

Project Management and Project Management Best Practices

Dr. Stephen K. A. Hammond, DBA

Lecturer, Institute of Project Management Professionals

Email: stepham_k@yahoo.com

Abstract

Project management has been defined differently by various scholars. Kerzner (2006) sees project management as the process of planning, defining work requirements, and specifying the levels of quality of deliverables, as well as the resources needed, project monitoring, evaluating and making corrections where necessary. According to Kerzner (2006), there has been an increased use of project management over the years by organizations to achieve organizational goals. Qureshi, Warraich, and Hijazi (2009) advised that project management knowledge and practices can be modelled based on individual processes. An analysis of project management research in the allied disciplines reveals an explosion of popularity and a strong interest in project management research (Kwak & Anbari, 2009). This has been widely recognized in the area of design, planning, control, cost and quality of projects across the globe (Ika, 2012; Ika, Diallo & Thuillier, 2010; Moyo, 2009). The strategic management of every organization depends largely on projects and how they have been managed and each project is unique and requires a tailored project management approach (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007b). This necessarily implies that the same project management approach cannot be arbitrarily applied to all projects. The first research question (RQ1) is tied with the assertions above. Thus, the study sought to evaluate how MMDAs manage their projects while considering which project management practices they adopt. Do they have standard project management practices across various MMDAs or do they vary the project management practices based on the source of funding or aim of the project in question?

Key words: *project management practices, project failure, critical success factors, donor funded projects, locally funded projects*

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the Project Management Body of Knowledge, project management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to plan activities to meet the project requirements (PMBOK Guide, 2013). According to the guide, project management processes fall into five groups, namely: Initiating, Planning, Executing, Monitoring and Controlling and Closing. In addition to the five processes, project management further draws on ten knowledge areas, namely: Project Integration Management, Project Scope Management, Project Time Management, Project Cost Management, Project Quality Management, Project Procurement Management, Project Human Resources Management, Project Communications Management, Project Risk Management and Project Stakeholder Management (PMBOK, 2013, p.60).

The PMBOK divides project management into ten knowledge areas shaped by historical best practices (PMBOK, 2013). However, Ray (2015) argues that the practice of applying the same management approach over and over again on different projects, by possibly looking backward at historical best practices, has been disproved. In addition, Shenhar and Dvir (2007a), as cited by Ray (2015), revealed that most recent projects are complex, uncertain, changing and are affected by dynamic environments and technologies. Thus, failing to assess future project challenges by an over reliance on historical best practices will ensure projects don't meet their expected goals and objectives.

According to Ray (2015), the over reliance on historical best practices has deceived the entire industry and reduced the motivation of project managers to anticipate the challenges their respective projects would be likely to encounter. Ray (2015) further argues that if challenges are not identified and assessed then there will not be any mitigation strategy for handling them as part of the project plan. The practices of adopting historical best practices for managing projects without considering the uniqueness of each project, as illustrated in PMI's definition of a project, leaves much to be desired. The possibility of project failure is high should organisations continue to apply the same project management approach (historical best practices) across different project types without evaluating the likely future challenges the project will encounter (Ray, 2015). For instance, various MMDAs have their peculiar challenges and culture with a likely impact a completed project would have on the beneficiaries. This implies that different projects must come with unique project management practices to handle unique problem sets. Hofstede (2011) opines that culture varies from country to country, and within countries. Thus, the culture of various MMDAs towards work and social settings are different.

After conducting an in-depth study covering four years and collecting data from 14 countries involving 65 case study organizations, PMI revealed that project management delivers some value to organizations. However, it is largely dependent on culture, and the implementation 'fit' with organizational needs (Mir & Pinnington, 2014; Mullaly & Thomas, 2009). This research, therefore, seeks to examine which types of management practices and approaches the MMDAs to adopt in executing projects.

