<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Ghana: Some Characteristics</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Population:</strong> 24 million (2011 estimate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Area:</strong> 238,538 sq. km. (About 92,100 sq. mi.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main languages:</strong> English (official), Akan, Mole-Dagbani, Ewe, Ga-Adangbe, Guan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political system:</strong> presidential representative democratic republic in which the president is head of state and head of government; a multi-party system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President Evans Attah Mills, sworn in 7 January 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2011 Human Development Index:</strong> 135th of 187 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2011 Ibrahim Index of African Governance</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall score: 66 of 100, 7th of 53 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and Rule of Law: 72 marks, 6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation and Human Rights: 69 marks, 4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Economic Opportunity: 53 marks, 16th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Development: 70 marks, 12th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transparency International:</strong> 87th of 187 countries (4.1 of 10, the highest possible score)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main sectors of the economy:</strong> agriculture, forestry and fishing, mining, oil and gas, manufacturing, energy, services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main natural resource:</strong> gold, timber, industrial diamonds, bauxite, manganese, salt, limestone, crude oil and natural gas, rivers for hydroelectric power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic growth rate:</strong> an estimated 5.9% in 2010 (up from 4.7% in 2009)</td>
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<td>AAP</td>
<td>Affirmative Action Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACS</td>
<td>Affiliated Computer Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>ADB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>ADPE</td>
<td>Accelerated Development Plan for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AESC</td>
<td>Architectural Engineering Services Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALP</td>
<td>Alternative Livelihood Projects</td>
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<tr>
<td>APPLE</td>
<td>Association of People for Practical Life Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APRM</td>
<td>The Africa Peer Review Mechanism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPEMS</td>
<td>Budget and Public Expenditure Management System</td>
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<tr>
<td>BPO</td>
<td>Business Process Outsourcing</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHPS</td>
<td>Community-based Health Planning and Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHRAJ</td>
<td>Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIF</td>
<td>Community Investment Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLU</td>
<td>Child Labour Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>COCOBOD</td>
<td>Ghana Cocoa Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>Convention on the Right of the Child</td>
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<td>CRS</td>
<td>Catholic Relief Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSEF</td>
<td>Convention on the Sexual Exploitation of Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisation</td>
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<td>Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme</td>
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<td>Civil Service Reform Programme</td>
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<td>CSU</td>
<td>Customer Service Units</td>
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<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>District Assembly</td>
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<td>DANIDA</td>
<td>Danish International Development Agency</td>
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<td>DISEC</td>
<td>District Security Council</td>
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<td>DOVVSU</td>
<td>Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit</td>
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<td>District Peace Advisory Councils</td>
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<td>Early Childhood Care and Development Policy</td>
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<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>ECPAT</td>
<td>End Child Prostitution and Pornography</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
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<td>EIB</td>
<td>Employment Information Bureau</td>
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<td>Environmental Protection Agency</td>
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<td>Economic Recovery Programme</td>
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<td>ESP</td>
<td>Education Strategy Plan</td>
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<td>ESPRR</td>
<td>Education Sector Policy Review Report</td>
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<td>ESR</td>
<td>Education Sector Review</td>
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<td>Education Sector Reform</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FC</td>
<td>Forestry Commission</td>
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<td>FCO</td>
<td>Foreign and Commonwealth Office</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education</td>
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<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
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<td>FTS</td>
<td>Free The Slaves</td>
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<td>Ghana Bar Association</td>
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<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Examination</td>
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<td>GDO</td>
<td>Gender Desk Office</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<tr>
<td>GEA</td>
<td>Ghana Employers Association</td>
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<td>GEF</td>
<td>Global Environmental Facility</td>
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<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
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<td>GEU</td>
<td>Girls’ Education Unit</td>
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<td>GHS</td>
<td>Ghana Health Service</td>
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<td>GNA</td>
<td>Ghana News Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNCC</td>
<td>Ghana National Commission on Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNCRC</td>
<td>Ghana National Coalition on the Rights of the Child</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoG</td>
<td>Government of Ghana</td>
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<td>GPRS</td>
<td>Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy</td>
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<td>GRB</td>
<td>Gender Responsive Budgeting</td>
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<td>GREDA</td>
<td>Ghana Real Estate Development Association</td>
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<td>GSFP</td>
<td>Ghana School Feeding Programme</td>
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<td>GTUC</td>
<td>Ghana Trades Union Congress</td>
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<td>GTZ</td>
<td>German Technical Cooperation</td>
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<td>HIPC</td>
<td>Highly Indebted Poor Countries</td>
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<td>HIRD</td>
<td>High Impact Rapid Delivery</td>
