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1 Institutional barriers to food safety

in the urban irrigated vegetable value chain in Accra, Ghana

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16 Abstract

- 17 The faecal contamination of irrigation water threatens public health. Although safe practices
- 18 can mitigate hygiene and food safety risks along the urban irrigated vegetable value chain,
- 19 their adoption remains limited. A behaviour framework was combined with a participatory
- 20 approach to explore how institutions influence farmers' capability, opportunity and

motivation to adopt safe practices in Accra, Ghana. After extensive preparation, a dialogue
engaged stakeholders and institutions in identifying the actors and interactions influencing
stakeholder practices. We find that institutional dynamics hinder farmers' opportunity and
motivation to adopt safe practices. Knowledge gaps created by top-down approaches and
sectoral silos were bridged by engaging participants in conducting the behavioural diagnosis.
This shared understanding enables participants to co-design arrangements that make safe
practices easier to adopt.

28 Keywords

- 29 Sanitation, urban agri-food systems, multiple barrier approach, risk management, COM-B,
- 30 Companion Modelling

31 Graphical abstract (optional)



33 Introduction

34 Over 1.7 billion people in cities of Low- and Middle-Income Countries (LMICs) do not have 35 access to safely managed sanitation (1). This leads to the faecal contamination of surface 36 water that urban farmers need to irrigate the vegetables they supply to these cities (2-4). 37 Perishable vegetables, essential to a healthy diet, are expensive and difficult to transfer from 38 rural areas to cities without adequate cold transport and storage (5,6). Consequently, urban 39 and peri-urban farmers produce most of the leafy greens consumed in cities and do so year-40 round thanks to irrigation (7). Many of these leafy greens are consumed raw as salads or 41 toppings on other dishes, making raw produce and street food leading exposure pathway to 42 faecal contamination in many LMIC cities (8,9), exposing farmers, vegetable traders, street 43 food vendors and consumers to diarrhoeal and parasitic infections (8–11). Contaminated 44 vegetables contribute to 420,000 annual deaths and 600 million illnesses from foodborne 45 diseases, costing over USD 100 billion in LMICs (12,13). Moreover, pathogens can also lead to severe public health crises, such as the 2024 cholera outbreak in Ghana, which led authorities 46 47 to ban vegetable sales (14). Food security and nutritious diets must not come at the expense 48 of food safety (15,16).

While achieving universal, safely managed sanitation remains a long-term challenge (17), the World Health Organization's multiple-barrier approach recommends that stakeholders adopt safe practices to mitigate the risk of faecal contamination along urban irrigated vegetable value chains, 'from farm to fork' (18). Practices include simple on-farm water treatment and non-treatment options, such as growing crops not eaten raw, adopting different irrigation regimes, or washing vegetables safely. Despite its benefits, the uptake of this approach

55 remains low (19). The COM-B behavioural model posits that adoption requires stakeholders 56 to have the Capabilities, Opportunities, and Motivations to perform safe Behaviours (20). Topdown approaches and barriers between water, agriculture and health sectors prevent 57 comprehensive identification of stakeholders' Capability, Opportunity, and Motivation needs 58 59 (21). Additionally, misaligned priorities lead institutions to hinder stakeholders' capabilities 60 and opportunities to adopt safe practices recommended by other institutions (22). 61 Accra's urban farmers face this situation. Agricultural extension agents from the Municipal 62 Departments of Agriculture and Public Health motivate farmers to use piped water instead of 63 surface water to reduce faecal contamination (23). However, the water utility often hesitates 64 to connect farmers willing to use piped water to the piped network, prioritising domestic 65 customers (23). Since under 10% of faecal sludge is treated, over a thousand farmers use 66 contaminated water to irrigate leafy greens, and about 15,000 street food vendors serve 67 these vegetables raw to over 85% of the city's population (24–28). Contaminated vegetables are a primary source of faecal exposure for adults and children in Accra, as well as many LMIC 68 69 cities, where the burden of foodborne diseases is likely to increase as diets transition to 70 include more raw vegetables (12,27,29,30).