I. LITERATURE

A. *History of Project Management*

Project management (PM) can be said to be as old as human civilization. However, PM started gaining recognition during the industrial revolution in the 1950s when economic activity was at its peak. As a result of the huge impact of engineering and construction on the environment, it was necessary to devise techniques for organizing and managing projects, such as the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) and the Critical Path Method (CPM). Later in the 1960s and 1970s, however, PM had developed to include the creation of professional bodies to the increasing appraisal for team work; a key feature for PM at the time (Crawford, Pollack & England, 2006). By 1980, PM had evolved as an international subject, which had its own international standards, and which focused not just on the project organization, but also on the risk posed by the project and external influences. Over the years, project management has gained significant usage in the corporate world as well as in economic development discourse of both developed and developing countries. Projects such as those in construction, event planning, and government policy programmes i.e., the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (GPRS I & II) all embrace project management principles as an instrument to enhance project success (Ofori, 2013).

Project management has been defined as encompassing the stages of planning, organizing and managing resources to accomplish a desired end (Chatfield, 2007; as cited in Ofori, 2013). According to the Project Management Institute (PMI) (2008) projects that are designed to meet specific deadlines and targets go through five major stages, namely: project introduction stage, planning stage, implementation stage, monitoring, and control stage, and project cessation stage. These successive stages are differentiated by the set of undertakings characterized by each of them including the key actors involved, evaluative devices and the anticipated outcomes. At the introductory stage, certain project latitude, terms, and conditions are clearly spelt out. This spectrum further clarifies the purpose of the project, project objectives, project budget, expectations, outcomes, and outputs as well as the stipulated time frame (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016; PMBOK Guide, 2013).

Customized project management brings a unique focus shaped by the goals, resources, and schedule of each project (Ray, 2015). It, therefore, defeats the argument for the use of PMI's historical best management practices in the execution of all projects by organizations (Ray, 2015). Since each project comes with unique features, to successfully execute it, some scholars argue that the anticipation of project needs and possible challenges would be relevant (Ray, 2015). This study seeks to outline arguments to support these relevant assertions in previous research publications.

B. *Project Management in Ghana*

The structure of the public sector organization can be likened to that of a pyramid where decisions taken by executive management at the top flows down to those at the lower levels through a hierarchical chain of command (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016). Public organizations operate in a more complex environment with different goals, structures, and values as compared to their private counterparts. These differences will manifest in the way and manner in which top management in private and public organizations discharge their basic mandates (Ofori, 2006; Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016).

Since the production of goods and services is for human consumption, the urge to effectively and efficiently manage production has been upheld from time immemorial (Spittler & McCracken, 1996). The focus has been on how to manage public materials the most effective way with minimal cost, especially in the wake of excessive bureaucratic culture and lack of respect for time in public organizations (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016) evident in developing countries such as Ghana. Some actions such as lack of respect for time and excessive bureaucratic principles are seen as undesirable and detrimental to effective project management. It is therefore desirable to embrace practices that will ensure that resources are utilised in ways that ensures the best of the project goals and objectives are reached (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016). In the mid-1960s, the surge in the need for infrastructure after the colonization era paved the way for the beginning of project management in Ghana. Even though knowledge on project management in Ghana is limited, there is evidence that project management has been embraced as a tool for the delivery of

developmental initiatives (Amponsah, 2012). There was a shift towards developing and executing most interventions through varied approaches especially those related to vertical programming (Adinyira, Botchway & Kwofie, 2012).