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<tr>
<td>IANSA</td>
<td>International Action Network on Small Arms</td>
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<td>IATT</td>
<td>International Arms Trade Treaty</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICI</td>
<td>International Cocoa Initiative</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
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<td>IFC</td>
<td>International Finance Corporation</td>
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<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organisation for Migration</td>
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<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
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<td>ITN</td>
<td>Insecticide Treated Nets</td>
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<td>JICA</td>
<td>Japan International Cooperation Agency</td>
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<td>KNRG</td>
<td>Kwame Nkrumah Revolutionary Guards</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAP</td>
<td>Land Administration Project</td>
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<td>LAWA</td>
<td>Leadership and Advocacy for Women in Africa</td>
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<td>LED</td>
<td>Local Economic Development</td>
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<td>LTU</td>
<td>Large Taxpayers Unit</td>
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<td>MDA</td>
<td>Ministries Departments Agencies</td>
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<td>MDBS</td>
<td>Multi Donor Budget Support</td>
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<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MFJ</td>
<td>Movement for Freedom and Justice</td>
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<td>Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency</td>
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<td>MMMDA</td>
<td>Metropolitan Municipal and District Assemblies</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MoU</td>
<td>Memorandum of Understanding</td>
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<td>Ministry of Public Sector Reform</td>
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<td>MSSP</td>
<td>Mining Sector Support Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTEF</td>
<td>Medium Term Expenditure Framework</td>
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<td>NADMO</td>
<td>National Disaster Management Organisation</td>
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<td>NBSSI</td>
<td>National Board for Small Scale Industries</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCD</td>
<td>National Commission on Democracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPAD</td>
<td>New Partnership for Africa’s Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>NFP</td>
<td>National Focal points</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLC</td>
<td>National Liberation Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPC</td>
<td>National Population Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPC</td>
<td>National Peace Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPP</td>
<td>New Patriotic Party</td>
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<td>NRC</td>
<td>National Redemption Council</td>
</tr>
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<td>NRG</td>
<td>Non-Resident Ghanaians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYEP</td>
<td>National Youth Employment Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHCS</td>
<td>Office of the Head of the Civil Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>OPEC</td>
<td>Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>OPIC</td>
<td>Overseas Private Investment Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVCP</td>
<td>Orphan and Vulnerable Children’s Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARDIC</td>
<td>Public Administration Restructuring and Decentralization Implementation</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCASED</td>
<td>Programme for Coordination &amp; Assistance for Security &amp; Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMMC</td>
<td>Precious Minerals Marketing Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNDC</td>
<td>Provisional National Defence Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>Public-Private Partnership</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSI</td>
<td>Private Sector Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>USERMOS</td>
<td>Public Sector Modernization Strategy</td>
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<td>RCC</td>
<td>Regional Coordinating Council</td>
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<td>RCH</td>
<td>Reproductive and Child Health</td>
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<td>RMC</td>
<td>Redeployment Management Committee</td>
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<td>RPAC</td>
<td>Regional Peace Advisory Council</td>
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<td>SAP</td>
<td>Structural Adjustment Programme</td>
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<td>SAWL</td>
<td>Small Arms and Light Weapons</td>
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<td>SFO</td>
<td>Serious Fraud Office</td>
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<td>SHC</td>
<td>State Housing Corporation</td>
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<td>SSNIT</td>
<td>Social Security National Insurance Trust</td>
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<tr>
<td>STEP</td>
<td>Skills Training and Employment Placement</td>
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<td>STI</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Infections</td>
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<td>STME</td>
<td>Science Technology and Mathematics Education</td>
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<td>SWAP</td>
<td>Sector Wide Approach</td>
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<td>TALF</td>
<td>Touch A Life Foundation</td>
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<td>TBA</td>
<td>Traditional Birth Attendants</td>
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<td>TCO</td>
<td>Transnational Criminal Organisation</td>
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<td>Tema Development Corporation</td>
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<td>Transnational Organised Crime</td>
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<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Education</td>
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<td>UDHR</td>
<td>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</td>
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<td>UKBA</td>
<td>United Kingdom Border Agency</td>
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<td>United nations</td>
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<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNPoA</td>
<td>United Nations Programme of Action</td>
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<td>UPC</td>
<td>Universal Primary Completion</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>WAAF</td>
<td>West Africa AIDS Foundation</td>
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<td>WASC</td>
<td>West Africa School Certificate</td>
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<td>WASSCE</td>
<td>West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Ghana’s journey towards nationhood has included experiences with democratically elected governments and repressive military governments. Although military rule makes up the majority of its 54 years as an independent sovereign government, today the country stands out in the sub-region and the continent for its democratic governance. The 1992 Constitution is the Supreme Law of the Fourth Republic of Ghana. Its presidential system of government upholds the principle of separation of powers among the executive, the legislature and the judiciary.

