation, due to resource deficiencies, ineffective bureaucracies, poor sanitary attitudes among section of urban dwellers, weak urban management and increased population growth (Mehrotra, 2006; Teshome et al., 2012). As a result, by the beginning of 1990's, the policy community started searching for development practice tools that would go beyond the state, to ensure access to services expansion (Hassal, 2009; Teshome et al., 2012). The search called for radical reforms that advocated the involvement of multiple actors representing multiple sectors of society, which transformed the issues and discussions of how to improve social service delivery from the spheres of public administration to governance (Teshome et al., 2012; Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Bracci, 2014). In that regard, 'better governance' has been identified as an essential ingredient of reforms targeted at improving access to services and outcomes for people; like clean water and improved sanitation, enhanced learning outcomes, etc. (World Bank, 2012). In that direction, western welfare states went under reform, relative to social service management, and an important part of those reforms is the introduction of privatisation (Plantinga et al., 2008). One of the components of the welfare states that have been subjected to privatisation is the provision of social services (Plantinga et al., 2008). In that sense, provision of social services is commissioned to the market and as a result, the role of the state changes from provider to buyer of public services (Adda, 1996; Mehrotra, 2006). Given the myriad of policy inefficiencies, regarding provision of social services, currently faced by most governments of developing countries, governance principles, such as the public sector liberalisation reforms, were deemed to offer a solution and mechanisms by which social service

policy formulation and implementation can be better executed for the people (Aryee, 1996; Hassal, 2009). While such a reform may be politically sensitive, the expected poverty impact is judged to be immense (Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008).

As part of efforts at reforming social service delivery management in Ghana, the government launched the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) in 1983 (Adda, 1996). This led to the adoption of urban water and sanitation reform policy with the aim of streamlining the role, functions and decision-making processes of actors within the water and sanitation sector in an effort to expand access within the urban centers in Ghana (Mensah, 1999 cited in Kanton, 2010). The reform transformed the Ghana Water and Sewerage Corporation (GWSC) into a limited liability company- Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) to ensure wider and improved access coverage (Kanton, 2010; GWCL, 2015). Meanwhile, the responsibility of sanitation and waste management services was also shifted to Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs), such as Wa Municipal Assembly, to ensure improved sanitation access (Kanton, 2010).

Clearly, discussions in the literature have merged the two services- water and sanitation often, perhaps due to the direct as well as complementary relationship noticeable between the two. This implied a strong nexus between the two services. In their observation, Kanton et al. (2010) put it that, as communities gain better access to water, the amount of sullage and waste generated decreases. However, what is fascinating is how most of these varied works on water and sanitation, as cited above, concentrated highly on access or lack of it whilst its governance is seen in the realm of the state or globe. This was amplified in the adoption of SDG-6, by governments (globally), which aims at ensuring access to safe water and improved basic sanitation to all by 2030 (UNDP, 2015b). This is because MDG-7 could not meet its target indicators (on level of 'access') satisfactorily, especially in Ghana (NDPC, 2015). Meanwhile, the extent of sustaining as well as consolidating the access gained, through improving a participatory user-provider relationship framework at organizational level, equally needs attention. However, empirical findings to that effect is at best deficient. Water and sanitation governance should be based on a participatory approach involving users, planners, policy makers and providers at all levels to promote effective water and sanitation governance (McGranahan and Budds, 2003).

Therefore, determining the extent a service delivery process (i.e. user-provider relation) has been user-participatory as well as user-responsive is the crux of this study.

1.2 Problem Statement

Governance of social service delivery, especially, health (including clean water and basic sanitation), education and infrastructure, is still a major concern for governments globally, and even more severe in the developing countries (Kendie and Martens, 2008; Ndiaye et al., 2013). These services would generally be required in large numbers and yet financial and other resources available to ensure its deliveries are always limited to support the services delivery by governments (Ramakrishnan, 2013). This is not uncommon among most countries in the South i.e. Asia, South America and Africa, but exists in some European countries (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006). Therefore, the development of adequate economic resource base is required to facilitate the meeting of these costs by countries, especially the developing ones (UNDP, 2000).

Water scarcity affects more than 40% of people around the world, so an alarming figure that it is projected to increase with the rise of global temperatures as a consequence of climate change (UNDP, 2015b). Whiles 2.4 billion people have no access to improved sanitation services, 1.2 billion lack any form of sanitation facility and 5,000 children die every day from avoidable water and sanitation related contamination as at 2014 (UNDP, 2015c). Since 1990, 2.1 billion people have gained access to improved water and sanitation (UNDP, 2015b). However, dwindling supplies of safe drinking water is a major challenge to ensuring consistency and effective access, hence impacting every continent (ibid). To that extent, it is projected that at least one in every four people is likely to be affected by recurring water shortages by 2050, UNDP (2015b) further indicated. Hence, the governance approach to ensuring universal access to safe and affordable drinking water by 2030 requires, as governments and partners, we invest in adequate infrastructure, provide sanitation facilities and encourage hygiene at every level, concluded by UNDP (2015b).

The problematic picture above has always triggered interest in investigating into approaches to improve access mostly to the poor, relative to water and sanitation services, from the District level, through National to International level (Kanton et al., 2010). This is evident in the adoption of SDG-6 which continues to stimulate interest in governments, policy-makers, researchers and other authorities to continue their efforts into how to expand access, focusing the poor (UNDP, 2015b). The water and sanitation global target is intended to place deprived households at the center of a new water and sanitation agenda, as pertains in policy and implementation (i.e. governance) by governments globally (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006; and WaterAid, 2010).

Dissatisfaction with poor social services delivery, impeding greater access, has been at the core of assessment by many donor agencies of the Ghanaian economy (Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008). This explains the frequent calls by donors for public sector reform, which they consider to be a key requirement for raising the economic growth rate needed to improve access to services, mostly among the poor (Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008). This is because there is a direct relationship between poverty reduction efforts and level of access to social services or ineffective delivery in a country, and even more pronounced correlation with water and sanitation service (World Health Organization (WHO), 2002; Ndiaye et al., 2013). Therefore, not uncommon to see effort at fighting poverty reflects in how to improve water and sanitation services access coverage, especially among the poor or deprived section of the society, as pertained in Ghana and beyond, yet the resources available for such fight remains woefully inadequate (Kendie et al., 2008; Abdulai, 2013).

However, the inability of the state (i.e. government) to ensure sustained access to basic service like clean water and basic sanitation do not stem from financial resources constraints and allocative inefficiencies alone, argued by Mehrotra (2006). In that regard, deficiency in access coverage regarding social services in most developing countries is traceable to weak regulatory regime, corruption, and ineffective bureaucracies and poor organisational context resulting from bad governance of the state maintained by Mehrotra (2006). To that extent, Ndiaye et al. (2013) cited an institutional failure and poor attitude of service delivery operators and the public respectively, as a setback factor to meeting targeted access coverage, adequately, let alone sustaining it. Importantly, how to ensure that operators (either private, public or both) are made, through regulation (i.e. governance), to provide better services, especially to the lower-income groups or the deprived section of the society, noted by McGranahan and Satterthwaite (2006), is increasingly becoming a major obstacle to sustainable service delivery. Observed by Kunfaa (1999 cited in Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008), the poor people (i.e. end-users of service) are usually excluded from participation in the design and oversight of policies and programmes that affect their lives by policy-makers and service providers alike. In that sense the end-users among the public suffers from information asymmetry, since the information possessed by service providers is often not available to them (Teshome et al., 2012). Therefore, this affects the poor's (end-user's) capacity to 'voice', by extension participation, leading to unsustainable as well as unresponsive service delivery process (Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008; Teshome et al., 2012).

Private sector participation in potable water and basic sanitation services delivery to improve access, arising from public sector reform, has been bias towards meeting the demands of upper and middle income groups (in urban towns) relative to lower income groups (in peri-urban) (Abdulai, 2013). Hence equality of access to the services among all segments in the society is highly compromised (Kanton, 2010). This has severely contributed to woefully lower as well as ineffective sanitation services access coverage in Ghana (Abongo, 2013; NDPC, 2015). Consequently, the few available drains are used for refuse disposal thereby further compounding the problem of drains being turned into open sewers with putrid smells (Kanton et al, 2010).That notwithstanding, the health as well as social catastrophic implication of turning drains into dumping ground is grave. Related in Abongo (2013), 2011 witnessed one of Ghana's worsts cholera outbreak as well as seasonal floods resulting from chocked drains. In that outbreak which ensued, a total of 5,666 cholera cases had been reported in health facilities among 5 out of the 10 regions and within 31 MMDAs of Ghana (Abongo, 2013). This resulted in 69 deaths in total, with Greater Accra region emerging as the hardest hit with a record of 4,499 cholera cases, representing a little over 79% of the National figure and 39 deaths whilst Upper West Region recorded only 8 cases with no related death though (Abongo, 2013).

Many NGOs, CBOs, private enterprises are currently involved in several initiatives to improve urban water and sanitation provision (i.e. access) in the country, subsequent to the public sector reforms (Kanton et al., 2010). Notable amongst these are WaterAid, WaterHealth, Action Aid, Christian Aid, ISODEC, Zoomlion Ghana limited etc. who complement the effort of the state in access expansion (Kanton, et al., 2010; Tawiah, 2016). More communities in Ghana have over the years been without access to potable drinking water forcing residents to spend resources mostly on unwholesome sources (Tawiah, 2016). In this regard, many residents contract water-borne diseases such as diarrhea and cholera (Abongo, 2013; Tawiah, 2016).

> "The problem this country faces is that you have contaminated water available to the people. In fact, 25% of the children today are sick because of the contaminated water that they drink" Vikas Shah; Chief operations officer of WaterHealth Ghana (Source: Tawiah, 2016).

According to the Ghana Living Standard Survey (GLSS-6) report by GSS (2014), a little over 48% of the total population in the Wa Municipality have access to improved water sources, especially the urban dwellers. Though GSS (2014a) as well as Kanton and Kosoe (2013) indicated significant

level of indiscriminate disposal of both liquid and solid waste in the Municipality, however, less than one-quarter of the population was observed to have toilet facilities and good drainage in their homes, especially among the planned residents in the urban center. Therefore, this suggests the urban dwellers in Wa enjoy some level of access to social services of water and sanitation, despite the huge deficit. However, the extent of service-responsiveness to user's need and sustainability of the access gained, as pertains in the Municipality is empirically unknown. Most empirical investigations' focus and direction in water and sanitation sector had been skewed toward how to improve access coverage, mostly among the poor or lower income groups in the District (e.g. Wa Municipality), through National to International governance levels, as manifested in (Kanton et al., 2010; WaterAid, 2010; GSS, 2012; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013; GSS, 2014; UNDP, 2015).

In the works of both Abongo (2013) and Abdulai (2013), which bordered on assessment of household's environmental sanitation management practices and community participation in improving access to sanitation, respectively, within the Wa Municipality, a significant access level among the planned residences relative to woefully abysmal access among the unplanned in the urban center was revealed. More so, Tiifu (2013) made an effort to assess the level of awareness regarding environmental sanitation policy relative to its effective implementation to improve access and attitude, in the study area. These studies, like many others, have all revealed an impressive access coverage among the urban dwellers relative to the peri-urban/rural areas within the study area, hence all had recommended on how to expand access, primarily among the poor.

At this point, it is safe to conclude that while access expansion or lack of it, relative to a broader governance approach, has been the focal point of copious empirical studies and works in the water and sanitation sector, there is almost none-existence of same studies on extent of participatory provider-user interaction through a governance framework that is applicable specifically at an *organisational level* but not a broader *District/State/Global level*. Therefore, there exists woefully insufficient empirical investigation into the extent at which social services of water and sanitation delivery system is user-responsive as well as participatory, as pertains to governance principles at organisational level in Wa Municipality. Hence, beyond tackling access coverage deficiency as a social problem, the literature gap has been insufficient work on determining:

How user-participatory is the service delivery process along a policy framework in the study area?

1.3 Research questions

Main research question

To what extent does policy regime encourages a provider-user participatory interaction in the water and sanitation sector in Wa Municipality?

1.3.1 Specific research questions

i. How user-inclusive is the operational structure of service provider in Wa Municipality?

ii. What is the extent of user-participation in service delivery process in Wa Municipality?

iii. What is the policy outlook of water and sanitation services delivery in Wa Municipality

1.4 Research objectives

Main research objective

To determine the extent at which policy regime encourages user-provider participatory interaction in the water and sanitation sector in Wa Municipality.

1.4.1 Specific objectives

i. To examine if service-provider's operational structure is user-inclusive in the Municipality.

ii. To assess the extent of user-participation in service delivery process in the Municipality.

iii. To determine the policy outlook of water and sanitation services delivery in the Municipality.

1.5 Scope of the study

This study, primarily, focused on potable water and basic sanitation services end-user's extent of participation in contributing to shaping service delivery operations in order to address the user's need and concern for the purpose of contributing to access sustainability. In this regard, the variables related to good governance which were considered included access, knowledge, inclusion, interaction and responsiveness. After establishing availability of service (i.e. access), the researcher further probed how processes leading to the service delivery had been user-inclusive, user-responsive and interactive relative to existing policy regime. This implies the target population of this study was those service-users (households) who have regular access to such services on one hand and staff of both service delivery and regulatory organisations in water and sanitation sector, on the other. In that regard, one specific service-provider was identified each from water and sanitation sector, respectively, in the study area. These are Ghana Water Company Limited and Zoomlion Ghana Limited for water and sanitation services, respectively. This enabled the researcher to gather and collate first-hand information as well as data on water and sanitation service management. The varied concerns of household (as a service-user) were determined, extent of participation in service management and operations by the household service-user was also assessed and how service-provider is responsive to the user's concern was examined. This was executed through survey interview with sampled household service-users within access coverage areas of water and sanitation services as well as key informants interview among institutional respondents, among other techniques. This study did not target those household/population without access to services. This is because those without access could not have responded to how they are served, let alone their experience in partaking in the service management and operations.

Again, the policy environment which regulates the activities of service provider was equally examined, relative to service delivery operations, and presented. The regulator-organisations in the study area engaged in this study were Wa Municipal Assembly (WMA), Community Water and Sanitation Agency (CWSA) and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). Geographically, the area of this study was the urban center of Wa Municipality because the proportion of end-users able to access improved water and basic sanitation are larger in the town than the fringes (GSS, 2012; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013). The study was carried out between 2016, February to January, 2017.

1.6 Significance of the study

Primarily, this study made an effort to depart from the norm relative to most studies approach to water and sanitation as well as its governance. This study went beyond just establishing existence of 'access coverage' to assess extent of consumer/user contribution toward management and operations of service provider-organisations in water and sanitation sector. This made it possible to examine governance tenets at the organisational level, instead of the usually broader approach by most studies. This is significant in contributing to knowledge on the extent of responsiveness and user-friendliness, hence the sustainability of access gained over a time period, as pertains to service delivery in the water and sanitation sector. Thus, the extent of concerns and needs articulation by the service-user, and how the concerns are incorporated in the management and operations of service provider was established from this study. More so, the results of this study will contribute in shaping the operations of service providers toward a more user responsive and sustainable outcome.

Importantly, the result of this study revealed the human resource professional capacity of the selected organisations assessed, relative to social services of water and sanitation governance. To that extent, the professional expertise, tools and instruments relevant in executing good governance practices, in relation to social service delivery were revealed, at the organisational level. This is relevant to policy-makers, researchers and planners in their attempt to improve the 'how' of governance, especially at organisational level. The extent of governance success, at whichever level, in practice shall depend much on the quality of the human resource involved in the scheme of affairs relative to the governance structure concerned, argued World Bank (2012).

Furthermore, a lot of work and studies on social service have dwelled predominantly on the 'poor'/vulnerable/low-income groups who lack services and these studies made tremendous strive to contribute in approaches to serve these section of the society better. However, in an effort to depart from such direction so as to be able to explore and project extent of sustainability and user-responsiveness of access gained, this study targeted the 'well-to-do' section with regular access to water and sanitation services and assessed how service providers have been responsive to their needs and interests. In that regard, the policy regulatory regime was examined relative to user participation in service management and operations of service provider. This revealed how policy could stimulate deep user-participation in governance of social services or otherwise.

Relevant human development rating agencies, on good governance, place premium on not only access, but as well the channels or policy environment which allows for user participation in shaping the outcomes of social service provision (Kanbur, 2004; Hope and Ronald, 2005). Some notable, among these agencies, include the Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG), Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) Secretariat and Center for Democratic Development (CDD). The outcome of their activities is critical in projecting the image of African Countries, in particular, among the comity of nations (Kanbur, 2004; Hope and Ronald, 2005). More so, the results has the potential to attract or discourage a number of benefits, like foreign direct investment inflow into African domestic economies (ibid). Meanwhile, such agencies need empirical data such as the findings of this study for their analysis and programmes, resulting in an outcome of evidential value. The findings of this study eventually contributes to the body of existing knowledge relevant in governance of social services, especially at an organisational level. The findings of this study provides basis for further investigation in some key areas regarding effectiveness of service delivery.

1.7 Limitations of the study and remedies employed

This study was basically limited to only households with regular access to services. To that extent, among the major challenge encountered in the course of this study included the difficulty in meeting significant number of the household respondents at home coupled with the dispersed spatial distribution of their locations. These challenges emerged during a pilot field work to pre-test the tools and instruments for data collection. This offers the researcher an opportunity to make provisions in addressing the limitations during the main field work execution exercise. Again, another group of respondents this study concentrated on were institutional respondents. On that score, this study was challenged by lack of corporation on the part of some institutional respondents. Among the practical measures the researcher employed to remedy these limitations relative to that of household respondents were ‘drop-and-pick questionnaire’ model and work site visitation strategy. The highly literate nature of the respondents was leveraged on, to drop a questionnaire at a respondent’s home and picked it up (after it has been self-administered by the respondent) at later date by the research assistants. However, the researcher ensured a respondent’s contact line was provided on an administered questionnaire with a specialised label for a specific

household. This made it possible for the researcher to get back to a respondent for clarification, if the need be. Therefore, possible distortion of facts was curtailed in the process of data collation. The researcher made an effort to locate a 'recalcitrant' respondent's work place and move there to track such respondent for questionnaire administration. Furthermore, the researcher employed four volunteer research assistant services of first degree holders from University for Development Studies (UDS), Wa Campus, to address the spatial dispersion challenge relative to geographic locale of respondents' houses across the study area. In this regard, the researcher zoned the identified locales in the field work into four residential areas upon which each research assistant was assigned to one area, whilst the researcher plays a coordination as well as backstopping role.

Regarding meeting the institutional respondents' challenges, firstly, the researcher sought from the Department of Governance and Development Management of UDS, Wa Campus, a formal letter of introduction indicating the purpose of the study to these respondents, and that the study is sanctioned by the Department for purely academic purpose. This contributed in easing cooperation with the respondents for proper engagement. Secondly, the researcher sourced for the list and contacts of individuals difficult to meet at post who partly make up the institutional sample frame. On that basis, the research contacted them on phone and succeeded in schedule time to finally get them for key informant interviews. These limitations, through the measures outlined, were greatly reduced hence not compromising the scientific value of the result from this study.

1.8 Organisation of the study

The report of this study is organized and presented in five (5) chapters. Chapter one contains an introduction to the study, which includes: study background, problem statement, the research questions as well as the objectives this study seeks to achieve, scope of the study, relevance of the study, encountered limitations as well as remedies employed and organisational description of the study report. Chapter two includes all literatures reviewed for the purpose of building a conceptual position, grounded in governance theories, within the context of the study area. Chapter three composes of the profiling of the study area and the methodology adopted in designing the operationalisation of this study which includes: the sampling strategy as well as data gathering method and technique adopted in data analysis. Chapter four presents the study's results and discussion of findings. Finally, chapter five entails summary of findings, conclusions arrived after the study and recommendations advanced as a result of the conclusions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at carrying out a discovery mission to project existence of knowledge gap(s), relative to good governance practice and social service delivery in the water and sanitation sector. Previous works and studies by authorities and researchers were critically evaluated, as it pertains to the objectives of this study. In that regard, some unexplored areas were identified to serve as satisfactory bases for this study. Therefore, this chapter contains definitions and evaluation of key concepts of the study. In addition, evaluation of varied appropriate theoretical dispositions and empirical research findings were presented and analysed, respectively, in the water and sanitation sector as well as governance. The primary purpose of such exercise is to build up a conceptual framework that situates this study within the perspectives of theories and forgone literary works, as relates to governance of social service, with specific focus on water and sanitation sector. More so, another significance for the reviewing of literature is to put together such vital pieces of information capable of directing this study, in terms of approach and methodology.

2.2 Definition of key concepts

2.2.1 Governance

Governance has been the subject of multiple definitions and interpretations (United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2008). This might be as a result of the multiple ways in which the concept of governance has been used in social scientific publications on governance and policy (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). To that extent, the World Bank (1991) defines governance as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development. Similarly, Bell (2002) defines governance as 'the use of institutions, structures of authority and collaboration to allocate resources and coordinate or control activity in society or the economy'. However, to be more precise with the manner as well as the collaboration process, governance was referred to as the process by which stakeholders articulate their interests, their input is absorbed, decisions are taken and implemented, and decision makers are held accountable (Bakker, 2003 as cited in McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006).

In their exploratory work on the concept of governance, Berkel and Borghi (2007) made a distinction between two general definitions of 'governance' in the context of social policy analysis. First, it broadly refers to the ways in which (international, national, regional, or local) governments reconsider their strategies to deal with social issues such as – jobs, sickness, water and sanitation. This is a response to what are usually referred to as globalisation and international competition, socioeconomic and demographic changes, Berkel and Borghi (2007) advanced. Secondly, in a more narrow sense and in the context of social policy making, governance refers not so much to the 'what' of social policies and social policy reforms, but rather to the 'how' of policy making and policy implementation processes (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). Here, the focus is not on the content of policy schemes and programmes, but on the institutions and actors, and their relationships, involved in policy making and policy delivery. In that regard, governance has been aptly described as the art of problem solving (Hassal, 2009).

Governance is generally understood as the way in which the state interacts with its citizens and other sectors (Fyfe, 2004 cited in Siddiquee, 2008). It means much more than the government and includes all other actors like firms, NGOs and other civil society groups, asserted by Siddiquee (2008). It signifies not only the institutions through which the authority is exercised in the society, it also emphasises the processes and the whole range of relationship between state and other non-state actors, argued further by Siddiquee (2008). According to the United Nations Development Programme- UNDP (2010 as cited in Applebaugh, 2010), governance is the "proper functioning of institutions and their acceptance by the public" (legitimacy). And it has been used to invoke the efficacy of government and the achievement of consensus by democratic means- participation (Applebaugh, 2010). Governance relates to the processes of interaction and decision-making among the actors involved in a collective problem that lead to the creation, reinforcement or reproduction of social norms and institutions (Hufty, 2011). Furthermore, Zaidi, Ringold and Fatou (2012 cited in World Bank, 2012) maintained that governance refers to traditions and institutions under which authority is exercised for the common good to promote all-inclusive participation and growth (Zaidi *et al.*, 2012 as cited in World Bank, 2012).

From the reviewed definitions, most of them have laid much emphasis on a broader or higher level (community, national and international) approach on governance practice, although all have been consistent on interaction –i.e. stakeholders' participation in the process. This suggests little effort to zero the governance studies down to an organisational level. Meanwhile, governance processes can be identified in a form of corporate governance, organisational behavior/development among others at the organisational level (Hassal, 2009). More so, the definitions have largely relate participant stakeholders to influential categories of groupings, institutions and actors at global, national and community/local level. This implies a collective approach with little consideration to equally significant individual service users, like a household. Therefore, this study situated the governance approach at the organisational level on one hand, and household service-user as a key stakeholder on the other, relative to interaction in the delivery of water and sanitation services.

2.2.2 Social Service

From their study on social service programs for children and their families in the United States, Shyne and Schroeder (1978) defined social service as organised assistance provided by public or private agencies and organisations to members of a society. Rose and Lawton (1999), writing on Public Services Management in England, described social service in terms of public sector policy instruments that ensures provision of services in sectors such as education, health (including clean water and sanitation) or housing for the people in a welfare state. According to the World Bank (2001), social services are rather such projects and services delivered with the aim of improving the standards of living for the poor and vulnerable population groups. According to Mehrotra (2006) and in support of Rose and Lawton (1999) definition, social service involves the interventions in the spheres of health, education, water and sanitation, reproductive health and nutrition, within a geographic location. Services delivered for vulnerable groups in a population so as to improve their living standard was related to social service, in Richardson and Patana (2012), almost similar as World Bank (2001) position. However, Richardson and Patana (2012) made an effort to classify the social service into two- i.e. *priority service* (emergency service) and *supportive service* (self-sufficiency service).

> "In the case of most vulnerable populations, this first services- *priority service* is often a service designed for emergency treatment- to help the service user meet basic needs (health, housing, or basic material). Following the emergency service, providers may want to help the user access further services in support of self-sufficiency or dependency- *supportive service*. This second stage intervention can be interpreted as preventive interventions, designed to avoid repeat visits to emergency treatment services (such as hospitalisation, prison, or emergency shelter), or in early-diagnosis, or early intervention, designed to prevent emergency services use altogether". (Richardson and Patana, 2012: 7)

More so, Teshome et al. (2012) described social services as public services such as water supply, sanitation and road infrastructures that affect the lives of the poor. Similarly, Ramakrishnan (2013) defined social service as public good and services essential in ensuring certain minimum level of wellbeing to the poor as they depend on the service for survival. Holland (2013 as cited in Social Care Institute for Excellence-SCIE, 2013) puts it that social care services involve relationships. This is because, such services are delivered by people to people (Holland, 2013 as cited in SCIE, 2013). Holland (2013) continues to argue that such relationship can help people to live the lives they want to live, whilst at the same time ensuring their wellbeing and safety.

There are significant semblances among most of the social service definitions, in the varied views as expressed above. Most especially, on the elements that make up social service. The occurrence of almost similar elements- especially water and sanitation, in most of the definitions justifies the social service elements selected for the purpose of this study. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the 'term social service' or 'service' is synonymous to potable water and basic sanitation, as may be used by the researcher. To that extent, this study adopted World Health Organization (WHO) (2002) definitions of potable water and basic sanitation. Potable water refers to safe drinking water used for domestic purposes, drinking, cooking and personal hygiene (WHO, 2002). The safe was used in the context of microbial, chemical and physical characteristics that meet WHO guidelines or national standards on drinking water quality and sources of drinking water. Among the sources considered to be safe by WHO (2002) includes household pipe-connection, public stand pipe, borehole, rain water. Access standard is measured by household's ability to have 2litres of water per day for each member in less than a kilometer radius (ibid). Basic sanitation, on the other hand, is the lowest-cost technology ensuring hygienic excreta and silage (liquid waste) disposal and a clean and healthful living environment (solid waste management) at home and in the neighborhood (WHO, 2002).

Concentration on the vulnerable and the poor, as social service main target users/consumers, can be observed in most of the definitions (World Bank, 2001; Richardson and Patana, 2012; Teshome et al., 2012; and Ramakrishnan, 2013). This approach neglected other stratum of members, within the society, who equally need social service despite their social status. However, Mehrotra (2006) and Holland (2013), have not inclined toward the poor and vulnerable as recipients of social service neither the recipients were clearly defined. Provision of social service, in contemporary society, had transcended the spheres of the state, as argued by Shyne and Schroeder (1978). For that matter, social service may not be an exclusive public good as observed in the definitions of the term by Rose and Lawton (1999); Teshome et al., (2012); and Ramakrishnan (2013), especially, in the face of market liberalization policy in the sector observed in other works (Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Plantinga et al., 2008).

Significantly, emanating from the review of the key concepts - governance and social service- is some degree of systematic relationship between them. As put by Hassal (2009), 'the beauty with the study of governance is that it can be applied to any field or discipline. Governance provides the functioning structures, institutions, organisational design, legislation and regulation for the smooth operationalisation of policy toward social service delivery. As Holland (2013) put it social service involves relationship. For that matter the relationship will triumph base on solid functioning structure, regulation and policy frameworks. Therefore, drawing on governance tenets in this relationship becomes crucial. Hence the relevance of governance in social service delivery as acknowledged in USAID (2008) as well as World Bank (2012) to ensure sustainability. Nonetheless, the approach of 'governance', as observed from these sources, projected a broad application of the term relative to ensuring social service delivery or production in a society at governmental level or by the state. However, Bevir (2013) made an effort at 'decentralising' (zero down) the approach to organisational level. Meanwhile, Bakker (2003 cited in McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006) referred to governance of social services as the range of political, organisational and administrative processes through which communities articulate their interests, their input is absorbed, decisions are made and implemented, and decision makers are held accountable in the development and management of water resources and delivery of water services. In a related submission, water governance is the range of political, social, economic and administrative systems that are in place to develop and manage water resources, and delivery of water resources, at different levels of society (Rogers and Hall, 2003).

Positing on the concepts of power and agency, Cleaver and Franks (2005) saw water governance as 'the system of actors, resources, mechanisms, and processes which mediate society's access to water'. The same definitions may apply to sanitation governance, maintained by McGranahan and Satterthwaite (2006). Cleaver and Franks (2005) had contended their definition helps to distinguish between governance, government and management, a distinction which is sometimes blurred in the literature. Government represents formal structures through which the state orders its affairs, including its water as well as sanitation affairs, asserted by Cleaver and Franks (2005). Management comprises the actual processes by which water resources are allocated and delivered (Cleaver and Franks, 2005). Therefore, both government and management form part of the wider system of governance which mediate people's access to water and sanitation, observed by Cleaver and Franks (2005). Despite the effort of Cleaver and Franks (2005) to build and improve upon the governance of water as well as sanitation definition, it focused primarily on access and little attention on participation. Therefore, beyond access, what are the mechanisms that allow end-user (at the household level) of water and sanitation services participate and contribute in decision-making process, as a key stakeholder in the governance policy framework?

In that regard, water and sanitation governance involves dynamic political processes of power and negotiation, particularly between service providers and users, acknowledged by Cleaver and Franks (2005). But how the relationship ensures effective user participation in shaping service outcome toward service sustainability and user-responsiveness, as advocated by 'good governance' tenets, is the focus of this study. Good governance is a participatory, transparent and accountable approach in policy making and implementation (USAID, 2008). The World Bank (2012) also states that: good governance implies inclusion and representation of all groups in the society in a relationship framework toward policy action. This is to promote accountability, integrity and transparency of local governments' actions in defining and pursuing shared goals. Obviously, good governance results when the relationship framework is not only more open, transparent, accountable, responsive, communicative and inclusive, resulting from effective stakeholder-participation, but guided also by regulation, standard and rule of law (Aryee, 1996; USAID, 2008; World Bank, 2012). This was what Jonoski (2002) refers to a network between the general population (as consumers/users) and decision-maker (service provider) in policy making and implementation approaches. Therefore, this study explored on how such relationship framework functions specifically in the organisational context.

2.3 Theoretical Perspectives of this study.

2.3.1 Evolution of social service governance policy outlook and approaches.

Theories of governance policy approach encompass a broad conceptual framework that had and continues to evolve with time (Hassal, 2009; Bracci, 2014). Some of the main theoretical approaches include: The Traditional Public Administration (PA), New Public Management (NPM), New Public Governance (NPG) and Network Governance (NG) as related in (Mehrotra, 2006; Hassal, 2009, Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Bracci, 2014).

The traditional Public Administration (PA)

The public administration (PA) approach to governance, primarily, emanates from two interlinked traditional governance theories (Immers and Duijin, 2005 cited in Hassal, 2009). These include the Max Weber's bureaucracy and Taylorism hierarchical theories (Cole, 2004). In essence, the PA hinged on a political/social theory and operated as statist ideology (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Berkel and Borghi, 2007). The ideology holds that society's needs and problems are best addressed by the state, through a politically not-for-profit defined ideology and processes (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Mehrotra, 2006; Berkel and Borghi, 2007). The traditional PA is considered to have greatly shaped the way that governments/states, globally, have governed and how the public sector has delivered desired public goods and services decades ago (Hassal, 2009). The PA was the dominant, if not the only, governance approach in social services delivery, especially water and sanitation between the 19^{th}-20^{th} centuries in the industrialising (Western) as well as Eastern Europe and North America (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). Strategies to improve basic social services delivery, in PA system as pertained in the West and North America then, typically emphasises the central role of the state in financing, providing and regulating services noted in Berry et al. (2004). In his assessment of selected developing (including African) countries' social service governance, Mehrotra (2006) observed, the state delivers social services in a top-down bureaucratic manner through sectorial line ministries down to the local level. However, that renders the state incapable of delivering these services effectively as long as it operates vertically (Mehrotra, 2006).This is because a vertical approach defeats one of the greatest sources of technical efficiency in the utilisation of resources- i.e. the synergy of interventions in the various social sectors, Mehrotra (2006) acknowledged. Traditionally, public sector, for that matter the

state, has been used as a passive vehicle for executing social services mandated by legislation, in the PA approach, as pertained in most developing countries (Ramakrishnan, 2013).

Clearly, delivery of various public goods and services, just as water and sanitation, was conceived as the basic responsibility of the state as well as executed hierarchically in PA approach. This is what the researcher refers to as the 'big papa' approach, as the user is always fed with services, at the expense of the state, and has no role in deciding how the service is delivered. This implies that services delivered are highly bound to be unresponsive to the actual needs and concerns of user, hence not user-friendly and unsustainable as the process is not all inclusive and participatory. Hence, this study seeks to project how all-inclusive participation in the operational management of social services of water and sanitation could improve service delivery to be more effective. More so, the PA approach tends to be inward looking and does not easily amend to change. However, it is proven to be efficient but not effective in the provision of social services such as water and sanitation (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Mehrotra, 2006; Berkel and Borghi, 2007).

Therefore, by 1970s, governments started making effort to look for innovative strategies and initiate major programmes of reform to reinvent governance and service delivery systems. This was partly due to an attempt to promote national competitiveness in the face of emerging globalisation (Siddiquee 2008). The world economic and political scenarios changed and nations, especially the developing ones, have found themselves in an extraordinary competition for trade and investment for which effective social service is one of the many indices use to attract investment (Mehrotra, 2006; Siddiquee, 2008). Given that service delivery is at the core of government's obligations to citizens in view of PA pragmatists, varied programmes of public reform have been pursued, to specifically redesign and reengineer systems and processes, aimed at promoting dramatic improvements in access, quality, and speed of social services. This led to adoption of economic theory to combine with PA approach leading to actually introducing governance tenets in social services delivery, in phases, as pertains in different parts of the world, by close of 1970s (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Bracci, 2014).