This study aimed to diagnose the institutional factors hindering farmers' *capability*, *opportunity* and *motivation* to adopt safe irrigation practices. We invited stakeholders and
institutional representatives to dialogue, share experiences and develop a shared
understanding of the challenges. To our knowledge, this study is the first to combine a
behavioural framework and a participatory approach for stakeholders and institutions to codevelop a systematic and comprehensive evidence-based behavioural diagnosis and
actionable insights to implement a multiple barrier approach. These insights are key to co-

- designing arrangements that enable farmers and other stakeholders to enhance hygiene and
- food safety. The process and insights are also relevant for the many cities where irrigated
- 80 vegetable value chains depend on contaminated water.
- 81 The subsequent method section outlines how we integrated WHO's multiple barrier
- 82 approach, the COM-B behavioural framework and a participatory method in a
- 83 multistakeholder dialogue. We then present participants' perspectives, analyse institutional
- 84 influences, and elaborate on the shared understanding that emerged from the dialogue. We
- 85 reflect on the process before concluding.

86

87 Methods

This study combines a behavioural theoretical framework and a participatory approach to analyse how institutional obstacles hinder hygiene and food safety along Accra's irrigated vegetable value chain. The following section describes how these concepts complement each other (see also Figure 1).



93 Figure 1 - Integrative conceptual framework for exploring institutions' influence on

94 stakeholders adopting safe practices to increase hygiene and food safety

95 To protect public health, the WHO recommends a multiple-barrier approach whereby stakeholders adopt a combination of safe practices 'from farm to fork' (18). Using the COM-B 96 97 behavioural framework ensures all factors influencing stakeholders' adoption of these safe 98 practices are considered. The Companion Modelling participatory approach helps 99 operationalise the COM-B framework by enabling stakeholders and institutional 100 representatives to participate in a dialogue to collectively develop a shared understanding of 101 the Actors, Resources, Dynamics and Interactions (ARDI) that influence stakeholders' 102 capability, opportunity and motivation to adopt safe practices. This strategy provides a 103 systematic and comprehensive evidence-based behavioural diagnosis and actionable insights, 104 which are prerequisites to designing an effective and sustainable intervention. 105 A previous formative study tracked vegetables from farm to fork, interviewing stakeholders 106 along the value chain about their water- and food safety-related practices and the institutions 107 that influence these (23). Here, "stakeholders" refers to farmers using contaminated water, 108 traders buying and selling farmers' vegetables, street food vendors, and consumers. 109 "Institutions" are the organisations, formal or informal, that determine the rules influencing 110 stakeholders' adoption of safe practices. Institutions mentioned by stakeholders include the 111 Departments of Agriculture of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs), 112 the water utility Ghana Water Company Ltd (GWCL), the Food and Drug Authority, whose 113 representatives were subsequently interviewed. Analysis of these 75 interviews revealed that 114 sectoral barriers leave intervening institutions unaware that institutions with other priorities 115 may hinder stakeholders' adoption of the safe practices they recommend.

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116 COM-B framework

117 Theory-based behaviour models help practitioners ensure they consider all factors influencing 118 stakeholder behaviour. The COM-B model posits that for a stakeholder to adopt a safe 119 practice or behaviour, they need to have the Capability, Opportunity and Motivation to 120 perform that Behaviour (20). Capability, physical and psychological, includes the strength, 121 skill, or knowledge needed to perform a behaviour. Opportunity, social and physical, refers to 122 the external factors that make a behaviour possible or easier to perform, such as 123 infrastructure or resource accessibility. Motivation refers to the mental processes, automatic 124 or reflective, that drive behaviour performance. The Capabilities and Opportunities influence 125 the Motivation, all three influencing and being influenced by the Behaviour, as illustrated in 126 Figure 1. This model synthesises earlier models into a simple yet robust framework to 127 understand what influences behaviour. Behavioural diagnosis is structured into diverse 128 sectors, including some related to sanitation and hygiene (31), food safety (32), and policy 129 development (33).

130 Companion Modelling approach and the ARDI method

This study draws on the Companion Modelling participatory approach (34,35) to facilitate behavioural diagnosis. It uses dialogue between stakeholders, institutions and researchers to enable them to learn from each other, provide continuous feedback and develop a shared understanding of the factors influencing the adoption of safe practices along the value chain. In particular, the study employs the ARDI method, one of the first steps of the Companion Modelling approach whereby participants identify the Actors, Resources, Dynamics and Interactions that shape a value chain (36). Systematically analysing these through the lens of 138 the COM-B model addresses the knowledge gaps around mechanisms by which institutions

139 may impede stakeholders' adoption of safe practices along a value chain.