Ghana is a member of the United Nations as well as regional and sub-regional bodies. It is a signatory to a number of international conventions and protocols and has contributed significantly to the debate on many global issues. These international conventions and protocols have acquired national perspectives as they have been translated into various acts of parliament and other legislative instruments in Ghana.

Critical to the success of democratic governance in Ghana is its electoral system, which maintains an independent electoral commission and a legal framework that upholds partisan political activities in the country. In recent years, the system has successfully supervised four successful consecutive elections, witnessing two peaceful transfers of power from an incumbent government to an opposition party.

Ghana can be described as a nation of diversities – ethnic, religious, cultural – that holds itself as a unified entity. Central to this value of unity in diversity are constitutional provisions guaranteeing individual liberties in freedom of speech, religion and association and the respect of rule of law.

At the same time, like most developing and under-developed countries, Ghana has faced difficulties in its socio-economic transformation. Ghana maintains cordial relations with its three neighbouring countries. Although the nation remains relatively stable and peaceful, incidents of intra-communal violence have left many dead and some displaced. Other challenges include organised crime, such as human and drug trafficking and arms trade.

The country is rich in minerals and other national resources and the discovery of oil in commercial quantities places the country among the oil producing nations of the world. The challenge is how to manage these resources effectively and sustainably in order to ensure an equitable distribution of the wealth accruing from it to the citizenry.

The machinery of government is driven by the civil service, which had its beginnings during the times of the colonial administration of the country. The service has undergone a number of restructuring and reforms since then and the current institutional reforms aim to further enhance the working environment and augment the capacity of the human resources in order for the service to discharge government business more effectively.

Much of the effort at ensuring good governance and the effective management of the country’s resources is undermined by institutionalised and systemic corruption in several areas. A number of measures have been put in place to deal with the issue of corruption. Among these are a number of legislative instruments in financial management and government procurement as well
as the setting up of institutions such as the Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) and the Serious Fraud Office.

The welfare of women and children has been of particular concern to the government as evidenced by the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs, which seeks to protect these vulnerable groups from abuse, including child slavery, trafficking, prostitution and pornography. The country is signatory to a number of relevant international conventions and has passed local legislation to address many of these issues. Positive developments concerning children include policies such as the Free Compulsory Basic Education and health policies directly related to the welfare of the Ghanaian child. However, women remain marginalised in a number of sectors in the country, including public administration and politics. Greater efforts should be made to involve women in the governance and economic life of the country.

Ghana has had to deal with displaced persons caught up in natural disasters and intra-community violence. Internationally, the country has responded to crises such as refugee situations, for example, hosting thousands of Liberian refugees when civil war broke out in the country about two decades ago.

The challenges identified above, although not peculiar to Ghana alone as a developing nation, must be addressed to ensure stability and progress. The country should see to the strict enforcement of the number of legislative instruments and regulatory frameworks in the statute books formulated to address these problems.

**Economic Governance and Management**

The purpose of economic governance and management is to foster the adoption of policies, standards and practices that lead to the attainment of both Ghana’s development objectives. The New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) framework document and other regional codes and regulations are geared towards the promotion and improvement of governance in participating countries, and thus promote the practice of economic governance. This paper holds that economic governance and management is critical for the attainment of sustainable economic and social development as it promotes economic policy formulation and implementation.

The report lists the macroeconomic policies that are consistent with NEPAD objectives of sustainable development and support Ghana’s sustainable development. It then analyses the economic policies, their implementation and progress. Challenges confronting the smooth implementation of sound economic management policies are discussed with reference to the legislative and fiscal systems implementation process. Key focus areas of concern relate to strengthening planning and implementation processes at all stages of national economic policies.