New Public Management (NPM)

By mid-1980s, there came a shift from *political/social theory* to *economic theory* toward social service delivery which led to adoption of New Public Management (NPM) (Teshome et al., 2012). However, the shift was not entirely away from the statist ideology (i.e. central role of state) in service delivery (Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Teshome et al., 2012). The focus of NPM movement was on creating institutional and organisational contexts in the public sector management/administration of services (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). To that extent, public sector administration was to mirror what is seen as critical aspects of private sector modes of organising and managing social service delivery (Teshome et al., 2012). In other words, whilst the NPM still maintains the statist ideology- i.e. the central role of state in delivery of social services, the state institutions and agencies involved are configured in line with market principles so as to operate just like a business, though owned and operated by the state (Bracci, 2014). This (NPM) marks the beginning of promoting a neoliberal agenda in the provision of water and sanitation services, especially among countries in the South by the Washington Consensus (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). Ewalt (2001) argued that NPM has often been used in conjunction with the term governance, however, many theorists make a distinction between the two. Governance is a political theory whereas NPM is an organisational theory. In contrast, Hassal (2009) believes that NPM is a shift toward integrating the private sector approach and culture into 'business of government' with a clear emphasis on output rather than input factors and re-sizing or right-sizing of the public sector and more cost effective methods of production of goods and services by the public sector- i.e. governance. Hence, Hassal (2009) equates NPM to 'governance' practice, unlike Ewalt (2001).

Before NPM approach gathered momentum in the South, it has long been practiced mostly in the Western European welfare states as well as North America (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). However, the NPM was eventually found to be insufficient in meeting the needed quantity and quality of public services to citizens (Berkel and Borghi 2007; Teshome et al., 2012; Bracci 2014). This was traceable to employment freeze that resulted in shortage of skilled professionals, and it was not possible to sustain let alone improve quality and expand public services in key areas such as education, health, safe drinking water, improved sanitation in pursuant of NPM approach, related in Teshome et al. (2012). The NPM was neither participatory nor all-inclusive and fixated on access, though some state agencies have been strengthen and made effective by the approach.

New Public Governance (NPG)

By the beginning of the 1990's, the policy community started searching for development practice tools as well as approach that would go beyond the state (Teshome et al., 2012). The search called for radical reforms that advocated for involvement of multiple actors, representing multiple sectors of society, which transformed the issues and discussions of public service from the spheres of public administration to good governance (McGranahan and Budds, 2003).

New Public Governance (NPG) emerged as a response to the increasingly complex and changing nature of social services for which NPM was insufficient to adequately address due to state bureaucracies (Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Bracci, 2014). The rise of NPG is often interpreted as a move away from the traditional bureaucratic, centralised and hierarchical ways of providing social services, but not necessarily replacing NPM entirely (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). In essence, the NPG emerged to be practiced alongside the NPM concurrently as a way of introducing some level of competition, in line with neoliberal agenda, in service delivery. However, while the NPM is still restricted to state provision of services, the NPG advocates for the involvement of private organisations in service provision (Berry et al., 2004; Ndiaye et al., 2013). The neoliberal agenda was effectively adopted in pursuant of NPG by the North-dominated international financial institutions (World Bank Group and the International Monetary Fund- Briton Woods Institutions). Using their leverage as creditors, the institutions aggressively suggested reforms to governments of indebted low and middle-income countries. This was done often through structural adjustment policies that advocated the reduction of state spending, avoidance of substantial state investment and involvement in service provision (Adda, 1996; McGranahan and Budds, 2003). While the developed countries had stacked with NPM in the 1980s, however through their Briton Woods, they compelled the developing countries (i.e. the South) to move from PA to NPG (McGranahan and Budds, 2003).

The NPG inclines towards a service provision model guided by 'the three Es' of economy, efficiency and effectiveness, inspired by *economic theory* (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). Primarily, the model is based on separating the roles of purchasing and providing services. In that regard, Berkel and Borghi (2007) noted, both NPG and NPM (i.e. new governance) doctrine is 'running government like a business'. To that extent, the NPG can be theoretically viewed in terms of the theory of the firm or the *economic theory* (Plantinga et al., 2008).

The NPG paradigm emphasizes on negotiation skills, corporate values and co-production of services by multiple actors/organization, instead of the state alone (Bracci, 2014). In that direction, non-state service providers including both formal and informal private providers as well as civil society institutions also have important roles to play in the NPG environment (Berry *et al.*, 2004).

Nevertheless, in their work, Stewart and Ranson (1988:13 cited in Rose and Lawton, 1999), had argued that defining public sector management relative to social service delivery, by the state, in negative (that is 'non-market' or not-for-profit) terms is an inappropriate starting point. There are dangers if, consciously, management in the public domain adopts models drawn from outside organisations (Stewart and Ranson 1988:13 cited in Rose and Lawton, 1999). That is not to say that management in the public domain cannot learn from management in the private sector, or vice versa, asserted Stewart and Ranson (1988:13 as cited in Rose and Lawton, 1999). However, specific management ideas can be transferable, concluded Stewart and Ranson (1988:13 cited in Rose and Lawton, 1999). What is not transferable is the model of management- its purpose, conditions and tasks, argued Stewart and Ranson (1988) as cited in Rose and Lawton (1999). Additionally, Newman (2001 cited in Berkel and Borghi, 2007) cautioned that, 'defining' new governance (NPM/NPG) as a shift from hierarchy to a market model of service provision would be a simplification. However, it would be more adequate to define it as a hybrid model of the provision of social service. To that extent, Martin (2001:209 cited in Berkel and Borghi, 2007) wrote:

> "This suggests not arrival of a new, hegemonic outcome-focused paradigm but a more gradual transition characterised by the co-existence and interaction of hierarchical, market based and collaborative frameworks for coordinating service delivery" (Martin, 2001:202 as cited in Berkel and Borghi, 2007).

Even though the NPG had stimulated element of competition in the service delivery system, it however remained inward looking and concentrated much on access coverage. This implies little attention to user-participation in the system. To that extent, this study focused on user-provider relationship and how it influences service outcome to be user-responsive and sustainable through effective user-participation in altering management decisions.

Network Governance (NG)

In an effort to expand the frontiers of NPG and to promote an inter-agency cooperation in response to the NPG's shortfall, a large body of theoretical work on network governance (NG) has been developed, by the close of the 1990's (Jones et al., 1997; Rhodes, 2000; Turnbull, 2003). Network governance is a coordination, characterised by informal social systems rather than by bureaucratic structure, within an organisation and formal contractual relationships between two or among more. NG is increasingly used to coordinate complex products or services delivery in uncertain as well as competitive environments, asserted by Jones et al. (1997). More so, NG involves a structured set of autonomous organisations (both profit and non-profit agencies) that formed strong network engaged in ensuring participatory-approach to services delivery based on implicit and open ended contracts wherein these contracts are socially, not legally, binding (Jones et al., 1997).

Meanwhile, Rhodes (2000) states that NG is defined as a common form of social coordination and allocation of resources in a governance structure offering an alternative to that of markets or bureaucracies (i.e. NPM/NPG). Furthermore, it can be divided into two schools of thought, namely *power dependency* and *rational choice*, as put by Rhodes (2000). In terms of *power dependency*, networks are self-organising, resist government steering, continuous interaction between network members and are not accountable to the state (Rhodes, 2000). However, *rational networks* are a structural arrangement that is inherently logical in nature, provides a mechanism for the private and public sectors to interact and informally organised permanent network based on trust and open communication that is targeted towards influencing specific policy action (*ibid*). Turnbull (2003) rather defines NG as following the architecture used by nature to construct and govern complex systems like living things. And, it is based on decentralism, pluralism and associative relationships rather than centralism, Turnbull (2003) concludes.

The position of Turnbull (2003) supported the description of power dependency, inherent in NG definition by Rhodes (2000). Therefore, a social monoculture that relies only on competitive relationships and dominates the existing form of capitalism is created in NG, asserted by Turnbull (2003). In the perspective of Turnbull (2003), NG exist within the corporate governance conceptual framework. And to that extent, it provides a mechanism for reducing conflict of interest by increasing transparency and accountability of directors / managers, in organisations (ibid).

In this regard, Turnbull (2003) expatiated the power dependency of Rhodes (2000) to give a specific case of corporate governance as a key element of the network. More so, NG simplifies corporate governance guidelines and protects minority shareholders' interests and builds partnerships with regulators through a process of integrated co-regulation (Turnbull, 2003).

Sorenson and Torfing (2005), proffered that NG exists in many forms. NG may be self-grown or initiated from above, however dominated by loose and informal contacts. Likewise, NG may take the form of tight and formalised networks. And that, it can be intra or inter organisational, short term or permanent and could focus on a specific segment of society or the whole of society (Sorenson and Torfing, 2005). This position as well reflects in the view expressed by Rhodes (2000) in respect of power dependency aspect of NG.

Nonetheless, in their work on a framework for analysis of water governance and poverty, Cleaver and Franks (2005) asserted, NG in water is more than just good governance. It works through networks and relationships between government, the public, private and voluntary sectors, community groups and citizens themselves (Cleaver and Franks, 2005). Similarly, Cleaver and Franks (2005) assertion of NG in water sector supports the conclusion of Turnbull (2003) on NG, as pertains in corporate governance. In this regard, the NG draws on and combines the strengths of both NPM and NPG by stressing on regulation amid popular participation in the service delivery system (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006). More so, the NG emphasized on the neoliberal doctrine which holds that social functions and economic development should be undertaken by business (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). However, the state's primary role in NG is playing a facilitating and regulatory role without direct engagement in the production or delivery of services.

In addition, NG transcends from just a service delivery business as seen in PA, NPM and NPG to advocate for a political democratic culture of governance guided by rule of law (Aryee, 1996, Berry et al., 2004, Mehrotra, 2006). This reflected in the wave of political transitions a lot of African countries, just like many in the South went through (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). This occurred mostly during the 1990s, in an effort to not only liberalise their economies but ensures democratic governance (i.e. good governance) reforms in those countries, in the face of external pressure from the Briton woods (Adda, 1996; Meredith, 2005).

Yet NG is still concentrated on expansion of access coverage, though it encourages popular participation, but the extent of user input in the participatory frame work is unknown. Again, the governance framework in NG is conceived in the realm of the state, though recognises the role of private organisations. Hence, the need to come up with a conceptual framework of investigation into not only user participation level but the extent at which the input of user is incorporated in the operational management of service-provider organisation. By so doing, governance studies becomes assailable at the organisational level, instead of broader national/state level. Before the close of 1990s, NG is visible to some extent in most countries in the South, including Ghana (Adda, 1996; McGranahan and Budds, 2003). Similarly, most Western European welfare states as well as the Nordics have adopted NG (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Plantinga et al., 2008).

Consequentially, the evolutionary path through which the practices of good governance policy approaches went through, and still evolving, shows how changing and complex the human society has been and continuous to be. Therefore, to attain the desirable state of affairs in good governance relative to popular participation, as alluded to by Agere (2000 cited in Bracci, 2014), entails going through a process investigation, consistently, relative to the environment (policy and regulation) within which an institution operates. Hence, the relevance of this study. Observing the evolutionary trends, it is at the NG policy environment level such key elements of good governance alluded to in Agere (2000 cited in Bracci, 2014) may be significantly realized- transparency, accountability, combating corruption and high level of participation. The high level of inclusiveness (the strong networks) of NG, as observed in Jones et al. (1997), Rhodes (2003) and Turnbull (2005) indicates multiple actors not only working together as advocated by both NPM and NPG, but goes beyond the spheres of state and influence policy decisions. This has a direct impact on the quality of outcome and the relationship between both a service provider (i.e. government) and an end-user (i.e. governed), as advocated by Jonoski (2002). However, what is the magnitude of that correlation? It is in this direction this study becomes relevant so as to not only establish the association, but extent and direction as well. Again, each of the policy environment approaches remains broader in perspective, relative to social service delivery. The traditional public administration (PA) demonstrated how state apparatus and institutions ensure social service delivery, along a bureaucratic and hierarchical administration. However, the new public management approach (NPM) came in to advocate the restructuring or realigning of the state institutions in the PA along the lines of private business organisation management values,

guided by economic principles of market theory. Furthermore, the new public governance (NPG) advocates for involvement of multiple actors in the social service delivery industry in the society. That includes state institutions and non-state actors as well as civil service organisations (CSOs), leading to expanding frontiers of social service provider institutions beyond the spheres of the state. The NPG, however, still maintained some ideals of NPM relative to state participation in service delivery whilst deepening the marketisation drive of social service delivery.

Finally, the emergence of network governance (NG) in social service delivery, basically, sought to ensure all-inclusiveness as well as sanity in an environment where conglomerate of providers and consumers exist. To that extent the NG advocated for full scale neoliberal agenda, which prevailed upon the state to absolutely exit from the business of service production/delivery and restrict itself to only regulatory role. Also, NG encourages interaction not only among service providers or consumers but between the provider and the consumer. In this regard, the NG advocates for unionisation and associations based on shared professional goal as providers or based on common interest as consumers. Again, the NG encourages deep democratisation on the political landscape. The NG promotes all-inclusiveness, leading to shift from centralised decision-making paradigm (Franks, 2004). Meanwhile, at the core of a decision-making process in governance lies the importance of knowledge, and the role that knowledge can play in shaping a decision-making outcome. Therefore, to what extent knowledge sharing occurs between or among the actors in NG? This is one of the gaps for which results of this study will fill, as in the context of the study area. Critical point the exponents of NG approach recognised is that different stakeholders hold different patterns of knowledge and understanding, asserted by Franks (2004). For water governance to be effective, mechanisms which allow stakeholders to share and exchange their knowledge and understandings must exist (Franks, 2004). To that extent, Jonoski (2002) brought up a new paradigm to sum up the shift (PA-NPM-NPG-NG) in decision making framework. This was referred to as 'Network Distributed Decision Support System' (NDDSS- refer to fig.2.2) model and have been since adopted in many literatures in water governance (Jonoski, 2002; and Franks, 2004). The significance of this framework is to allow effective participation between/among service providers and consumers in the management and operations of water and sanitation services (Jonoski, 2002). However, the NDDSS applicability in practice (at micro level) is among the theoretical variables this study measured after the research-i.e. extent of user-provider relation.

2.3.2 Dimensions in *policy outlook* regarding social service governance

The word 'policy' can be taken to refer to the principles that govern a process of action directed toward given ends (Titmuss, 1974 cited in Turnbull, 2003). The concept denotes action about means as well as ends and it, therefore, implied change, Titmuss (1974 cited in Turnbull, 2003) argued further. However, in Turner and Hulme (1997), policy was referred to a purposive process of behavior. Officially stated goals or ends may mask other self-seeking intents about policy initiative since the policy is constructed/formulated by human beings and we need to understand their behavior (Turner and Hulme, 1997). What must be banished is any thinking that holds the view policy formulation is highly rationalised on principled process in which experts/technocrats are firmly in control using highly tuned instruments to achieve easily predicted outcomes, Turner and Hulme (1997) posited. This is in sharp contrast with Titmuss (1974 cited in Turnbull, 2003) position on the concept 'policy' (rigidity vrs flexibility). Nonetheless, both positions are in agreement that policy is an outcome of a process for which this study aims at assessing the dimensions and levels of that process relative to social service delivery. Relating policy to social service, Spicker (2014) asserted, it can be refer to guidelines, principles, legislation and activities that affect the living conditions conducive to human welfare, such as person's quality of life. Similarly, Cheyne et al. (2005) described social service policy as actions that affect the wellbeing of members of a society through shaping the distribution of and access to resources and goods/services in that society. However, both Cheyne et al. (2005) and Spicker (2014) have not recognised the actors let alone their significance in the process of shaping the policy outcome. Hence, the need for an assessment to determine the actors and their respective roles in the policy formulation processes, for which this study seeks to accomplish though at the organisational/micro level. National experiences with development revealed considerably varied outcome emanating from almost same policy dimension (Turner and Hulme, 1997). To that extent, same policies have been effective in one place and not in others. There are countries where policy success in one sector contrasts with failure elsewhere (Turner and Hulme, 1997).

Berkel and Borghi (2007) had described the processes of shaping the outcome of policy as "how" of governance (policy action) and had outlined them in different levels and dimensions.

The Specific *level* and *dimension* of social service policy governance processes

Using an exploratory approach to assess concepts of governance and how they are being formulated, Berkel and Borghi (2007) presented the "how" of governance dimensions, relative to social service policy formulation, in the following manner:

- Processes of *internationalisation*
- Processes of promoting *inter-agency cooperation*
- Processes of *marketisation*
- *Contractualisation* processes

Processes of *internationalisation*:

This process increases the role of international actors in national policy making, so as to give it such a recognition and standard accepted in the context of globalisation (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). While this process has been not only effective and well adhered to but also mutually beneficial between or among the countries or actors involved in the developed world, mostly in the European Union (EU) block, little can be said in the developing world (Rose and Lawton, 1999; McGranahan and Budds, 2003). The failure of state to deliver efficient and adequate water and sanitation services, mostly in the developed countries, may be a driving force to engage foreign entity in shaping national policy in that sector (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). However, the most immediate external driver influencing policy making in indebted low-income countries is conditionality from multinational financial institutions, especially the World Bank, and, in particular, in relation to loans (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). The essence of internationalisation processes in policy making is to be a key player in the globalisation drive, to take advantage of trade, technical and financial support (Siddiquee, 2008). To that extent, ensuring effective service delivery is a critical step toward making developing countries more competitive in the global environment (Siddiquee, 2008). In the context of socio-economic policy making processes of *internationalisation* dimension in Ghana, one can cite the Multilateral Organizations (United Nations pro-social/ pro-poor Organs), Bilateral Organizations (USAID, DFID, DANIDA, CIDA),

Regional/International bodies (Economic Community of West Africa States (ECOWAS), African Union (AU), European Union (EU)), Global Economic Corporations (World Bank Group, International Monetary Fund (IMF)), Commonwealth Organization etc.

They have all and will continue to be involve, in one way or the other, in a policy formulation for the country (Adda, 1996, Integrated Social Development Center-ISODEC, 2014). Examples of some of such policies that have affected Ghana's social service delivery system include: the Economic Recovery Policy in the 1980's, the HIPC agenda adopted in 2001, the New Partnership for Africa Development (NEPAD), the Millennium Development Goals- MDG's agenda 2000-2015, the Sustainable Development Goals- SDG's 2015-2030, Decentralisation policy 1988, recent IMF bailouts, etc. (Kanbur, 2004; Hope and Ronald, 2005; ISODEC, 2014).

Processes of *decentralisation*:

Policy making powers and responsibilities are devolved from national to regional and local authorities under this process (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). Ghana, like most countries in the South, embarked on a local government reforms and decentralisation programme in 1988 under the then PNDC government, which passed the local government law- PNDC law 207 of 1988, to put the reform in place (Kambootah, 2005). The principal reason, among others, behind the reform programme was the devolution of power and responsibilities to the local government bodies (Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies-MMDA's), stressed Kambootah (2005). This is to encourage the MMDA's to promote local development and improve standard of living among the populace in a sustainable manner, through local democracy. Moreover, the reform was intended to enable greater number of the citizenry to participate in the management of public affairs, social services and most importantly in governance (Kambootah, 2005; Ofei-Aboagye, 2011). This process led to the establishment of more than 200 Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in Ghana of which the study area is included (Wa Municipal Assembly-WMA, 2006; Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).

Processes of promoting *inter-agency cooperation*:

This process is manifested in a form of cooperation between or integration/reintegration of agencies in the provision of social services (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). Similarly, in Ghana, such an approach brings to mind the National Sanitation Day policy which is a joint policy initiative

between Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing and Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD) (Sanah, 2015).

Again, the Environmental Sanitation policy (ESP) was a product of joint effort between the MLGRD and Ministry of Environment and Science (Tiifu, 2013).

In an effort to expand the position on *inter-agency cooperation* dimension in the "how" of governance in Berkel and Borghi (2007), Richardson and Patana (2012) came up with processes of *service integration model* as shown in figure 2.1. In its simplest form, the term 'integrated services' refer to examples of joined-up services for the benefit of users/providers (Richardson and Patana, 2012). "Integration is a coherent set of methods/models on the funding, administration and organisation of service delivery and clinical levels designed to create connectivity, alignment and collaboration within and between (different) sectors" (Richardson and Patana, 2012). Integration of services, according to Richardson and Patana (2012) can happen via *cooperation or communication* among service providers, *collaboration* among professionals across different sectors and physical or virtual *collocation* of complementary services or a mix of these, as presented below.

- *Collocation* refers to having all agencies in one location. Example: education, health (including water and sanitation) or case management services. Having services in one location can reduce the travel and time costs associated with take-up for service users, Richardson and Patana (2012) argued further. Collocation, again, makes for easier accessibility between agencies that can help to promote collaboration among groups of service providers and professionals (Richardson and Patana, 2012).
- *Collaboration* entails a higher level of integration than collocation. It refers to agencies working together through information sharing and training, and creating a network of agencies to improve service user experience. Collaboration is a necessary step for reducing the gaps in service for users. By sharing knowledge, agencies/professionals can improve the referral process to other services offered by the center (Richardson and Patana, 2012). The more knowledge professionals have about the different services, the better the 'needs-based' recommendations are available to service users (Richardson and Patana, 2012).
- *Cooperation* is defined as professionals communicating and working together on a service user' case (Richardson and Patana, 2012). Effective cooperation, through good

communication, is central to improving service outcome and user's satisfaction (Richardson and Patana, 2012). When professionals work well together, costs can be lowered, services are not duplicated and the identification and response to service users' needs can occur more quickly, hence improve service satisfaction (ibid).

The goal for 'service integration model' for vulnerable users is to: "*enhance quality of (support) and quality of life through service-user participation, user-satisfaction and system efficiency for service-users with complex, long term problems whilst cutting across multiple services, providers and settings"* (Richardson and Patana, 2012: 4-5). This is more applicable to New Governance (NG) theoretical approach as reviewed earlier.

Service integration model, shown in figure 2.1, was professed as the panacea to system efficiency and quality service delivery notably among the vulnerable (Richardson and Patana, 2012). Meanwhile, Richardson and Patana (2012) acknowledged, the model would have to be adjusted to account for the specific country settings including variations in service demand, public administration and expenditure levels. However, like Berkel and Borghi (2007), Richardson and Patana (2012) failed to recognize the tools and instruments relevant in managing the administration of the integrated models at an organisational level, though the actors in the model had been identified as indicated in figure 2.1. To that extent, determining the roles and contributions of these actors in the model becomes limited. Therefore, this study seeks to go beyond identifying the actors and the processes involve in the policy making, irrespective of the dimension, to assess the specific role each key stakeholder/actor plays in shaping the policy outlook relative to improving social service delivery in the study area.

Fig. 2.1. A basic integrated social service model

(CREDIT: OECD, n.d. as cited in Richardson and Patana, 2012:5).

Processes of *marketisation*:

This separates the purchasers from the providers of social services. It involves public actor as well as private (both not-for-profit or for-profit organisations alike) in the management and provision of social services (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). This process is a critical step toward encouraging private sector participation in the delivery of social services, as advocated in NG approach.

In Ghana, such processes is evident in social services of water and sanitation provisions. MMDAs in Ghana are increasingly involving Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL) in the provision of community environmental sanitation (ES) services nationwide, commercially, under various forms of Public Private Partnership (PPP) policies (Abdulai, 2013; and Zoomlion, 2016). In a similar vein, Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) was established in 1999 by amended Statutory Corporations (Conversion to Companies) Act 461 of 1993 under LI 1648 to carry out the management and delivery of urban water services, commercially (GWCL, 2012). Government of Ghana eventually ceded GCWL management function to Aqua-Vitens Rand Limited from South Africa/Netherlands, on contractual agreement, to manage and market water delivery in urban centers in Ghana (Kanton, 2010; ISODEC, 2014). This has resulted in emergence of good number of commercial vendors in water supply, though not recognized as potable (Abdulai, 2013).

***Contractualisation* processes:**

This is used as an instrument to regulate relationship between state agencies, between purchasers and providers of services, and between frontline workers of social service agencies and the management of these agencies (Berkel and Borghi, 2007). Over the years, many countries have chosen to contract out social service delivery to private companies from the public institution (Plantinga et al., 2008). The contracting out of social services is a specific form of privatisation (Adda, 1996; Plantinga et al., 2008). In the case of contracting out, the production or provision of the services is commissioned to the market, argued Plantinga et al. (2008). As a result, the role of the state changes from provider to buyer of public services from a private sector (ibid). Meanwhile McGranahan and Budds (2003) had argued that urban water and sanitation utilities are virtually sold off to private enterprises to use as they see fit, under the guise of contractualisation. However, there are variations in contractualisation policy, depending on the legal and regulatory frameworks, the nature of the company and the type of contract, McGranahan and Budds (2003) noted.

Almost all the social infrastructure projects in Ghana takes the contractualisation shape. Such projects are awarded on contract, through a bidding process (Public Procurement Authority (PPA) Ghana, 2014). The bidding process is regulated by the Ghana Public Procurement Act 2003 (Act 663) of Ghana (PPA Ghana, 2014). More so, activities of ZGL and then Aqua Vitens Rand Limited, as noted earlier, both can be associated with this process as well.

Berkel and Borghi (2007) have exceedingly expatiated on the "how" of governance, in the context of policy making, implementation and analysis as noted above. However, in all of the application of these dimensions, as presented by Berkel and Borghi (2007), and supported by Plantinga et al., (2008) a critical concern remains, at least in the Ghanaian context.

According to ISODEC (2014), urban water management in Ghana failed because of wrong policy prescription (contractualisation/marketisation) to improve the institutional responsiveness capacity of GWCL. A number of such policy prescriptions, regarding the dimensions as advanced by Berkel and Borghi (2007) and espoused in Plantinga et al. (2008), failures abound in Ghana. From independence in 1957, through to December 1981, successive governments/ administrations have pursued different policy agenda regarding the role of the state in the social service delivery (Adda, 1996). Often, successive government have appeared to be mainly concerned with reversing or negating the framework of a predecessor government, opined by Adda (1996). To that extent, Adda (1996) continued, composition of public sector, legal and institutional framework regarding state-owned enterprise governance had hugely been compromised leading to deficiency in service provision. This partly contributed to adoption of privatisation policy relative to state-owned enterprises so as to improve output by before the close of 1980s. However, it is a reasonable conclusion from Ghana's divestiture and privatisation experience that by mid-1993 the program had not realised the objectives (i.e. improving access to social goods) set in 1987 (Adda, 1996). The primary objective, maintained by Adda (1996), was to encourage growth of the private sector by reducing the role of the state in the economy so as to improve service delivery to the larger populace. This would be accomplished through the transfer to domestic and foreign investors of ownership and management responsibilities for state-owned enterprises, including social service enterprises (as seen in combination of NPG/NG approach) in view of expanding access coverage (Adda, 1996). The failure may be partly attributable to lack of application of empirical findings/information to alter the reforms relative to social service delivery (Ofei-Aboagye, 2015).

Therefore, not surprising to note in their findings, Berkel and Borghi (2007) asserted, increasing emphasis in social policy research on issues of governance should be welcomed. Because, argued by Berkel and Borghi (2007), governance reforms are not without consequences which directly alter the content of social policy programs. However, such alteration must be grounded in sound empirical bases.

Concluding on the "how" of governance, Berkel and Borghi (2007) argued that feasibility of social policy and reforms may be influenced by specific governance configurations. All the policy dimensions noted in Berkel and Borghi, (2007); and the integration model in Richardson and Patana (2012), respectively, presented a broader perspective in the social service policy making and implementation. More so, both are well applicable to combination of NPG/NG governance approaches as both place enormous emphasis on inter-agency cooperation, greater networking, greater participation by multiple actors, decentralisation of service delivery. However, the Berkel and Borghi (2007) policy dimensions place much emphasis on the supply side (service-providers). Hence the user's (consumer) role in the design and operationalisation of any of the dimensions is not clear. It is against this background this study goes beyond the supply-side and focus as well on the demand-side to examine how a mutually inclusive participatory relationship between the two fronts can contribute in improving service delivery, especially to the user.

2.3.3 Social services (of water and sanitation) delivery regulatory outlook

By close of 1990s, the regulatory framework was largely to promote multiple service providers in water and sanitation, as advocated in the NPG/NG approaches. Particularly, the private sector was promoted heavily within the period as a means of achieving greater efficiency and access coverage expansion in the sector (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). This led to a number of "neoliberal" reforms which emphasise the roles of free market and private sector in economic development, and restricted the role of the state to only regulation/facilitation (Adda, 1996; McGranahan and Budds, 2003). Essentially, the underpinning debate of introducing a private sector was: who can and how to supply water and sanitation services of adequate quality and expanded coverage (i.e. access)? Hence, the need for a regulatory framework in the water and sanitation sector, posited by McGranahan and Budds (2003).

Therefore, regulation is often seen as a way of controlling the private company, to ensure it does not abuse its market power, especially when it has a degree of monopoly control (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). The role of the regulator is to act as a referee between the operators, the end-user/consumers, and relevant government bodies, in order to determine what is "reasonable" (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). The functions of a regulatory system are therefore usually wider than just protection against market abuse, maintained McGranahan and Budds (2003), and comprise:

- Ensure that users receive an adequate level of service at a reasonable price, and protecting them from abuse by firms with substantial market power;
- Ensure that investors receive a reasonable return on capital, and protecting them from arbitrary action by government;
- Monitoring and ensuring other conditions and standards are met: that the operator complies with the conditions and provisions of contracts, setting or regulating prices.

Recounting possible challenges in such a framework, McGranahan and Budds (2003) advanced, the information necessary for effective regulation is often difficult to obtain, frequently leading to situations of "information asymmetry" where the company involved is better informed than the regulator. More so, tariffs are a particularly sensitive area for regulators. Keeping services affordable for lower-income groups (often for social and political reasons) is not always consistent with keeping utility prices high enough to provide private operations with reasonable returns (charging realistic/fair prices for good service) (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). But it is difficult to assess what is affordable to household or sufficiently profitable for private operators (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). In this regard, information asymmetry complicate the regulatory task as well as government interference (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). This supports the call in Berkel and Borghi (2007) which advocated for continuous research in social policy issues, as findings from such studies may serve as repository of knowledge for regulator organisation. Again, Hay (2000 cited in McGranahan and Budds, 2003) suggest, in order to be objective and fair, the regulator should be independent and strong to withstand pressures from both government and the private operator. Commenting further, Smith (1997 cited in McGranahan and Budds, 2003) posited, an independent operator should have an "arm's length relationship" with operators, government authorities and consumers. Regulation should be autonomous with designated funding

and independent salaries adequately in order to avoid co-optation and corruption, concluded (Smith, 1997 cited in McGranahan and Budds, 2003). Furthermore, to avoid the regulator from bias, especially in favor of private operator, at the expense of the consumer, for obvious reasons-using money and other incentive to influence a regulator's decision, Smith (1997) advocated for the following measures:

- Transparent decision-making processes;
- Provision for appealing the regulator's decision;
- Use of external auditors or watchdogs;
- Mechanisms for the removal of the regulator in event of poor performance.

Some experts have recommended a low degree of regulation in water and sanitation services delivery, though some governments may want to set up a rigid /restricted regulatory framework (McGranahan and Budds, 2003). A lower degree regulation, for that matter more flexible framework is significant when a large share of the population does not yet have improved access to services, argued by McGranahan and Budds (2003). If rules meant for controlling market, especially the activities of small-scale/informal service providers are relaxed, it will enable these providers to legally provide services to low-income groups, who do not have access, and in some cases provide market competition, McGranahan and Budds (2003) argued further. However, when a lower degree of regulation is accompanied by inadequate monitoring and enforcement, an imbalance of power is likely to result and cause severe problems, acknowledged by McGranahan and Budds (2003). The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) (2005) asserted that there is the need for regulatory frameworks and institutions at the national level to operationalise national policies, protect property rights, and generate equitable returns on private investments through efficient tariff structures, service standards and expansion targets. ECA (2005) went on to advocate for a regulation that support private sector participation (either wholly private or Public Private Partnership-PPP as noticed in NPG/NG approaches) so as to not only improve standard but reach out to more access coverage in water and sanitation industry.

In that regard, ECA (2005) posited that governments need to consider a wide range of specific laws, constitutional rules, and measures from central and local bodies in designing the broad regulatory framework for effective private sector participation. Some of the measures enumerated by ECA (2005) includes:

- Constitutional and legislative separation of responsibilities for water and sanitation supply services among national, regional and local governments;
- Central legislation that regulates different types of PPP arrangements with private sector, including foreign companies;
- Specific measures that allow close oversight of water and sanitation management, general health and environmental protection by application of service standards and penalties for default etc;
- Social policy measures aimed at protecting the rights of vulnerable groups of consumers such as tariff adjustment roles, government subsidy policies, disconnections procedures for delayed or unpaid water bills, and dispute resolution mechanisms.

ECA (2005) further argued for the enhancement of the performance of service providers though emphasis should be placed on:

- Defining a clear legal framework that reduces the risk of regulatory uncertainty for private investors leading to optimal project cost and lower tariffs;
- Adopting transparent procurement rules that allow fair competition, and removing exclusivity rights in order to allow private small and medium enterprises to compete with the main operators;
- Enhancing an autonomous governing body applying commercial management techniques and expertise, clear financial and operational targets and accounting systems, greater management autonomy and a demand driven orientation;
- Promoting government owned enterprises and public limited companies (e.g share companies owned by local or regional government authorities).

In an effort to justify the state/government partnering with the private sector, ECA (2005) asserted, it will entail a stable and predictable regulatory regime capable of promoting essential governance values such as independence of legislation, accountability, transparency and professionalism in the service operations processes.