140 *Multistakeholder dialogue*

141 A multistakeholder dialogue was hosted at the International Water Management Institute 142 (IWMI) in Accra on 13 September 2023. Beginning on 24 August 2023, invitations outlining its 143 purpose and agenda were hand-delivered to urban farmers, vegetable traders and street food 144 vendors involved in prior fieldwork. Invitations were also distributed to the directors of 17 145 institutions. Follow-up calls confirmed participants' attendance. The purpose and agenda 146 were verbally clarified, and invitees who could not attend were requested to delegate a 147 substitute. Almost all invitees responded positively. IWMI's history of action research in 148 collaboration with urban farmers, government bodies, and research institutions in Greater 149 Accra likely contributed to the high attendance. Previous interactions with farmers also 150 fostered trust and engagement. Unfortunately, most vegetable traders and street food 151 vendors could not attend due to timing conflicts with their income-generating activities. Some 152 institutions delegated representatives from different services, while others assigned 153 representatives at the last minute who lacked a proper briefing. 154 The dialogue brought together 29 participants (14 females and 15 males) representing 21 155 stakeholder groups and institutions (Table 1). During registration, participants provided 156 contact details to record attendance and facilitate follow-up. They were reminded of the

dialogue's objectives and informed that the session would be audio-recorded for researchpurposes before giving their informed consent.

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160 Table 1 Participants in the multistakeholder dialogue

Stakeholder		Number of
group	Institution	participants
	Fiesta Royal farm	1
Farmers	Atomic Vegetable Farmers Association	1
	Dzorwulu farm	2
	Plant Pool farm	1
Wholesalers	Eden Tree Ltd	1
	Accra Metropolitan Assembly, Department of Agriculture	1
Local	Accra Metropolitan Assembly, Department of Public Health	1
government	Ayawaso West Municipal Assembly, Department of	1
	Agriculture	
	La Dade Municipal Assembly, Department of Agriculture	1
	Environment Protection Agency (EPA)	1
	Food and Drug Authority (FDA), Food safety and Consumer	1
National	Education	
government &	Ghana Green Label	1
other public	Ghana Water Company Limited	1
services	Land Use and Spatial Planning Authority (LUSPA)	1
	Ministry of Food & Agriculture, Directorate of Agricultural	3
	Extension Services (MoFA-DAES)	

	Ministry of Food & Agriculture, Directorate of Crop Services (MoFA-DCS)	2
	Ministry of Food & Agriculture, Women in Agricultural	2
	development (MoFA-WIAD)	
	Ministry of Local Government, Decentralisation and Rural	1
	Development (MLGDRD)	
	Ministry of Sanitation and Water Resources (MSRW)	1
Research	International Water Management Institute (IWMI)	4
institutions	University of Ghana	1
TOTAL	21	29

161

162 The dialogue lasted five hours, facilitated by two researchers with expertise in agro-163 hydrology, wastewater, food safety, and microbiology. The lead facilitator is the paper's first 164 author, who is also trained in COM-B and Companion Modelling. Most participants were 165 previously interviewed by the lead facilitator, offering continuity. Water-related practices 166 affecting hygiene and food safety 'from farm to fork' were presented to participants, 167 highlighting contamination sources and the economic burden of foodborne diseases. The 168 institutional barriers to the adoption of safe practices, identified during prior interviews, were 169 introduced by the lead facilitator. These included poor access to safe water for irrigation and 170 safe vegetable washing, lack of infrastructure and land tenure insecurity. Participants were 171 invited to share their perspectives and respond to each other's viewpoints, while the 172 facilitators guided the discussion to identify the Actors, Resources, Dynamics, and Interactions at play for each barrier. Participants mentioned underlying factors and proposed and 173

evaluated potential solutions. To ease farmers' reluctance to challenge authorities, the lead

175 facilitator agreed to present sensitive issues on their behalf.