This report assesses the extent to which Ghana has signed, ratified and complied with the codes and standards of the normative framework and highlights key issues to be considered for improvement and to deepen economic governance and management. Thus this report is intended to facilitate economic governance processes, and advocate that the promotion of sound economic policies in a transparent manner are critical in ensuring the attainment of Ghana’s sustainable development objectives.
Corporate Governance

The concept of corporate governance is concerned with issues of revenue growth and arrangements through which corporations render accountability to stakeholders. A system in itself, corporate governance plays the role of directing, controlling and demanding accountability of corporations both in the private and public sector. Key principles governing good corporate governance, which also ensures higher financial investment, are discipline, transparency, independence, accountability, responsibility, fairness and social responsibility. Good corporate governance supports economic development by promoting the efficient use of resources and by creating conditions that attract both domestic and foreign investment.

Recognizing the importance of good corporate governance, Heads of State and Government of the participating states adopted objectives and a number of codes and standards to guide corporate governance reform in Africa. For Ghana, these codes exist within the framework of laws, regulations, rules, guidelines, and voluntary codes. The Government of Ghana through the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA) have organized capacity building programmes on international accounting and audit standards among others to advocate for committees to implement and monitor these standards and codes.

It is generally agreed that economic activities in Ghana are dominated by the informal sector, which employs about 80% of the workforce. The SME sector have increasingly become important in Ghana’s economy thus has been one of the major areas of concern to policy makers in an attempt to accelerate economic growth. Despite the potential role SMEs play to accelerate growth and job creation in Ghana, a number of factors affect their potential to fully perform. These activities include regulatory constraints, lack of capital, lack of managerial skills, equipment and technology, regulatory issues, competition with larger firms and access to international markets.

In promoting the adoption of codes of good business ethics in Ghana, a number of actions have been taken by the state. A consumer protection policy has been developed to be enacted into the Consumer Protection Law, the implementation of corruption related laws, coordination among state commissions to provide independent assertion of the state of public funds towards the attainment of development goals. Institutions such as the Ghana Stock Exchange, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Ghana Export Promotion Council, the Association of Ghana Industries, Private Enterprise Foundation, Africa Asia Business Association to mention but a few all provide information on corporations in the private and public sectors of Ghana to improve their management.

This report reveals a significant milestone in Ghana’s quest to promote good corporate governance as visualised by NEPAD. The report documents a number of corporate governance practices in Ghana and establishes the extent to which such practices promote and affect transactions in business. The report also documents some weaknesses in corporate governance practices in Ghana thus a call to correct these shortfalls.

Socio-economic Governance

Ghana took remarkable steps to address the country’s socio-economic problems in the early years of independence, rolling out education, health care, housing and employment programmes anchored in improved agriculture and industrialization.
However, wild fluctuations in the price of the country’s main export crop, cocoa, in 1965, made it difficult for the country to meet set targets. Years of political instability coupled with flawed economic policies led to a steady deterioration in the country’s economic fortunes and sharp declines in standards of living in the mid-1970s.

While a military coup in 1981 ushered in a long period of political stability, an Economic Reform Programme (ERP), undertaken in 1983, with the backing of loans from the World Bank and the IMF, and with emphasis on making public service leaner, removing subsidies, liberalizing prices and ensuring cost recovery in the delivery of social services, marked a slow and painful revival of the economy.

A number of national policy papers have been produced since the ERP but the most comprehensive development policy framework, with a significant national ownership and a system for tracking policy interventions, was the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy, GPRS-I, launched in 2003. This was followed by the GPRS-II in 2006.

Since their introduction, these medium policy frameworks have progressively contributed to guiding the allocation of resources. Monitoring of the GPRS I and II is done annually and published as the Annual Progress Reports (ARS) by the National Development Planning Commission with the active involvement of national inter-agency poverty monitoring groups, independent experts and civil society activists.

While the APRs have been helpful in recording progress as well as shortcomings in the implementation of medium term policy frameworks, assessing the country’s socio economic development on targets set in the GPRS alone does not fully capture the broad context within which developments have taken place in the country. There is a general agreement among a number of reviewers of Ghana’s socio-economic development (UNDP, 2008, APRM 2005, UNICEF, among others) that the country is doing well on social indicators such as access to education, health and other basic services.