The regulatory frameworks as discussed in McGranahan and Budds (2003) as well as ECA (2005) concentrated on, largely, how to regulate service provision by private operator or through PPP. To that extent, how a consumer/end-user may his/her articulate concerns and interest relative to service operations management was mute in the regulatory frameworks advocated. Thus the frameworks have not been more user-inclusive as well as communicative as enshrined in good governance tenets (Franks, 2004). Moreover, how such concerns will be responded to, addressed and eventually incorporated in the larger policy as well as regulatory regime was not given attention. Hence, the need for an inquiry into how a more comprehensive framework will create room for that section in society who have means to access such services, and indeed are deem to have regular services, to articulate their concerns, needs and interest relative to the services rendered in view of altering management decisions at the board level. This will lead to a more responsive, sustainable and user-friendly service, beyond access, as room for effective participation and interaction between service provider and consumer/end-user is enhanced.

Among the measures advocated for consideration in the water and sanitation delivery services, by Abongo (2013), is promotion of dialogue with target consumers. This is to ensure that contracts and programs address their specific needs (Abongo, 2013). Flexible service options and standards must be in place to meet consumer needs, suggested by Abongo (2013). Hence, communication channels must be available in such a framework, concluded in Abongo (2013). Nonetheless, the dialogue platform must not end at contract and program formulation level but continues in so long as the services will continue to be delivered. Hence, promoting user-friendly and sustainable services delivery in the water and sanitation sector.

2.4 Management structure of service-provider and user-inclusiveness.

There is no generally accepted definition of *management* as an activity, although the classic definition is still held to be that of Henri Fayol, argued by Cole (2004). To manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to coordinate and to control (Fayol, 1916 cited in Cole, 2004). Brech (1957 cited in Cole, 2004), in similar vein albeit expanded the scope, maintained that management is a social process and that process consists of planning, controlling, coordination and motivation. In an effort to diversify the earlier prepositions on management, Koontz and O'Donnell (1984 cited in Cole, 2004) asserted that managing is an operational process initially best dissected by analysing the managerial functions. The five essential managerial functions are planning, organising, staffing, directing and leading, and controlling (ibid). In an effort to expand the frontiers of management understanding, Peters (1988 cited in Cole) identify five areas of management essential to make organization proactive and that include:

- an obsession with responsiveness to customers;
- constant innovation in all areas of the organisation (firm);
- Wholesale participation of and gain sharing with all people connected with the organisation;
- leadership that loves change (instead of fighting it) and shares an inspiring vision;
- Control by means of support systems aimed at measuring the modern "right stuff".

Whatever view is preferred concerning the definition of management, it is clear that it can only be discussed realistically within the context of an organisation as a *social entity* (Cole, 2004). Organisation provides the framework for the execution of management process (Brech, 1957 cited in Cole, 2004). Essentially, organisations are intricate human strategies designed to achieve certain objectives (Argyris, 1960 cited in Cole, 2004). Similarly, in his view, Stewart (1994 cited in Cole, 2004) maintained that organisations are set up to achieve purpose that individuals cannot achieve on their own. The framework through which management is executed within an organisation is the *organisational/management structure* (Organ and Bateman, 1991).The structure is designed to help organisation collectively achieve its objectives and be proactively effective in its operations as related in Cole (2004). In this regard, organisational/management structure is the formal systematic arrangement of the operations and activities that constitutes an organisation and the interrelationships of these activities/operations to one another (Organ and Bateman, 1991).

Similarly, sharing into Organ and Bateman (1991) position albeit recognising the actors involved, Cole (1995) referred to organisational/management structure as an intangible web of relationship between people, their shared purposes and the tasks they set themselves to achieve those purposes.

Not unexpectedly, the variety of approaches to the theoretical background of organisational management has produced a number of versions of what is meant by such key words 'management' and 'organization' (Cole, 2004). However, most of these versions focused primarily on internal organisational operations and how they relate with their stakeholders. Though the very one more related to social service operations is the position of Peters (1988 cited in Cole, 2004), but how to relate the management operations to a larger welfare policy environment is missing. Therefore, this study seeks to identify relevant models of organisational management structure relative to social service (welfare service) operations. Furthermore, evaluate and connect the models to governance processes at organisational level as pertains in water and sanitation delivery. In this regard, some of the noticeable models identified, evaluated and presented were:

- Stewardship (*Expertise*) vrs Democratic (*Not-for-profit*) model;
- Modern and Contingency Systems model.

Stewardship (*Expertise*) vrs Democratic (*Not-for-profit*) model

At the organisational level, two main models of governance structures in relation to participation are assailable in Low's (2006) work- stewardship (*expertise*) and democratic (*not-for profit*) models. Using a qualitative approach, based on secondary data, Low (2006) carried out a qualitative analysis of governance theories to establish the nucleus of institutional framework at the organisational level in respect of social enterprise management and operations. As the study ensued, Low (2006) replaced corporation with organisation. Special premium was placed on composition of the organisation's board of directors or management committee, as the principal structure within the organisation in Low (2006). The management board is a critical part of social enterprise organisational governance structure, observed by Low (2006). Whether referred to as a board of directors or a management committee, this is the area of management that sets the overall framework within which the organisation operates, asserted by Low (2006). Meanwhile, Low (2006) was quick to add that theoretical thrust of governance research varies depending on which sector is under investigation. It is in this direction, this study settles on those relevant theories, models and approaches relative to social service delivery and user-participation.

Low (2006) asserted that *stewardship model* is practiced in for-profit organisations and ownership rests on shareholders as they have claim on assets. Board members, continued Low (2006), are selected and composed based on competence and expertise in managing, executing responsibilities and accumulating assets for and on behalf of the organisation's shareholders, in the *stewardship model*. In contrast, *democratic model* is practiced in non-profit organisations for which ownership indirectly rest on the community (Pearce, 2003; Dunn and Riley, 2004 as all cited in Low, 2006). For that matter, advanced by Low (2006), management committee/ board of directors are constituted based on representation right. Thus, as to who management represent rather than their ability to manage assets and effectively execute the responsibilities required of the organisations is the key principle in the *democratic* model (Low, 2006).

Logically, the performance of a non-profit organization will be judged, in part, on the basis of who constitute the board rather than what they achieve whilst in that role. Therefore, the reverse holds for-profit organisation, in the social enterprise industry. Upon reviewing the two theories, from varied perspectives, Low (2006) made an effort to build an institutional "framework for the governance of social enterprise". Concluded by Low (2006), the two models are applicable in social enterprise- i.e social service delivery organisation. However, in Low's (2006) estimation, social enterprise boards are more likely to exhibit a *stewardship* model of governance than the *democratic* model found in other non-profit organizations. For that matter, argued and concluded in Low (2006), in order to enact the *stewardship* model, social enterprise boards are more likely to recruit members on the basis of expertise rather than representative status.

However, depending on the environment- national policy, laws, regulations among others within which a social enterprise operates to deliver service, a mixture/ hybrid of the two models or either each may largely be applicable. This is evident in the works of Newman (2001); and Martin (2001) as cited in Berkel and Borghi (2007). For this reason a particular model or a hybrid may be settled on, in the environmental context applicable to the operations of a social enterprise. Hence, the need to investigate the nature of an environment within which a social enterprise wish to operate in order to determine which of the models or the extent of combination appropriate for smooth operations within such an environment.

It is in this direction this study assesses the structural composition of organisations, engaged in social service delivery, in the context of not only the internal framework but extent of external

influence on organisational effectiveness. The principal external variables this study examined included: the user concerns, regulatory/policy regime and technology. Turner and Hulme (1997) posited that the institutional context in which development activities take place is a major determinant of project or programme success. Hill and Hope (2002) as cited in Bracci (2014), concluded that public governance entails contextual institutional design as well as management dimension. Hence the relevance of this study assessing the organisational management of service providers in relation to not just the composition/context but how it allows for user-inclusion.

Argued Rose and Lawton (1999) "The nature and shape of social services are not determined by national policy alone. Technology provides new tools which help to shape the nature of services. International experience continue to offer new agenda" p.1.

Relatively, from the analytical viewpoint of the researcher, any or combination of the two models-*stewardship* and *democratic* are applicable to each of the governance approaches/practices environments in building institutional framework for operations. Whiles the *democratic* model may be best fitted in the PA (i.e. the traditional public administration) environment in constituting a management body, *stewardship* model will best fit in both the NPM and NPG environments. However, a combination of both *stewardship* and *democratic* models are appropriate in NG environment. This is because the PA is a governance practice by the state institutions and these institutions must entail well balanced representation, reflective of most segments of the state. Meanwhile, both NPM and NPG are governance practices based on the market forces or theory of the firm, where expertise and competence to deliver desirable output is paramount. Nonetheless, the NG is supposed to be the highest combination level of PA, NPM and NPG which requires cooperation and high level of team work across all segments in an industry as indicated in NDDSS of Jonoski (2002). Therefore, both representation and competence are key in the management composition structure of organisations so as to ensure sustainable service delivery.

Consequently, Low (2006) position is principally concerned on only a management structure. By Low's (2006) assertion, once the management structure is constituted, that will have a trickling effect on building other structures of the organisation. This will then leads to the realisation of the organisational objectives. And that may include all-inclusive participation, in terms of effective cliental-management relationship (Low, 2006). However, Low (2006) fails to give specific sub-structures dependent on management structure, that will ensure participation of all stakeholders

not only representatives in an organisational management, especially a social enterprise. That notwithstanding, the *stewardship* vrs *democratic* model of Low (2006) remains inward looking as well and little is mentioned on external variables that are equally critical in building the organisational effectiveness. In that regard, as far as the social service delivery (of water and sanitation) is concerned, the interest of the user/consumer as a stakeholder is key. This implies how strategic the structure will be composed to respond to changing consumer interest/concerns as well as the external environment. Additionally, Low (2006) overlooked the influence of regulatory environment (both national and international) on the composition of the structure. Therefore, this study determined both the internal (organisational) and external (policy) environment which ensures the participation of the consumer in decision-making.

Modern and Contingency Systems model

The early work on this approach was conducted by British researchers from Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in the early 1990's (Cole, 2004). The researchers recognised that organisations were part of a larger environment with which they interacted and in particular were affected by technical and economic factors just as much as social ones, continued Cole (2004). This model views the institutional structures of an organisation beyond an internal organisational structure alone, for the purpose of ensuring organisational effectiveness and sustainability (Brown and Harvey, 2006). Organisational structure was viewed as complex systems of people, tasks, and technology, maintained Cole (2004). This model describes organisational structure as an 'open socio-technical system' to mean a social-system that interacts with its environment (Jonoski, 2002). In their works on analysis of contingency approach to change management, Brown and Harvey (2006) asserted 'the contingency approach holds that there is no one best way or a universal structure of managing in all situations. The open system organisation influences and is influenced by the environment through interdependency, which result in a dynamic equilibrium (Brown and Harvey, 2006). By continual interaction with its environment, asserted Brown and Harvey (2006), organization achieves a steady state of equilibrium. In this model, the organizational structure is viewed as a unified system composed of interrelated units in a whole, whilst as well as a part of a larger external environment (Brown and Harvey, 2006). There is no theory at present which can guarantee the effectiveness of an organisation, structurally argued by Cole (2004).

To that extent, Cole (2004) pointed, management has to select a mix of theories which seems to meet the needs of the organisation at a particular period in its lifetime. In solving a given problem, managers must analyze the organisation, its departmental subsystem interrelationships, and the possible effects on the internal environment, relative to the broader governance environment (Brown and Harvey, 2006). Therefore, the systems approach is concerned with relationships/interdependencies between internal units and the external environment- existing policy/regulatory regime, concluded by Brown and Harvey (2006).

In the concluding remarks of his work on Systems and Contingency Approaches to the analysis of an organisational structure and effectiveness, Cole (2004:5) noted, organisational structure must be evaluated in the context of an organisation's overriding need for flexibility in responding to change in its external and internal environment, in order to meet the competing demands of all its various stakeholder- consumers, suppliers, employees and shareholders etc. Thus, the concerns of modern theorists (on organisational structure) have been to what extent an organisational structure is responsive to the needs of both internal and external environments. In that regard, how organisational structures address topics such as: developing strategic mission and implanting organisational values/culture (i.e. doing the right things), change management, total quality management, and optimizing stakeholder relationships (including user-provider relation) are critical to the modern theorists (Cole, 2004).

Principally, from the researchers analytical view point, the *modern and contingency system model* encourages inter-departmental relationships as well as transcends the internal structure of the organisation. In contrast to the *stewardship vrs democratic model*, *modern and contingency system approach* recognises the needs of varied stakeholders in ensuring effective operations. Thus, being more responsive, effective and dynamic model, relative to organisational structure. The model exhibits a pure business enterprise or commercial entity structure (Cole, 2004). In that regard, the *modern and contingency system model* is more applicable in the NG as well as NPG, and to some extent suited NPM governance environment. However, the principal/ulterior focus of the model, like *stewardship-democratic model*, remains the organisational effectiveness, but not the client or consumer needs and interests. As observed in Cole (2004), implanting organisational values/culture as well as achieving organisational excellence is among the topics the model addresses (Cole, 2004:5).

Again, Cole (2004) noted, the essence of contingency approach is to serve the needs of an organisation at any particular time in its lifetime. More so, as observed in Brown and Harvey (2006), the purpose of the *modern and contingency system model* is to observe, analyze and solve organization's problem to achieve a steady state of equilibrium (Brown and Harvey, 2006:44).

Therefore, this study went beyond the organisational internal structure and other external structures or institutions that have bearing on the survival and governance of the organisation. To that extent, this study inquired into the role of cliental/consumer/user in the structural make-up of an organisational governance in the delivery of social services- water and sanitation. As agued in Berkel and Borghi (2007), governance focus is not on the content of policy schemes and programmes, but on the institutions and actors- and their relationships- involved the process. Furthermore, Zaidi, Ringold and Fatou (2012 as cited in World Bank, 2012) maintained that governance refers to traditions and institutions under which authority is exercised for the common good to promote all-inclusive participation and growth. Likewise, the principle of water and sanitation governance, advanced by Global Water Partnership, had call for a more inclusive, communicative and ethical interaction between or among all stakeholders in service delivery framework (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006). Hence, the need for effective user-provider interaction for which this study primarily assessed, as witnessed in the successive chapters.

2.5 Participatory models in social service governance.

Critical among the principles for water as well as sanitation governance include openness, transparency, inclusion, communication, integration, ethics, responsiveness, efficiency, sustainability and accountability (Franks, 2004; McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006). Meanwhile underlining all these principles outlined is participation, concluded by Franks (2004). However, Ofei-Aboagye (2015) argued that, 'good governance' is founded on *information*. Access to information encourages citizens (consumers) to participate effectively in making and implementing decisions that affect their daily lives, which reinforces the principles of good governance (Ofei-Aboagye, 2015). Good governance is predicated on various principles that involves citizens (consumers) being able to participate in the formulation and implementation of decisions that affect them, but this basic assumption is underpinned by access to information, concluded by Ofei-Aboagye (2015). It is in this light, Jonoski (2002) advocated for a network of information and dissemination, as did Siddiquee (2008), for the purpose of encouraging effective

participation. Jonoski (2002) and Siddiquee (2008) labelled the information network dissemination networks as Network Distributed Decision Support System-NDDSS and E-governance, respectively. Usually, it is difficult to draw a thin line between access to information and participation, as both complement each other (Franks, 2004). However, the extent of either of the two influencing one depends on which is dependent on the other. Yet an empirical evidence is hardly found in that regard, at least, in the context of the study area. Therefore, this study established the extent of such a thin line as pertains in the producer-user relationship of social services, particularly in the water and sanitation sector in urban segment of Wa Municipality.

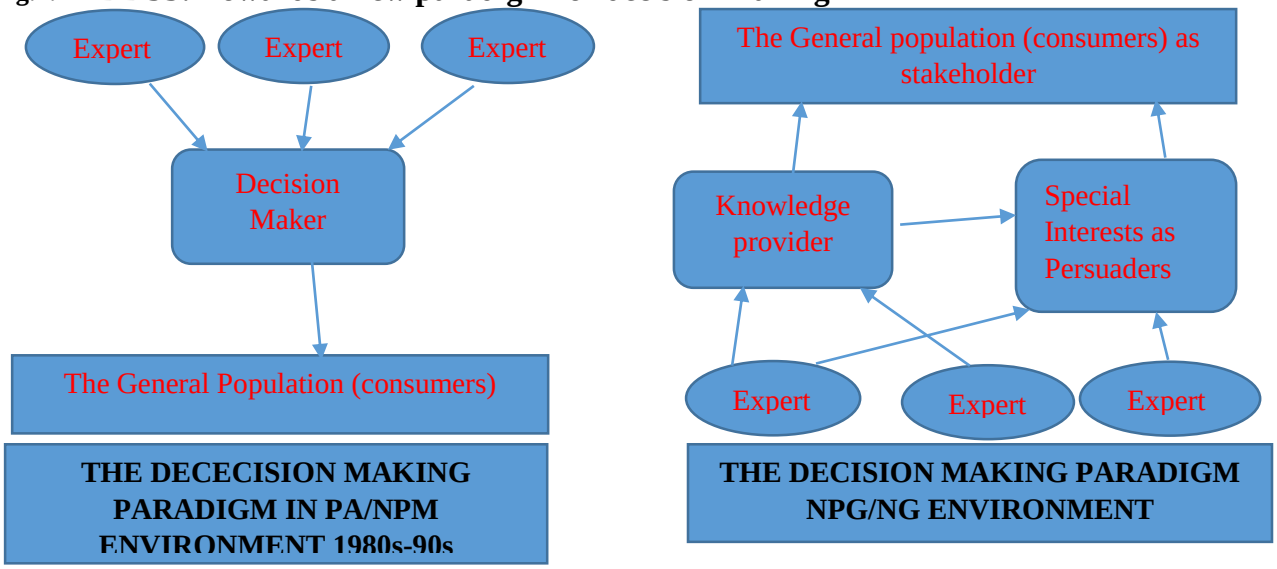
Among the social service governance models as pertains to *participation* evaluated and presented included:

Network distributed decision support system (NDDSS) model:

The diversity and increasing complexity of the interests involved in our present water and sanitation (environmental) problems requires that we take a new perspective upon what are traditionally known as decision support tools and systems- as practiced in PA environment (Jonoski, 2002). Instead of thinking about tools and systems that are developed to be applied by relatively few 'decision-makers', there is a need to develop decision support framework or environment, where all interested parties and stakeholders, including individuals can participate, - as advocated by NG policy environment/approach (Jonoski, 2002). The difference of direction in this model, as practiced in network governance (NG) environment, relative to the traditional public administration (PA) is the shift from top-down, to bottom-up direction, concluded Jonoski (2002).

Having acknowledged the role of knowledge/information in this model by Franks (2004), Jonoski (2002) advanced that NDDSS is a network of the general population (consumers) as stakeholders who provides knowledge to experts as well as different interest groups (persuaders) to influence decision-making. To that extent, there is no particular decision-maker, nor is the decision based on a group of experts or a particular authority, asserted by Jonoski (2002). The NDDSS comprises, principally, a knowledge center and user nodes to facilitate participatory decision making process, as presented in Fig 2.2 (Jonoski 2002).

Fig.2.2 NDDSS: Towards a new paradigm for decision-making



SOURCE: adopted and modified from Jonoski (2002:74)

In effect, Jonoski (2002) described the NDDSS as sociotechnical/sociotechnology in both his doctoral thesis dissertation and work on Hydroinformatics as Sociotechnology in the Netherlands, whiles a related work by Siddiquee (2008) referred to it as e-governance. By virtue of the very nature of our current water and environmental problems, alluded to by Jonoski (2002), we are led towards the sociotechnical approach in dealing with the processes of decision making in these areas. The approach corresponds with analysis, design and development of the new kinds of computer and network-mediated tools and environments, reiterated by Jonoski (2002). The word 'network' refers here primarily to the fact that these new sociotechnology systems have to be developed and deployed over electronic networks such as the internet (Jonoski, 2002). This was referred to e-governance by Siddiquee (2008). While the role of the general public in this new paradigm is at the top, indicating their increased, direct participation, the role of traditional decision makers as seen in the PA is transformed into a generic role of persuaders, advanced Jonoski (2002). The knowledge provider is a generic name for the totality of the sociotechnical infrastructure, which in part provides and overall manages the knowledge 'content' that is brought into speculation (Jonoski, 2002). Clearly, the knowledge provider could be seen as the 'regulator' in the scheme of affairs. What the systems themselves enable is the creation of networks of people and institutions, engaged in processes of knowledge circulation, concluded Jonoski (2002).

Primarily, the NDDSS of Jonoski (2002) presents a participatory process of a decision-making set-up applicable in the governance of social service. However, it lacks specificity relative to the actors involved, observed in both fig. 2.2a/2.2b, as the researcher modified the original diagram to give it some semblance of specificity. To that extent, the conceptual framework of this study went beyond the process set-up to identify such key stakeholders in service provider-user relationship to project how each contribute in shaping management operations in service delivery. Moreover, Jonoski (2002), robust as his NDDSS is, failed to recognise the effect of a policy/regulatory environment is likely to have on the smooth operation of the process. Hence, the conceptual framework of this study recognises role of policy ecosystem in the service user-provider relation.

The E-governance model.

In his qualitative analysis of the Malaysian experience in service delivery innovations over a period, Siddiquee (2008) referred to networking and partnership as e-government, in relation to an integrated approach in NG practice. The e-governance, according to Siddiquee (2008), is application of new technology especially web-based internet as a tool for enhancing public access to and delivery of government services. In its ultimate forms, it entails a process whereby the government agencies at various levels transact businesses with their clients, and strategically addressing client concerns and internal business needs through application of ICT tools online (Siddiquee, 2008). It is seen as a powerful tool, Siddiquee (2008) noted, that can transform public administration and relationship between government and citizens. It can also improve services by cutting bureaucratic web, increase transparency and reduce corruption in the public sector, argued by Siddiquee (2008). Clearly, e-governance is well applicable in both NPG and NG approaches.

Using examples from international surveys of e-governance and evidence from Australia's State and Federal levels, Smith and Teicher (2005 cited in Siddiquee, 2008) found that e-governance does have the potential to improve governance and service delivery by refocusing the purposes and tools of the government. Again, e-initiative play a critical role in reconnecting service users with providers (*opsit*). Additionally, it enhanced opportunities for participation (Siddiquee, 2008). But there are also some challenges and critical questions especially in areas of coordination in governance and design of services for citizens, Siddiquee (2008) acknowledged.

These challenges, as acknowledged by Siddiquee (2008), point to the fact that the E-governance is subjected to not only the policy/regulatory environment, but as well the user's ability to

participate in shaping service delivery management by the use of ICT tools. Clearly, while the E-governance, unlike the NDDSS, presents the tools applicable in participatory decision-making, it is however restricted to only that segment of society who are ICT savvy. This leads to discrimination against the ICT illiterates, therefore, rendering the application of E-governance limited in coverage. To that extent, this study considers a more holistic framework that recognises the relevant of ICT tool as only one of the many tools and mechanisms that could be employed to enhance the user-producer relationship in service delivery. In this direction, this study recognised, for instance, the front line workers of service provider organisation as a critical conduit in facilitating interaction between provider and user in service management, aside online interaction.

Community-driven model

The 2003 World Development Report recognised that a prerequisite for success in improving access to social service is that, deprived residents had been at the center stage in driving efforts toward expanding water and sanitation access coverage (World Bank, 2012). This was because of the increasing urbanisation trend resulting in a massive deficit in access to social services of water and sanitation, especially among the urban poor/lower income groups (McGranahan et al., 2005, Kanton et al., 2010). Meanwhile, water and sanitation global goals- ('Dublin Principles' of 1992, Vision 21 of 1997, MDG-7 of 2000/02, and SDG-6 of 2016) had and continue to aim at expanding access to water and sanitation services. According to Franks (2004), McGranahan et al. (2005) as well as Kanton et al. (2010), 'people-centered' approach has proven effective in contributing immensely toward achieving such goals, from experiences world over, including Ghana.

By community-driven model, technical expert and delivery oriented approach to services of water and sanitation must change to a community-driven demand oriented approach (McGranahan et al., 2005). However, there is the need to have a multi-sectorial approach in a community-driven model, instead of restricting to a particular sector, like water and sanitation sector, maintained McGranahan et al. (2005). A study commissioned by Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council (WSSCC) in 2005 revealed, in all urban centers there is potential for water and sanitation improvement (in access) if partnerships are formed between local government, water providers, and the household-users, especially among the lower-income groups (McGranahan et al., 2005). At the core of community-driven initiative is the opportunity for urban poor groups (as end-users services) to influence what is done and to be involved in doing it (McGranahan et al., 2005).

And more so, to be involved in monitoring progress, which implied a very different kind of monitoring from that envisaged for the MDGs, asserted by McGranahan et al. (2005). If the global goals on water and sanitation like MDGs/SDGs are to be met, more equal relationships are needed between urban poor-groups and local governments and water and sanitation providers (McGranahan et al., 2005). This means a shift from conventional patronage-based relationships to relationships that are more transparent, accountable to urban poor groups and within the law, maintained by McGranahan et al., (2005). This is the change that has to permeate all levels- from the lowest political unit to the highest (i.e. for Ghanaian system- Area council, Zonal, Sub-metro, District/Municipal/Metropolitan, Regional and National), concluded by McGranahan et al. (2005). Empirically, many examples of improved provision for water and sanitation for urban poor groups came from local community-driven initiatives (McGranahan et al, 2005; Kanton et al., 2010). However, the initiatives go beyond water and sanitation services and include broader initiatives like proper housing, access to micro-finance etc. (McGranahan et al., 2005). These initiatives are important not only for the tens of millions of urban households with much improved provision for water and sanitation, but for the way they complement investment in 'big water and sanitation infrastructure' and, indeed, can reduce the cost for this infrastructure (McGranahan et al., 2005; Kanton et al., 2010).

To substantiate the empirical facts on the success of community-driven models globally, McGranahan et al, (2005) offers accounts of Oranji Pilot Project in Karachi, Pakistan. According to Arif (1997 as cited in McGranahan, 2005) 1.2 million people in Karachi and 41,906 houses outside Karachi have built their sanitation systems which is seven times lower than similar project by government. Again, in Bangladesh- Chittagong and Dhaka, WaterAid supported 150 slum locations, through local partnership with seven other NGO's in 2002 (McGranahan et al., 2005). In Luanda, Cain et al, (2002 as cited in McGranahan et al., 2005) reported, a local NGO-Development Workshop Angola has supported the construction and management of 200 standpipes (each serving around 100 families). In this regard, where local (public or private) water agencies are too weak to extend provision to unserved low-income communities, this kind of partnership between an NGO and communities' organisation can have particular importance, in improving access to services, advanced by McGranahan et al. (2005).

Interestingly, the community-driven model undoubtedly had proven to be an effective medium in expanding access coverage, mostly, to the lower income/deprived section of the society, given the empirically results in McGranahan et al. (2005) as well as Kanton et al. (2010), among other works. However, the primary focus of the model remains on participation to increase access coverage, not participation to shape the management and operations of the service delivery process to serve existing users better. There is woefully little effort to exhibit the extent of input making by the user so as to alter management decision, beyond having access to service. Therefore, this study exhibits interactive user-provider relation in relation to improving service management and operations. It is through such participatory interaction that user-friendly, accountable, inclusive, user-responsive and sustainable service delivery framework may be enhanced (i.e. good governance).

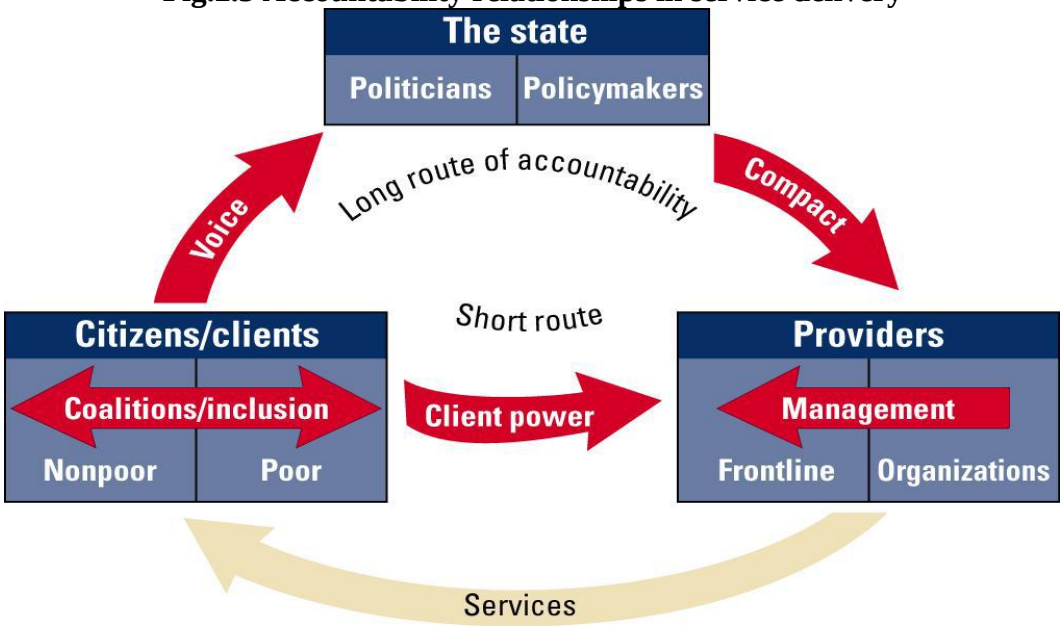
Accountability Relationship model

As indicated in Franks (2004), accountability remains one of the principles in water and sanitation governance, however, it hinges on participation, as through participation that accountability could be sought by stakeholders. Moreover, there is a growing recognition among policy-makers that measuring inputs and outputs alone is not enough to understand how service delivery works in practice, according to USAID (2008) as well as World Bank (2012). Rather the traditions and institutions under which authority is exercised (governance) for the common good also play a crucial role (USAID, 2008; World Bank, 2012). Better governance is an essential ingredient of policy reforms targeted at improving services delivery outcomes (e.g. potable water and improved basic sanitation) (World Bank, 2012).

The 2004 World Development Report- *Making Services Work for Poor People*, observed in World Bank (2012), defined a framework (policy guideline) for analyzing the accountability relationships between a triangle of policy makers, service-providers and citizens as service-users (See Figure 2.3). Within this framework, policies can either be operationalised through a "long route of accountability", whereby citizens elect policy-makers who in turn influence service delivery through providers, or a "short route of accountability", through which citizens may directly influence, participate in, and/ or supervise service delivery (World Bank, 2012). In order for both accountability channels to work effectively, citizens' level of input relative to the quality and efficiency of public services are very important feedback mechanisms, argued World Bank (2012).

Providing service required an interaction between the service-provider and service-user, and service provider should be responsive to the need/concerns of the user (Ramakrishnan, 2013). The importance of regular citizen feedback on the quality and efficiency of public service delivery has particular resonance in transition countries (World Bank, 2012). Countries, especially in eastern Europe and those in South (Africa, Asia and the Caribbean) have undertaken wide ranging service delivery reforms in adopting either NPG, NG or both governance approach in order to promote accountability (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Plantinga et al., 2008; and World Bank, 2012). This has influenced institutional relationships and changed the ways in which citizens participate in and experience service delivery processes (World Bank, 2012). All of these developments, as noted by World Bank (2012), have led to changes in the ways in which people interact with the state, as well as their perceptions and levels of trust relative to service providers, either public or private. The figure 2.3 represents accountability relationship framework, as espoused by World Bank (2012).

Fig.2.3 Accountability relationships in service delivery



(CREDIT: World Bank, 2003 as cited in World Bank, 2012:4)

Agreeing with World Bank (2012), the beneficiary base of social service delivery goes beyond only the poor to include the non-poor as well. Additionally, in agreement that an existence of interaction between the service provider and user is relevant, Ndiaye et al. (2013) noted that, it enhances sustainable and quality service delivery. However, critical points of departure in the

researcher's view remains. In that regard, effective service delivery framework goes beyond just accountability relationship between user and provider. Myriads of variables make up a more helpful holistic user-provider relationship framework in the social service delivery. These may include: the organisational structure/arrangements, national policy prescriptions, socio-economic factors (i.e. purchasing power), rules and regulations guiding the service provider's operations, accessibility level by user, globalisation and technology among others. Hence, such variables are among the focal points in this study's conceptual perspective.

In their analytical framework, Cleaver and Franks (2005) reasoned that water governance is multi-layered, multi-dimensional and dynamic. There are no simple widely applicable arrangements of optimal governance that will always yield fair outcomes (Cleaver and Franks, 2005). Rather, we see a rich diversity of context-specific arrangements shaped by wider society, concluded by Cleaver and Franks (2005). Therefore, one key challenge is assessing how much these arrangements are likely to increase participation, user-friendly service delivery, equity and sustainability in water and sanitation operational management, as acknowledged by Cleaver and Franks (2005). In this regard, this study assesses the extent of not only participation by user, but the extent of contributing into influencing management decision in operations of service providers.

2.6 The Ghanaian experience relative to governance of water and sanitation services:

As part of efforts at reforming social service delivery management in Ghana, the government launched the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) in 1983 (Adda, 1996). This was to execute series of public sector reforms leading to changing the existing PA approach to NPG approach. In 1987, the State Own Enterprises (SOEs) reform programme, of which social service delivery agencies under the control of the state were included, was formalised (Adda, 1996). That saw the promulgation of State Enterprise Commission Law, 1987 (PNDC 170), according to Adda (1996). This marks the beginning of the Public Enterprise project funded by International Development Assistance (IDA) to encourage NPM/NPG approaches (Adda, 1996). Simultaneously, Ghana embarked on a local government reforms and decentralisation programme in 1988 through passing the local government law PNDC law 207 of 1988 to put the reform in place (Kambootah, 2005).

The principal reason, among others, behind the reform programme was the devolution of power and responsibilities to the local government bodies (Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies-MMDAs), stressed Kambootah (2005). This is to encourage the MMDAs to promote local development and improve standard of living among the populace in a sustainable manner, through local democracy. Moreover, the reform was intended to enable greater number of the citizenry to participate in the management of public affairs and most importantly in governance, as advocated in NPG/NG approaches (Kambootah, 2005). This was the *decentralisation* policy dimension observed in Berkel and Borghi (2007).