The emergence of project management in Ghana dates as far back as the late 1960s with the need for increased infrastructure shortly after colonization (Ofori, 2016). However, the actual project management practices started around the 1980s when major developmental projects were being funded by international donors such as the provision of services like the School Feeding Programme, refurbishment of schools and health facilities, construction of roads among others (Ofori, 2016). The international donors wanted value for money, thus they would usually have a team work directly with locals on the sponsored projects. However, some of the donors are only interested in the end results and this usually affects donor confidence if they find out the sponsored project was a failure (Ofori, 2016). According to Amponsah (2012), regardless of whichever approach was adopted, certain attributes have been found to be necessary for the overall effectiveness and efficiency of project management in general. These are:

- *Ability to clearly define the projects overall mission and goals;*
- *Adequate support from top management;*
- *Right specification of projects;*
- *Skill and capability of project personnel;*
- *Effective stakeholder involvement;*
- *Effective communications;*
- *Ability to prepare adequate contingency plan; and*
- *Satisfaction of beneficiaries (Amponsah, 2012, p. 35-37).*

C. Project Management Practices in Ghana

According to Ahadzi and Amoah-Mensah (2010), shortly after independence, projects in Ghana were carried out using the traditional project management practices. In their study on project management practice in Ghana using the Mass Housing Building Projects (MHBPs), they discovered that such projects were undertaken using state institutions such as the Gold Coast/State Housing Company through the Government of Ghana's housing programme. Under this type of management, the State Housing Cooperation (now State Housing Company) directly engages the services of artisans and laborers on a full time basis for the implementation of the projects. Under this traditional system the team leader, who in most cases happens to be the architect, oversees the project from start to finish.

Thus, the architect serves as the project supervisor and manager. However, around the 1960s, the project management practice changed from purely a traditional system to a new form of system where projects were awarded to "serial contractors" who in turn employed another labor force for the awarded contracts (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016; Ofori, 2006). Under this system, the contractors become the managers of these physical projects unlike the traditional system (Ibid, 2010). This new system was made possible as a result of the emergence of a new body known as the Registered Association of Building Contractors.

In the 1970s a new PM system emerged with the introduction of another third party known as the 'Project Consultant': this allowed the management of a project and the actual construction to be in the hands of different parties (consultants and contractors) (Amponsah, 2012; Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016). This system was mainly adopted by quasi-government institutions such as the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT). The project is therefore left under the supervision and managed by these quasi organizations. In the event of any dispute, or any lapses in the design, the consultant will be held accountable. It is believed that this system of management is the conventional system of project management practiced in Ghana (Ofori, 2006; Amponsah, 2012). It is consistent in the literature that mostly these consultants are accused of being the cause of poor project performance as they are unable to apply the requisite knowledge in the discharge of their managerial skills (Ahadzie, Proverbs & Olomolaiye, 2008).

Around the 1980s, a slightly new system emerged where an individual or a consortium, known in the management literature as the Project Manager, was hired to oversee the overall implementation of the project from start to finish (Damoah et al., 2015). This independent entity is responsible for the management and the design of the entire project. The project manager primarily works in the interest of the client. For a Project Manager to be successful in the discharge of his/her duties, he or she must have a comprehensive knowledge of the local environment of the project situation and the possible challenges the project possesses relative to the activities of the contractors in particular (Amponsah & Darmoe, 2014). This professional approach of a Project Manager is what distinguishes the project management from a traditional project manager (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016).

Modern PM Practices indicate three main parties to a project: the client, the contractor and the consultant (Dadzie, Abdul-Aziz & Kwame, 2012). Literature shows that there are different management practices. The kind of PM to be adopted for a project depends primarily on the nature of the organization, and the nature of the project (Art Gowan & Mathieu, 2005; Sharma & Gadenne, 2002).

Project management intends to build knowledge: this practice posits that PM should focus on building knowledge because not only does knowledge provide the opportunity for previous lapses and mistakes to be corrected and avoided, but also goes a long way to increase project performance (Loo, 2003). The knowledge acquired would, in turn, help organizations to reduce cost, meet schedules and produce required outcomes in future projects. The learning process includes getting feedback from ongoing and executed projects (Mensah, 2007). Getting feedback and learning from past experiences has the potential to mitigate the issue of having to face similar problems over and over again (Mensah, 2007). The principle of learning from feedback may be missing among MMDAs considering the many delays and failures in various projects (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016; Damoah, 2015; Mensah, 2007). Sharma and Gadenne (2002) are of the view that the ability to prepare and organize a project well defines the scope of the project as the best practice, Bryde's (2003) view is that it is the ability to perform excellently that determines good project practices.