Although Ghana has recorded significantly high rates of economic growth since 2003, macroeconomic performance, a major goal of the development frameworks has been inconsistent thus posing a potential risk to the socio-economic successes. The inconsistency has been attributed to the difficulty of exercising fiscal prudence to ensure that expenditure and income are aligned (APRM Panel of Eminent Persons, 2005).

A number of assessments have also noted the structure of the economy has not changed substantially as it continues to be largely dependent on agriculture (40% of GDP) which is constrained by low-productivity farming practices, poor infrastructure, land tenure uncertainties, gender inequities and uncertain access to inputs. Traditional exports – cocoa, gold and other natural resources – still account for almost half of GDP while the industrial sector remains relatively small and foreign direct investment relatively low for an economy of Ghana’s potential.

The Methodological Approach of the Report

The report is largely based on a desk study of secondary sources of information, including Internet sources, on the four thematic areas of the Governance Monitoring Framework: democracy and political governance; economic governance and management; corporate
governance, and socio-economic governance. The body of literature that formed the substance of the individual reports of the team members included relevant national legislation on the thematic issues, the Constitution of the Republic and a number of international Treaties, Conventions and Protocols that underpin the various modules under the four thematic areas of the monitoring process. In some of the thematic areas, the desk studies were complemented by primary sources, mainly interviews with officials of the relevant ministries, departments and agencies. This research aimed at seeking clarifications on issues raised in the secondary information sources or to check the veracity of some of the facts adduced in the secondary data.
I. DEMOCRACY AND POLITICAL GOVERNANCE

By Mark Owusu Yeboah

Objective 1: Prevent and reduce intra- and inter-state conflict

Inter- and Intra-State Conflicts

The current image of Ghana as a land of peace and stability is worthy of note. Compared to its neighbours, Ghana seems to be enjoying a period of relative stability. The country has been described by many as an “island of peace”, a description that can be attributed to nearly two decades of constitutional and democratic rule that has put the country on the pedestal of stable and peaceful countries in West Africa. The Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) Report commends the government of Ghana for practicing good governance. However underneath this peace and harmony are political and ethnic tensions that have often exploded into violent conflicts. These conflicts, which are mostly intra and inter-ethnic in nature, have brought untold hardships to many people and led to the destruction of property and infrastructure.

The conflicts have been attributed to social exclusion, disputes around scarce resources, chieftaincy, religion and generalised poverty. As a country mostly dependent on agriculture, the issues of land distribution, accessibility and ownership of land have been at the root of many conflicts. The struggle for power and recognition has turned the age-long respected chieftaincy institution into a symbol of conflict in many traditions. Northern Ghana, especially, has become a theatre for chieftaincy related conflicts. It must however be stated that the government, in collaboration with civil society organisations (CSOs), has managed to restore stability in most of the tension zones. However as the root causes of these conflicts are often structural, there is still more to be done at the policy level to resolve the conflicts in order to build durable peace.

Dynamics of Conflict Situation

An analysis of conflict situations in the country identifies about six specific areas that they are linked to. These include violence related to:

- Political parties;
- Religious intolerance,
- Sporting activities,
- Isolated violent incidents in crime related events
- Communal violence often related to chieftaincy or contentions over resources such as land or water sources, and
- Youthful excesses such as violence occurring in educational institutions

The country has witnessed violent incidents, especially communal violence in some areas. These include disturbances in Bawku in the Upper East region of the country involving the Kusaasi and the Mamprusi tribes and the Anlo case in the Volta Region. There have been long-standing differences between the Mampruis and the Kusaasis over chieftaincy and land issues. Though the case has been adjudicated on a number of occasions in the courts and judgments given, the differences still persist and occasionally erupt into violent conflicts in the communities. The Anlo’s case is related to a dispute over who should ascend the stool as
“Awoamefia”. Lives have been lost and properties destroyed, while some people had to flee the area to take refuge in surrounding towns. The resultant effect is the slowdown of economic activities in the areas concerned and the polarisation of the area along factional lines.

Life and property are often threatened in these areas and a lot of resources that could have been channelled into development are spent in the conflict zones to maintain peace and order. Violence associated with political party activities has been quite limited and seems to suggest some political tolerance and understanding so far among the various parties. It is common knowledge that the principal victims of this civil strife are civilians, especially women and children. Beyond the toll of death and destruction, these conflicts leave behind legacies of deep and enduring political, social, and psychological wounds. Undoubtedly, the possible intensification of such conflicts can be a major obstacle to sustainable people-centered development.