In order to improve the performance of water and sanitation sector, especially in the urban centers, there was the introduction of Public Private Partnerships (PPP), in line with the outcome of the ERP (Kanton, 2010). These partnerships are mainly geared towards streamlining the role, functions and decision-making processes of actors within the water and sanitation sector (Kanton, 2010). Notable among such streamlining was the urban water reform policy (Mensah, 1999 cited in Kanton, 2010). The reform transformed the Ghana Water and Sewerage Corporation (GWSC) into a limited liability company- Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) (Kanton, 2010). This was one of the many steps for introducing the private sector to the management and operation of urban water supply systems in Ghana, asserted Kanton (2010). This marks the operationalisation of NPG, leading to NG environments.

As part of the reform, the regulation of urban water supply has been shifted away from government to an independent body- the Public Utilities Regulatory Commission (PURC) (Kanton, 2010). The mandate of this body is to regulate and oversee urban water supply, including approving tariff levels and ensuring the provision of quality treated water to consumers (Kanton, 2010). The responsibility of sanitation and waste management services, in line with the decentralisation policy, was also shifted to the MMDAs, maintained Kanton (2010). That notwithstanding, the private participation in water supply and sanitation services has been bias towards meeting the demands of upper and middle income groups (in a planned residents) relative to lower income groups (mostly in unplanned residents), hence not being responsive to ensure equality of access to the service for all segments in the society (Kanton et al 2010; and Kanton 2010).

In line with the global goal of sanitation, as at 2008, the national sanitation policy objective has been to improve access to safe water supply and sanitation (Tiifu, 2013). In that regard, the policy aims to reduce the proportion of the population without access to basic water supply and sanitation by 50% by 2015 and by 75% by 2025 (WaterAid, 2008 cited in Tiifu, 2013). Emphasise was also placed on the need to ensure systematic collection of data on waste management from all sectors of the economy to support relevant research and development to meet the challenges of managing waste associated with the growing economy, in terms of urbanisation (WaterAid, 2008 cited in Tiifu, 2013). More so, the policy supports building partnership with the private sector within an expanded networks of actors (i.e. NG), through effective public sector facilitation and coordination role (WaterAid, 2008). The sanitation policy of Ghana, in effect, operates around capacity development, information and education-communication and cost-recovery. The rest are research and development, monitoring and evaluation, asserted in WaterAid (2008 as cited in Tiifu, 2013).

Meanwhile, institutional estimates indicate that the proportion of the population with access to improved sanitation in Ghana increased from 14% in 2010 to 16% in 2012 (NDPC, 2015). Access to basic sanitation remains a challenge, recognised by NDPC (2015), with only a quarter of the population using improved sanitation facilities in 2013 (NDPC, 2015). Urban areas in Ghana recorded 28.6% rate of access to improved basic sanitation compared to 10.5% for the rural population in 2013, NDPC (2015). Based on the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the proportion of people with access to improved sources of water in Ghana was estimated at 81.6% even though the GWCL has set a 2015 target of 85% coverage of urban water supply in Ghana.

With regards to partnership and building networks of actors, Kanton et al (2010) revealed how community-driven initiatives had contributed in the provision of water and sanitation in Ghana. This initiative, though concentrated yet again on access, but it is an entirely community-based process through planning, implementation and monitoring using an expanded network of actors (Kanton et al., 2010). In that regard, a case under investigation was the activities of People's Dialogue Ghana-PDG in selected lower-income communities within some urban centers in Ghana. As at 2010, PDG in collaboration with a number of Community Based Organizations/Federations had financed over ten water and sanitation projects, to serve over 6000 people, in informal settlements in Volta Region (Abotoase), Accra, Tema and Takoradi (Kanton et al., 2010).

Meanwhile, Kanton et al. (2010), just as McGranahan et al. (2005), acknowledges a multi-sectorial approach toward community-driven approach to improve access, especially to the poor.

Relatively to the national sanitation policy objectives, little or nothing has been recorded on provider-user relationship, therefore not surprising the recorded indicators as at 2015 revealed much on access but little on user-provider relationship, as advocated by principles of good governance in World Bank (2012).

More so, the NSSDD network relationship of Jonoski (2002) was unable to establish a link between the model and any existing governance policy approach like NPG or NG which is applicable to the model. Hence, not reflective of the situation on the ground, probably no study has yet been documented in that regard. The policy NPG/NG approach advocates for heavy private sector participation in service delivery. However, the extent of private service provider relation with consumer, through a communicative channel which promotes responsive as well as user-friendly service is yet to be establish. Therefore, the findings of this study contributed in filling such a gap. Again, a regulator, especially in the water sector (PURC), was set up according to Kanton (2010) to control the activities of the private operator as well as that of the Public. However, the extent to which the activities of this regulator promote dialogue between the provider and the consumer is worth investigating into as that is unknown as well.

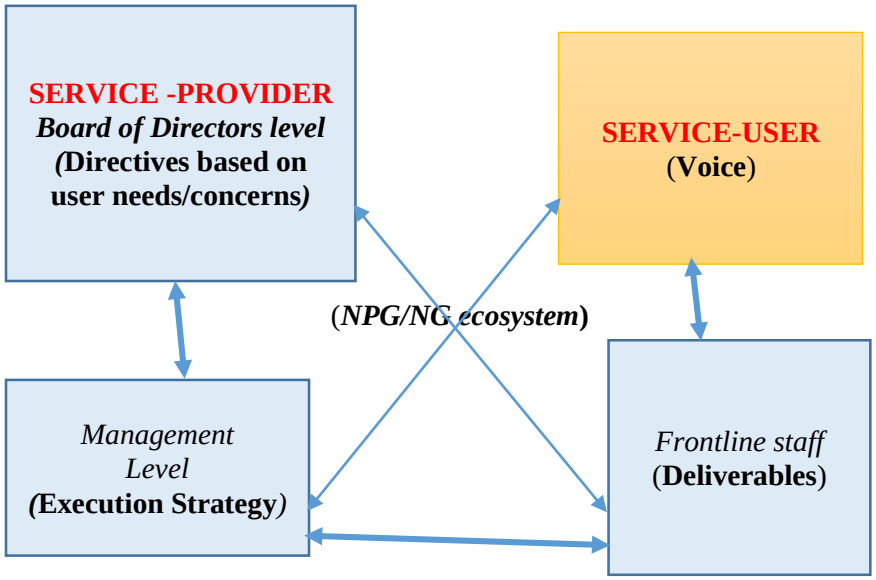
Empirical investigation into water and sanitation within the study area has revealed that, the area is made up of basically a planned and unplanned residences, in the urban center, within which access to services is much better than the rural surroundings (Abongo, 2013; 2013; Abdulai 2013; Tiifu, 2013; GSS, 2013; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013). Abongo (2013); Abdulai (2013); GSS (2013) as well as Kanton and Kosoe (2013) had focused on 'access', in one way or the other, hence indicating access is better and relatively regular in planned resident relative to the unplanned, in the urban center (i.e. Wa township). Tiifu (2013), nonetheless, focused on environmental sanitation policy awareness and implementation. Similarly, Tiifu (2013) found out that awareness among the planned residence were higher and had affected their level of access positively through enhanced attitudes, whilst the reverse is the case among the unplanned residents in the urban center (i.e. Wa Township). Therefore, various forms of prescription were made as to how to improve access among the unplanned residents. Hence, empirical study into the planned residents' relationship(s) with service providers becomes relevant, beyond providing service (i.e. access).

2.7 Conceptual framework in this study

The conceptual framework is intended to help promote a conceptual understanding on the topic under investigation having reviewed enormous literature in the area of study, in terms of purpose, approach, scope and context. To that extent, a proposed model to frame this study's findings in relation to the research questions and objectives are developed and presented in Figure 2.4. The model was based on the combination of New Public Governance (NPG) and Network Governance (NG) theories. This is because reviewed literature had proven that these theories not only allows for responsive interaction between service user and provider, the two theories give *voice* to the user. Hence, promote user-participation in service planning, organisation and delivery, which represents a good measure of governance at the organisational level.

Governance of social service takes place within stable economic, regulatory, competitive and democratic environments as advocated in NPG/NG theories. This ensures service-operators, who are involve in service delivery, adopt a more consumer-responsive approach. This is to allow for effective, integrated and standardised service delivery that meet users' interests, needs and concerns beyond access to service. More so, the target service-user is not limited to only the poor, contrasting most literatures reviewed.

Fig.2.4. Conceptual framework
(*Service User-Provider relation model in participatory governance approach*)



Source: Author's Construct, June, 2016.

Figure 2.4 layout (*Service provider-user relation model*) indicates two main actors in the social service governance framework, as pertains to water and sanitation service delivery management. Inherent in one of the main actors (i.e. **service-provider organisation)** is sub-actors which include *board of Board of directors/top-management level*, *management/mid-management level* and *frontline workers*. The other main actor is the **service-user** with a purchasing power and voice**.** Importantly, the outlay further indicates the appropriate combination of governance theoretical approaches (NPG/NG) applicable to an ideal user-provider relationship. Again, figure 2.4 recognises roles played by each actor and how such respective roles, when combined in an ecosystem of participatory governance approaches, contribute to a more interactive, all inclusive (participatory), accountable, transparent, communicative and coherent service delivery framework as advocated in USAID (2008) as well as World Bank (2012). However, the model specifically referred to an individual household as the service-user instead of a community, a nation or region. The model (Fig. 2.4) promotes not only user-provider interaction but user-responsiveness and sustainability of service delivery, instead of coverage expansion objective which most works had focused on as revealed in the literature reviewed. The outlay, nonetheless, recognises the policy and regulatory environments that ensures a more inclusive and standardised service, in line with ever changing global trends in the governance of social service industry.

As policy-makers have (and continue to) struggle to identify the most practical ways of bringing about improvements in policy and its implementation, so also it has become necessary to indulge in research so as to find out what policies and institutional developments would be most appropriate for effective policy making and implementation (Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2008). To that extent, literatures reviewed in this work, especially on policy making dimensions and processes in social service delivery (i.e. governance of social service) revealed a broader national or international context of governance. Hence, the focus of this study is on organisational effectiveness in social service delivery, relative to encouraging service-provider and service-user relationship, as showed in Figure 2.4 (service user-provider relation model).

Therefore, the crux of this study is an assessment of good governance practices at organisational level and not to be confused with organisational management, as argued in Teshome et al., (2012) as well as World Bank (2012). Again, such an approach targets all population segments in the society, who have regular access, and assess how their inputs affect service delivery management toward meeting their needs and aspirations. Importantly, the concept should not be equated with customer service. Whilst customer service relationship ends between service-user and customer service desk, user-provider relation in organisational governance goes to the heart of management decision and alter key cooperate policy direction.

Above all, the state bears the primary responsibility of regulation in the operations of all actors in the social service delivery management, in agreement with similar observations in most of the literatures reviewed (Rose and Lawton, 1999; McGranahan and Budds, 2003; McGranahan et al., 2005; Mehrotra, 2006, Berkel and Borghi, 2007).

2.8 The summary

Much has been written about access to water and sanitation as a social service in recent decades, irrespective of who (private/public/PPP) provides the service likewise governance processes at international, national and community level (McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006; Berkel and Borghi, 2007; Bracci, 2014). However, how 'better governance' can improve interactive relationship in the water and sanitation delivery framework at organisational level is the focus of this study. This has been adequately exhibited in figure 2.4. On that basis, effective stakeholder participation in the service operations and management will be ensured. In that regard, the modelling of this study is envisaged to promote a transparent, accountable, responsive and communicative interaction between a service-provider organisation and service-user for the purpose of ensuring service delivery sustainability.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A research methodology outlines what the researcher will do, the tools/instruments involved and how to do it from the beginning of the research work to the end in order to address the objectives set out in the study. It is a "blue print" for empirical research aimed at answering specific research questions and must specify at least three processes- the design for data collection and analysis processes, the instrument/tool to be used in the process and the sampling process adopted (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In this chapter, the research methodology used in the study is described. In that regard, this chapter discusses the research design as well as approach. On that basis the sampling technique which led to the sample size adoption is discussed. Again, how data was collected and analyzed is explained in this chapter. Importantly, underneath all the elements enumerated in the methodology is "empirical testability'' (Zikmund, 1994). Meanwhile, the testability of the research findings directly hinged on the extent of reliability and validity of the very findings that emanate from the study. To that extent, this chapter also presents the strategies used to ensure reliability and validity relative to the findings of this study. Lastly, this chapter describes how research ethical considerations were upheld as well as the profile of the study area.

3.2 Research Approach and Design

A research design is a plan of action, strategy and structure of investigation that a researcher adopts in order to find answers to research questions that are of interest to a study (Kerlinger, 1986). The research approach however is the general orientation of a researcher relative to the conduct of the research along the line of either quantitative, qualitative or both (Dugle, 2014). This study adopted a combination of survey and exploratory designs of data gathering simultaneously, likewise the combination of both qualitative and quantitative (mixed) approaches in data analysis as well as interpretation. Whilst a survey design was adopted to serve mostly the quantitative data required in this study, exploratory design was executed alongside to serve largely the qualitative data needs of this study. Surveys are considered one of the most commonly used methods of data collection in the social sciences through oral or written questioning in the field (Galaa, 2015).

More so, survey captures snapshots of practices, perspectives or situations from a sample of subjects in a field setting through a survey questionnaire or less frequently through a structured interview (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The researcher, alongside assistants executed a household survey through a self-reporting interaction with respondents. Thus a sampled element in the sample frame responded to series of questions as posed by an investigator (i.e. face-to-face questionnaire administration by the researcher or an assistant during the survey). This exercise afforded the researcher the opportunity to gather rich primary data on such variables like access to service, extent of user-provider interaction, key user concerns and extent of user participation in operations.

Meanwhile, exploratory research design is conducted because a problem has not been adequately examined and clearly defined resulting from little or lack of scientific investigation (Ahiadeke, 2008). To the extent that the context of this study is relatively a woefully underexplored area as very little empirical studies have been carried out in that regard, exploratory design is appropriate to unravel the magnitude of the phenomena under investigation (Bhattacherjee, 2012). More so, the exploratory design is found to be flexible in soliciting all kinds of answers to such research questions like the what, how, why and the when (Dugle, 2014). Hence appropriate for this study. The goal is to clarify the researcher's understanding of the phenomena under consideration in order to make valid conclusion (Abdulai, 2013). In effect, the exploratory design was meant to scoop out relevant information and data from both service provider and regulatory organizations or secondary sources so as to generate some understanding regarding the extent of provider-user relation in the water and sanitation service management. The exploratory design gave the researcher the opportunity to corroborate some of the responses from the household survey. This contributed to internal validity and reliability of this study. In essence, both the survey and exploratory designs were used hand-in-hand, hence complementing each other in the course of the study, especially at the data collection level.

Plays (1992 cited in Abongo, 2013) found that in most cases the very first decision that a researcher must make in deciding to carry out a research work is the choice between qualitative and quantitative approach. The choice between these two approaches is important because they reflect entirely different underlying research philosophies or orientation (Abdulai, 2013; Dugle, 2013). This undoubtedly poses the problem of which approach to adopt in designing and carrying out any research study. However, the quantitative and qualitative approaches of inquiry can be used

complementarily in social research, but the most important difference is the way in which each tradition treats its data (Twumasi, 2000; Neumann, 2003). Hence, the researcher combined both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study. Qualitative research is any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedure or means of quantification (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In this regard, qualitative approach in a research allows the researcher to get at the inner experience of the participant, to determine how meanings are formed in and between cultures and to discover rather than test variables, through inductive process (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Qualitative method is essentially philosophic in nature and the conclusion is not based on any rigorous analytical technique (Ghosh, 2000). It is particularly important when dealing with sensitive topics, and the approach also provides great insight and understanding of people's life. (Marquise, 1987). Whatever information is collected, is simply arranged (categorized) and described, and inferences are drawn (Ghosh, 2000). Clearly, this approach made it possible for the researcher to unravel, observed, examined and present the fundamental underpinning policy outlook relative to water and sanitation services delivery in the study area. The approach also afforded the researcher the means to examine service provider-organization management operations relative to user-inclusion and service-responsiveness. Importantly, the researcher was able to solicit service-user's impression (perspective) on how user-participatory service delivery management had been through a qualitative means but the finding was eventually quantified (quantitatively) on case by case basis and concluded based on the most frequent case.

On the other hand, quantitative research is derived from the scientific methods that are widely used in physical or natural sciences (Tiifu, 2013). Quantitative research or mathematical method is based on rigorous and sophisticated techniques of analysis (Ghosh, 2000). This approach to research describes tests and examines cause and effect, through employing techniques of mathematical tools to establish correlation or relationship (Ghosh, 200). It uses a deductive process of knowledge attainment (Duffy, 1985). Quantitative research is thus based on the measurement of phenomenon that can be expressed in terms of quantity. Hence, the quantitative approach allowed the researcher to do all the quantification aspects in this study as they relate to analysis and presentation of results. This was evident in the varied frequency tables/ result tabulation used in the analysis of the data gathered from various units of analysis in this study.

3.3 Units of analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the person/group, event frequencies or context, formal organization, community, that is the target of the investigation (Patton, 1987). Understanding the unit of analysis is important because it shapes what type of data the researcher needs for the study, how it will be collected and from who (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

The contexts within which data is collected in this study include the broader policy regime in water and sanitation service management focus, service delivery operational arrangement and regulation, user-provider interaction. Again, other units relative to formal organizations include service provider and regulatory organizations. Meanwhile, the sub-units related to the respective (main) units identified included household service-user (i.e. household respondent), managers, staff and directors of service provider and regulator organizations, respectively (i.e. Institutional respondents). Subsequently, the data gathered from these units is analyzed (either quantitatively, qualitatively or both) for the purpose of meeting the objectives of this study (Schwandt, 1997). The unit of analysis selection enabled the researcher to say something validly about the variables relative to the sub-units at the end of the assessment (Patton, 1987). In effect, the units of analysis identification provides ground for sampling as it serves as respective sample frames of the study.

3.4 Sample Size, Sampling Technique and field work

The primary population target in this study (as relates to the survey exercise) is household service -users (household respondents) in the study area. This constituted the section of households within urban Wa who have regular access to both improved water source (i.e. potable water) and improved basic sanitation management services in their homes regularly. However, managers/staff and directors of service-provider and regulator organizations, respectively (institutional respondents) also constituted the target population (as relates to exploratory exercise).

According to the 2010 PHC District Analytical Report of Wa Municipal by GSS (2014b), only 742 households among the 13,541 urban households have regular access to improved drinking water source as well as improved basic sanitation services. On that basis, 742 becomes the household survey target population from which 254 sample size was drawn at 95% desired confidence level (refer to appendix 1 for the sample size determination process). However, the

researcher produced 268 household survey questionnaires (increased 254 by 5%) and eventually settled on 258 for analysis, after the survey (field work).

Before the actual survey field work, the researcher executed a pilot field work to not only pre-test the tools/instruments designed for data collection but to make provision in meeting expected challenges. In that regard, unavailability of some respondents for a long period at home emerged as a major challenge. But the researcher observed the likelihood of engaging a relatively high literate and employed population, which was an advantage to the survey in a bid to addressing the major challenge. To surmount this challenge, among the remedy measures the researcher adopted during the actual field work were: producing more additional questionnaires, identifying the work place of prospective respondents and visit them over there for interaction and leaving a questionnaire at home and come at later date to pick it. At the end of the actual field work, 10 questionnaires were either could not be retrieved from some respondents or were returned unanswered in the course of the survey. This implies, 258 (268-10=258) that emanated from the *household survey* executed became the actual working population for further analysis of the survey outcome. Meanwhile, the household survey is only one aspect of this study (*survey* aspect). Nevertheless, the 258 properly answered and retrieved questionnaires fall even above the original sample size (254) of the household survey, therefore the scientific value of the findings or outcome was assured. It is important to note that the 258 is not the actual working population for the entirety of this study (both the survey and exploratory) as the size of the institutional respondents are yet to be added in the course of the *exploratory* aspect of this study.

Previous studies and secondary data from the service provider-organizations have shown that there are particular urban sections of the Municipality's 742 households that enjoy regular access to improved services of water and sanitation in their various homes (Kanton and Kosoe 2013; Abongo, 2013). These sections are popularly referred to as *planned* residences/areas in the Municipality and included SSNIT Flats, Dobile quarters, Kpaguri estate, Tampalipani (i.e. Nurses quarters, Agric. and Forestry bungalows etc) areas, Kuntaa, etc. (ibid). To that extent, these sections formed the sample frame (742) from which the sample size (254) of this study was drawn through a multi-stage technique.

The researcher found these *planned* areas to be widely dispersed and located in different parts of the study area, in the face of the limited time available for this study. On that basis, the multi-stage

sampling technique made it possible for the researcher to draw sample elements from the dispersed frame to constitute the sample size of the household survey, through a number of stages.

Sampling is the process of selecting a subset of people/units for the purpose of study (Dooley, 2007). In that regard, sampling is a statistical process of selecting a subset (called a sample) of a population of interest for purposes of making observations and statistical inferences about that population (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

The multi-stage sampling technique involves using different sampling strategies to select a sample size that would be representative of the entire population without compromising the scientific value of findings (Saunders et al., 1997). More so, the multi-stage sampling technique can be described as the procedure of selecting a sample unit using a series of sampling strategies to overcome the problem of geographically dispersed population when face-to-face contact is required to obtain information (Abdulai, 2013). Therefore, this study's sampling technique witnessed a mixture of both probability and non-probability sampling strategies in the application of multi-stage technique. In that regard, the researcher was able to sample an element for either a specific or general purpose as it is required at every particular sampling stage. As stated in Al-Hassan (2015: 60) "it is useful to combine two or more sampling strategies to achieve the desired sample". This helps in triangulation and allows flexibility as it meets multiple interests and needs whilst improving the validity of findings (Al-Hassan, 2015).

For instance, in the first-stage, four (4) *planned* residential areas were *conveniently* selected and zoned into four clusters (*convenience* and *cluster* sampling strategies) for the purpose of drawing, thereof, houses and eventually households for data collection on series of variables related to demography, access to service, main service provider-organization, user-concerns, knowledge on participatory channels, service-responsiveness, user-participation etc. Households in the *planned* areas have been found to be the most served by service-providers as observed in previous works (Kanton and Kosoe, 2013; Abongo, 2013; Tiifu, 2013) and available records from the service providers. Hence, becoming convenient unit for the purpose of the field survey in this study. According to Al-Hassan (2015), a convenience sampling results when the more convenient elementary units are chosen from a population for observation, as they serve the purpose of the observation efficiently in the face of insufficient time among other logistical constraints.

Having an already predetermined sample size (of 268), the researcher adopted *equal proportional quota* sampling strategy, in the second-stage, to allocate an equal population size across the four geographic clusters to cumulatively make up the sample size. In this regard, the researcher divided 268 by 4 (268/4) to get 67. Hence, the estimated working population for each of the four clusters (planned area) was 67 prior to the field work exercise.

Furthermore, whilst on the field, *systematic* sampling strategy was employed in the third-stage to sample the 67 houses in each of the four clusters that were *conveniently* zoned. This enabled the researcher to have a cross-sectional representation of houses in each and across the four clusters. Systematic sampling technique is often used in large scale and household surveys (Twumasi, 2000). The technique involves selecting sample variables at regular sampling interval from a sample frame (Saunders et al., 1997). The sampling interval tells the researcher how to select variable/element from the sampling frame by skipping variables at a regular interval before selecting another from the same frame (Newman, 2007). On this basis, the researcher made an effort to derive a sample fraction to serve the purpose of regular sampling interval in each of the planned areas (cluster). In that regard, the researcher divided the target population by the sample size (742/268= 2.8) to get a number to be used as the regular interval fraction in the systematic selection of houses. As the fraction realised (2.8) was close to 3, the researcher picked 3 as the interval fraction across all the areas as the survey is executed.

It is important to point that, the researcher solicited the services of four first-degree graduates of the University for Development Studies- Wa campus, who reside in the Municipality to assist the researcher in the field work relative to data collection process. This enabled the researcher to collate data across these dispersed areas (clusters) within a considerably good time. During an orientation exercise organized by the researcher with the assistants, a minimum of five houses was agreed to be the daily target within a 14-day period in each of the 4 clusters by each assistant. However, the researcher followed each assistant at least once every two days in the field to smoothen grey areas as they come up. By the sampling interval method, the researcher ensured an assistant first picked up the second building on the left and the first on the right in every sectional lay-out within each of the clusters visited for data collection. As the name implies, these *planned*

areas were spatially well laid-out within the Wa Township, with sectional demarcations allowing easy movement.

In furtherance of the sampling interval method in systematically selecting houses and eventually households to make up the sample size, the researcher alongside the assistants counted 3 houses from the first ones randomly selected, simultaneously on both left and right and continue to pick-up every house which falls on the 3rd count until the sample size as allocated for each cluster was reached. Previous works (Abdulai, 2013; Tiifu; Abongo, 2013; GSS, 2014b) have proven that mostly each house in these planned areas is made up of a single household, which indeed the findings of this study confirmed. The results of those works further revealed that almost each household in these areas has the same experience with water and sanitation services, relative to regular access. Thus, each household possesses the same characteristic as the other, regarding the matter under investigation. Meanwhile, a household is defined as all individuals permanently living within the same compound and eating from the same pot (Abdulai, 2013).

The researcher adopted *purposive* sampling in the fourth-stage so as to reach out to the principal household service-user (household respondent) among household members in every house systematically selected. This is because the researcher wants to solicit information from that particular member who directly engages with service provider-organisation regularly, hence have better understanding of specific issues regarding service delivery and can give a personal account, experience and perspective. As the name suggests, purposive sampling is done based on specific purpose (Maxwell, 2007).

With regards to institutional respondents in the *exploratory* aspect of this study, similar multi-stage technique was employed to eventually select the respondents. In stage-one, the researcher applied *convenience* sampling strategy to select service provider as well as regulator organisations. In that regard, operational management structure of service provider in the study area within a policy regime as sanctioned by regulation was inquired and assessed. Furthermore, the researcher adopted *purposive* sampling in stage-two in selecting managers/staff and directors of service provider-organisation and service regulator organisation, respectively. These category of respondents are relevant sources of data that served the very purpose of this study.

The exploratory study that ensued primarily examined the operational management structure of service provider organisation relative to household service user-participation. Hence, the nature of

user-provider relationship was revealed. Again, the exploratory approach offered the researcher an opportunity to assess the policy/regulatory regime which guides service delivery in the study area. Thus serving the qualitative needs of this study. The result of this assessment is evidenced in the preceding chapter. In all, 13 institutional respondents were interacted with and elicited data for the purpose of assessment, in the exploratory aspect of this study. This implied the actual working population for this study was 271 (258+13=271). This constituted the actual sample size this study eventually analysed for the purpose of meeting the objectives set out therein.

3.5 Data Collection Methods

Clearly, the basic sources of data in this study had been adequately defined in the description of the sampling technique above. In the description that ensued relative to the sampling technique, it was evident that data was collected from such units of analysis like household service-user, managers/staff of service provider organisations, directors of service regulatory organisation among other sources. The sources, however, can be generally categorised in two main types and these are primary and secondary, as pertains in every social research (Al-Hassan, 2015).

Data collection is the process of gathering data and accounts from either or both primary and secondary sources on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enable one to carry out analysis and measurement to answer stated research questions, test hypothesis, if any, and evaluate the outcome of research findings (Ranjit, 1996; Twumasi, 2000). While methods vary by discipline, the emphasis on ensuring accurate and honest data collection remain the same (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Broadly speaking, data collection methods can be grouped into two research philosophical categories: *positivists* and *interpretive* (ibid). Positivists aimed at theory testing through deductive analysis of data, hence start with theory building, using theoretical postulates and end in establishing the link between empirical data collected with theory (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Meanwhile, the interpretive employs an inductive approach that starts with data and tries to develop a theory about a phenomena of interest from the observed data (ibid). Primarily, the design of every social research is influenced by any of these two research philosophies, especially at the data collection stage, though the study may be qualitative, quantitative or both. However, whilst positivists corresponds more with quantitative research, interpretive goes along effectively with qualitative (Galaa, 2015).

Clearly, this study falls in the category of positivist, though it is more qualitatively inclined. This is because this study began with theorization in the form of the conceptual framework developed. This was done in relation to other theories of governance as well as water and sanitation services delivery processes. The theoretical framework, which informed the research questions, was connected with the data collected in this study. This was an effort to answer the research questions after the research work. The goal of the data collection, in positivist approach, is to capture quality evidence-based data and accounts. Subsequently, the data was translated into rich information through data analysis and description which allows for the building of convincing and credible answers to the research questions that has been posed in this study. Depending on the method used to collect data, results could be over-reported or under-reported, thereby compromising on content validity and reliability (Abongo, 2013). As a result, combination of methods, tools and instruments were used to investigate, collect and eventually analyze data to ensure validity as well as reliability in this study.

The primary data needs of this study was largely served through a survey questionnaire and to some extent a key informant interview. This implies the basic source of the primary data was the household service-user, though institutional respondents did contribute a little in that regard. On the other hand secondary data and information were collated and reviewed, respectively, through a desk study of water and sanitation policy documents, operational manual as well as strategic plan of action document of service provider organization (specifically GWCL and ZGL). Other secondary sources included Ghana Statistical Reports on Ghana Living Standard Survey Round 6 (GLSS6) (GSS, 2014a), 2010 National Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2012), Wa District Analytical Report (GSS, 2014b), previous works on water and sanitation in the study area (Tiifu, 2013; Abdulai, 2013; Abongo, 2013; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013).

Structured questionnaire with both closed and open-ended questions were designed for the purpose of gathering the primary data from respondents through the household survey. This was to allow the researcher gather both quantitative and qualitative forms of data at the same time, hence allowing for timely generation of large amounts of information at a relatively low cost to the researcher. Again, such combination of both open and closed ended questionnaire is so flexible that respondents are at liberty to express themselves freely but with a limit (Twumasi, 2000).

Questionnaire consist of well-formulated questions to probe and obtain responses from respondents (Panneerselvam, 2007). Questionnaires are frequently used by most researchers due to its simplicity and low cost to be applied to larger groups of individuals to source data primarily (Abongo, 2013; Dugle, 2014). More so, questionnaire have been chosen for this study because the results emanating thereof can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package. Finally, data from questionnaires can be analyzed more 'scientifically' and objectively than other forms of research (Dugle, 2014).

However, semi-structured interview guide was used to elicit largely qualitative information, through key informant interviews, from managers/frontline staff of service provider-organizations and directors of service regulator-organizations. The semi-structured interview guide was designed by the researcher to reflect the research questions. Such a tool is convenient in gathering both qualitative and quantitative data types (Galaa, 2015). It has the advantage of great flexibility, enabling the researcher to enter new areas and produce rich data (Dugle, 2014). Semi-structured interview combines the flexibility of the unstructured, open-ended interview with the directionality and agenda of the data collection tool to produce focused qualitative textual data.

Furthermore, there where enormous documentary sources on water and sanitation that aided the researcher to carry out a desk study approach to reviewing and collating relevant information for the purpose of meeting one of the specific research objectives. Such sources included National Water Policy of Ghana, National Sanitation Policy of Ghana, EPA Guideline on Land Fill sites, The Strategic Plan of Action on Sanitation, District Operation Manual, Corporate Brochure, GLSS6, The District Analytical Report of Wa and previous works in the same field within the same study area. Desk study is a documentary review of information which enable the researcher to acknowledge earlier work and have a deeper understanding about not only the research process, but the phenomena under investigation (Abongo, 2013). Desk study deals with an in-depth study of documents as well as data produced by writers, researchers or authorities, for a purpose that is possibly different from that of the original writers (Galaa, 2015). Both Hart (2001) and Ahiadeke (2008) had emphasized the use of desk study in a form of literature review to justify a particular approach to a study as well as the selection of methods, especially in a relatively unexplored social phenomena. This sits appropriately with the exploratory aspect of this study.

Again, the use of desk study revealed valuable information and accounts on the nature of policy regime related to water and sanitation, the operational structure of service provider-organization relative to user participation and importantly, the unalienable link between policy and regulation as proved in both water and sanitation policies, respectively. In essence, desk study as a tool of data gathering was adopted by the researcher because it is cost-effective and allowed for generation of quality data, though time consuming.

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

At the end of data gathering, collation, cleaning and coding, quantitative data was analysed using the software applications, notably the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. However, qualitative data was analysed and presented through diagrams, tables and descriptive narrations. Meanwhile, the process of the analysis included tabulation, charts and bars presentation and description/interpretation of data collated.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument or a tool measures the same way each time it is used under the same conditions with the same subjects. Primarily, this relates to the consistency and dependability of the tools or instruments, methods and techniques employed in the study (Galaa, 2015). For instance, the questionnaires should reveal consistency in responses. Field work (i.e. household survey) entails the use of data gathering instruments (A-Hassan, 2015). However, the instruments (i.e. the questionnaires, interview guide etc.) need to be pre-tested in order to improve quality (ibid). The pre-testing enable the researcher to improve upon the reliability of the instrument (Al-Hassan, 2015).

To that extent, the researcher did carry out a pilot study to pre-test the instruments as well as identify the likely challenges the study may encounter. Therefore, the outcome of this action afforded the researcher the basis for training and orienting the research assistants recruited for the field work. The orientation did not only focus on improving reliability of the data collection tools/instruments but in the operationalization of it as well. For instance, research assistants were oriented to exhibit similar personal attributes to all respondents in the execution of field work, e.g. friendliness and support. This allowed the respondents to feel freely in the process of interaction so as to elicit consistent and logical data from them.

Again, the very instruments adapted in this study relative to both data collection and analysis had been observed to be most preferred in most previous survey works cited by the researcher (Abdulai, 2013; Tiifu, 2013; GSS, 2014a).

Meanwhile, validity is basically concerned with accuracy of measurement that reflects the inner logic of the study (Galaa, 2015). Thus validity refers to the extent to which an instrument or a tool measures what is supposed to measure exactly with much accuracy as well as usefulness of the specific inference from the study. To that extent, the researcher ensured the working population in this study is reflective of the target population given the sample frame. In this regard, the researcher increased the original sample size by 5% so as to ensure the size was not compromised or short-changed in the process of the fieldwork, hence the scientific validity of the finding was ensured. Again, this study derived the sample size at 95% confidence level which implies only 5% margin of error was allowed in this study. Hence, the validity of this study was enhanced in that regard.