- 176 Participants engaged in a candid and productive dialogue, remaining in a group discussion 177 rather than breaking into activities as planned. The dialogue concluded with the participants 178 summarising key insights, which the facilitators recorded on flip charts. Participants 179 appreciated that such a range of stakeholders and institutions had agreed to discuss often-180 overlooked food safety concerns. As the Eden Tree representative stated: "Thank you very 181 much for inviting me to this. I'm actually enlightened because, for so long, my perception was 182 that nobody cared ... [So much work has been done] but we don't know". 183 The dialogue transcript was manually coded to identify the Actors, Resources, Dynamics, and 184 Interactions mentioned by participants. The coded data were then analysed using the COM-B 185 model to systematically identify institutional barriers that affect stakeholders' Capability, 186 Opportunity, and Motivation to adopt safe practices, which are discussed in the next section. 187 To protect participants from potential negative consequences, statements on sensitive topics 188 are attributed generically (e.g., 'a participant stated...') rather than to specific individuals. In 189 some cases, attribution was not possible due to the dynamic nature of discussions involving 190 multiple participants, where identifying individual speakers was not feasible.
- 191

192 *Ethics statement*

This study conformed with ethical protocols, which were approved by Loughborough
University (ref 2022-7727-12403) and IWMI's Institutional Review Board in Ghana (ref
2023_04).

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196

197 **Results and discussion**

198 Stakeholders' initial perspectives

199 The Departments of Agriculture and Public Health view urban farmers using piped water for

200 irrigation as an easy solution to reduce faecal contamination and protect public health.

201 Agricultural Extension Agents occasionally condition farmers' access to training, subsidies, and

awards on their adoption of this safe practice. These Departments attribute low compliance

203 to farmers' limited awareness of risk and lack of incentives, prompting them to prefer the

204 uninterrupted supply of free surface water from canals over the safer yet charged for and

205 intermittent supply of piped water.

GWCL's perspective is best reflected by a statement one of their representatives made in aformative interview, and that was repeated in the dialogue:

208 When they [farmers] apply [for a connection], we do install, but we are not

209 encouraged to connect them ... because they will be billed at the commercial rate, and

210 they can't pay. They can also leave their farm. The tendency for them to steal [piped

211 water] is always there because of the rate [charged]. Just recently, in February-March

212 [2023], the tariff has been increased by 167%. Even companies and other commercial

213 users are finding it very difficult [to pay], let alone peasant farmers... We encourage

them to sink boreholes.

Farmers using surface water argue that the intermittent supply of piped water disrupts theirirrigation schedules. Those relying on piped water confirmed doing so only because they

cannot access surface water, raising complaints about issues including pipe bursts and
infrastructure failures, leaving them without water for weeks. Their main concern is the rising
cost of piped water, which makes bill payment difficult and can lead to disconnection.
Reopening the connection involves long delays and extra fees. Utility agents may charge taxi
fares and repair costs for interventions in the public domain, a common practice among
underfunded public utilities (37).

223 Developing a shared understanding of the problem

224 Farmers saw their water bill increase in February 2023, unaware of GWCL's lower "non-225 residential" rate, which capped other small businesses at 8.3%. GWCL learned that local 226 agricultural and health officials were promoting piped water for irrigation to enhance food safety. Other officials discovered that GWCL did not systematically connect farmers to the 227 228 piped network and had received approval from the Public Utility Regulatory Commission 229 (PURC) to charge a substantially higher rate than that for households or small businesses. The actors, resources and interactions discussed during the multistakeholder dialogue are 230 modelled in Figure 2. 231



233 Figure 2 How actors and their interactions influence farmers' opportunity to use piped water

- Agricultural officers, empathising with farmers, questioned the higher rate. The GWCL
- representative explained: "As long as you're using the water to enhance your business, you
- have to be on the commercial [rate]", before adding:
- 237 Our priority is to supply water for domestic purposes and commercial ... Initially, we
- 238 didn't supply them [farmers] with water ... But we realised that they also need the
- water ... They're metered, but they don't pay ... Certain areas like Plant Pool, they use
- a shared meter. So, if a farmer decides not to pay, ... we have to cut supply to the area
- 241 ... The intermittent supply, we can't do anything about it. The raw water source that
- 242 we have is a lot, but the infrastructure to treat this water and supply it to our
- customers is a challenge.
- 244 GWCL has increased tariffs despite abundant raw water resources to address rising
- 245 production costs and utility debt. These have been exacerbated by a devalued national
- currency and a high non-revenue water ratio largely due to ageing infrastructure (38,39).
- Local GWCL officers know that urban farmers struggle to pay for water, but the utility
- 248 prioritises cost recovery. This strategy discourages farmers who use surface water from
- switching to piped water and incentivises those who use piped water to steal it or revert to
- 250 using surface water. As a farmer emphasised:

affordable, I'll use the alternative.