Factors in conflict situations in Ghana are varied and intertwined and it is usually difficult to delineate clearly or weigh the influence of different elements. These range from destabilising social conditions such as extreme social disparities and exclusion, to lack of appropriate mechanism for the peaceful conciliation of differing interests within the society. Notwithstanding the diversity of the causes and escalators of conflict, almost all the conflict situations identifiable in the country may relate to any one of the following:

- Tensions between migrants and indigenous communities over land rights;
- Competition over resources particularly land and mineral wealth
- Significant communal violence associated with chieftaincy disputes
- Conflicting land uses – mining and agriculture
- Protracted inter-village violence usually occasioned by disputes over land ownership;
- Conflicts associated with political and religious allegiances.
- General climate of lawlessness creating tensions in communities

There are various phases through which these conflicts have moved within the areas and for any one of the situations identified above, it is possible to associate it with a particular stage in its evolution. The following categories outline the various phases that each of these conflicts could be associated with.

- Situations of submerged/subdued tensions
- Situations of rising tensions
- Eruption phases of open confrontation and violent conflicts
- Fragile transitional situation
- Post conflict situations

Reconstruction, reconciliation and rehabilitation

Conflict situations in the country have left the destruction of properties and loss of lives in their wake. In the Bawku conflict in the Upper East Region, people’s house, cars and other properties were destroyed in the exchanges. There was mass exodus of people who believed their lives were endangered in the conflict zone. The immediate reaction of the national security apparatus was to separate the feuding parties, restore peace in the area while lasting solutions were found to the problem. There has been the need for a massive security presence to avert any further clashes in the area. A curfew approved by Parliament enabled the security apparatus to adequately contain the volatile situation. Heavy police presence maintained the uneasy calm, particularly when the curfew was imposed.
Conflicts areas are normally designated as disaster zones and the National Disaster Management Organisation (NADMO) leads in efforts at rehabilitating the affected victims. Some of their activities have included the provision of building materials for victims to rehabilitate their burnt down buildings as well as the supply of some basic personal effects such as blankets, mattresses etc to ease the pains of the loss of such items in the conflicts. Other well-meaning agencies, non-governmental organisations have also had the presence of mind to assist to return life to normalcy in the areas.

**ECOWAS Treaty on Peace and Security**

Article 58 of the revised treaty, which provides for regional security, contains the undertaking of member states to work to safeguard and consolidate relations conducive to the maintenance of peace, stability and security within the region. Article 58 is the organisational legal foundation for conflict prevention, management and resolutions in the sub-region. It provides for various aspects of conflict prevention, management, peace keeping and peace building. The article further provides that details relating to the provisions governing political cooperation, regional peace and stability are defined in the protocol.

In pursuit of these objectives, member states undertake to co-operate with the Community in establishing and strengthening appropriate mechanisms for the timely prevention and resolution of intra-state and inter-states conflicts, paying particular regards to the need to:

- Maintain periodic and regular consultations between national borders and administrative authorities;
- Establish local or national joint commissions to examine any problems encountered in relations between neighbouring states;
- Encourage exchanges and co-operations between communities, townships and administrative regions;
- Employ, where appropriate, good offices, conciliation, mediation and other methods of peaceful settlement of disputes;
- Establish a regional peace and security observation system and peace keeping force where appropriate;
- Provide, where necessary, and at the request of member states, assistance to member states for the observation of democratic election.

**A National Architecture for Peace in Ghana**

The national architecture for peace is the first official national level programme for peace building in Africa. It is in consonance with the Resolution of African leaders at the First Standing Conference on Stability, Security and Development in Africa, in Durban in 2002, for each country to establish a national framework for the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts by December 2004. The myriads of conflicts tend to threaten Ghana’s democratic dispensation. The country’s responses to these conflicts have, at best, been reactive.

In the light of the above the national vision is to have a country characterised by a dynamic environment where people can engage in their lawful activities confident that the institutions, mechanisms and capacities for mediating differences and grievance are effective and responsive. The broad policy objective for this Framework is to enable and facilitate the development of mechanisms for cooperation among all the relevant stakeholders in peace building in Ghana by promoting cooperative problem solving to conflicts and by
institutionalizing the processes of response to conflicts to produce outcomes that lead to conflict transformation, social, political and religious reconciliation and transformative dialogues.