Furthermore, to achieve content validity the survey questionnaires were designed to answer variety of concerns on service access, opinion on how user-participatory service delivery operations had been. Meanwhile literature review formed the basis upon which questions in the interview guide meant for key informant interviews were designed. This is to make sure that the questions are representative of what a participatory provider-user relationship, along a policy direction should reflect. The questions were formulated in simple language for clarity and ease of understanding. For validation purpose, the researcher sought the permission of every interviewee during the key informant interviews and recorded, with a voice-recorder device, the interaction which ensued. This offered the researcher a rich reservoir of reference to resort to in order to cross-check a respond on paper and validate its authenticity. In the same vein, every respondent in the survey was required of his/her phone contact, which enable the researcher to reach out to any of them for clarification. Again, internal validity was enhanced through the application of triangulation to collect and observe data on a number of variables like access coverage, extent of participation in the perspective of the user, user concerns in the delivery operations etc. using multiple means. The researcher was more particular on internal validity relative to external validity. This is because the exploratory nature of this study made it more descriptive than inferential. Therefore, it is not possible to make valid generalisation thereof.

However, the findings of the study are relevant to understanding the broader policy environment in the water and sanitation sector as well as guiding public policy action relative to social service provision.

3.8 Ethical Consideration

Ethical concerns may emerge at all stages of research, according to Saunders et al (1997). For that matter it remains incumbent on the researcher to adhere to ethical norms in a research on a number of reasons (Resnik, 2015). Firstly, adherence to the norms promote the aims of research such as knowledge, truth and avoidance of error (ibid). For instance, the researcher was subjected to a strict and meticulous guidance by the supervisor throughout this study. This enable the researcher to prohibit this study against fabricating, falsifying or misrepresenting some data that may have adverse effect on the findings. Therefore the truth regarding this study's finding was enhanced while errors were minimized to the barest minimum level (5% margin of error) as envisaged prior to the study.

Secondly, since research (of this nature) often involves a great deal of corporation as well as coordination among many different disciplines and institutions, adherence to ethical standards promote the values that are essential to effective collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect and fairness (Resnik, 2015). In this regard, the researcher strived for honesty in the course of interaction with all actors in this study, most especially the supervisory authority who had served as source of direction and guidance both academically and morally. This reflected in the methods and procedures objectively employed in this study. This is evidenced in the report of data analysis result and discussion. Again, all publications either directly or indirectly utilized in this study were duly recognized as such. More so, the researcher strived in maintaining high level of integrity in dealing with data sources, peer reviewers and the able supervisor. In this regard, the researcher sincerely kept most promises and agreements relative to appointments, none-disclosure act, personal privacy/confidentiality, mutual exchange of resources with the said actors. This made data collection relatively convenient almost in all facets. Finally, the researcher was frank and open with the supervisor and fellow academicians seeking insights and academic resources as concerned with this study. This made it possible for the researcher to accept constructive criticisms of this study and made necessary corrections. In effect, these ethical considerations as adhered by the researcher contributed to improving reliability and validity of this study, in one way or the other.

3.9 Profile of Study Area

Wa Municipality is one of the eleven Districts that make-up Upper West Region (UWR) of Ghana. The Municipality shares administrative boundaries with Nadowli District to the north, Wa East District to the east and to the west and south, Wa West District. Absolutely, Wa Municipality lies within latitudes $1^0$40'N to $2^0$45'N and longitudes $9^0$32W to $10^0$20'W (GSS, 2014b).

Wa is the capital of the Municipality as well as the UWR. In its quest to promote participatory planning and decision making at the local level, Wa Municipality has five (5) Zonal Councils (Wa, Busa, Kperisi, Kpone and Boli), and 73 Unit Committees. Each community in the Municipality has a unit committee that works through the Area/Urban Councils to the Assembly level. The Wa Municipal Assembly (WMA) is empowered as the highest political and administrative body charged with the responsibility of facilitating/regulating the implementation of national policies including that of water and sanitation (WMA, 2006; Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).

The Municipality has a land area of approximately 579.86 square kilometers. This is about only 6.4% of the total UWR land size. The Municipality lies in the Savannah high plains and is generally gentle and undulating. It has an average height between 160m-300m above sea level (GSS, 2014b). The Municipality has two marked seasons, namely the wet and dry seasons. These have a direct relation with the two main streams in the Municipality. The streams dry up during the long dry season thereby reducing available water for domestic, industrial and construction purposes. The South-Western Monsoon winds from the Atlantic Ocean brings rains between April and October. The North-Eastern Trade winds from the Sahara Desert brings the long dry season between November and March. Meanwhile, the mean average rainfall is between 840mm and 1400mm (WMA, 2012 cited in GSS, 2014b). Underlying the Municipality are predominantly pre-Cambrian, granite and metamorphic rocks. The two main types of soil are laterite and the savannah ochrosols. Additionally, the vegetation is one of the Guinea Savannah grassland type. It is made up of short trees and grass ground cover in the wet season. Commonly occurring trees in the Municipality, some of which are of economic value are Shea, Dawadawa, Baobab, Cashew, Mango, Kapok, teak (GSS, 2014b).

The total population of Wa Municipality, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census (PHC) report, is 107, 214 and forms only 15.3% of the UWR population. Whilst the males make up about 49%, the females constitute 51% of the Municipality population (GSS, 2014b).

In effect, the sex ratio is about 98% (ibid). Meanwhile, the structure of the population is largely dominated by youthful bulge. The largest of the youthful categories is between the ages 20-24, which constitute almost 15% of the total population. In the same report, it was observed that 29% of the total population are of Christian faith, whilst 65.9% belong to Islam. Again, whilst 4.1% practiced traditional religion, about 1% either have no or belong to other religion (GSS, 2014b).

Furthermore, the 2010 PHC report shows that 80.4% of the people in the Municipality belong to the Mole-Dagbani ethnic group. This comprises the Waalas (who are the indigenous people), Dagaabas and Sissalas. The GSS (2014b) report further revealed, the structure of the economy as pertains in the Municipality used to be dominated by the agriculture sector in the previous years. However, the situation changed by 2010 when the PHC exercise was undertaken. In that regard, the service sector, reminiscent of the broader national economic outlook, has taken the commanding lead of the economy in the Municipality. For instance, whilst the service sector employs 51.3% of the working population, agriculture and industry employ 30.2% and 18.4%, respectively (GSS, 2014b). Other key sectors of the economy include transport, tourism, communication and energy.

Access to improved water source as well as improved basic sanitation is relatively better in Wa Municipality as compared with others in the Upper West Region, hence the selection of Wa as the study area. Whilst 48.2% of the Municipality's households sourced their drinking water from pipe-borne, 36% depend on bore-hole/well (GSS, 2014b). Furthermore, only 10% have Water Closets (WCs) in their homes, and 37% used public toilets (ibid). Meanwhile 25% was reported to have bathrooms for exclusive use in their homes and 43% shared separate bathroom in the same house. Again, 44.6% disposed-off their solid waste in a public dump, 17.6% did it indiscriminately and only 4% depend on private sanitary service provider (ZGL) (*opsit*). The GSS (2014b) further revealed whilst 14% have proper drainage system for liquid waste disposal, more than 50% threw theirs onto the street. The major service provider are Ghana Water Company Limited and Zoomlion Ghana Limited for water and sanitation, respectively. Among the principal service regulators are Wa Municipal Assembly, PURC, EPA and CWSA. Wa Municipal is rated 35% on the regional incidence of poverty distribution mapping which is relatively the lowest among the 11 Districts in UWR (GSS, 2014b). This indicates a high proportion of the Municipality, relative to the other Districts, having access to basic amenities, though still below the national average.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses, through discussions, the findings of the study- i.e. results. The analysis, for that matter the discussions are based on the response collected through both the survey and desk study tools used during the study. The chapter presents and discusses the demographic data (i.e. result) of the two main categories of respondents in the study (i.e. institutional and household respondents). Again, the chapter presented the results from analysis of the data gathered from these respondents through interviews, questionnaire administration and desk study (i.e. review of secondary data like policy documents, action plans, organisational profile, statistical reports, etc.). Finally, the chapter discusses the result in relation to the objectives of the study.

4.2 Results of the study

This section fundamentally captures the specific result of the study along each of the objectives of the study. Therefore both primary and secondary data or accounts that emanated from this study were captured under this section. The result provided basis for further discussion, alongside prevailing literature to make meaning out of the result, relative to meeting the objectives of this study. Though this section is largely result specific, however, the presentation and discussion of demographic characteristics of respondents featured prominently in the section.

4.2.1 Demographic Features of Respondents

This section is intended to allow the researcher characterized the sampled population so as to appreciate the demographics of the survey participants. In this regard, the researcher elicited data from the respective categories of respondents along the following dimensions: gender, age, education, occupation, religion, years of professional experience etc. The prime significance of this sub-section was to allow the researcher relate the demographic characteristics of respondents to their responses under each of the research objectives. Primarily, two categories of respondents make up the study, hence their respective demographic features captured and discussed in this sub-section. This allowed for better understanding and appreciation the respondents' role in the study.

Table 4.1 Institutional respondents

Sex of respondents	**Frequency**
Male	10
Female	3
Total	**13**
Educational background of a respondent	**Frequency**
SHS/Diploma	2
First Degree	2
Masters	8
PhD	1
Total	**13**
Position held by a respondent	**Frequency**
Top Management member	5
Mid-management member	6
Frontline staff	2
Total	**13**
Years of experience	**Frequency**
below 4 years	1
4years-9years	8
9years/above	4
Total	**13**

Source: *Field Study, May, 2016*

Table 4.2 Institutional respondents' organisational background

Name of organization	Main activity	No. of respondents	Percent
GWCL	service provider	5	38.5
WMA	service regulator/provider	2	15.4
ZGL	service provider	3	23.1
EPA	service regulator/provider	1	7.7
CWSA	service regulator/provider	2	15.4
Total	**5**	**13**	**100**

Source: *Field Study, May, 2016*

Broadly, the institutional respondents comprised two groups, related to water and sanitation services delivery. They include *directors* of water and sanitation service regulatory-organisations and *managers* of water and sanitation service provider-organizations. As indicated in table 4.2, five organizations were studied under this category, relative to nature of activity. But two were selected and explored further, relative to user-participation in subsequent section. Although this study revealed that CWSA and WMA play dual roles of service regulation and provision, the researcher considered them in respect of the former. This is amplified in the works of Kambootah (2005) and Ofei-Aboagye (2011) which both stressed the need for effective devolution of power for local authorities to regulate and manage social services at the community level. More so, the revised National Water Policy, according to Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing (MWRWH) (2007) justifies the delegation of regulation and facilitation roles of water and sanitation services, in the long run, to local authorities, though in effective collaboration with CWSA. Across all the five (5) organisations, as indicated in table 4.2, 13 respondents were eventually interviewed. Table 4.1 shows a male-dominated respondents over female, cumulatively. Again, both Tables 4.1 and 4.2 indicates all the respondents are into formal professions based on merit, as each respondent is qualified academically in his or her own right.

The male domination, as seen from this study, confirms the traditional dominance of males in most formal professions in Wa Municipal in particular and Ghana as a whole. This reflected in the works of Amponsah (2010 cited in Alhassan, 2013) which indicated females have generally been in the minority in handling managerial positions in Ghana. Statistically, female-employed population is almost 51%, which is marginally above 49% representing that of male in Wa Municipality (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2014b). However, the proportion of employed-female in managerial positions stood at paltry 1.7%, whilst that of male is 3.4% in the Wa Municipality (GSS, 2014b). Again, only 1.1% of the employed-female are technical and associate professionals, whilst that of employed-male stood at 3.3% (ibid). Traditionally, men are academically advantaged in Ghana and this is even more prevalent in the northern part of the country (Alhassan, 2013; Dugle, 2014). For instance, the UNICEF (2014) had indicated 88.3% and 83.3% as secondary school enrolment by 2012 in Ghana for male and female, respectively. Overall adult literacy rate in Ghana stood at 78.3% and 65.3% for male and female, respectively (Alhassan, 2013). Furthermore, in Wa Municipal, the literacy rate favors the male as GSS (2014b) had recorded 55.8% and 44.2% for male and female, respectively.

Table 4.1 shows composition of position held by respondent, and gender-wise, only 1 and 2 female(s) were among the top-management and mid-management levels, respectively. However, no female was recorded among the frontline staff. This reinforces a male-dominance institutional respondents. Hence, the narrated pattern of male-dominance relative to formal professions had been corroborated in this study as male dominance, especially, in management responsibilities was revealed during the research carried out.

Strikingly, Table 4.1 again indicates a huge proportion of the respondents are highly-literate. The educational background of respondents relates to various sub-disciplines under organizational/HR management and related disciplines like administration, communication, accountancy, research etc. as revealed in this study. This implies almost all of the respondents in this category clearly understand the questions put before them, hence answered appropriately. Similarly, majority of the respondents have a long-term professional experience of at least above 4years. This pattern indicates good level of institutional memory which is critical in eliciting relevant information on organisational management operations and guidelines, according to Cole (1995). This was helpful to the researcher in unravelling relevant components of the respective water and sanitation policy regimes, during the study. Therefore the finding of this study relative to variable2 in Table 4.1 largely correlates the findings of both DHS (2015) and GSS (2014b).

Interestingly, the educational background of the respondents is highly rich. This implies most of the respondents understood the questions posed to them and consciously answered them accordingly, as more than 80% were either in or have completed tertiary education. This correlates well with the employment status noted in this study, which indicated only some 21% respondents were unemployed. Strong correlation had been established between education and employment variables in previous studies by GSS (2014a). Again, the residents in the locations of the survey (household respondents) were found to be socially advantaged (i.e. academically, highly employed etc.), which influences regular delivery of other social amenities. This resonates well in earlier findings in those locations and were referred to *'planned'* residence, noted in previous works (Abongo, 2013; Abdulai, 2013; Tiifu, 2013).

Table 4.3 Household Respondents

1. Location	Frequency	Percent	5. Religious status	Frequency	Percent
Dobile Qtrs	61	23.6	Muslim	35	13.6
Kpaguri Estate	66	25.6	Christian	216	83.7
Konta/SSNIT	66	25.6	Traditionalist	3	1.2
Tampalipani/Agric. bungalows	65	25.2	None	4	1.6
Total	**258**	**100**	**Total**	**258**	**100**
2. Sex	Frequency	Percent	**6. Educational level**	Frequency	Percent
Male	161	62.4	Basic	4	1.6
Female	97	37.6	SHS/O-Level	43	16.7
Total	**258**	**100**	Tertiary	211	81.8
			Total	**258**	**100**
3. Age	Frequency	Percent	**7. Employment status**	Frequency	Percent
20-29	68	26.4	Formal employee	177	68.6
30-39	61	23.6	Informal employee	26	10.1
40-49	68	26.4	Unemployed	55	21.3
50-59	51	19.8	**Total**	**258**	**100**
60 and over	10	3.9			
Total	**258**	**100**			
4.Marital status	Frequency	Percent	**8. Household size**	Frequency	Percent
Married	185	71.7	1-4	95	36.8
Single	57	22.1	5-9	142	55
Divorced	10	3.9	10-14	21	8.1
Widowed	6	2.3	**Total**	**258**	**100**
Total	**258**	**100**			

Source*: Field Survey, June, 2016*

The demographic features of household (service-user) respondents in this study are presented in the Table 4.3. Characteristic of most Ghanaian households in general and northern part in particular, males dominated the household respondents. A male is generally deemed to typify a household head or an authority over a household in northern Ghana (Alhassan and Odame, 2015). Female headed household proportion constitute less than 35% in Ghana relative to that of their male counterparts which is above 66%, according to the 2014 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (DHS, 2015). In Wa Municipal, the proportion of male household heads is 44% relative to 39.8% representing that of female household heads (GSS, 2014b).

4.2.2 Organisational structure of service-provider and Service-user inclusiveness

Table 4.4 Operational management focus areas of service-provider

Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) (Public)	Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL) (Private)
Main Goal: To meet the increasing demand for better service delivery through efficient management of our core business of production and distribution of *potable water* and **customer** management in urban areas of Ghana.	***Main Goal***: To see a clean Ghana, green and healthy *environmental sanitation* in each and every **community and household**.
Goal Source: Top Management activity- Corporate Planning and Business development Unit, situated at National Head Office, in consultation with Regional Chief Executive Officer.	**Goal Source:** Higher level Management decision-Board of Directors.
Goal development Procedure: Both processes of Up-Bottom and Bottom-Up.	**Goal development Procedure:** Centralized planning process, i.e. Up-Bottom.
Operational Targets: Customer satisfaction. Coverage expansion. Adequate technological/logistical availability.	**Operational Targets:** Profit maximization. Sustained industrial competitiveness. Consistent innovation.
Customer Care (user-participatory) Platforms: PMB/Written complaint box. Walk-in-reception. Telephone/Radio. Frontline staff.	**Customer Care (user-participatory) Platforms:** Complaint desk/Walk-in-Reception. E-mail channel/Mobile/Telephone. Customer Care Office.
Operational Capacity: Very Low	**Operational Capacity**: Very high
Partnership/Collaboration: Key partners include; PURC, WRC, CWSA and EPA.	**Partnership/Collaboration:** Key partners include; MMDAs, Ghana Education Service (GES), Ghana Health Service (GHS), CWSA and foreign associates (China and Turkey) in waste management services.

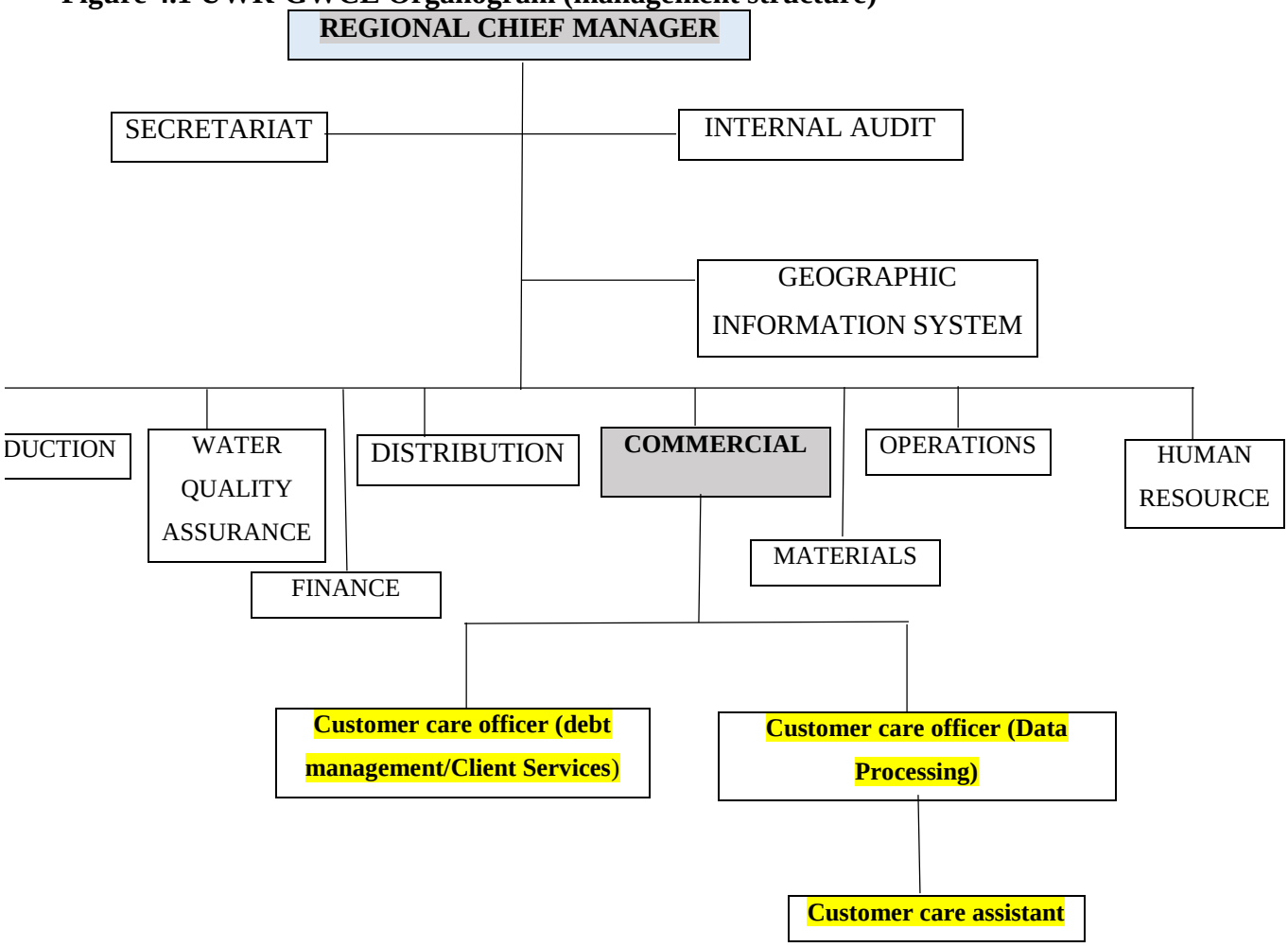
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

A respondent in ZGL indicated that the company is operating only 60% of her optimal capacity in the Wa Municipal as he stated: "*As and when a service is demanded in the Municipality, we deliver and*

our capacity to deliver is currently under-utilised. The feedback from our service-users goes into the heart of decision making at higher management level and the evidence is in the drastic logistical acquisition measures taken to serve them well, hence improving our operational capacity greatly " (Respondent in ZGL, May, 2016).

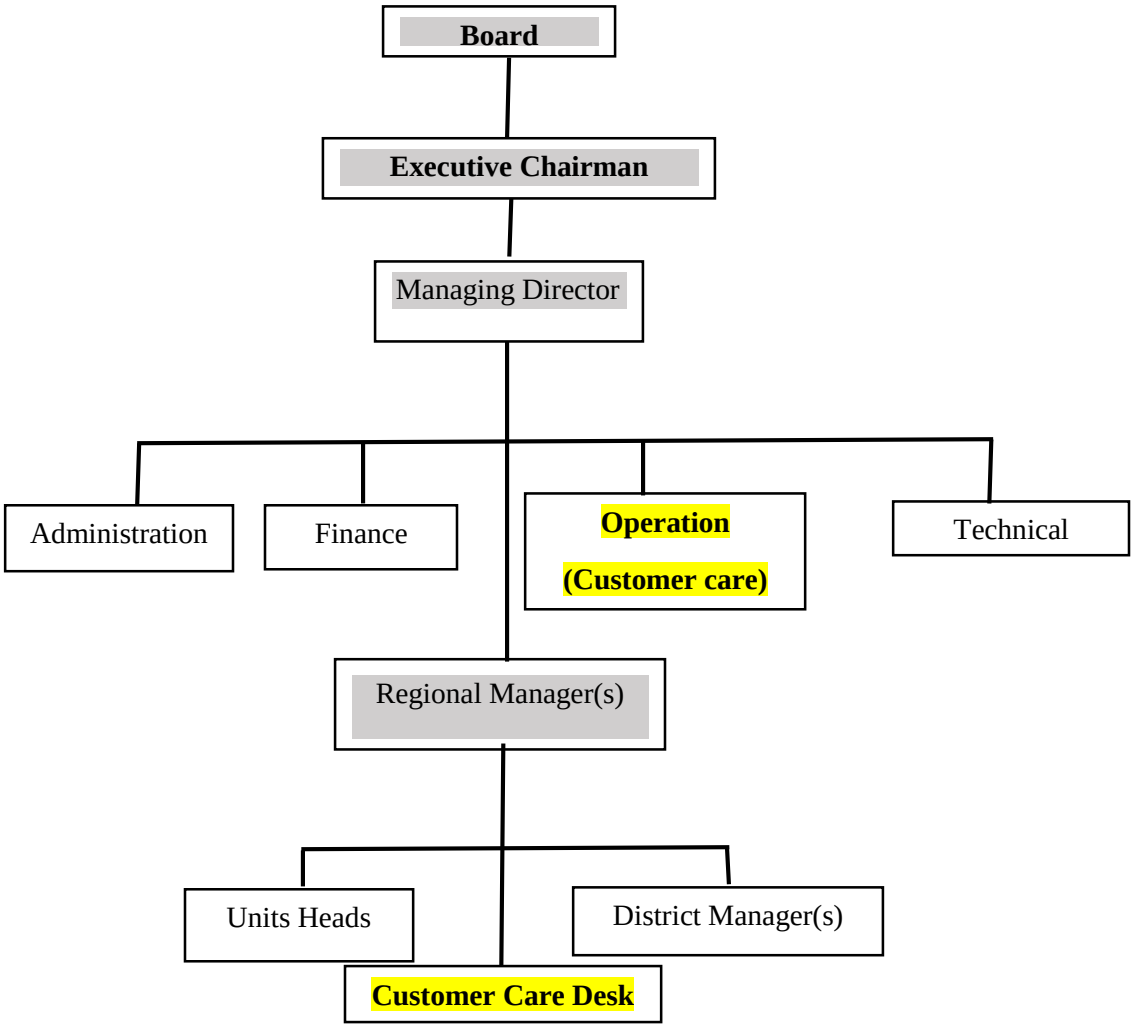
On the other hand, a respondent in GWCL (May, 2016) revealed that "*only 2000m^3/day the company is able to deliver, out of 11000m^3/day demand level*". This represent some 18.2% access demand coverage which shows a grave gap of unmet demand for water services in the Municipality.

Figure 4.1 UWR-GWCL Organogram (management structure)



Source: *Desk Study, August, 2016.*

Figure 4.2 Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL) organisational structure



Source: *Desk Study, August, 2016.*

As an entry point toward assessing the extent of user-participation and governance at organizational level, firstly the researcher identified one key provider-organization for each of water and sanitation services, respectively. In that regard, data/information regarding the strategic/tactical focus areas of operational management and the nature of organizational structure as operated by each of the selected service provider-organization in the study area was collated for probing. Find the result of the collated data/information in Table 4.4, Figures 4.1 and 4.2 for purpose of further probing. This is to find out if the management operations allows the user to articulate his/her concern and responded to appropriately. Hence, ultimately able to probe the nature of service user-provider relationship relative to extent of user-participation.

4.2.3 Extent of service-user participation in service (delivery operational) management

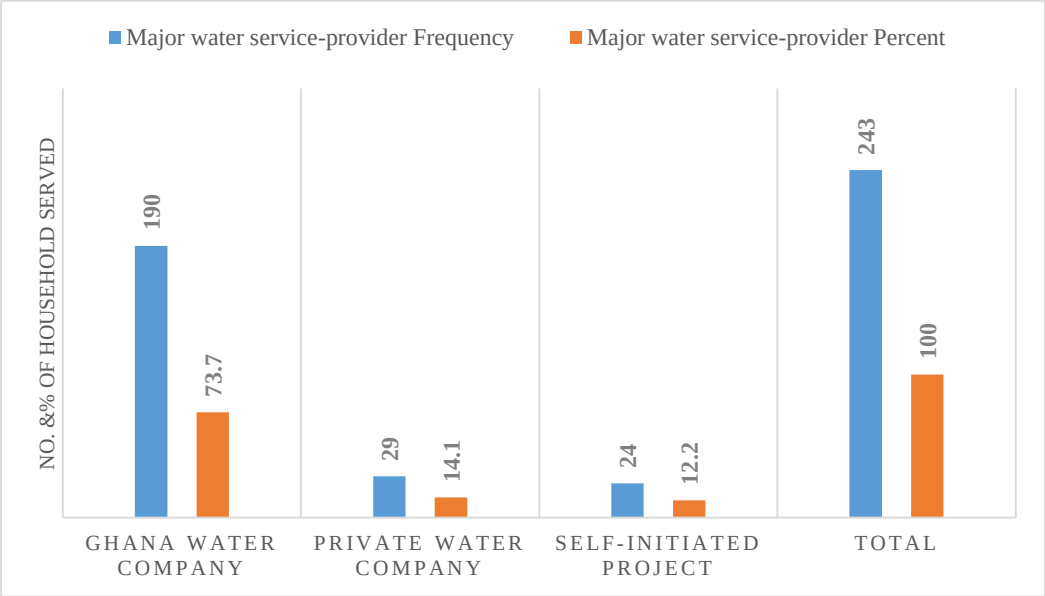
The primary unit of analysis in this section is the household service-user (household respondents). In this regard, the key question this section seeks to answer is '*How user-participatory the service delivery processes had been, in the perspective of the user*?' In effect the researcher wanted to find out the extent a service-user operationalised such participatory platforms note in Table 4.4. Hence, data were collated as well as analyzed along the lines of access to services of water and sanitation among respondents, user-concerns, knowledge and utilisation frequency of participatory channels and how user-responsive the channels had been. Therefore, the researcher administered 258 validly structured questionnaire within the study area. This was primarily in respect of soliciting the household service-user's view on how participatory the delivery of service operation is. Again, on the basis of secondary data, the researcher established the association as well as its degree between service-provider and service-user, through a scatter diagram analysis in Fig. 4.11 and 4.12.

Table 4.5 Access/availability of services to household service-users?

Variable	Column1	Column2
1.Access to potable water	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	243	94.2
No	15	5.8
Total	**258**	**100**
2.Medium of disposing-off solid waste		
Door-to-Door service	205	79.5
Community Waste Bin	53	20.5
Total	**258**	**100**
3.Septic tank management service		
Once a year	151	58.5
Once every two year/more	73	28.3
Other	34	13.2
Total	**258**	**100**
4.Drainage system		
Excellent	9	3.5
Good	160	62
Fairly satisfactorily	60	23.3
Poor	29	11.2
Total	**258**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey, June, 2016*

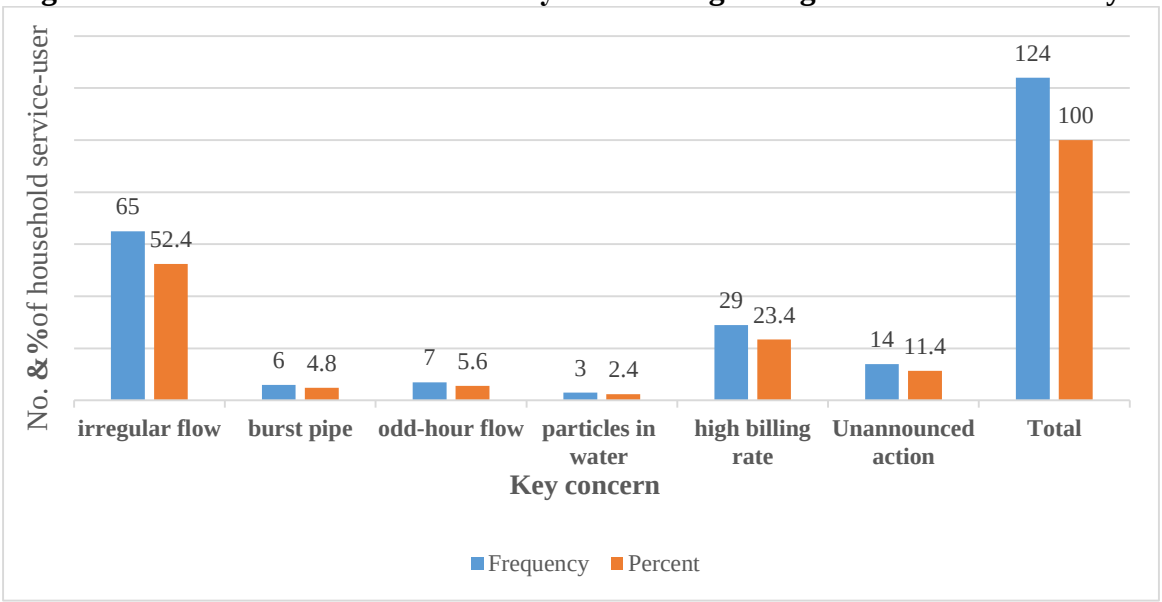
Figure 4.3 Major water service-provider to household



Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

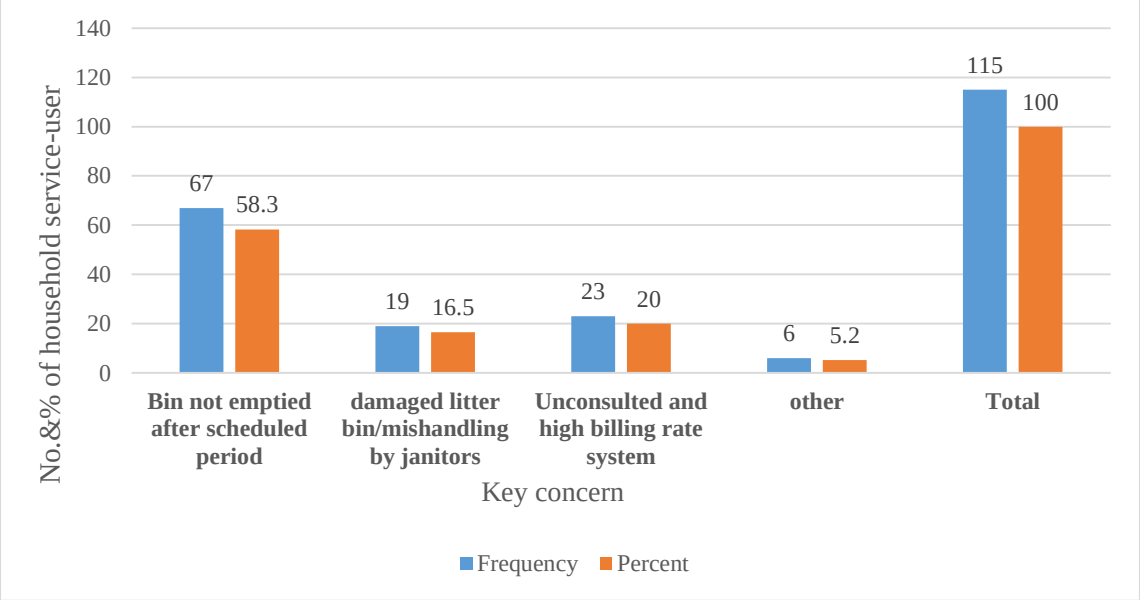
Regarding sanitary services and particularly solid waste disposal, all the 258 (100%) respondents interacted with in table 4.9, specifically under variable 2, are served by one particular entity (Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL)), the survey revealed.