- 251 Today [I pay] 2000 [cedi per month, about USD174 at the time], tomorrow 3000,
- 252 5000, 7000! All the farmers, it is just like we are stuck. ... If you don't make it
- affordable for me to work, either I steal from Ghana Water, or I use the stream [i.e.,
- surface water]. If you make it affordable for me, I'll pay. But if you don't make it
- 255
 - 14

256 Some farmers lost their motivation to use piped water and reverted to surface water years 257 ago when availability or cost became too challenging. Those without access to surface water 258 lose the opportunity to irrigate altogether and reduce production, losing their livelihood and 259 leaving the market to those using contaminated water. In both cases, hygiene and food safety 260 are jeopardised. Participants fear decision-makers underestimate the problem, not realising that all consumers 261 262 may be exposed to contaminated vegetables and that urban farmers' irrigation practices are 263 key. As a MoFA representative pointed out: 264 We are all at risk because we don't know what we are eating. You can go to a hotel 265 [restaurant], you don't know where they are sourcing their vegetables from, because I 266 have seen people buying at places and their vehicles packed far away. So then you 267 don't associate them with the source where they are buying these vegetables ... Now

the chemical [contaminants take time] ... but the microbial will kill you.

Through the multistakeholder dialogue, participants developed a shared understanding of the institutional barriers affecting farmers' access to piped water, bridging knowledge gaps across sectors. This process revealed how pricing policies, infrastructure limitations, and regulatory constraints shaped farmers' decisions, helping to map the system dynamics. These insights lay the foundation for participants to propose potential solutions while better accounting for their respective constraints.

275 Co-designing solutions and discussing their feasibility

Participants proposed solutions for farmers to use safer water and discussed their feasibility
based on their respective experiences and perspectives. The GWCL representative advised

278	farmers to drill boreholes for groundwater, but concerns arose over salinity risk and high
279	upfront costs. Participants noted landowners are hesitant to allow drilling, fearing installing
280	permanent infrastructure may grant farmers land rights. A farmer claimed that even if his
281	landowner agreed to a borehole, and he managed to secure the investment and treat the
282	salinity, "When, tomorrow, one big man comes for the land, where am I taking the borehole?
283	He's the one who is going to benefit!"
284	Land tenure insecurity hinders farmers' opportunity and motivation to invest in equipment
285	that would make irrigation safer, as a director of MMDA's Department of Agriculture pointed
286	out:
287	The land for farming within Accra on paper, there's a green belt. On the ground,
288	there's no green belt; it's gone. And so, my farmers understand they don't have the
289	land anymore We look at ways of intensifying productivity per unit area so that they
290	can still get something out of it for their livelihoods. They don't invest beyond that.
291	Irrigation, they'll buy pumping machines, they'll buy sprinklers [spray tubes] because
292	you can roll it up and take it away. They will not dig a borehole because it is expensive,
293	and tomorrow the landowner will come for their land.
294	Urban farmers cultivate mostly undeveloped public or customary land, typically under power
295	lines and near railway tracks and surface water (40). Families with traditional authority own
296	most of the land, while MMDAs regulate its use (41). A Land Use and Spatial Planning
297	Authority (LUSPA) representative and a University of Ghana researcher noted that a 2020 law
298	supports MMDAs in preventing unauthorised land-use changes. However, outdated plans,

- 299 land speculation, financial interests, and miscommunication hinder enforcement, leading to
- 300 rezoning de facto floodable open spaces near streams into residential areas (41).
 - 16