Specific objectives:
1. The specific objectives of the framework are:
2. To harmonise peace building activities in Ghana through networking and coordination
3. To strengthen the capacity of peace building institutions and practitioners
4. To increase awareness of the use of non-violent strategies in responding to conflicts in Ghana
5. To develop a conflict prevention framework in Ghana that will monitor, report and offer indigenous perspectives, understanding and solutions to conflicts in Ghana.
6. To develop national and inter-group understanding about the values of reconciliation, tolerance, trust and confidence building, mediation and dialogue as responses to conflict.
7. To build the capacity of chiefs, women and youth groups, civil society, community organisations and other groups to participate meaningfully in promoting and maintaining peace in their communities.

The management of public order and safety is vested in the Ministry of Interior. The framework is therefore issued by the Minister of Interior with the approval of the Cabinet, with a view to institutionalising a process of pro-active responses to conflicts and to transform them into peaceful outcomes before they become violent. The national architecture for peace is therefore a framework for peace-building and for the amicable resolution of all conflicts in Ghana. The architecture for peace has the following components:

1. Structures for peace-building and the resolution of conflicts.
2. Institutionalising a culture of peace.
3. Strengthening the media as spaces for public conversations and debates on the salient issues of the day, so that all voices could be heard.
4. Prevention and control of small arms and light weapons, and promoting alternative livelihoods.
5. Building the capacity of executive institutions to manage grievance and differences.

*Structures for peace-building and the resolution of conflicts*

The structure for consolidating the country’s stability and resolving conflicts is as follows:

a. The District Assemblies (DAs) shall establish District Peace Advisory Councils (DPACs). The DPACs shall be composed of representatives of identified groups and stakeholders including chiefs within the district giving due regard to gender and youth. The stakeholders shall nominate their own representatives to the DPAC. The DPAC members shall elect their chairperson. The principle underlying the work of DPACs is volunteerism – people coming together to protect the stability and peace in their communities. The work of DPACs shall be to promote peace within the district, create and/or facilitate spaces for dialogue between groups and communities and for the exchange of ideas on issues that may threaten peace and stability within the community; engage in confidence and trust building activities between groups and communities in conflict within the District; promote tolerance building and to provide strategic advise and early warning on potential threats to the peace and stability of the communities.
Meetings of DPAC’s shall be held whenever the members consider necessary and/or on the request of the District Security Council (DISEC).

b. Regional Coordinating Councils (RCC) shall establish Regional Peace Advisory Councils (RPACs). The composition and mandate of RPAC’s shall be similar to DPAC’s and shall include mediating inter-district conflicts or conflicts among groups that are across districts, conflicts among interest groups including political actors within the Region. RPAC’s shall further engage in public education, sensitisation and awareness about conflict indicators within the Region and how to ameliorate them. They shall facilitate the organisation of sports and economic activities that build friendships, promote trust and goodwill between communities in conflict; organise training and other capacity building programmes for the DPACs and regular meetings with DPACs for experience sharing and knowledge management. They shall further support the Regional government and the Regional Security Council in defusing tension and facilitating the non-violent resolution of conflicts within the Region. The RPAC shall coordinate the work of all DPAC’s within the Region. Volunteerism is also a core principle of the work of the RPAC’s.

c. National Peace Council. A National Peace Council (NPC) has been inaugurated by the President. Members of the NPC were nominated by a broad range of identified stakeholders and groups including political organisations within the country. The members elect their own chairperson. The NPC promotes the peaceful resolution of conflicts at all levels of government, and work to build inter-group trust and confidence. It creates spaces for dialogue between national actors and interest groups, and engages in negotiation, mediation, reconciliation and other related processes with groups, and organisations in conflict with a view to their non-violent resolution. It does not intervene in chieftaincy conflicts unless expressly invited to do so, either by the parties or by the respective house of chiefs. It makes recommendations to governments and other stakeholders on actions to promote trust and confidence between groups, as well as on the implementation of agreements reached in the resolution of any conflicts. It also monitors the implementation of such agreements and resolutions and provides strategic advice to governments and other stakeholders on consolidating the country’s stability and preventing conflicts. The underlying principle in the work of the NPC is volunteerism.