With regards to funded projects, research indicates that excessive bureaucratic principles result in unnecessary pressure on time and other material resources (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016). The ability of the client organization to demand satisfactory performance from both consultants and contractors is vital in determining the efficient management of funding for projects (Damoah, 2015; Mensah, 2007).

In the case of MMDAs in Ghana, the frequency of projects and how successful they have been is the fulcrum for assessing performance; and additional funding from both donors and government may be subject to this assessment (Ahwoi, 2010). Thus, each MMDA must have a track record of successfully executed projects with potential or existing benefits to the stakeholders to qualify for additional funding (Amponsah & Darmoe, 2014; Mensah, 2007). This study identifies which type of project management approach the MMDAs may apply in executing their projects for either donor or locally funded projects (Ofori, 2013).

II. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The multiple regression model was used to address the relationship between project management practices adopted by MMDAs and project success. Results from the regression model 1 reveal that all the variables of project management practices were positively related to project success. They all had positive beta values and the model is statistically significant to predict project success through the project management practices. Thus, a percentage change in project management practices would lead to a positive increase in project success. In model 2, a composite of all the PM practices had a significant impact on project success. However, among the individual PM practices, only planning had a statistically significant relationship with project success among the project management practices. The R² values for model 1 and 2 were 9.5% and 8.7% respectively, which appears low. Besides, the prediction of human behavior being a contributory factor to the R² being low, there are other factors that might have a significant influence in predicting project success in the MMDAs of Ghana. This is not surprising as Amponsah (2014) and Ofori (2006) both outlined other factors such as socio-cultural and political influence as factors that may influence project success in the MMDAs of Ghana.

Some scholars have confirmed this outcome in different studies. For instance, Shehu and Akintoye (2009) revealed in his study that effective planning had the highest criticality index among critical success factors studied in the construction industry. In a similar study, Gibson, Wang Cho and Pappas (2006) noted that effective pre-project planning correlates with improved performance with regard to cost, schedule, and operations features. In a recent study concerning Electricity Company of Ghana (ECG), the majority of the respondents (605) confirmed that the absence of effective planning was one of the major causes of project failure (Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016). According to Ray (2015), the myth about PMBOK historical best practices and that organizations learn from failure appears backward and inhibits project managers from looking forward to assessing problems and disruptive technologies that the project is likely to encounter, and then develop mitigation approaches for them. Ray further indicated that the PMBOK gives PMs a false sense of security and makes them think the historical best practices is all they have to follow in managing projects.

In addition, Shenhar and Dvir (2007a), as cited by Ray (2015), revealed that most recent projects are complex, uncertain, changing and are affected by dynamic environments and technologies; thus, failing to meet their expected goals and objectives. Ray further argues that, if challenges are not identified and assessed, there won't be any mitigation strategy for handling it as part of the project plan. The practices of solely relying on historical best practices for managing projects without considering the uniqueness of each project, and the potential problems they can encounter, leaves much to be desired. It also leads to a high possibility of project failure since sufficient attention is not given to the uniqueness of each project (Ray, 2015). However, there have been some opposing views on the influence of planning on project success. According to Collyer and Warren (2009), although useful as a guide towards project success, creating detailed long-term plans at the early stages of a project can be a waste of time and resources and consequently create false expectations, especially in a dynamic environment. Milosevic and Patanaku (2005) re-echoed the phenomenon of paralysis to analysis implying too much focus on planning and analysis with actually result in projects starting late or no work started at all.