301	A participant proposed a piped network could supply raw water to farmers, as in other
302	countries. However, others responded that laying pipes is costly and fixing the existing
303	treated water network should be prioritised. Some suggested rainwater harvesting, but the
304	cost and space for storage between the two rainy seasons could be prohibitive.
305	Representatives of the Departments of Agriculture indicated that they favour backyard and
306	school gardening, where there is better access to land and piped water, to address the
307	demand for safer vegetables from households and schools. MoFA's Women in Agricultural
308	Development (WIAD) directorate develops educational material for this purpose.
309	Another participant suggested subsidising piped water for irrigation:
310	If we have to look at some social protection measures, we can redirect it to maybe
311	reducing the tariffs on these farmers who use potable water, and then we can pick it
312	from there [but if the rates are high, then vices will just creep in, and we won't win.
313	Some participants suggested GWCL provide an affordable tariff for farmers, as it does for
314	other businesses:
315	Ghana Water Company must just change their policy. Ghana Water can go to
316	parliament and PURC [the Public Utility Regulatory Commission] and say it's about
317	time we provide water for irrigation for our own safety and well-being And water
318	and sewage must be up and running. It's about time!
319	Interestingly, this is a rare instance in which participants acknowledged ineffective sanitation.
320	During formative interviews, most representatives outside of agriculture blamed farmers for
321	using contaminated water rather than questioning why the water had become so polluted.

322 The role of the Public Utility Regulatory Commission (PURC) is to rule on GWCL's proposed 323 new tariff structure and customer categories. PURC ratified moving from the commercial to 324 the newly created non-residential rate for any "small and medium scale non-domestic customers that use water for drinking and sanitary purposes only, including churches, 325 326 mosques, faith-based organisations, registered non-profit organisations, schools, hospitals, 327 barbering shops, welding, carpentry and allied businesses, water sellers, shops and offices 328 including firms and retailers" (PURC website, n.d.). PURC then redefined commercial 329 customers as "entities and businesses that use water as a significant input in their operations 330 other than for drinking and sanitary purposes such as hotels, restaurants, chop bars, fuel 331 stations, airports, financial institutions, washing bays, laundries, block factories, hair and 332 beauty salons and public toilets" (PURC website, n.d.). Finally, PURC approved a smaller 333 increase for non-residential customers than requested by GWCL, while exceeding GWCL's request for commercial customers. PURC's consideration that water is not a significant input 334 335 for water sellers and that public toilets do not use water for "sanitary purposes", denotes the 336 flexibility of the categorisation. These arrangements arguably aim to shield domestic 337 customers and small businesses from the major tariff increase, while relying on more affluent 338 customer categories to improve GWCL's cost recovery.

Keeping urban farmers in the commercial category does not substantially help GWCL's cost recovery but thwarts the Departments of Agriculture and Health's efforts to improve hygiene and food safety. While the government subsidises seeds and fertilisers to support the agricultural sector (43), the water tariff is a bottleneck for urban agriculture and food safety, raising public health risks. Moreover, GWCL disincentivising the use of safe water for nondrinking purposes arguably contradicts its mission to meet urban customer demand and

protect health and safety (44). Conversely, applying an affordable rate would reduce the
number of unpaid bills by farmers and illegal connections, motivate more farmers to adopt
piped water, increase GWCL revenue, and improve hygiene and food safety.

- 348 A MoFA representative suggested involving the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority
- 349 (GIDA) to share their experience with GWCL regarding farmers paying for irrigation water:
- 350 The Ghana Irrigation Development Authority ... has a way where farmers pay for
- 351 irrigation service charges ... They pay for fuel to draw water from the source ... So, I
- 352 think GIDA and the Ghana Water Company should [have] a high-level discussion so
- 353 that the two of them will see how GIDA does that for farmers ... and replicate the
- 354 same treatment down to the farmers, as far as Ghana Water Company is concerned.