Figure 4.4 Household service-user's key concern regarding water service delivery



Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.5 Household service user's key concern on waste management service delivery



Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Table 4.6 Knowledge of a formal complaint platform among household service-users?

Variable	Column1	Column2
Water	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	84	38.4
No	135	61.6
Total	**219**	**100**
Sanitation		
Yes	127	49.2
No	131	50.8
Total	**258**	**100**

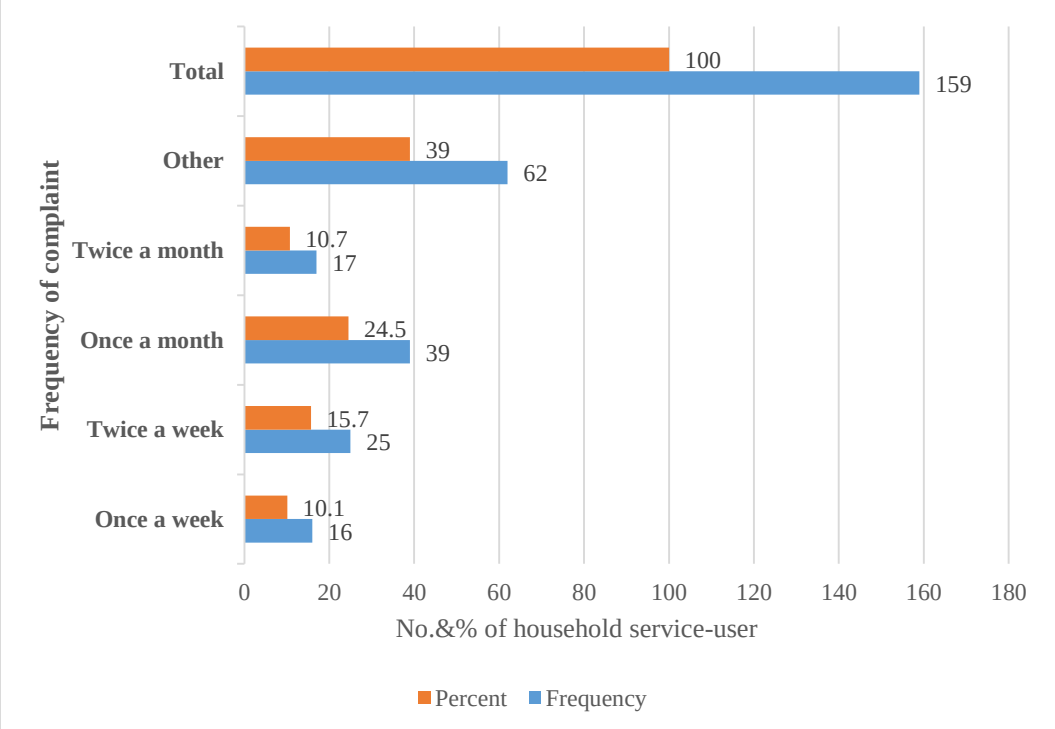
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Table 4.7 Specific complaint channel known to the household service-user?

Variable	Column1	Column2
Water	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Walk-in-reception	55	65.5
Tele/mobile phone	22	26.2
Frontline staff	4	4.8
Written letter/report	3	3.5
Total	**84**	**100**
Sanitation		
Tele/mobile Phone	34	26.8
Walk-in-reception	64	50.4
Frontline staff	29	22.8
Total	**127**	**100**

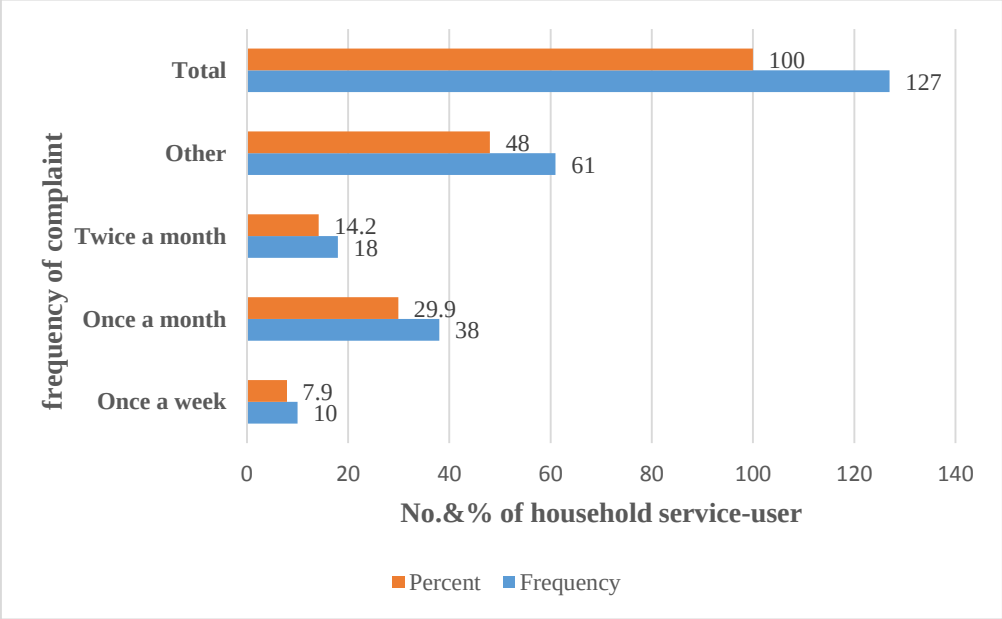
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.6 Water service complaint channel utilisation frequency by household service-user



Source: *Field Survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.7 Waste management service complaint channel utilisation frequency by household service-user



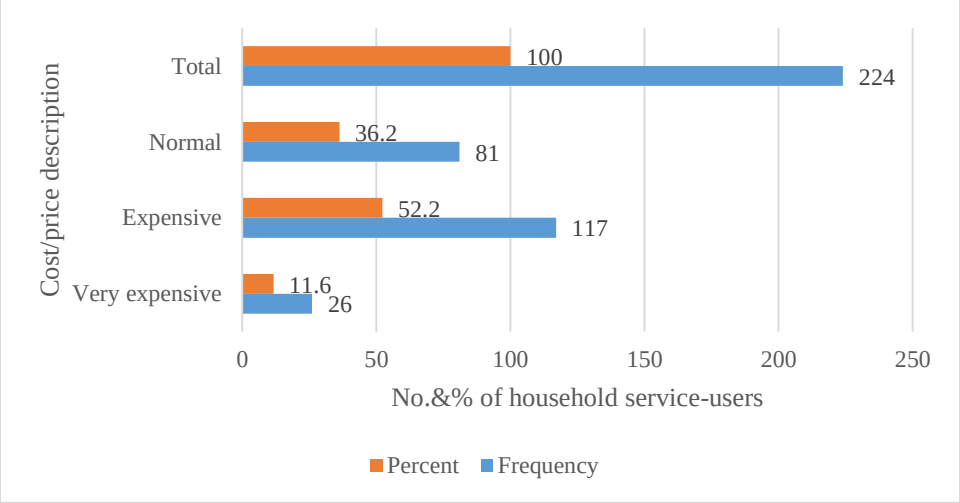
Source: *Field Survey, June, 2016*

Table 4.8 Household's concern addressed/responded to appropriately by service-provider?

Variable	Column1	Column2
Water	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	57	36
No	102	64
Total	**159**	**100**
Sanitation		
Yes	65	51
No	62	49
Total	**127**	**100**

Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.8 Household's description of septic tank emptier service charges



Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Table 4.9 Household knowledge of how the septic tank management service pricing is fixed?

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Yes	38	17
No	186	83
Total	**224**	**100**

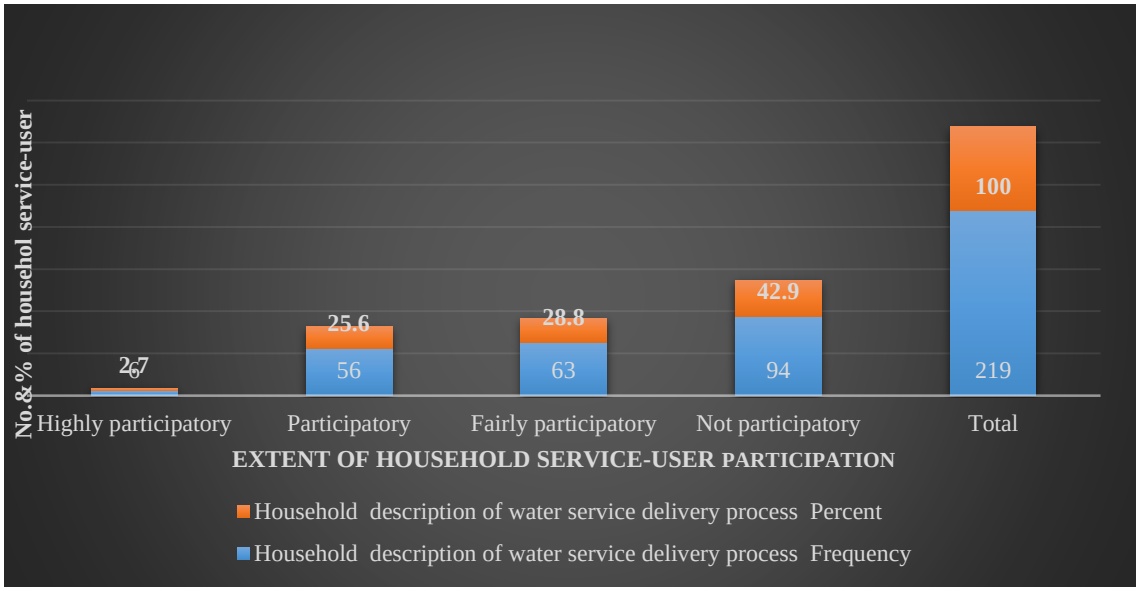
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Table 4.10 Availability of any platform for household to make input in the price fixing?

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Yes	15	40
No	23	60
Total	**38**	**100**

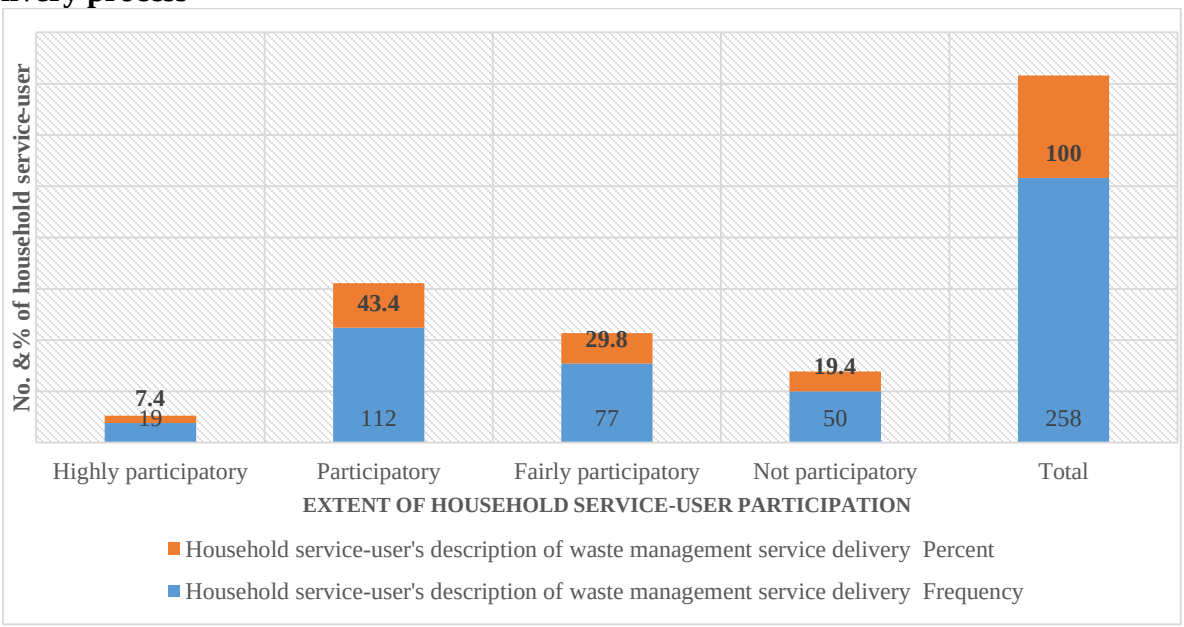
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.9 Household service-user's description of how participatory is *water* service delivery process



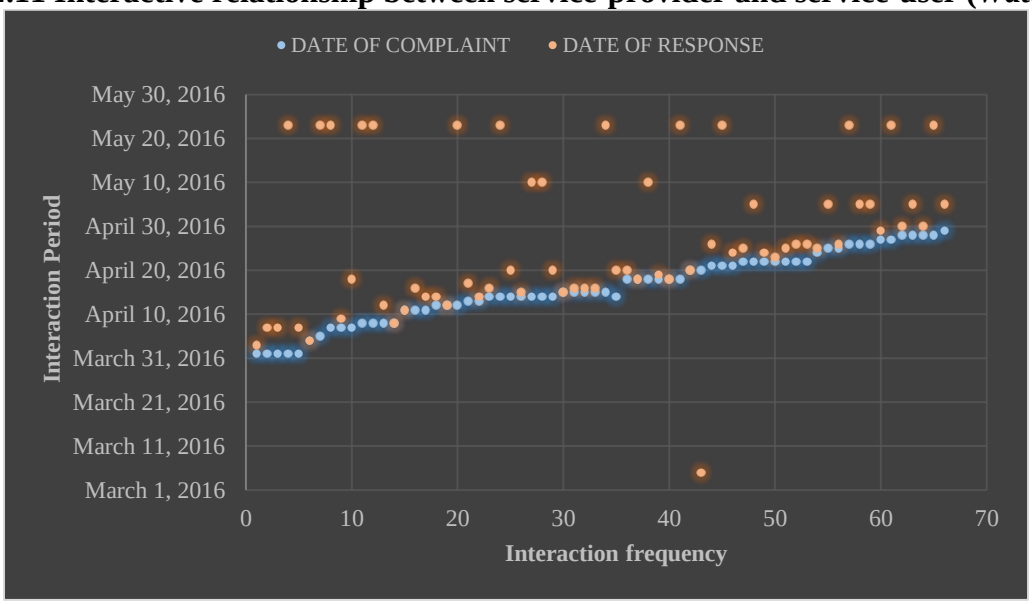
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.10 Household service-user's description of how participatory is *waste* service delivery process



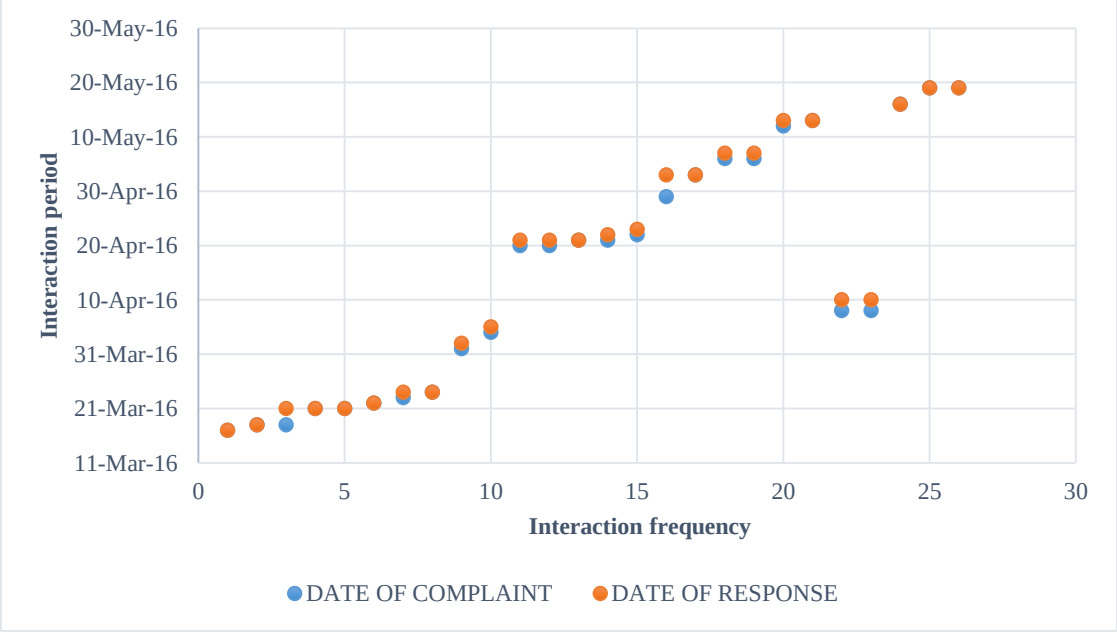
Source: *Field survey, June, 2016*

Figure 4.11 Interactive relationship between service-provider and service-user (*Water*)



Source: *GWCL-Wa, 2016*

Figure 4.12 Interactive relationship between service-provider and service-user (*Sanitation*)



Source: *ZGL-Wa, 2016*

4.2.4 Policy outlook in water and sanitation delivery services (as pertain in the study area)

Series of key informant interviews with respective institutional respondents offered the researcher access to rich literature materials, aside the varied responses to questions asked. The materials included a respective national policy document on water and sanitation (which principally regulates and guides service delivery in the study area), national environmental sanitation strategy and action plan, water sector performance review report, revised sanitation policy highlights, CWSA Corporate brochure, District operation manual and EPA guidelines on land fill site development. These sources offered the researcher an opportunity to engage in a desk study method of documents reviewing, in relation to previous literally works regarding governance of water and sanitation service in the study area as well as elsewhere so as to elicit secondary data.

Therefore, the researcher presented combination of the key findings (result) emanating from both key informant interview (primary data) as well as the desk study (secondary data) in this section. This is certainly in furtherance of an effort to ascertaining the policy environment within the study area, relative to service delivery. The researcher find out that water and sanitation each have specific separate policy regime being operationalized in parallel. However, points of convergence exist in the respective policy regimes.

The national water policy;

According to MWRWH (2007), Ghana has since the mid 1990's, been implementing a string of reforms in the water sector aimed at enhancing the efficiency of the production and utilization of water. These reforms have culminated in the institutional re-alignment of key institutions in the sector, mentioned in the policy document. Despite the implementation of these reforms, a major concern has been the lack of an effective interface among key stakeholder institutions with a view to integrating and harmonizing their various activities, stated in MWRWH (2007). Given this phenomenon, the Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing (MWRWH) in concert with other stakeholder institutions and interest groups, in 2004, commenced processes for the formulation of a consolidated national water policy (MWRWH, 2007).

Consistent with both domestic and international development goals the overall goal of the National Water Policy is to "*achieve sustainable development, management and use of Ghana's water resources to improve health and livelihoods, reduce vulnerability while assuring good governance for present and future generations*" (MWRWH, 2007). The policy had been christened 'the Ghana Water Vision 2025'. Ghana's Water Vision for 2025 has the main objective to "promote an efficient and effective management system and environmentally sound development of all water resources in Ghana" (ibid). This will be achieved by addressing relevant issues under water resources management, urban water supply and community water and sanitation, the policy stated.

The major domestic development goal this study identified to underpin the formulation of the water policy then, was the *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy* (GPRS- I&II). Similarly, the global development goals upon which the policy seek to align were the *Millennium Development Goals* (MDGs), *New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD)*, this study revealed. Aside national and global development objectives, the policy seeks to upheld international laws, protocols, agreements and declarations that Ghana is signatory to, stated in the policy. These included: United Nations Convention on the Laws of the seas- (June, 1985), Convention on the Rights of the Child- (September, 1990), International Covenants on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights- (December, 2000) and Ghana-Burkina Faso joint Declaration on improved management of the natural resources of the Volta Basin- (August, 2002). Subsequent to the overall goal set out as well as the main objective inherent in the Water Vision 2025, table 4.4 exhibits specific area of focus to carry out strategic policy actions toward realisation of the goal.

Table 4.11 National water policy focus areas of strategic actions

	Key policy *focus areas.*	Applicable *Principles* to focus area:	*Challenges* posed by the principles	Specific key *policy objectives* targeted at the challenges is to:	*Key Policy measures and/ or actions* aimed at realizing the objectives.
1	**Integrated Water** **ɒurce** **ıagement** **RM)**	Water as a finite and vulnerable resource. Integrating management and development of water resources with environmental management.	Water supply adequacy in quantity and quality. Institutional arrangements, standards, human resources availability and environmental sustainability.	Equitable utilization of water resources. Achieve sustainable management of water services, whilst maintain the quality of environmental biodiversity.	Ensures preparation of IWRM strategies using various river basins as the planning units. Adopts water resources planning as a cross-cutting basic component of national economic planning. Promotes partnership between the public and private sectors.
	ɛss to **ɛr**	Fundamental right of all people to safe and adequate water.	Assuring all people of a minimum water requirement for the maintenance of basic health and well-being.	Enhance the management and development of water resources to facilitate access to potable water without discrimination.	Maintains effective management of ongoing and already existing projects. MMDAs to assume central role in supporting community management of water and sanitation facilities.
	ıncing	Meeting the social needs for water as a priority, while recognizing the economic value of water and the goods and services it provides.	Ensuring sustainable supply of water services through appropriate pricing mechanisms and levies while ensuring equity.	Ensure that adequate funds are available for the development of water sector to expand access coverage to all.	Application of cost-sharing with vulnerable communities. Institute appropriate water charges. Ensure rational allocation and conservation of water resources.
	d **ernance**	Participatory decision-making.	Ensuring water services planning follows a participatory approach.	Ensure participation of all stakeholders in decision-making on water related issues. Ensure stable and enabling for sustainable water resources management and development.	Deepening democratization of society. Increase private sector role and participation in identification and implementation of water resources development projects. Application of relevant laws and institutional mechanisms that govern water use and conflicts resolution
5	**International Cooperation**	Shared basin, internationally.	Establishment of bilateral Cooperation.	Promote international Cooperation in the management of shared basins.	Ensure standardization and exchange of data related to trans-boundary issues.

Source: ***desk Study, August, 2016***

The implementation of this policy, in the medium term, will follow the broad frame of the national agenda in poverty reduction/ development, the policy revealed. The policy observed that water plays a critical and cross-cutting role in meeting basic needs, promoting accelerated growth and good governance. The Water Directorate of MWRWH is responsible for developing the implementation plan for the whole policy, whilst institutions, organization and agencies responsible for specific areas will develop implementation strategies and delivering the relevant policy actions, stated in the policy. The key agencies of MWRWH carrying out the implementation strategies are the Water Resource Commission (WRC), Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) and Community Water and Sanitation Agency (CWSA), according to the policy. In view of the planning and policy goal setting, respondents from some of these agencies have stated:

> "*Strategic management plans formulation process is restricted at the national level and at most, in a bid to get to the bottom line management, the Regional Manager's office is consulted in the process and our operations are heavily regulated by PURC*" (Respondent in GWCL, May, 2016).

> *"Operational goal setting is a high level activity".* (Respondent in CWSA, May, 2016)

The policy further revealed that an important aspect of supporting the strategies of implementation is '*ensuring effective inter-institutional coordination and collaboration'*. This is achievable by identifying and defining the roles and responsibilities of the various institutions for implementing and providing the necessary guidelines for various water uses and as well as for environmental health and sanitation, stated by the policy. The institutions responsible for strategies to ensure availability of water for varied uses and services are divided into "**principal sector agencies**" that deal with *facilitation* and *implementation* and "**allied sector agencies**" that play supportive roles; including *regulation* and *oversight* (MWRWH, 2007). For the nation to achieve the objective of Water Vision 2025 and to respond to current priorities, opined in the policy document, it is important to adopt a holistic approach to water resources management and development. In this regard, an Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) is adopted to enhance sustainable management of water resources and provide appropriate decision support systems for competing uses of water (MWRWH, 2007).

In pursuant of the IWRM, a respondent stated: *"Meeting national threshold (i.e. coverage), as set from above, is done through transparent and accountable interaction among stakeholders"* (Respondent in WMA, May, 2016).

Table 4.12 Institutional roles and responsibilities in national water policy execution

Key Institution/Organization/Agency	Major Role/Responsibility	Legal Status
Principal:		
1. Ministry of Water Resources Works and Housing (MWRWH).	1. Policy formulation, Planning, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of water and sanitation programmes.	1. Executive Power.
Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD).	2. Policy implementation, particularly on sanitation- solid/liquid waste.	2. Executive Power.
Water Resources Commission (WRC).	3. Regulation and management of water resources and policies coordination.	3. WRC Act, 1996 (Act 522).
Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL).	4. Planning, implementing and managing urban water supply.	4. GWCL Act, 1999 (Act 4611).
Community Water and Sanitation Agency (CWSA).	5. Lead facilitator of water supply and sanitation sub-sector services to rural communities and small towns.	5. CWSA Act, 1998 (Act 564).
Hydrological Services Department, Water Research Institute (WRI) and Ghana Meteorological Agency (GMA).	1. Supports planning and decision-making processes through provision of relevant data and water resources related information to the policy-making institutions.	1. CSIR-WRI Act, 1996 (Act 521).
Ghana Standard Authority (GSA)	2. Developing and setting quality standards and certification related to potable water.	2. Standards Decree 1973 (NRCD 173)
3. Public Utilities Regulatory Commission (PURC).	3. Regulates standard of services relative to quality and tariffs-set by GWCL.	3. PURC Act, 1997 (Act 538).
4. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA).	4. Protection of water resources and regulation of industry players in water.	4. EPA Act, 1994 (Act 490).
5. Town and Country Planning Unit.	5. Physical planning to direct provision of social services.	5. CAP 84; 1945
6. Parliamentary Committee on Works and Housing.	6. Provides legislative oversight	6. Legislative Power
7. Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MOFEP).	7. Administers all investments in water, including negotiations for grants and loans.	7. Executive Power

Source: *Desk study, August, 2016*

The national environmental sanitation (ES) policy

Environmental sanitation (ES) is identified in Ghana's programme of economic and social development, set out in successive domestic development programmes like Vision 2020, GPRSI&II, according to Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLRD) (1999). ES policy is aimed at developing and maintaining a clean, safe and pleasant physical environment in all human settlements, to promote the social, economic and physical well-being of all sections of the population, the policy noted.

The broad focus themes of the original policy, related in MLRD (1999), are:

- Capacity Development;
- Information, Education and Communication;
- Legislation and Regulation;
- Sustainable Financing and Cost Recovery;
- Segmentation of Service;
- Research and Development;
- Monitoring and Evaluation.

Meanwhile, it was revealed from this study that, having revised the policy in 2010, the policy has been structured into three implementation time-frames toward realizing each of the focus themes;

Short-term 2010-2015;

Mid-term 2016 – 2020;

Long term 2021 – 2025;

Hence, the revised ES policy stated: "*The goal of the revised environmental sanitation policy is to develop a clear and nationally accepted framework for environmental sanitation as an essential social service and a major determinant for improving health and standard of living in Ghana"* (MLRD, 2010; Jonga, 2010).

> *"The policy now covers a wider scope to meet current development objectives and aspirations of the sector. Such as the changing context of national and international development priorities, supports relevant research to meet the challenges associated with managing waste, supports building effective partnership both at international and local levels"* (Jonga, 2010).

Subsequent to the revision, a National Environmental Sanitation Strategic Action Plan (NESSAP) was put in place to primarily serve as a driver of behavioral change toward waste management in Ghana (MLGRD, 2010). Attitudinal change is key to realization of the policy goal (ibid).

The Strategic approach adopted to implement NESSAP is the **A, B, C** strategy, along both the "top-down" and "bottom-up" approaches, where applicable, the policy noted.

A= awareness for behavior change;

B= phased planning and;

C= effective coordination.

More so, this study found that three segmented Service Levels have been adopted for delivery of sanitation services in carrying out the ABC strategy. These are **minimum, comfortable** and **amenity (**Jonga, 2010). The current sanitation situation is deemed as "unacceptable". Hence MMDAs are required to ensure a "**minimum**" level through ensuring provision of basic sanitation service to all in a short term. Similarly, in a medium term, the "minimum level" is envisaged to be move to a "**comfortable**" level where improved basic sanitation service is accessible to at least most urban population. Ultimately, the long term objective is to ensure highest level of sanitation services and management within MMDs and marks an "**amenity**" level (MLGRD, 2010).

The framework of the NESSAP is hinged on the principle of Materials-In-Transit (MINT), this study found. Thus, waste is not treated as waste per say but as a reusable material and can be used to generate energy, income and organic fertilizer (MLGRD, 2010). Again, the strategic action plan is focused at the MMDAs as the primary service delivery units (MLGRD, 2010). Each District has been supported to develop a District Environmental Sanitation strategic Action plan (DESSAP). The DESSAP is flexible and the districts can amend it without informing the National counterparts, in so long as the amendment is focused at the national policy goal (MLGRD, 2010). In this regard, some respondents at the District level agencies of the MLGRD and CWSA have stated:

> *"Our successive 'national development agenda' is the primary origin of the sanitation policy"* (Respondent in WMA, May, 2016).

"Our activities is anchored on community demand-driven approach, yet it is heavily sanctioned by national authority to ensure national priority is not compromised. Procedure for developing and adopting policy goal travelled from community, district, regional to national level and even ends at the Parliament, likewise its monitoring and evaluation during and after implementation". (Respondent in CWSA, May, 2016).

Strategic Actions: To materialize the goal of the policy in carrying out the NESSAP along the ABC strategy, this study observed various actions to be/ or being executed to effectively guide the delivery of sanitation services in Ghana. The policy believes these actions will contribute to improving health and the standard of living among the indigenous populations in the urban and rural areas (including the study area) (MLGRD, 1999; MLGRD, 2010).These actions are:

- Strengthen coordination and collaboration among sector institutions;
- Develop capacity of Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) and the ***private sector*** for effective facilitation and provision of Environmental Sanitation (ES) services, respectively;
- Ensure effective community participation in the provision of environmental sanitation services;
- Raise awareness on the benefits of improved environmental sanitation especially as related to health, food hygiene and general environment;
- Develop framework for monitoring and evaluation at all levels within the sector;
- Make available to all sector actors updated sector-wide standards, laws and regulations on environmental sanitation;
- Mainstream alternative uses of wastes (liquid and solid) through appropriate technologies and incentives;
- Improve public sector financing of environmental sanitation service.

Table 4.13 Institutional roles and responsibilities in national ES policy action

Key Institution/Agency	Major Role/Responsibility	Legal Status
***Principal*:**		
1. Ministry of Local Government Rural Development (MLGRD).	1. ES policy formulation, coordination, issuing technical guidelines and promulgation of legislation on service management.	1. Executive power.
2. Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs)	2. ES Policy and regulation operationalization in an integrated, holistic, decentralized, and participatory manner, with an *active* involvement of the *private sector* and the *community*.	2. National Development Planning Act, 1994 (Act 480).
***Allied*:**		
1. Ministry of Environment, Science and Technology.	1. Setting standards and to ensure environmental standards.	1. Executive Power.
2. Ministry of Health	2. Providing health data.	2. Executive Power.

Source: *Desk Study, August, 2016*

Private Sector: The bulk of environmental sanitation services shall be actually provided by the private sector, including NGOs and community based-organizations under the supervision of the Public Sector, especially the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MLGRD, 1999; MLGRD, 2010). Where possible, environmental sanitation services shall be provided by the private sector on a full cost recovery basis, under franchise or concession agreements (MLGRD, 2010). Where full cost recovery is not possible the Assemblies may enter into contracts with service providers. The following are among the key services which shall be undertaken by the private sector:

a. Provision and management of septage tankers, on a fully commercial basis subject to licensing and the setting of maximum tariffs by the Assemblies;
b. Solid waste collection from individual institutional or domestic customers;
c. Solid waste collection from communal containers under contract to the Assemblies.

Table 4.14 ES Legislation and Enforcement (Regulatory Framework)

National Legislation	Bye-Laws	Enforcement
MLGRD shall engage in: • Establishment of any new institutional structures required for managing environmental sanitation. • Establishment of conditions enabling the private sector to provide and charge fees for environmental sanitation services. • Harmonization of individual District Assemblies' bye-laws.	District Assemblies shall promulgate bye-laws addressing: • Establishment of zones for the provision of environmental sanitation services. • Enforcement of public participation in critical environmental sanitation services. • Licensing and monitoring of environmental sanitation service providers.	The first line of enforcement shall be the Health Inspectorate (Environmental Health and Management Departments of the District Assemblies), working by a combination of education and persuasion. Where such non-coercive action fails, legal action may be taken through the courts.

Source: *Desk Study, August, 2016*

The level of enforcing regulations is undoubtedly unsatisfactorily in the study area, as revealed by a respondent in WMA (May, 2016). This was corroborated by a number of literally works in the sector, relative to the study area (Kanton and Kosoe, 2013; Tiifu, 2013; Abongo, 2013; Abdulai, 2013). When asked to quantify the level in percentage terms, the respondent pegged it at 45% and described as unsatisfactorily. However, the adherence level had been quite satisfactorily (i.e. 65%), according to the respondent in WMA (May, 2016).

"EPA regulatory role in sanitary management in Wa is limited because of the absence of a landfill site in UWR. EPA can only be relevant in the sector if there exists a landfill site", maintained by a respondent in EPA (May, 2016). However, "there are good number of dumping sites at various locations in the Municipality" (Respondent in ZGL, May, 2016). Such dumping sites are under the direct WMA purview with respect to enforcing regulation to ensure sanitary service providers meet standards/benchmarks (Respondent in WMA, May, 2016).

4.3 Discussion of results and findings; as presented in the preceding Tables and Figures

This sub-section present the discussions of the result relative to the specific objectives of this study. In effect, the researcher made an effort to actually connect the result of the analysed data with the objectives stated in chapter one. This is to give meaning to the findings of this study by answering the research questions raised in this study. This offers the researcher the opportunity to deduce as to if the respective objectives of this study have been met or otherwise.