The practitioners of agile methods, however, do not support the idea that planning up front is always important (Boehm, 1996; Collyer & Warren, 2009). A key question is the relevance of planning taking 50% of project duration and the correlation it has with project success. Choma and Bhat (2010), taking a contrasting point of view, to those of Shehu and Akintoye (2009) and Bunyaminu and Mahama, (2016) indicate that too much time spent planning can be linked with poorly performed projects. However, in this study, the variables on planning have not been exhaustive enough to agree or disagree with the assertions by the school of thought that believes too much planning is not necessary. Nevertheless, planning cannot be ruled out completely, in fact, no project can start without prior planning no matter how small it is and as indicated by Ray (2015) every project requires a lot of planning in order to avoid the endless supply of variances that could delay or cause project failure. This definitely calls for further research with focus on distinguishing which type of projects require a lot of planning, a medium amount of planning or less planning. All projects, therefore, require enough planning to yield an accurate schedule. It is determined by how low you have to decompose the work breakdown structure (WBS) in order to get the units of work focused enough so the estimator can intuitively list the activities that each work package needs to have to generate the deliverables assigned to that work package (Ray & Sanderson, 2001).

Collyer and Warren (2009) are from the school of thought that too much planning in research and development projects can obstruct creativity and initiative from project team members. On the contrary, the benefits of effective planning have been confirmed through the practice of project management as well as through academic research (Serrador, 2013). Although planning requirements vary between industries, it nevertheless plays a major role in attaining project success no matter what the project is. In the light of this research, it is important to note that MMDAs would benefit immensely if they make planning a priority in their efforts to choose and execute projects. However, how much planning is too much or too little should largely depend on the specific project, duration, end-user, source of funding among other factors. Serrador (2013), after reviewing extensive literature on the importance of planning to project success, concluded that it is an important contributor to project success. For any institution implementing a project that underestimates the influence of planning, several other could schedules could go wrong when planning is ignored. For instance, without proper planning, the amount of funding required for a particular project could be underestimated and this could affect other aspect of the project. This adds to the importance of planning for any institution seeking to successfully implement a project.

Another major finding from the study is the absence of a project management office or a designated project management professional to handle the various projects in the MMDAs of Ghana. According to the Local Government Act, which guides all MMDAs in their operation, there is no designated office or unit that handles projects for the MMDAs. It is usually a committee put together based on the respective project(s) to be executed (ILGS, 2008). In addition to that, interaction with the Chief Director of the Office of Local Government Service, Mr. Joseph Dasanah, revealed that there was no office or unit aimed at executing projects besides having a planning committee that usually undertakes the project(s). It was also evident that the MMDAs rarely had Project Management Professionals considering that only two persons out of the 245 respondents had a professional project management qualification. The study failed to reject the null hypotheses for RQ1.1, RQ1.3, and RQ1.4 and concluded that the initiation, implementation and monitoring and control stages of project management practices respectively have no statistically significant relationship with project success in the MMDAs of Ghana. The study, on the other hand, rejected the null hypothesis for RQ1.2 and concluded that the planning stage of project management practices adopted by the MMDAs in Ghana has a statistically significant relationship with project success. This outcome indicates the importance of planning and its influence on project success for MMDAs.

Among the factors highlighted in this study as the influences of project delay or failure in the MMDAs, management and administrative practices were found to have a statistically significant influence on project delay or failure. This was closely followed by resources, while leadership and external forces had no statistically significant influence on project delay or failure in the MMDAs of Ghana. Using the mean scores, additional discussion is based on the ranking of 10 factors that influences project delay/failure most. In total, respondents answered 19 questions on the constructs considered to influence project failure in accordance with the factors outlined in previous research (Amponsah, 2012; Ahadzie & Amoah-Mensah, 2010; Bunyaminu & Mahama, 2016; Damoah, 2015).