GIDA was not invited to the dialogue because, during formative interviews, its representative stated that urban irrigated agriculture fell outside its scope. The representative cited the institution's lack of regulatory power, especially over informal practices. However, GIDA's experience could help GWCL work with urban farmers. Another MoFA representative noted

GIDA's collaboration with traditional authorities to secure land tenure, which could assist the

360 Municipalities in supporting urban farmers and increasing food sovereignty and safety.

GWCL's customer categorisation, MMDAs' lack of enforcement of land use regulation, and GIDA's disengagement raise the question of institutions' own capabilities, opportunities and motivations to play their part in enabling the adoption of safe practices that improve food safety and public health. GWCL and PURC may not have the motivation to apply the "nonresidential" rate to urban farmers. If this is the case, then MoFA may not have the opportunity to bring the matter to parliament, nor have the motivation to develop a strategy

to support safer urban irrigated agriculture, nor the knowledge and skills specific to urban
agriculture. Consequently, municipalities may not have the motivation and capabilities to
enforce land-use regulations, or allocate adequate resources to allow Departments of
Agriculture to support urban agriculture. A Director of a Department of Agriculture explained:
"When I went to the Municipal Assembly the first time, the budget officer didn't want to
listen to anything agriculture". Another added:
The challenge is that the voice of agriculture is not too strong, and it is not too valued

374 or recognised. Because we as a nation talk agriculture [but] we don't have agriculture

in our hearts, we don't have agriculture in our minds. Even though we say we are an

agricultural country, it's just on paper ... Our money doesn't go into agriculture.

377 Another participant gave an example:

378 You go to a farm today, tomorrow ... there's a structure there ... Everybody wants to

[buy] land, and they are paying hundreds of thousands of dollars for the land. So, the

farmers are being pushed out ... On paper, there's a green belt [in Accra] where the

land is supposed to be left for farmers to enhance the greenery, but everything is built

- 382 up, and it's high-level top politicians and big management people who sit in parliament
- and make those decisions not implementable.

384 As a MoFA representative put it:

385 It means we have to act together. ... So I think we'll have to take this to another level

386 where we can also bring up options if people are using this [water] for irrigating

vegetables within the urban space ... to safeguard the health of the consumer; it's verycrucial.

389 Similarly to Figure 3, which was presented at the start of the dialogue, the participant translates the health burden from food safety issues into economic terms and shows the dire 390 situation of Ghana compared to other countries with similar gross national income (GNI). The 391 horizontal axis represents the GNI of selected LMICs, while the vertical axis indicates 392 productivity loss from foodborne diseases. A vertical line compares the economic burden with 393 394 sanitation coverage in countries with similar GNI. In 2010, productivity loss in Ghana was more than twice that of Vietnam and four times that of Uzbekistan; their respective enhanced 395 396 sanitation coverage was 15%, 69%, and 95%. Translating the health burden from food safety, 397 especially contaminated irrigation water, into economic terms could motivate politicians to develop strategies across the agricultural, health and water sectors at local and national 398 399 levels.



- 401 Figure 3 Relative Burden of Foodborne Disease, by per Capita Income, 2010 (adapted from
- 402 Jaffee et al., 2019, p. 42)

A lack of sectoral coordination limits food safety promoters to targeting potential small
improvements by focusing on quick, in-depth changes, such as stakeholder practices. Small
gains are essential to securing farmers' commitment. However, changing practices without
changing the environment that generated them is labour- and cost-intensive for farmers,
challenging to sustain and monitor, and unlikely to improve food safety and public health at
the municipal scale. System-wide attempts to make changes easier in practice require
coordination at a high level (45,46).

410 Achievements, potential and limitations of the process

The multistakeholder dialogue successfully engaged a broad range of participants in collective learning. The COM-B framework and Companion Modelling approach allowed participants to specify underlying issues not previously addressed. These insights, along with the feedback from participants, enriched everyone's understanding of the institutional factors hindering farmers' capability, opportunity, and motivation to adopt safe practices.

416 Extending this systematic and comprehensive analysis to the entire value chain requires 417 opening the dialogue to the "extended peer community consisting of all those with a stake in 418 the dialogue on the issue" (47). Participants suggested involving institutions that had not initially been considered or identified. The dialogue occurred during office hours, which was 419 420 convenient for institutional representatives and manageable for farmers but conflicted with 421 the daily activities of vegetable traders and street food vendors, who were unable to 422 participate. Moreover, Companion Modelling is an iterative and time-consuming process 423 which may require more time than participants are willing or able to allocate, thus 424 perpetuating a status quo where the most vulnerable groups are not heard (48).