4.3.1 Operational structure of service-provider and service-user inclusiveness.

It has been established, in this study, that the policy regime regarding sanitation services greatly accommodates the private operator. However, that of water delivery is more inclined toward a public operator, as revealed in this study. In this regard, two key entities- one each from public and private sectors were conveniently sampled by the researcher. These are Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) for water services and Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL) for that of sanitation. This study observed that these entities are each a lead-operator in their respective fields within the study area. For instance, GWCL and ZGL were observed respectively serving 74% and 100% of respondents who have access to services, as demonstrated in Figure 4.3 as well as the ensuing account below it. This findings resonates well with that of GSS (2014b) which indicated cumulatively, about 48% of the household population in urban Wa have access to improved source of drinking water, though failed to show what proportion is being served specifically by GWCL as shown in this study. GSS (2014b) as well as Kanton and Kosoe (2013) found that less than one-quarter of the household population have access to improved basic sanitation. On the contrary, this study revealed 100% access rate of improved sanitation among its respondents as shown in Table 4.5. Therefore, the respondents of this study may well fit in that one-quarter or less relative to sanitation access rate revealed in GSS (2014b) and Kanton and Kosoe (2013).

The choice of GWCL and ZGL, aside being justified per the proportion of respondents both served as revealed in this study, afforded the researcher the basis to examine their respective strategic operational focus areas and structure in relation to user-inclusiveness, as shown in Table 4.4 and Figures 4.1 as well as 4.2, respectively. On that basis, the research was able to assess and determine service-user participatory channels in managerial decision making process and presented well-grounded user-inclusiveness organisational management structure as shown in Figures 4.1 and 4.2

for GWCL and ZGL, respectively. This reflects in modern management approach, noted by Cole (2004).

The strategic focus areas of an organisation, as emanates from the goal for that matter the vision, remains the very motivational factor for the organisation as that is what it exists to accomplish (Krietner, 2009). The broader goal (i.e. vision) of an organisation alongside its service-users, primarily, defines its operational structure (Cole, 2004, Brown and Harvey, 2006). This position had been long held by modern organisational management theorists (like the Mentzberg and Tavistock Schools indicated by Cole, (2004)). In this regard, the researcher made an effort in identifying the operational management focus areas of which the main goal is among the key components (refer to Table 4.4).

For the purpose of this study 'the customer care platform' as shown in Table 4.4 as well as Figures 4.1 and 4.2 refers to 'service-user participatory platform'. As according to both Cole (1995) and Krietner (2009) that provides the service-user (customer/consumer/client) an entry point into participation (having voice) relative operational management. The highlighted (yellow) portions in Fig. 4.1 and Fig. 4.2 indicate the prevailing user-participatory channels inherent in the GWCL and ZGL management structures, respectively. In the light of this, Table 4.4 also indicates the platforms (seen as customer care platforms) available for the user to utilise/operationalise for his/her benefit. In the event of utilisation of these platforms by the user, he/she is deemed to have had the opportunity in articulating/voicing his/her concerns for redress (World Bank, 2012). Hence, participating in the management of water service delivery by the user. However, the extent of the participation/voice remains in the user's discretionary power as related in Berry et al (2004). Among the variables considered in determining the extent of user-participation in this study included the user's frequency of utilising such channels of complaint/voicing concerns, user's own perspective/description of how participatory the user-provider relationship had been and the closeness of user-provider interactive relationship as shown in Figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12 and table 4.8. Close observation of Figures 4.1 as well as 4.2 vis-à-vis Table 4.4 reveals that the operationalisation of the participatory channels is dependent on its utilisation by the user. This proves the discretionary power of the user in activating these platforms to ensure participation through voicing concerns, as confirmed by Berry et al (2004) and World Bank (2012).

Clearly, both Fig. 4.1 and Fig.4.2 indicate a hierarchical as well as centralised command management structure of the service providers. This type of structure is usually inwardly centered on procedures and rules that maximises result (Cole, 2004). This indicates little room is giving for external interference, which include the consumer or service-user (Brown and Harvey, 2006).

However, both organisations have specific line manager responsible for 'user-participation' promotion, in the form of *consumer care* outfit in the respective command structures as seen in Figures 4.1 &4.2. Meanwhile, Figure 4.1 is more regional specific relative to Figure 4.2 which is more mechanistically centralised at the National level. This confirms the findings of Mehrotra (2006), when assessing African countries' governance of social service delivery structure, which was found to be largely top-bottom approach. This was re-echoed in Aryeetey and Kanbur (2008) in their findings relating to the underlining factor leading to calls for reforms in Ghana by donors.

At the core of both organisations' operational goal is the consumer-household, otherwise refer to 'user' in this study, as demonstrated in Table 4.4. But, as to the respective organisation's ability to realise the *main goal*, the capacity to that end differs as revealed in this study. Whilst GWCL was found to be operating woefully below capacity to meet user demand, ZGL has proven the capacity to operate beyond the user's demand level of service, as shown in Table 4.4 alongside the ensuing account below it. Indeed that account was confirmed by the finding of this study in Figure 4.3. Whilst GWCL serves almost 74% of the 243 respondents with access to improved water source, ZGL is able to serve 100% of all 258 respondents relative to waste management service, as shown in Figure 4.3 and Table 4.5, respectively. Again, ZGL serves sizeable proportion of the 86.8% cumulative users of septic tank management/emptier service shown in Table 4.5.

Consistent with the respective policy environment, both organisations have demonstrated good deal of intra-organisational partnership/collaboration in their respective operations, as shown in table 4.4. This demonstrate an element of good governance practice in the water and sanitation sector, respectively as advocated in both Aryee (1996) and World Bank (2012). However, the practice as this study seeks to project is restricted at the organisational level in the Wa Municipal. This revelation goes to the core of this study, hence contribute in meeting its objective. Evidently from this study, there exist channels which allow service-user to articulate/voiced his/her concerns. But the extent of such participation remains relevant for further probe, as advocated for in Ofei-Aboagye (2015).

4.3.2 Extent of service-user's (interactive) participation in service management operations

This sub-section discusses the extent of user-provider interaction in the water and sanitation service delivery processes in the study area as revealed in this study. This was done in consistent with the series of data collated, analysed and presented in Figures 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; as well as Tables 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; 4.8; 4.9; 4.10. This offered the researcher chronologically rich basis to conclude on the extent of user-participation, in the delivery of services operation. In that regard, this study revealed that little over 50% of the respondents (service-user) have indicated the water services delivery is fairly-participatory, whilst only 2.7% have described it highly participatory shown in Figure 4.9. In similar vein, cumulatively above 80% of respondents have indicated that sanitary (i.e. waste) management services is participatory whilst about 7% have even described it highly participatory in Figure 4.10. But, the human extractor management aspect of the sanitary service shows very poor user-participation in the price fixing process, as shown in Table 4.9. Again, the researcher, as seen in Figures 4.11 and 4.12, went on to establish the existence as well as degree of provider-user relation. Closely and loosely user-provider relation was observed for sanitary service in Figure 4.11 and water service in Figure 4.12, respectively. Essentially, results from Figures 4.11 and 4.12 provided grounds to validate that of 4.9 and 4.10, respectively, in relation to establishing the existence and degree of user-provider relation, as projected in the conceptual framework of this study.

First of all, the researcher established availability of service (i.e. access) among respondents as shown in Table 4.5, upon which the main service-provider, each for water and sanitation was identified, respectively. Then, the respondent's key concern regarding service delivery operations was revealed in Figures 4.4 and 4.5, relative to water and sanitation, respectively. Figure 4.8 demonstrates service-user's description of his/her key concern on septic tank emptier service on varying degree. On that basis, the researcher inquired if the respondent has knowledge of any formal complaint platform provided by the service-provider to articulate/voice those concerns for redress, and the result is presented in Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.10. This afforded the researcher the chance to assess frequency of utilising the known complaint platforms by a respondent as shown in Figures 4.6 and 4.7 in view of water and sanitation services, respectively. In that direction, the researcher sought from the respondent if ever a complaint articulated/voiced to service-provider had been responded to appropriately, and the result is exhibited in Table 4.8.

Ultimately, having gone through these elements of user-provider interaction and based on his/her discretion, the respondent was asked to describe how participatory is the interactive relationship? The result is demonstrated in Figures 4.9 and 4.10 regarding water and sanitation service, respectively. Similarly, the researcher elicited secondary data respectively from service-provider of water (GWCL) and sanitation (ZGL), regarding monthly provider-user interaction. This offered the researcher the chance to run a scatter graph in order to establish existence of user-provider relationship and determine its extent, as shown in Figures 4.11 and 4.12. Whilst, it was clear that user-provider interactive relationship exist in both service-providers' operations, the extent of it varies between water and sanitation services, respectively, indicated in Figures 4.9; 4.10; 4.11 and 4.12. Therefore, extent of service-user's participation in management operations was established in this study, though in varying degree regarding water and sanitation service deliveries, respectively.

At the core of most policy objectives regarding water and sanitation had been access coverage expansion revealed in the works of (Rogers and Hall, 2003; Kanton et al., 2010). Hence most literary works as well as policy action had been inspired toward that direction. Evidenced in this direction includes MDG-7 and subsequent adoption of SDG-6 as global policy targeted at expanding access coverage of water and sanitation to all by 2030. Again, the Ghana Water Policy is primarily hinged on service access coverage expansion likewise the National Sanitation Policy, though points of departure are clear. By 2012, access to potable water among urban dwellers in Ghana stood at 93% whilst that of sanitation was recorded at 18.8% (GSS, 2012). Relating rate of potable water access coverage to the study area as at the time of this study, cumulatively, 48% of the household population is found to have access to improved sources in Wa (GSS, 2014b). Furthermore, some 11.8% and 7.9% have access to improved human excreta and solid waste management services, respectively, in the study area (GSS, 2014b). This is clearly appalling though some quantum of the population have been established to have access to improved water source and basic sanitation in the study area as revealed in this study which then confirms previous ones (GSS, 2014b; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013, Abongo, 2013; Tiifu, 2013). Therefore, the researcher deliberately and conveniently identified locations ('planned' areas) within the study area with rate of access to services relatively much better, as revealed by the previous works.

In confirmation of the previous findings, this study shows that large proportion of the respondents have access to potable water, likewise improved basic sanitation. Among the 258 household service-users surveyed, 243 (representing 94%) have access to potable water as shown in Table 4.5 but close to 74% sourced it from GWCL as shown in Figure 4.3. Surprisingly, whilst almost all the respondents representing 100% indicates access to improved basic sanitation relative to solid waste management service, only 13% could not indicate their ability to access septic tank emptier service (refer to Table 4.5). Hence, almost 87% of respondents in this study cumulatively have access to improved human excreta management services, Table 4.5 indicates.

Therefore, the result from this study regarding access to improved basic sanitation fits well with that of GSS (2014b) access rate of 11.8% and 7.9% relative to improved human excreta and solid waste management respectively, in the Municipality. Similarly, among the 48% households noted in GSS (2014b) having access to improved water sources, the 94% of respondents found to have regular water access in this study fits adequately therein. The result of this study, hence, resonates with that of UNICEF (2014); GSS (2014b); Kanton and Kosoe (2013) and Abongo (2013) in respective to access to potable water and improved basic sanitation in Wa Municipality. However, the access rate revealed in this study among the respondents is comparatively huge.

Interestingly, this study noted pockets of inaccessibility to potable water among the respondents. Some 6% of the respondents, as shown in Table 4.5, indicated lack of access to potable water in their homes though they reside in the '*planned'* urban areas. These areas were noted to have regular supply of services both in previous studies in the study area and the service-provider's records. Again, some 11% of respondents indicated a poor drainage facility in their homes, equally noted in Table 4.5. This provides ground for further investigation into the empirical reasons for the presence of pockets of households within these prime areas yet lack access to services.

Meanwhile, this study seeks to go beyond establishing just access like most previous works cited. The prime focus of this study is to assess how service delivery processes is user responsive and participatory, hence establishing or otherwise the governance practice at organisational level. To that end, establishing the access level among the respondents is to serve as a first step into the crux of this study (i.e. assessing how user-provider tie as element of governance at organisational level).

Extent of participation in development process is dependent on the participants' needs, concerns, interest, aspiration and culture noted by Kambootah (2005). Again, relationships are hugely influenced by the stakeholders' varied needs, interest and knowledge noted in World Bank (2012). This study revealed that irregular flow of water and unemptied bin as well as exorbitant cost charges emerged as a major household service-users' concern on water and sanitation delivery services, respectively. Figure 4.4 revealed 52% of water service-users (i.e. respondents with access to service) indicates irregular flow as their key concern relative to service delivery operations. This result confirms the observation in UNDP (2015) relative to dwindle flow of potable water globally. Likewise Kanton and Kosoe (2013) as well as Kanton et al (2010) found out that even though potable water supply is skewed in favor of urban areas in Ghana, irregular flow remains a huge challenge to sustainable service delivery. Therefore, the findings of this study sits well with that of previous studies, relative to irregular water flow. Again, 58.3% and 64% (expensive + very expensive) respondents indicated unemptied bin on-scheduled and exorbitant charges are their gravest concern about waste management and septic tank emptier services as demonstrated in Figures 4.5 and 4.8, respectively.

These results, as indicated above, provided basis for further investigation to unravel how appropriately the service-provider meets the key concern of the household service-user to the extent that it alters management decisions (i.e. cooperate governance). This will be helpful in providing further direction for service improvement on the part of service-provider. Again, the results from that investigation contributes in providing precision in directing this study toward its focal point. On the basis of the results in Figures 4.4; 4.5 and 4.8 as discussed above, the researcher went on to probe how the respondent is able to articulate/voiced those concerns to service-provider for redress by altering key management decision, thereby stimulating user-provider relationship. On that note, such relationship is examined relative to extent of user-participation/voice.

Table 4.6 shows the proportion of respondents with/without knowledge on existing complaint channels/platforms relative to operational management of respective water and sanitation services. In that light, the researcher sought from the household service-user, if he/she is aware of a formal complaint platform in the management structure of the service provider-organisation. This is also refers to the information a user has on existing medium of participation/voicing concerns in the management of service delivery processes. Such knowledge or information is critical as it

empowers the user to activate these channels in his/her interest. Ofei-Aboagye (2015) argued that, 'good governance' is founded on information sharing or knowledge dissemination on the subject matter of concern to stakeholders. Again, access to information encourages effective participation in decisions-making, which reinforces the principles of good governance (Siddiquee, 2008; ibid).

The result regarding service-user's knowledge on specific medium of participation/voicing concerns is exhibited in Table 4.7 in relation to water and sanitation (solid waste) services delivery. Similarly, Table 4.9 demonstrates knowledge of septic tank emptier services price-fixing mechanism among service-users. For the purpose of this study, such channels of complaints were referred to user-participatory channels. This is because they provide the user the avenue(s) to articulate his/her concern regarding any shortfall in service delivered or the delivery operations to service-provider for redress and ultimately alter management decision making in the interest of the user, argued in World Bank (2012). Again, this is a common feature in a *modern contingency* management approach as noted in Krietner (2009) and Cole (1995), where 'client concern' is deemed sacrosanct in organisational behavior. In that regard, such complaint platforms were deemed to provide the user a chance to influence management decision-making by advancing his/her concern for management consideration (Cole 1995; Krietner, 2009). Proportion of respondents without service access, as noted in table 4.5, was excluded in this probe. Again, the number of households among the sample population observed in figure 4.3 sourcing their potable water from a self-initiated project were not equally considered in this particular analysis. Obviously, such categories do not have a service provider-organisation. Therefore, they could not have interacted with a service-provider, let alone have a knowledge or otherwise of a participatory channel/ medium.

It is factually clearer that a huge quantum of all household respondents have very little or no information regarding existing formal platforms of participation in the management of services due them, as shown in Tables 4.6 as well as 4.9 and 4.10. Almost 61% and 51%, respectively, of water and sanitation service-users indicated in Table 4.6 having no knowledge of a complaint platform. Likewise, more than 80% of septic-tank service-users have no knowledge of how pricing is fixed, as revealed in Table 4.9. By implication, considerably large number of service-users have no voice in the service delivery operations, hence do not participate in the process.

Therefore, both service providers in water and sanitation may have to do more in sensitising their clients on the existence of such complaint platforms for effective utilization through voicing, hence encouraging user-participation. However, statistically, the sanitation management service enjoys relatively good awareness of formal complaint platforms among its users, compared with that of water service. This is because whilst almost 50% of waste management service-users knows formal complaint channels to voice their concerns, only 38% of service-users of water knew such, as shown in Table 4.6. More so, the findings calls for further probe to determine how the ***No variable*** categories of respondents in tables 4.6 and 4.9 manage to informally voiced their concerns known to the service-provider for redress.

Having established the specific complaint channel known to the respondent, as a service-user, in Table 4.7, the researcher probed further how often the respondent activate/utilised the channel to advance or articulate (i.e. voices) his/her concern to the service-provider for redress. The result emanating from the probe is exhibited in Figures 4.6 and 4.7 for water and sanitation, respectively.

In effect, this probe ushered the assessment of how interactive/participatory the user-provider relationship in the sector has been. Critical among the principles for water as well as sanitation governance include: communication (interaction) and responsiveness as related in (Aryee, 1996; Franks, 2004; McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006). Meanwhile underlining these principles outlined is participation (i.e. inclusiveness), concluded by Franks (2004). Hence, examining the extent of the participation, as described by service-user and validated by service-provider, is the crux of this study.

Figure 4.6, indicates the variable *'other'* to record highest frequency of 39%, relative to how water service-user utilised complaint channel/voiced in management operations of GWCL, as a water service-provider organisation. Meanwhile, the '*other'* as used in this figure represent two groups of respondents. These include respondents this study found to have utilised the platforms at most once in every two month and those who never utilised it, though they have concerns regarding water services deliveries. In effect, utilisation level is very low and by implication user-voices or user-participation in the management of water service delivery operations is also low, as found in this study. Therefore, further work in this direction may be executed to unravel the empirical basis for the lower complaint platform utilisation frequency by the user regarding water service operations.

Nonetheless, weekly utilisation was observed to be significant. Cumulatively, weekly utilisation amounts to almost one-quarter of all utilisation frequencies, while monthly frequencies amounted to 35.2% (i.e. once a month + twice a month).

Similarly, Figure 4.7 constitute the category of service-users found to have ever used the known complaint platform of the sanitation service provider-organisation, particularly the waste management service-provider (ZGL). Again, the Fig. 4.7 like 4.6, indicates '*other'* to have recorded highest frequency. However, what is worthy of notice is the monthly utilisation frequency in Fig. 4.7. It is clear that, the monthly utilisation of waste management complaint platform frequency is relatively better than that of water service. Cumulatively, more than 44% of all respondents in Figure 4.7 indicated utilisation of a platform, at least once within a month. Again, the waste management complaint platform recorded 48% level of utilisation weekly as shown in Fig. 4.7. This is against the recorded one-quarter (representing 25%) of water service complaint platform in Fig. 4.6 under the same period, cumulatively. Hence better user-interaction in sanitary service operation than that of water.

Impliedly, Figures 4.6 and 4.7 fundamentally indicate the existence of a relationship between service provider and user (i.e. user-provider relationship) as validated in Figures 4.11 and 4.12. This relationship occurs through the complaint/ participatory platforms provided by the service provider (refer to Table 4.4). However, the researcher made an effort to go beyond establishing existence of a user-provider relationship to examine the extent of its user-participatory. In that direction, the researcher firstly probed how responsive the user-provider relationship is, as in the perspective of the user. This allowed the researcher to, secondly and ultimately, probed all respondents who had admitted to a responsive and interactive user-provider relation to describe extent of their participation in the interaction that ensued so as to reach the climax of this study. To that extent, the researcher asked a straight but simple question to the household service-user, which is *'was your concern responded to appropriately by the service-provider*?' This question was limited to all the respondents in the Fig.4.6 as well as 4.7, which was a closed ended with either *Yes* or *No* answer. Clearly, this category of respondents were found to have activated the complaint platform/voiced in one way or the other within a defined time period, hence participated in management operations of service-provider of water and sanitary services, respectively. The result of this question is shown in Table 4.8 for both water and sanitation (waste).

As shown in table 4.8, significant proportion of respondents have indicated their concerns have been met by service provider, relative to both water and sanitation. However, much of that proportion was noted among waste management (sanitation) service users. Hence, waste management service provider may have been relatively more responsive to users' concern than that of water. Nonetheless, Table 4.8 depicts an interactive as well as responsive provider-user relationship. This is because the presence of all the respondents in the respective ***yes variable*** implies an admission to a responsive interaction with a service-provider. The responsive interaction, however, was observed among less than half of all respondents in respect of water in Table 4.8 (i.e. less than 50% of *yes variable* percentage figure- 36%). But the *yes variable* representing waste management service is more than 50% mark (i.e. 51%) relative to that of water service (i.e. 36%), as shown in Table 4.8. Therefore, in general speaking, the water and sanitation service can be described in terms of being *averagely* responsive to the concern of users. Hence, a user-provider relationship has been both interactive and responsive for both services, revealed in this study, as strongly argued for in (Franks, 2004; McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006).

Furthermore, sample of monthly complaint records (secondary data) collated, reviewed and analysed by the researcher through a desk study approach indicates an interactive as well as responsive user-provider relationship (refer to appendices 2 and 3). This was evidenced in Figures 4.11 and 4.12 for water and sanitation (waste), respectively. Therefore, the result of this study in that regard was confirmed by the monthly complaint record reviewed. But the responsiveness is more prevalent relative to waste management service in Fig. 4.12 compare to that of water in Fig. 4.11. The differences, as revealed from this study, between sanitation and water services in responding to user concern calls for further investigation to establish empirical basis for that. However, at this point, demonstrating the extent of user-participatory in the user-provider relationship, as in the perspective of the user, is of interest to the researcher.

In a bid to reach the climax of this study, the researcher sampled household service-user's perspective on service delivery relative to participation and inclusion. Particularly, the researcher allowed the household service-user to freely describe how participatory the delivery process has been, beyond access, in his/her view. In this regard, only the respondents who actually have access to services from a provider, were considered. This allows the researcher to arrive at more fairer and reliable conclusion as in the user's own judgment relative to extent of participation in service

delivery management. To that end, the analysed result is presented in Figures 4.9 and 4.10 for water and sanitation (waste) services, respectively. As Figure 4.9 shows, more than 50% (28.8+25.6+2.7= 57.1) of all the respondents in this analysis have described the water service delivery as participatory albeit in various forms. Among these, only paltry 2.7% described the water service as highly participatory. Again, whilst 25.6% said the service is participatory, 28.8% described it fairly-participatory. Giving these descriptions, the water service delivery can be said to be just *fairly-participatory* but not highly. Relating the findings in Figure 4.9 with the operations of GWCL, as noted in this study, indicates the service-user does not feature much in management decision. According to a respondent in GWCL (May, 2016) "*The decision is so much based on policy direction which reflects in demand -coverage*". Hence not surprising to note, at the core of the policy direction is access expansion (MWRWH, 2007).

In that regard, GWCL is seen to be more particular to meeting *demand-coverage* (i.e. access expansion) rather than improving participatory framework which highly feature the user. This may be as a result of existing poor demand-coverage rate within GWCL jurisdiction, which this study found to be about only18% in the study area. Hence the determination to expand access instead of considering building a highly user-participatory relationship framework. Nonetheless, the extent of participation among respondents, revealed in this study (Fig. 4.9), relative to water service is fairly satisfactorily. But there is indeed more room for improvement as the level is, at best, average.

Meanwhile, that of sanitation service is presented in Figure 4.10 and the result has been: Cumulatively, 80.6% (7.4+43.4+29.8) of all respondents in this analysis have described the service delivery in waste management as participatory. Interestingly, 7.4% of these have indicated the service has been highly participatory whilst 43.4% have said the process is participatory. By implication, the waste management service can be said to be *very user-participatory*. This is reflective in the significant proportion of respondents indicating the waste management service have been responsive to their concerns as seen in Table 4.8 and discussed earlier. Therefore, to the extent that huge quantum of respondents have indicated waste management service as participatory, and more than half have said the water service is equally participatory, the services in that regard can be said to be user-participatory. Though that of sanitation is more user-participatory than that of water.

This finding is hugely supported in the *user-provider interactive relation* analysis from the scatter diagrams in Figures 4.11 and 4.12, for water and sanitation services, respectively. However, the user-provider relationship of waste management service provider with it users is very participatory and closely interactive and related as seen in Figure 4.12, relative to that of water service, shown in 4.11. This result indicates a marked shift from number of previous studies, particularly on sanitation. Whilst good number of empirical findings had indicated a generally bad picture of sanitary situation globally, regionally, nationally and at the district level of Wa Municipality, this study instead had revealed relatively good picture of sanitary situation. For instance, whilst UNDP (2015b) found that 2.4 billion people globally have no access to improved sanitation, this study revealed 100% of the household surveyed had access to improved basic sanitation, particularly access to solid waste management service, shown Table 4.5. This contradicts the findings of GSS (2014a), Tiifu (2013) as well as Kanton and Kosoe (2013), which indicated widespread indiscriminate disposal of both liquid and solid waste in Wa Municipality. However, the findings of this study particularly relates to only the '*planned'* urban section of the Wa Municipality.

In effect, the findings as reveal in this study relating to the respective service implies sustainability. This is because it has been established from this study that the respective service, in general, is not only user-responsive but user-participatory. Though that description is more manifested among sanitation service-users relative to that of water. Hence governance practice at an organisational level has been projected in this study. This is evidence in the organisational structure and strategic goal of service-providers examined in this study as shown in Table 4.4 as well as figures 4.1 and 4.2. The findings of this study revealed participatory and intra-institutional interdependency dimensions of governance inherent in the organisational management operations of the respective service-providers, shown in Table 4.4. This relates well with Franks (2004) as well as McGranahan and Satterthwaite (2006) position on governance of water and sanitation as an interrelationship among or between organisations through which service-users are able to articulate their concerns, absorbed and responded to by service-providers. This promotes sustainable water resources management (The Global Water Partnership 2004 cited in McGranahan and Satterthwaite, 2006).

4.3.3 The policy outlook of water and sanitation services delivery in the Wa Municipality.

Policy approaches to water and sanitation have partly reflected the changes in the wider development environment (Nicol, 1999). Such stock policy phrases as 'Water for all', 'Water for Life', 'Water for Health' etc. have become known in the sectorial development literature (Kendie et al., 2008). Like other sectors of the economy, that of the water and sanitation needs to be guided by a specific policy framework to appropriately regulate the sector (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; Mehrotra, 2006). In this regard, government, users and operators will act collectively to determine what is 'reasonable' within a regulatory framework (McGranahan and Budds, 2003; ECA, 2005).

The researcher find out that water and sanitation each have specific separate policy regime being operationalised in parallel, in the Municipality. However, points of convergence were traceable in the respective the policy regimes as seen in Table 4.12, under variable 2. Again, both were National in character as the formulation processes emanate from the National level. For instance, the lead principal body responsible for water policy formulation is the MWRWH at the national level, likewise the lead oversight and regulatory body-PURC, as shown in Table 4.12.

This had influenced even organisational operations at regional as well as community level to be subservient to that of national head office, as seen in table 4.4, Figures 4.1 and 4.2. Similarly, Table 4.13 and 4.14 shows MLGRD is the principal lead agent in formulation of policy and legislation, respectively, for environmental sanitation service delivery and regulation. Nonetheless, the operations of CWSA and MMDAs in services delivery facilitation was observed to be at the community level, as shown in Tables 4.12 and 4.13. By implication, the end-user of service is identified in terms of community instead of household, by the policy regime. This masked the interest and the concerns of individual household service users.

Having identified that the ES policy emanates from a national agenda for poverty reduction and development, likewise that of water, it was found that both policies are closely hinged on a broader global development goals. This is demonstrated in Table 4.11 and inherent in the very goal for which the ES policy seeks to achieve. Again, Ghana is a signatory to good number of international protocols and conventions, as revealed in this study. This is what Berkel and Borghi (2007) described as internationalisation dimension of policy formulation. In this regard, Ghana as a country is set to pursuing the SDGs agenda currently, especially, that of goal number six (6) and specifically on the water and sanitation indicators (NDPC, 2015).

And both indicators are basically focused on access-expansion, especially among the poor (ibid). Not surprisingly the President of the Republic as at then , H.E. Pres. John Mahama was made a co-chair of global advocates team to champion these SDGs globally by the Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN) in January, 2016 (United Nations (UN)., 2016). Subsequently, H.E. Pres. Nana Akuffo Addo succeeding Pres. Mahama in 2017 also sets up a Ministry of Environment and Sanitation, dedicated primarily for promoting effective access to basic sanitation in the country. Therefore, the country is inclined to show commitment in that direction, hence affecting the domestic policies of Ghana, especially as relates to expanding access to water and sanitation. However, from the perspective of this study, is not enough to have access to an improved basic sanitation alone. Of critical to this study is how user-participatory and responsive the delivery processes of the service, as in the perspective of the service-user. This was seen demonstrated in Figures 4.9; 4.10 and Table 4.8.

This study had observed a satisfactory regulatory regime stipulating functions for respective agencies, inherent in the water and sanitation respective policy. This was evidenced in Tables 4.12 and 4.14 for water and sanitation, respectively. As a respondent in GWCL (May, 2016) puts it:

> "The regulation of our activities is along three specific standard targets. These include quality, quantity and pricing and that all these indicators are subjected to quarterly review by the regulator-PURC".

The activities of CWSA at the community level is regulated by the Wa Municipal Assembly (WMA) and the Upper West Regional Coordinating Council (RCC) at the District level and Regional level, respectively as implied in Table 4.13. The essence of the regulatory regime, as noted by this study, is to not only regulate and direct but as well ensure sustainability in the management and production of water resources, especially, for household/domestic consumption (MWRWH, 2007). However, is one thing to have fine legislative/regulatory instruments and is another thing enforcing them to the latter. Therefore, the researcher went on to find out the extent of enforcing these regulation and adherence level by authorities and residents, respectively. In that regard, the level of regulation enforcement in the Municipality is found to be low, though a satisfactory level of adherence was noted in this study.

Among the reasons behind the low enforcement level, as enumerated by a respondent in WMA, included weakness and apathy on the part of the law enforcement agency, time consuming and the heavy financial cost involved. Evidenced in Tiifu (2013), as in this study, was a low level of policy action on environmental sanitation in Wa Municipality.

Meanwhile, effective implementation of a good policy choice is certainly among the explanatory variables that influence developmental records, especially, among the Asian tigers, argued by Turner and Hulme (1997). However, as cited in Dugle (2104), various studies have suggested that there is little policy action (i.e. implementation/enforcement) across Sub-Sahara Africa in general and in Ghana as well (World Bank, 2011; Sood et al, 2011). In this regard, dissatisfaction with public services delivery, along a defined policy direction has been at the core of assessment, by many donor agencies, of the Ghanaian economy argued by Aryeetey and Kanbur (2008).

The policy environment, as observed in Tables 4.11; 4.12 and 4.13, acknowledges and indeed encourages coordinated institutional collaboration, though internally in the respective water and sanitation sector. For instance, though MMDAs are the *lead/principal* agents in ES policy implementation, but work hand in hand with *allied* agencies to ensure result in the sector, as shown in Table 4.13. Planning was observed to be one of the key function emanating from institutional coordination and collaboration as noted in the strategic approach to NESSAP. This was evidenced among the ES broad focus themes as well as the strategic actions.

Again, adoption of IWRM indicated in Table 4.11 implied massive collaboration/coordination of institutions in the sector, both locally and internationally though restrictive in the water sector. Meanwhile, Governance of water resources and ES as shown in Table 4.11 and 4.13, respectively, is limited to only component of 'participation' as a specific focus on promoting good governance. However, participation is only one of the many other components/ingredients of good governance. As observed in (Aryee, 1996; USAID, 2008; World Bank, 2012), good governance goes beyond participation. It encapsulates as well responsiveness, transparency, accountability and effective communication, all guided along a regulatory framework. To that end, this study examined not only the user-provider relationship participatory extent on the part of the user (refer to Fig. 4.9 and 4.10), but as well how interactive and responsive the relationship had been (refer to Table 4.8, Figs. 4.11 and 4.12).

Much focus of the water policy relative to service/good delivery had centered on public sector. Table 4.12, for that matter the water policy institutional framework demonstrates lack of any visible space or specific function for the private sector, relative to water service provision. In that regard, this study indicated, in Figure 4.3, that as high as almost 74% of all the urban-households surveyed, accessed water services from a public agency- GWCL. This might be as a result of the policy's recognition of water as a finite resource as well as a public good, as indicated in Table 4.11. Hence managed in the public interest instead of profit making.

Meanwhile, there has been significant policy reforms consistently over time in the water sector (Kanton, 2010; Kanton and Kosoe, 2013). This is to allow state agencies in the sector to assume the roles/ responsibilities reminiscent of a private/corporate organisation, in the delivery of water services. This led to transformation of then Ghana Water and Sewerage Corporation into Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) (ibid). Hence, leading to marketisation of water services delivery in contributing to the financing of the resources management. In this regard, whilst *cost-sharing* method is applied to vulnerable households at the community level (i.e. rural/peri-urban), *appropriate charges* is levied on services offered to urban households, noted in Table 4.11. Meanwhile, 23.4% of the respondents have indicated *high pricing* charges as a topmost concern, among the many other respectively varied concerns exhibited in Figure 4.4. This is an indicative of non-participation of the household user in price fixing process in respect to service charges.

In contrast, this study had observed that a greater space in the ES policy is dedicated to the private sector participation in the delivery of sanitary management services. This is reflective in the household service-user survey result, as almost all the respondents (100%) have indicated they are served by a private entity, in respect of solid waste management services (refer to Table 4.5).

The ES policy recognises the private sector as a key though not a principal actor in waste management services as indicated in Table 4.13. The private sector is therefore more visible in this sub-sector, relative to that of water. Specifically, the private actors offer their services especially to households who can afford the cost involved and demanding for the service (purchasing power). In this regard, the respondents of this study, largely, fall under this category of households in the study area, hence referred to 'planned' residence. This is because aside the purchasing power of the residents, the areas are properly layout for easy movement as well as household identification. Therefore, the presence of a private operator leads to marketisation (privatisation) of the services,

as observed in the study area. This confirms the findings of previous studies in similar sector, though different locale that also indicated highly privatised sanitary services for the urban sections, across countries in the South, Europe and North America (McGranahan and Budds, 2003).