It is not surprising that the delay in the release of resources was found to be a major cause of project delay or failure. For instance, Amponsah (2012) affirms that poor funding arrangements have caused a number of projects in Ghana to fail. He also makes specific reference to the case of District Assembly Common Funds (DACF) from the government, which usually comes late. In addition, the revenue generating ability of some MMDAs had been found to be poor, thus delay or failure of projects. Various studies have indicated that delay in disbursement of funding for projects, political interference, and diverse stakeholder interests are among other factors that affect the successful execution of both donor or locally funded projects by MMDAs in Ghana (Amponsah, 2012; Ofori, 2013; Cook-Davies, 2002). A study by Mensah (2005) found that the project implementing the medium term development plan failed due to poor funding of the project after a survey of six MMDAs. In a similar vein, in the study of the factors that hinder project execution in the Atwima Nwabiagya District of Ghana, poor funding was found to be one of the key determinants of the failure of projects in the Assembly (Damian, 2012). A study in South Africa on the reasons for the failure of projects concluded that the lack of funding caused community projects to fail during implementation (Ika, 2012). In addition to the above reasons, corruption in Ghana contributes largely to the delay in the release of funds or inadequate funding for projects in the MMDAs. According to the Auditor General, Mr. Daniel Domelevo, corruption has cost the country millions of cedis. Mr. Daniel Domelevo has indicated that Ghana lost about GH¢8 billion in the year 2016, mainly due to systematic weakness in the internal control systems. Mr. Domelevo has also indicated that 62 organisations between the periods January 2014 to December 2015 received various payments totaling GH¢8.8 billion from the state for which there is no available documentation covering such payments. These companies, which are mostly private entities, as well as the staff of some government entities have benefitted these undeserved monies paid to them (Myjoyonline, 2017). The effects of corruption and the abuse of State funds deprives the MMDAs of their ability to obtain adequate and timely release of funds to finance projects.

Indeed, management and administrative practices, which had a significant influence in predicting project delay/failure are equally consistent with the findings of the study by Damoah et al. (2015). In their study, they ranked factors that caused government project failures. Political interference ranked as the number three factor among 10 factors that caused government project failures in Ghana. This was followed by a change of government and bureaucracy. These findings corroborate the outcome of the analysis in this study. On the other hand, the mean score of 2.96 (pressure groups have a negative influence on projects) was the variable with the least mean score. This is closely followed by 3.01 (weak senior management support). This study finds it intriguing that top management support had a weak mean score as a cause of project delay or failure considering that most studies have confirmed it as a major factor in determining project success or failure. For instance, Amponsah (2012) and Ofori (2013) both found leadership, otherwise considered as top management support, as a major factor for determining whether a project is successful.

There is a lot of convergence of respondents' level of agreement with critical success for both donor and locally funded projects. Results from the T-test analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference as far as CSF are concerned for both donor and locally funded projects; however, following individual variables of the CSF, there are some that are statistically significant between donor and locally funded projects. For instance, for the release of adequate resources and funds, there is no statistically significant difference for both donor and locally funded projects implying that the majority of the respondents agree that it is a critical success factor. A typical example in the local government system of Ghana is the delay in disbursement of funding for projects. This is mostly linked with the socio-political environment. For instance, a change in government or top management could influence the continuation of an on-going project. Ofori (2013) asserts that in a developing country such as Ghana, a change in government has the tendency to affect project fund allocation as a result of incompatible development priorities or even campaign promises.

The practice of abandoning ongoing infrastructure projects when there is a change in government has been a major challenge to Ghana's development. This threat was acknowledged by the Vice President of the Republic of Ghana, Dr. Mahamadu Bawumia on Monday, March 13, 2018, during the commissioning of Phase II of the Security Services

Housing Scheme project in Tema. Dr. Bawumia indicated the need and determination of the current government to continue infrastructure projects commenced by President John Agyekum Kufuor's administration (between the years 2000 and 2008) that had been abandoned by President John Atta Mills and President John Dramani Mahama's administrations (Daily Graphic, March 2018).