Some institutions were reluctant to engage in the process, delegating representatives who 425 426 acknowledged being uninformed about the topic or working in a position irrelevant to the 427 matter. None of the participants positioned themselves as decision-makers. Executives are less able to find time to engage in collective learning and may be more interested in 428 429 preserving their position, resulting in a disconnect between knowledge and decision-making 430 powers (49). While this limited the immediate impact of the first iteration, over time, further 431 multi-stakeholder dialogue could bridge this gap. Participants would need to comprise a 432 balanced mix of executives, managers and experts (including stakeholder representatives), 433 with interactions regular enough to foster trust and reciprocity to enable brokering 434 knowledge and policy-making (49). 435 The multistakeholder dialogue illustrated how stakeholders' adoption of safe practices 436 depends on institutions' own capabilities, opportunities and, particularly, their motivations. 437 Participants call for the urgent prioritisation of hygiene and food safety in local bylaws and national policymaking, raising the question of the political will (i.e. institutions' motivations) 438 439 and its influence on institutional capabilities and opportunities. Developing narratives that 440 connect the dialogue with institutions' value systems could motivate executives to engage or 441 delegate representatives with decision-making powers (50,51). For example, while food 442 safety along the vegetable value chain may not be at the core of GWCL priorities, and they 443 may push against farmers' use of piped water for irrigation, they might engage in a dialogue 444 that gives them the opportunity to increase their cost recovery from farmers. Neoliberal shifts 445 often lead to a marginalisation of urban agriculture, which is then perceived as a practice that 446 does not belong in the modern city (52,53). Since so many urban dwellers depend on urban 447 agriculture for their livelihoods and access to a nutritious diet, it is paramount to secure

448 strong political will at the highest level to integrate urban agriculture into urban planning for

- 449 more sustainable and safer outcomes.
- 450 Further steps include simulating current and prospective practices and arrangements,
- 451 comparing outcomes, and assessing necessary adaptations from stakeholders and
- 452 institutions. Participants could then select the combination of safe practices most suited to
- 453 their context and co-design arrangements that enable adoption by accounting for both
- 454 stakeholders' and institutions' capabilities, opportunities and motivations.

455 Conclusion

456 The multistakeholder dialogue brought actors around the table who rarely meet. It clarified 457 for all participants the misalignment between institutions' strategies and farmers' realities. To enhance hygiene and food safety, Departments of Agriculture and Health seek to motivate 458 459 farmers to use piped water for irrigation. However, to improve cost recovery, the water utility 460 implements tariffs that restrict farmers' opportunity to use piped water. Moreover, the 461 municipalities' failure to enforce land use regulations limits farmers' opportunities and 462 motivation to secure alternative safe water resources. These institutional barriers threaten 463 farmers' livelihoods, undermine food safety and perpetuate public health risks. Participants 464 suggest collaboration between the water utility, the regulatory authority, the irrigation 465 authority, and their respective parent ministries to offer farmers an affordable rate. 466 Such open discussion allows participants to diagnose stakeholders' capability, opportunity, 467 and motivation needs more extensively than interviews. Combining the COM-B framework

468 with the Companion Modelling participatory approach enables participants to bridge

469 knowledge gaps caused by sectoral silos and top-down approaches, broadening discussion

- 470 beyond generic needs for education and training, incentives and sanctions. Together,
- 471 stakeholders can identify actors, resources and interactions previously overlooked, leading to
- 472 participants developing a shared understanding of each other's perspectives. The dialogue
- 473 makes explicit how institutions' objectives and constraints may hinder stakeholders'
- 474 opportunity and motivation to adopt safe practices. Such open discussion lays the foundation
- 475 for co-designing arrangements that better account for stakeholders' and institutions'
- 476 capabilities, opportunities and motivations.

477 Declaration of competing interest

- 478 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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484 Data availability

485 Data will be made available on request.

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486 Authors contributions

	Conceptualisation	Methodology	Supervision	Investigation	Facilitation	Formal analysis	Validation	Visualisation	Writing - Original draft	Writing – review and editing
D G	Х	Х		Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	х
R S	Х	Х	Х							Х
K G	Х	Х	Х							х
P A					Х		Х			Х

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Figure 2



JMP, Sanitation service levels, national coverage in 2010 (consulted 2024)

Figure 3