A respondent in WMA had revealed that five (5) formally recognised private entities offer, in various forms, the services of sanitary management in the study area. Among these entities, Zoomlion Ghana Limited (ZGL) was found to be the lead competitor in the sector, as shown by the quantum of respondent being served by ZGL in this study. Hence the choice of ZGL for further probe by the researcher to meet other specific objectives of this study. Currently, the public sector play much more regulatory role whilst the private sector is charged largely with service delivery role in the sanitation sector, as noted in Table 4.13 alongside the subsequent account under it. However, there had been cases where a public entity in the sector is playing a dual role of regulation/facilitation and service provision, revealed in this study e.g. WMA, CWSA.

In essence, the policy outlook regarding water resources management and delivery services can be at most be described in terms of New Public Management (NPM). This is because there exist a coherent effort at realigning institutions in the sector for a greater interdependence, collaboration and partnership, as shown in Tables 4.11 and 4.12, culminating into the IWRM module.

Again, the consistent institutional reforms in the water sector has led to reviewing the management operations and structure of the lead operator in water services provision (GWCL) to mirror that of a private/corporate entity, shown in Table 4.4 as well as Figure 4.1. However, the principal/lead actors are public in nature with very little or no room for a private sector participation. This is a prime feature of NPM, noted in Berkel and Borghi (2007). The focus of NPM movement was on creating institutional and organisational contexts in the public sector, which were to mirror what is seen as critical aspects of private sector modes of organising and managing social service delivery (Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), 2003 cited in Teshome et al., 2012). In other words, whilst the NPM still maintains the statist ideology- i.e. the central role of state in delivery of social services, the state institutions and agencies involved are configured in line with market principles so as to operate just like a business, though owned and operated by the state (Rose and Lawton, 1999; Hassal, 2009; Teshome et al., 2012; Bracci, 2014).

Though some level of private actors are involved in the water sector, especially at the delivery point, however, their activities are so much greatly regulated that the sector cannot assume the status of New Public Governance (NPG). This may be the result in the lack of direct participation by the service-user, most especially in the urban areas, in the policy formulation processes as well as price fixing beyond the operational management process regarding service delivery. This, therefore, adversely affects effective user-participation in the user-provider relationship in water as revealed in this study.

From the discussion as relates to ES policy regime, it is more appropriate to describe the policy regime in terms of New Public Governance (NPG), at most, instead of New Public Management (NPM). This is because the regime offers space for greater private participation alongside the public sector concurrently, as revealed in this study. Though regulated to some extent, but the private sector is recognized as a key player in the ES sub-sector, according to the policy. Therefore, the ES sub-sector is compatible with NPG in both policy and practice. The NPG advocates for the involvement of private organisations in service provision (Ndiaye et al., 2013). This, therefore, stimulates interest in the private sector to involve heavily in the sector (Bracci, 2014). This leads to multiple entities playing varied roles in the sector, hence assuming the status of NPG (Berry et al., 2004). The effect of this is competition for clients (i.e. household service-user) leading to all kinds of 'consumer/customer' care modules execution and negotiation by the service providers (Osborne, 2010 cited in Bracci, 2014; Teshome et al, 2012).

Ultimately, the 'consumer/customer' which in this study is represented by a household service-user is allow to participate directly or indirectly in the service delivery management processes. Meanwhile, the level of such participation will depend on the nature of organisational management structure, as operated by a service provider (Cole, 1995).

Consequentially, it is clear from the discussions of the findings that the activities of actors in the delivery of water and sanitation services fall short of New Governance (NG) policy dimension and is regulated along NPM and NPG lines, respectively. Hence the policy provides ground for a service-provider organisation to operate in a manner consistent with the policy framework. Therefore operations of service provider is grounded and legitimised in the policy framework. Indicative of the policy direction is a regulatory framework guiding the service management and delivery of operators (refer to Tables 4.12 and 4.14).

Despite the strong nexus between water and sanitation, each has a distinct policy regime in guiding service management. This might be as a result of the fact that water and sanitation are each under the jurisdiction of two separate principal authorities, respectively. As revealed in this study, whilst the Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing (MWRWH) is mandated and directly responsible for Water policy formulation, that of Environmental Sanitation (ES) is by Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD). Hence rendering the respective policies national in character- National Water Policy and National Sanitation Policy.

However, each of the policy is decentralised to serve at the community level through regional as well as district level. Yet the decentralised structures are still answerable to the respective nationally centralised body, as revealed in this study -i.e. MWRWH and MLGRD. This findings confirms that of Mehrotra (2006) regarding developing countries' governance of social services. The state delivers social services (just as any development) in a top-down bureaucratic manner through sectorial line ministries down to the local level, concluded by Mehrotra (2006).

4.4 SUMMARY

This chapter analysed, presented and discussed the thesis findings. By so doing, the very research questions posed in the beginning chapter were answered in one way or the other. As those answers emerged through the analysis, they provided contribution to knowledge relative to existing policy outlook regarding water and sanitation services delivery, user-participation and organisational structure of service-provider organisations. On that basis, governance practice at organisational level, as constructed in this study's conceptual framework, by ensuring interaction, inclusiveness and responsiveness between service-user and service provider (user-provide relation) was revealed. Hence, the objectives of the study relative to the conceptual framework, were actually achieved. Finally, the result of the analysis provided basis for drawing relevant conclusions and making recommendations for promoting effective user-participation and further study in service delivery management in the Wa Municipality to ensure sustainable provider-user relationship.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the research findings, upon which the researcher draws conclusion in respect of the study objectives. On that bases, the researcher outlines some relevant recommendations, in respect to policy and practice in the water and sanitation sector. In essence, this chapter is a build-up of the chapter four.

5.2 Summary

The main objective of this study was constructed and conceptualised on a user-provider relation model shown in Figure 2.4. This is to examine how policy regime encourage a user-provider participatory interaction in the water and sanitation sector in the Wa Municipality. On that note, the operational management of identified water and sanitation service-provider organisation was examined, respectively, in relation to user-inclusiveness (i.e. user participatory and interactive). Furthermore, household service-user survey was conducted to determine not only access but the extent of service user-participation in the operational management of service provider in the study area. Again, the policy regulation guiding the sector was equally assessed in relation to access and user-participation in service delivery. Hence governance practice at the organisational level was revealed in this study.

The household service-user survey allowed the user to freely describe his/her level of participation and also acknowledged if the service-provider has been responsive or otherwise in relation to the user's concern or need. To validate the user's response to that end, the monthly record of interaction between user and provider of respective water and sanitation services was elicited and used to draw a scatter diagram. This enabled the researcher to determine extent of interaction between the user and provider of respective water and sanitation services, through the correlation established in the scatter diagram. Consequently, the scatter diagram points to a close relation regarding sanitary service provider and the user, whilst the opposite was the case regarding that of water service.

Regarding the first objective of this study, such platforms meant to promote user-provider interaction were found to exist in both the strategic operational focus areas and management structure of the respective service-provider of water (GWCL) and sanitation (ZGL). It was clear from the study that both entities have respectively provided channels of communication with the user. However, the study find out that these channels remains relics until and unless the user activate its utilisation, upon which user-provider interaction will be triggered as advocated by NPG/NG governance theories in Fig. 2.4. It is in this direction, and as enshrined in the second objective of this study, the researcher went on to probe further and eventually assessed the extent of utilisation of these channels by the user and the response giving by the service-provider. In this regard, the study revealed an interactive and responsive user-provider relationship as indicated by significant proportion of the respondents. It is even pronounced among the sanitary management service users, relative to that of water. This indicates existence of user-participation in the delivery of water and sanitation services. Therefore, by implication the user-provider relationship is indeed user-participatory as advocated by NPG/NG theory approach shown in Figure 2.4.

However, to what extent is this participation as in the perspective of the user, is of critical in fitting this study into the conceptual framework. In that regard, whilst water service was described as a *fairly* user-participatory, sanitary (i.e. solid waste) management service was described it *highly* user-participatory. However, the human extractor management aspect of the sanitary service shows very poor user-participation in the price-fixing process. Again, this study indicated a seemingly loose association/relationship between GWCL (as a water service provider-organisation) and the service-user. However, a very close association/ relationship between ZGL (as a sanitary service provider-organisation) and service-user was revealed. This indicates good governance practices advocated by NPG/NG approach (i.e. communication, responsiveness and inclusiveness) at organisational level among the service-provider organisations that were assessed in this study. But the result to that effect shows that, while sanitary management service provider-organisation is close to its client, which indicates a good governance measure of that organisation that of water is relatively farther, hence not too good for a governance practice in that organisation relative to NPG/NG approach as shown in Figure 2.4.

The policy regime, this study noted, is formulated at the national level whilst implementation roles are assigned to decentralised bodies. The policy regime, though separate for each of the water and sanitation services, both are rooted in the national development agenda, whilst closely linked to global development agenda as well. Meanwhile, this study observed that such global agenda in relation to water and sanitation, as seen in SDG-6, largely aimed at expanding access coverage. Therefore, the focused of the policy is more on how to expand access to services, instead of user-provider relation. This is because, this study had learnt that at the core of both national and international development agenda lies access expansion, especially among the vulnerable.

Furthermore, the policy regime is formulated and operationalised in respect of relevant international protocols as well as conventions (i.e. policy internationalisation). This dimension was pronounced in the water sector, as revealed in this study. More so, there is great effort both in policy and practice to promote institutional interdependence, collaboration and coordination in each of the respective water and sanitation sector, toward the policy action among both domestic and foreign/international bodies. This encourages partnership aspect of organisational governance, as different organisations corporate toward realising a specific goal, separately for water sector and sanitation sector, respectively.

Inherent in the respective policies are relevant regulations guiding the delivery of water and sanitation services. By such regulations, respective service providers are determined and allowed to operate, either public, private or PPP. Therefore, the regulations, as noted in this study, also determines how a service provider may structure its organisational management, either along the market theory as in the case of ZGL, social theory as in the case of WMA, CWSA and EPA or hybrid as in the case of GWCL. In effect, the policy regime sets such ground rules for service delivery, hence affecting user-provider relationship indirectly. The policy regime identified the end-user of service in terms of community instead of an individual household-user.

Whilst the policy regulating water service management is more focused on ensuring public entity actively leads the delivery of service, that of sanitation makes enormous room for active private sector participation in service delivery, the study revealed. Therefore, as the policy regime controls service provisions by the service provider, the nature of user-service relationship is dependent on the kind of service-provider organisational structure and strategic focus of management, as revealed in this study.

Consequentially, the findings of this study revealed also such grey areas for further investigation in order to throw more light in that regard. Some pockets of respondents have reported lack of access to services, especially water, in the study locations. This calls for further investigation to empirically examine the possible causes. Again, the disparity between water service provider and that of sanitation regarding extent of user-participation as well as organisational competitiveness needs further probing to unravel the grounds for that.

Finally, the study found that some service-users may have concerns yet are unaware of formal complaint channels, hence further investigation among such category will unravel how they informally channel their concerns for redress and affecting management decision. Hence reveal how they participate, though informally, in the user-provider interaction.

5.3 Conclusion

The implications of the above findings relative to the objectives of this study may be varied. However, the specificity of the findings makes it possible to deduced relevant conclusions on each of the research objectives. This invariably answers the research questions and fits into the conceptual framework of this study.

Based on the findings of this study, the organisational management of service-provider makes room for an interactive and responsive participatory channels. This is based on the findings regarding organisational management structure and user-inclusiveness, as revealed in this study. This meets one of the tenets of social service governance as projected in the user-provider relation model, shown in Fig. 2.4. However, extent of operationalising the channels (effective voicing) varied between water and sanitation service-users. Whilst, participation among water users was low, participation among sanitation service users was high, revealed in the findings on extent of user-participation.

The interdependence of organisations in the respective water and sanitation sector as coordinated along a defined policy direction, was revealed in this study. Therefore, the findings demonstrates governance practice along the lines of participation and institutional arrangement, though restrictive of each sector. Impliedly, this study demonstrated a governance practice at an organisational level. This marks a shift from the orthodoxy, where governance is viewed in the realm of the state.

The policy regime in water and sanitation is national in orientation and scope, whilst attempting to meet international or global obligations. The policy regime does not directly encourage user-participation in the user-provider relationship, though encourages community level participation. Hence, not directly compactible with the conceptual framework of this study, as shown in Fig. 2.4. The policy regime is more specific on service-provider regulation as the policy is more focused at expanding access coverage. Therefore, there is very little room in the policy to promote household user-participation in the user-provider relationship model. The policy regime determines which and how service-provider operates relative to delivery of water and sanitation services. However, it is the nature of organisational management structure of the service-provider which determines extent of user-participation in the user-provider relationship in the sector.

5.4 Recommendations

The conclusion as enumerated above relative to the findings of this study had given the researcher basis to advance some relevant recommendations. The purpose of these recommendations is not only to contribute to efforts in the academia regarding research and learning but also add-up to effort at shaping policy direction and action as relates to governance and social service delivery.

5.4.1 Policy direction and action

By way of policy direction in the water and sanitation services delivery, instead of a community, the policy makers must identified household service-user identified as a key unit among the actors in the sector. Currently, the policy regime identifies service-user as in terms of community. This masks the real interest and concern of an individual household service-user. Therefore, ensuring policy makers to see the service user in terms of an individual household or unit will improve the existing user-provider relationship. Again, a deliberate policy to promote effective competition in both water and sanitation sectors will lead to a more user-inclusive in management operations of service providers, hence promoting effective participation. By extension the sustainability of service delivery will be improved through consistent interaction between user and provider of services. Again, it is important that the policy regime put high premium on and advance the interest of domestic actors over foreign or international actors. It was clearer from this study that the policy regime has been particular about global goals as well as international protocols. However, this could end up in conflict of interest between local needs and international requirement. It is in this direction that the policy regime must be formulated to serve local need acidulously.

5.4.2 Inter-organisational collaboration

In as much as the policy regime explicitly refers to coordinated institutional interdependence among agencies in the sector, the relationship between a water service provider and sanitation service provider is not clearly defined. The study revealed the two major organisations involved in water and service provisions, respectively, operate along a different policy direction. Meanwhile the findings in this study, just as previous works, had proven a strong nexus between water and sanitation as critical social services which significantly affect development index of a society.

For this reason, even if not by policy, the respective organisations may engage in unorthodox interaction leading to a collaborative work toward serving the user better and timely. Again, such collaboration creates room for exchange of technical knowhow among other experiences and technology for effective operations. For instance, the GWCL was noted to have low operational capacity compare to ZGL. Therefore, the two companies could engage each other in a working tie.

5.4.3 Effective user-participation

Based on the findings on knowledge of user-participatory channels, it was clear that significant respondents are ignorant about such channels. To that extent, effective user-participation by majority of users in management of service delivery is compromised. This adversely affect effective participation in the user-provider relationship. And by extension the organisational governance is restricted to only those with knowledge on formal participatory channels. Hence many varied concerns eludes service provider organisation, which could have been beneficial to improving service delivery at large. Therefore, service provider organisations are required to put much more effort at sensitising their clients about the existence of the varied complaint channel noted in this study. This certainly empowers every user to engage in the user-provider interaction.

5.4.4 Service-user Unionisation

Another mean of promoting effecting participation as well as affecting policy direction in the sector is through user-unions as advocated in network governance (NG). Through service user unions or consumer protection associations, service-users can advance a collective position about their needs and concerns relative to not only service delivery operations but policy direction as well. Through such mean, user members may be enlightened on not only available participatory channels, but how to effectively utilise these channels.

The findings on knowledge of participatory channels indicates huge proportion of respondents are unaware of participatory channels, let alone activate them to trigger user-provider relationship. Again, the findings on utilisation frequency of user-participatory channels indicates some proportion of users who are aware of these channels, but not utilising them, though they have concerns that need to be addressed. On these basis, user unionisation could serve as a good platform to advance such concerns for redressed. Hence, ensuring effective organisational governance along the line of participation.

5.4.5 Effective user-provider communication

Communication has been widely acclaimed in the literature as the bedrock of governance. In this regard, communication is critical in promoting good interrelationship, such as user-provider one. However, this study had revealed low level of communication between user and provider of services, especially in the water sector. Findings on the concerns of service-users indicated irregular flow and unemptied bin on-scheduled as major concerns regarding water and sanitation respective services. On that basis, service-provider organisations are required to improve their communication effort with users. This will keep users updated on challenges that may have been affecting smooth service delivery operations. Therefore, reassuring anxious service-users for improved service whilst working to address the challenges. This will elicit the needed corporation between users and provider of service toward improving the user-provider tie.

Similarly, findings on organisational management structure relative to user inclusiveness have exhibited a mechanistic management structure as operated by service provider. Meanwhile such structure has been noted to be more inward looking, hence does not allow external interference. Though line managers in charge of service-users (customer care) were available, the structure does not give the user the chance to communicate beyond these line mangers. The communication is restricted to a desk officer who in turn forward the concerns to management. But the specific concern of user may suffer adulteration by the time it gets to management level for action. Therefore, organisations are required to devise a mechanism through which management could have a direct communication with service-user as enshrined in the conceptual framework of this study. This enhances the user-provider relationship which reflects in service delivery eventually.

5.4.6 Further investigation and detailed probing in grey areas

Undoubtedly, exploratory as this study, its findings have evoked the need for further work in some specific critical areas. The call is fundamentally of interest to both research and researchers alike. This is primarily in the quest to widen the knowledge horizon. Interestingly, this study revealed pockets of households not having access to potable water in the very areas previous studies as well as data from service-providers has shown to have regular delivery of service across all residents. Hence the need to probe among such household to find out the causes for their lack of access.

Again, whilst this study had revealed enormous access rate among respondent household service-users, how adequate service/good delivered is, in meeting the household needs and demand is unknown. Therefore, calls for further study in that regard is in the right direction so as to throw more light on sustainability of access. Finally, the findings of this study in respect to knowledge and utilisation of a formal complaint channel indicates a good number of service-users lack knowledge of any existing complaint channel. Meanwhile, it is such channel which will have granted them a participatory platform in the operational management of service-provider. In this regard, it is of interest to empirically find out how such ignorant users advance their grievances, albeit informally for redress, hence participating in the service delivery operation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Calculation of the household survey's sample size

Sample size calculation:

Sample size = (Distribution of 50%) / [(ME%/CL score]^2 ; Where ME= Margin of Error and CL= Confidence Level .

2. Finite population correction:

True sample = (sample size x target population) / (sample size + target population-1).

Therefore, plugging the parameters values (CL score= 1.96, ME= 0.05 and distributional value= [0.5x (1-0.5)] in the sample size calculator will reveal:

Sample size = [0.5x (1-0.5)]/ (0.05/1.96)^2 = 0.25/0.02551^2 = 0.25/0.00065077

Sample size = 384.16

However, with a known target population (742) as well as a sample size of infinite population (384.16), the true sample size, according to Fluidsurvey (2014) *finite population correction formula, will be:*

True sample = (384.16 x 742)/ (384.16+742-1) = 285046.7/1125.16

True sample = 253.338814

To this extent, when the true sample size is rounded up to the nearest whole person, the value of it would be **254**. Therefore, in order to have a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error in the survey results, at least **254** household service users need to be surveyed out of the 742.

APPENDIX 2: GWCL's sampled complaint and action reports, relative to service delivery.

DATE OF COMPLAINT	DATE OF RESPONSE	WAITING PERIOD (IN-DAYS)
April 1, 2016	April 3, 2016	2
April 1, 2016	April 7, 2016	6
April 1, 2016	April 7, 2016	6
April 1, 2016	May 23, 2016	52
April 1, 2016	April 7, 2016	6
April 4, 2016	April 4, 2016	0
April 5, 2016	May 23, 2016	48
April 7, 2016	May 23, 2016	46
April 7, 2016	April 9, 2016	2
April 7, 2016	April 18, 2016	11
April 8, 2016	May 23, 2016	45
April 8, 2016	May 23, 2016	45
April 8, 2016	April 12, 2016	4
April 8, 2016	April 8, 2016	0
April 11, 2016	April 11, 2016	0
April 11, 2016	April 16, 2016	5
April 11, 2016	April 14, 2016	3
April 12, 2016	April 14, 2016	2
April 12, 2016	April 12, 2016	0

CREDDIT: *GWCL-UWR, Commercial Unit.*

APPENDIX 3: ZGL's sampled complaint and action reports, relative to service delivery.

DATE OF COMPLAINT	**DATE OF RESPONSE**	**WAITING PERIOD(**IN DAYS)
17-Mar-16	17-Mar-16	0
18-Mar-16	18-Mar-16	0
18-Mar-16	21-Mar-16	3
21-Mar-16	21-Mar-16	0
21-Mar-16	21-Mar-16	0
22-Mar-16	22-Mar-16	0
23-Mar-16	24-Mar-16	1
24-Mar	24-Mar-16	0
01-Apr	02-Apr-16	1
04-Apr-16	05-Apr-16	1
20-Apr-16	21-Apr-16	1
20-Apr-16	21-Apr-16	1
21-Apr-16	21-Apr-16	0
21-Apr-16	22-Apr-16	1
22-Apr-16	23-Apr-16	1
29-Apr-16	03-May-16	4
03-May-16	03-May-16	0
06-May-16	07-May-16	1
06-May-16	07-May-16	1

CREDIT: *ZGL-UWR Zonal Office.*

APPENDIX 4: Interview Guide 1 and 2 for Service-provider and Service-regulator, respectively.

INTERVIEW GUIDE 1: **Water/Sanitation service provider-organization;** ***date*** **……**

1. Organisation [1]GWCL [2]WMA [3]ZGL [4]EPA [5]CWSA
2. Sector [1] Water [2] Sanitation
3. Activity [1]Service provider [2] Service regulator [3]Provider/regulator
4. Position of respondent [1] Top-management [2] Mid-Management [3] Frontline staff
5. Sex of respondent [1] Male [2] Female
6. Educational background [1] SHS/ O-level [2] Diploma [3] Degree [4] Master [5] PhD
7. Describe professional background ……
8. Years of professional experience [1]below 4years [2] 4-9years [3]9years and above
9. What is the current ownership status of your organization?
   [1] Public/ State [2] Private [3] PPP [4] Others (specify)
10. What is the main goal of your organization?
    ……
    ……
    ……
11. How is the goal formulated?
    Description in terms of:
    a. Source of the goal (who formulate the goal/ actors involved)?
       ……
    b. Procedure of developing and adopting the goal?
       ……
       ……
    c. Factors under consideration in formulating the goal?
       ……
       ……
       ……..

12. In view of the main goal identified above, are there any set targets toward that goal realization? [1]Yes [2] No
13. If yes, what are these targets and if no how do you ensure the success of your organization?
    a……
    b……
    c……..

14. What are the strategies in place to accomplish these targets, if available?
    a……..
    b……..
    c……..
    d……..

15. What is the legal status of your Organization in terms of the following?
    a. Do you have any legal permit if private and/ or legal remit if public or PPP? [1]Yes [2] No. If yes, what is the evidence – documents, LIs or other?
    ……
    ……

16. What is the operational management structure of your organization? You may respond in any or combination of the following way(s)
    a. Description
    ……
    ……
    ……
    ……
    ……
    ……
    ……
    OR

    b. Kindly provide a diagram, if applicable.
17. What is your primary cliental target?
    [1] Urban households/dwelling [2] Rural households/dwelling [3] Other (Specify)……

18. What is the current average delivery output per week, relative to your target? (Quantify please)……
    ……
19. Practically, how does your organization deliver the output to the end-user?

……
……
……
……

20. Does the output represents the optimum operational capacity of your organization?
[1] Yes [2] No

21. If yes, kindly explain why (kindly quantify as well), and if no, indicate the difference and challenge(s) resulting in that?
……
……
……
……
……

22. Do you know of any policy document governing the operations of your organization?
[1] Yes [2] No [3] I don't know. If yes, can you please provide a copy for a review for the purpose of this study?

23. If no, what guides you in the delivery of your operations?
……
……
……

24. Does your Organization have any partner(s)/ collaborator(s) in its operations?
[1] Yes [2] No. If yes who are these partners?

a. ……
b. ……
c. ……

25. In what way(s) will you describe your partnership with the organizations identified above? Brief descriptions of the nature of partnership with each partner identified.
a. ……
b. ……
c. ……
d. ……

26. Does your organization has a higher authority (Board of Management) inside or outside Wa Municipal (District) jurisdiction? [1] Yes [2] No

27. If yes, kindly identify it and show how this authority applies to your organization's operation?

……
……
……
……

28. Do you have any customer/service end-user care plan?

[1] Yes [2] No

29. If yes, how is the plan formulated, in terms of the following?

a. Who initiates it? …….
b. Reasons for it? ……
……
……
……
c. What are the key actors involved in the plan formulation?
i. …….
ii. …….
iii. …….
iv. …….
v. …….

30. Do you give your customer the platform(s) to put forward their concern(s)?

[1]Yes [2] No

31. a. If yes, kindly describe the platform(s)?

……
……
……
……
……

b.If no, how is your customers/ consumers able to get to your organization for any concern?

……
……
……

32. Do you have a customer/ service end-user complaint channel?

[1] Yes [2] No.

a. If yes, what are these channels?

……
……
……
……

b. If no, how does your organization get feedback/ complaints from consumers/ service end-user?

……
……
……
……

33. On the average, how often do you get complaints from your customers/ end-user, monthly?
……
34. Which particular concern(s) always stand out?

……
……
……
……

35. How do you address the concerns?

……
……
……
……
……

36. Does the concerns have any effect in management decision making? [1] Yes [2]No

37. If yes, in what way (s)?
Briefly explain

……
……

38. What other plan(s) your organization carries out in its operations?
    a. Short term
    b. Medium term
    c. Other(s)
39. In any case as chose above;

a. Who initiates it? …….

b. Reasons for it? ……
……
……

c. Who are the key actors involved in the plan formulation?
……
……

40. What significant challenge(s) faced by your organization in its operations?
……

INTERVIEW GUIDE 2: **Water/Sanitation service delivery regulatory authority(s)**

1. *Name of institution* ……... *Main activity/Sector*……..
2. *Position/ of Respondent*…… *date of interview*……..
3. How many social services of water and sanitation delivery organizations each, your outfit is aware of within the Municipality?
   a. Potable Water ……
   b. Sanitation (solid waste and excreta management) ……..
4. What are these organizations and their nature of ownership, as required in the table below? You may provide not more than three (3) and at least two for each, if applicable

Service nature/type	[a]Public	[b]PPP	[c]Private
[1]Water	i. ii. iii.	i. ii. iii.	i. ii. iii.
[2]Sanitation	i. ii. iii.	i. ii. iii.	i. ii. iii.

5. Do you have any existing legislation(s) that regulate these social service delivery?
   [1] Yes [2] No
6. a. If no, how do you regulate the activities of service providers in the Municipality?
   b.If yes, what are they and specify each if local, national or international?
   ……
   ……

7. How are these regulations formulated, with specific reference to actors (local, national and international, if applicable) involve in the process?

……
……
……
……

8. To what extent do you enforce these regulations?
   You may quantify in % terms……..

9. Do you think that level is satisfactorily? [1] Yes [2]No
10. a. If yes, kindly justify …….....
……
……
……
b.If no, why and in what way(s) can it be improved?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

11. What has been the adherence level relative to what the legislation(s) require?
    You may respond in % terms……..

12. Is this level satisfactory? [1] Yes [2]No
    If yes, kindly justify and if no, how can it be improved?
……
……
……..
13. As a regulator, do you engage, as well, in direct provision of any of such services?
    [1]Yes [2] No
14. a. If yes, kindly specify? [1]Water [2]Sanitation

15. Is there any legislation/ bye law, among your legislative instruments, which ensures service user participation in service delivery? [1] Yes [2] No

16. a. If yes, what is this legislation and how is it enforced, with reference to procedure/ process and actors?

……

……

……

……

……

b. If no, how do you ensure consumer service user participation, if any?

……

……

……

……

APPENDIX 5: Household Survey Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

GRADUATE SCHOOL

FACULTY OF PLANNING LAND MANAGEMENT

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire for a post-graduate research thesis on the topic-*'Governance of social services delivery: The case of potable water and basic sanitation in the Wa Municipality of the UWR of Ghana'* is seeking information/account/data from household (service-users) on the extent at which they participate in water and sanitation services delivery, operations and management processes so as to ascertain the nature of relationship framework between the provider and the user. Whereas such information will be helpful toward assessing how household service-users contribute in services delivery management and operations, it will be far more helpful in assessing to what extent services provided have been participatory (user-inclusive) as well as user-responsive.

NB: Please you are kindly requested to answer the following questions to the best of your ability by either tick in the one of the spaces [ ] which suit you or write in the spaces (……) provided as the question may demand. Any information given would be used solely for academic purposes. You are assured of confidentiality of your responses. Thank you.

Household participation in service delivery management/operations

PART 1: ***Demographic characteristics of respondents***

1. Location of household [1] Dobile [2] Kpaguri [3] Konta/SSNIT [4]Tampalipani/agric.bungalows
2. Date of interview [1] May, 2016
3. Sex: [1] male [2] female
4. Age: [1] 20-29 [2] 30-39 [3] 40-49 [4] 50-59 [5] 60/above
5. Marital Status. [1] Married [2] Single [3] Divorced [4] Widow [5] Widower
6. Religious background [1] Muslim [2] Christian [3] Traditionalist [4] None
7. What is your highest educational level? [1] Basic [2] SHS/O-Level [3] Tertiary [4] Never
8. Employment status. [1] Formal employment [2] Informal [3] unemployed
9. What is the total number of household? [1] 1-4 [2]5-9 [3] 10-14 [4] 15-19

PART 2- *SECTION A:* ***Water Service delivery management and household participation***

10. Do you have access to water service/good in your home? [1] Yes [2] No

11. If yes, from which supplier/producer-organization?

[1] Ghana Water Company [2] Private Water Company [3] Self-initiated project [4] Others (Specify……)

12. How often do you get the service/good supplied? [1] Every day [2] Every two days [3] Every three days or more [4] Every week [5] Others (specify)……

13. In view of any of the above case ticked, is the supply adequate for your household need within the time in question? [1] Yes [2] No

14. If yes, please quantify your household need within the time in question?

[1] 1drum [2] 2drums [3] 3drums [4] 4drums [5] 5drums [6] Other (specify)…….

15. If no, please indicate by what quantity your household is short of within the time?

[1] 1drum [2] 2drums [3] 3drums [4] 4drums [5] 5drums [6] Other (specify)……..

16. Do you have any concern/suggestion regarding the water service/good delivered you want the water service producer to know? [1] Yes [2] No

17. If yes, what is your topmost concern on you want the water supplier/producer to know? [1] Irregular flow [2] Burst pipe [3] Odd-hour flow [4] Particles in water [5] High billing rate

[6] Unannounced action

18. Do you know of any channel of complaint so as to put across the concern for the supplier/producer to know? [1] Yes [2] No

19. If yes, what are the channels? [1] Walk-in-reception [2] Tele/mobile phone [3] Frontline staff [4] written letter/report

20. How often do you utilize the channels to make your topmost concern(s) known to the producer?

[1] Once a week [2] Twice a week [3] Once a month [4] Twice a month [5] Other (Specify……..)

21. If no, how do you manage to get your concerns known to the supplier?

[1] Task force [2] Neighborhood/relation/friend [3] Written letter/report [4] Personal visit [5] Undecided

22. Are your concerns addressed to your satisfaction? [1] Yes [2] No

23. If yes, how long does it take for your concern to be addressed?

[1] Less than 24hrs [2] Within a week [3] More than a week

24. How do you notice that the concern had been addressed?

[1] In the service delivery process [2] In the product delivered [3] Others (specify…….)

25. How will you describe the water service delivered to your household?

[1] Service delivery process is highly participatory [2] service delivery process is participatory

[3] Service delivery process is fairly participatory [4] Service delivery process is not participatory

26. What is your reason for the answer above?

[1] Service delivery process is highly user-responsive [2] Service delivery process is user-responsive

[3] Service delivery process is fairly user-responsive [4] Service delivery process is not user-responsive

SECTION B: ***Sanitation Service delivery management and household participation***

27. How will you describe the drainage system in your home?

[1] Excellent [2] Good [3] Fairly satisfactory [4] Poor

28. How do you disposed-off your solid waste?

[1] Door-door waste management service [2] Community waste bin [3] Other (specify) ……

29. In any of the above case chosen, do you have any concern/suggestion you want the service-provider to know and act on it? [1] Yes [2] No

30. If yes, what is the most pressing among these concerns?

[1] Bin not emptied after scheduled period [2] damaged litter bin/mishandling by janitors

[3] High billing rate [4] other (specify)……..

31. Do you know of any channel of complain provided by the service-provider? [1]Yes [2] No

32. If yes, what are the channels? [1] Tele/mobile phone [2] Walk-in-reception [3] Frontline staff

33. If no, how do you manage to get your concern(s) known to the supplier?

[1] Frontline staff [2] M&E team [3] Neighbor/friend/opinion leader/relation [4] Personal visit [5] other

34. How often do you utilize the channels to make your topmost concern(s) known to the producer?

[1] Once a week [2] Twice a week [3] Once a month [4] Twice a month [5] other (specify)……

35. Are your concerns addressed to your satisfaction? [1] Yes [2] No

36. If yes, how long does it take for your concerns to be addressed?

[1] Less than 24hrs [2] Within a week [3] More than a week

37. How do you notice that these concerns have been addressed?

[1] In the service delivery process [2] Timely intervention [3] Other (specify) ……

38. How often do you secure the service of septic tank emptier to manage your human excreta?

[1] Once every 5 months/more [2] Once every 1year/more [3] Other (specify)……

39. Is the timing right for you? [1]Yes [2] No

40. If no, what will be your preferred timing? [1] 4-5months [2] Once a year [3] Undecided

41. How will you describe the cost price of the septic emptier service?

[1] Very expensive [2] Expensive [3] Normal [4] Cheap

42. Do you know how the pricing is fixed? [1]Yes [2] No

43. If yes, are you allow to make an input? [1] Yes [2] No

44. How long does it take for a service provider to eventually get to your house and offer the service upon your request for the service?

[1] Less than 24hrs [2] More than 2days [3] A week [4] More than a week [5] Other

45. How will you describe the service delivered?

[1] Service delivery process is user highly participatory [2] Service delivery process is participatory [3] Service delivery process is fairly participatory [4] Service delivery process is not participatory

46. What is your reason for the answer above?

[1] Service delivery process is highly user-responsive [2] Service delivery process is user-responsive [3] Service delivery process is fairly user-responsive [4] Service delivery process is not user-responsive