Another critical success factor, as revealed by this study, is effective planning and control of the project. The mean scores for donor and locally funded projects are 3.85 and 3.88 respectively, which indicates that respondents strongly agree with the variable as a critical success factor. The T-test results indicate otherwise, implying there is a difference between donor and locally funded projects as far as effective planning and control are concerned. This result confirms the assertion by Amponsah (2014) that donor funded projects receive more effective planning and control measures compared with locally funded ones. The impact of planning on project success is thus emphasized by this outcome for both donor and locally funded projects. Indeed, the regression model for the first research question in this study also reveals that the practices within the planning stage of the project have the most significant impact on project success. Literature from project management authors largely confirms this assertion. For instance, although Amade et al. (2015) found other key success factors in the public sector construction industry, planning served as the most significant success factor of construction project delivery in Imo State, Nigeria. In contrast, some authors argue that planning is not enough. In fact, according to Milosevic and Patanakul (2005), the negative effect of planning is known in the business environment as analysis to paralysis; implying that so much planning and analysis takes place that no actual work is started or rather started at a later time.

Serrado and Turner (2015) revealed from their study of 1,386 projects from 859 respondents in a global survey that projects were spending less time in planning than the optimum to achieve the best results. However, their study did not indicate which type of projects required less planning or more planning to obtain the best results since some complex projects and the acquisition of complex systems requires more planning than less complex ones. In addition, the type of technology required to execute a respective project successfully determines the amount of planning required. This could be said to be a gap in the arguments of scholars for and against the value of the planning stage of project management practices. This argument may not be the same for MMDAs in Ghana considering the degree of project delay or failure. The popular axiom, "if you fail to plan, then you are planning to fail" (anonymous) indicates the importance of planning however small it is.

The release of adequate funds and resources is another important variable in the context of this study as far as project success is concerned. With mean scores of 3.93 and 4.03 for donor and locally funded projects respectively, it is evident that the issue of funding for projects in the various MMDAs is a major determinant for project success. Several studies have confirmed the failure or delay in the release of funds as a major determinant for project success among developing countries such as Ghana (Amponsah, 2012; Mensah, 2006; Ofori, 2013). Mensah (2006) also noted that the delay in the release of funds for some government projects threatens the project performance in the end. In another study, Amponsah (2012) revealed that poor funding has slowed down or caused a number of projects to fail; adding that the funding sometimes comes late thus extending the project's forecasted duration for completion.

When funding agencies decide on the project team formation was the variable with the lowest mean score (3.33) for critical success factors for donor funded project. This implies that the respondents disagreed that it was a critical success factor in the case of donor funded projects. Such an outcome may be as a result of participants considering local knowledge in a particular project. Nevertheless, the researcher believes that the nature and type of project would largely influence the success of a particular project. For instance, if it is a project involving the transfer of technology towards a particular project, then the donor agency would have a hand in deciding the project team formation (Serrado & Turner, 2015). On the other hand, for locally funded projects the same variable had a mean score above the average (3.5); thus, participants agree that it is a critical success factor in the case of locally funded projects at the MMDAs. However, the paired sample T-test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between donor and locally funded projects as far as team formation being a CSF is concerned. This outcome is not surprising because literature indicates that donor funding agencies would usually be critical about the skill set and mix of the project team members. They are also critical about the planning, monitoring, and control of sponsored projects. For instance, some donor agencies have teams that supervise the execution of projects they are sponsoring to ensure value for money (GEF/SGP Report, 2012).

Reference

- Ackah, David. (2017). Causes of failure and abandonment of projects and project deliverables in Africa. A speech delivered at the annual conference for the Institute of Project Management professionals in Oct. 2017.
- Adinyira, E., Botchway, E., & Kwofie, T. E. (2012). Determining critical project success criteria for public housing building projects (PHBPS) in Ghana. *Engineering Management Research*, 1(2), 122.
- Ahadzie, D. K., & Amoa-Mensah, K. (2010). Management practices in the Ghanaian house building industry. *Journal of Science and Technology (Ghana)*, 30(2).
- Ahadzie, D. K., Proverbs, D. G., & Olomolaiye, P. (2008). Model for predicting the performance of project managers in mass house building projects. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, American Society of Civil Engineers*, 134(8), 618–629.
- Ahwoi, K. (2010a). Local government and decentralization in Ghana. Accra, Ghana: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.
- Ahwoi, K., & Institute of Economic Affairs (Accra). (2010b). Rethinking decentralization and local government in Ghana: proposals for amendment. *Institute of Economic Affairs* Retrieved from at: <http://ieagh.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/crs-6.pdf>.
- Amade, B., Ubani, E. C., Omajeh, E. O. M., Anita, U., & Njoku, P. (2015). Critical success factors for public sector construction project delivery: A case of Owerri, Imo State. *International Journal of Research in Management, Science and Technology*, 3(1), 11-21.
- Amponsah, R. (2012). The real project failure factors and the effect of culture on project management in Ghana. *ICBE-RF Research Report*, (45/12), 8-45.
- Amponsah, R. (2014). Critical Success Factors Influencing Projects in the Ghanaian Public Sector. *The International Journal of Business and Management*, 2(5), 120-132.
- Amponsah, R., & Darmoe, J. (2014). A Study of the critical success factors influencing projects in the Ghana public sector. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 2(5), 120.
- Art Gowan Jr, J., & Mathieu, R. G. (2005). The importance of management practices in IS project performance: An empirical study. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 18(2), 235-255.
- Arthur, D. D. (2016). Examining the Effects of Governance Challenges in Ghana's Local Government System: A Case Study of the Mfantseman Municipal Assembly. *Journal of US-China Public Administration*, 13(7), 454-465.
- Atkinson, R. (1999). Project management: cost, time and quality, two best guesses and a phenomenon, it's time to accept other success criteria. *International Journal of Project Management*, 17(6), 337-342.
- Attarzadeh, I., & Ow, S. H. (2008, August). Project management practices: Success versus failure. In *2008 International Symposium on Information Technology*, (1), 1-8.
- Baccarini, D. (1999). The logical framework method for defining project success. *Project Management Journal*, 30(4), 25–32.
- Baccarini, D., Salm, G., & Love, P. E. (2004). Management of risks in information technology projects. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 104(4), 286-295.
- Bellassi, W. Kondra, A., & Tukel, O. (2007 December). Product Development Projects: The Effects of Organizational Culture. *Project Management Journal*, 38(4), 12.
- Boehm, B. (1996). Anchoring the software process. *IEEE software*, 13(4), 73-82.
- Boyd, A. (2001, December). The five maxims of project satisfaction. In *Aslib Proceedings (53)*10, 423-430. MCB UP Ltd.

Bryde, D. J. (2003). Modelling project management performance. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 20(2), 229-254.

Bunyaminu, A., & Mahama, F. (2016). Investigating Project Management Practices in Public Sector Organisations in Ghana. *International Journal of Management Sciences*, 7(3), 99-129.

Chan, A. P., Scott, D., & Chan, A. P. (2004). Factors affecting the success of a construction project. *Journal of construction engineering and management*, 130(1), 153-155.

Chatfield, C. (2007). A Short Course in Project Management, Microsoft Office Project 2007 Step by Step. *International Journal of Research in Management, Science and Technology*, 3(1), 11-21.

Chauvet, L., Collier, P., & Duponchel, M. F. (2010). What explains aid project success in post-conflict situations? *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper Series*.

Choma, A. A., & Bhat, S. (2010). Success vs failure: what is the difference between the best and worst projects? In *Proceedings PMI Global Congress*.

Citifmonline (2017). Abandoned GHc 320,000 CHPS compound in Teshie. Retrieved from: <http://citifmonline.com/2017/07/21/ghc-230000-fully-completed-chps-abandoned-in-teshie-report/>

Clancy, K. J., & Stone, R.L. (2005). Don't blame the metrics. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(6), 26-28.

Cleland, D., & Ireland, L. (2004). *Project manager's portable handbook*. McGraw Hill Professional.