The National Peace Council coordinates the work of all Regional and District Peace Advisory Councils, and organises meetings with them as often as it deems necessary. For this purpose, the members of the NPC may allocate certain regions or districts to themselves as areas of responsibility and charged with ensuring the non-violent resolution of conflicts in the specified regions and districts. The members of the NPC are distinguished Ghanaians, without blemish and well trained in facilitating dialogues, negotiation, mediation, conciliation and reconciliation, tolerance, trust and confidence building. The work of the NPC is guided by bipartisanship and independence and it may appoint special representatives from within or outside its members to any conflict spots in the country upon terms that will lead to a mitigation of violence in the conflict and/or its resolution. The NPC has a secretariat with the appropriate number of staff to provide technical and secretarial support to the work of the Council.

The government shall propose legislation to Parliament for the purpose of making the structures for peace permanent. The legislation shall spell out the duties and functions of the councils, and their relationship to other existing bodies and institutions, the functions of which institutions can complement those of the structures for peace.
Management

In terms of the management of the process, the following has been proposed.

a. There shall be appointed for each Region and District, Regional and District Peace Promotion Officers (PPO) respectively.
b. The PPOs shall be appointed by the Ministry of Interior on the recommendation of the respective Regional Coordinating Councils and District Assemblies respectively.
c. The PPOs shall be persons of integrity and without political bias or other affiliation.
d. The PPOs shall work full time in the service of the Region or the District and shall serve as chief advisors on conflict prevention to the regional and district administrations.
e. The PPOs shall make technical resources available to the Regional and District administrations and all stakeholders within the Region or District for the resolution of conflicts. They shall avail themselves to all groups within the Region/District who request their services and shall support them in resolving/transforming conflicts or mitigating violence. They shall be persons trained and well versed in conflict analysis, negotiation, conciliation, mediation and reconciliation as well in building trust and confidence among groups.
f. The Regional and District administrations shall provide furnished office accommodation for the PPOs.
g. The PPO’s shall facilitate civil society involvement in peace building within the Region/District, as well as the collation of data on potential conflicts within the Region/District

A Peace Building Support Unit (“Department of Peace”)

This is created within the Ministry of Interior. The Unit serves as the government counterpart for facilitating the work of the peace councils. The Unit liaises with the National, Regional and District governments, the National, Regional and District Peace Councils, and the Peace Promotion Officers in ensuring that a structured and coordinated approach to resolving conflicts within the country is adopted. In addition, the Unit shall establish an early warning and analysis section, which shall collate information from the security agencies, all district and regional administrations as well as the peace councils on potential conflict causative, triggering and perpetuating factors, and using appropriate indicators developed for the purpose, analyse the information and provide advisories to the Minister of Interior, the central, regional and district governments or to any agency or organ of government, the peace councils, or to the appropriate institution or organisation for the necessary response.
The Unit shall facilitate the provision of support from the relevant national government agency or institution for the work of the peace councils and PPOs and shall serve as a think tank to the government on peace-building and conflict resolution issues generally, providing cutting edge perspectives and drawing attention to critical areas of need. The Unit shall also liaise with the various houses of chiefs with a view to avoiding duplication and in appropriate cases providing support to the houses of chiefs to ensure that the conflicts within their jurisdictions are finally resolved.

Reporting

The Minister of the Interior ensures that every year, the Ministry publishes a report on the State of Peace in Ghana, highlighting the interventions to resolve conflicts across the country, successes, failures, challenges and lessons learned. The report is widely disseminated. It must be noted that success stories in resolving conflicts can act as catalysts for other groups in
conflict that their own conflicts could also be resolved. The PPOs also provide regular reports as may be required by the National Peace Council and provide fortnightly reports to the Peace Building Support Unit. They also provide reports as occasion may demand to the Unit, highlighting threats, challenges, opportunities and recommendations for action by the Ministry of Interior or the appropriate institution. The regional and district peace councils are autonomous, but work under the general guidance of the National Peace Council.

Institutionalising a culture of peace

The Ministry shall work with all identified partners and stakeholders to institutionalise a culture of peace. The culture of peace includes the introduction of peace education subjects at all levels of education in Ghana. This will be implemented in stages. In the first stage, the Ministry shall organise consultations and support tertiary institutions to establish diploma, undergraduate and post-graduate courses and programmes in relevant areas of peace and conflict studies. With the large numbers of Ghanaians seeking tertiary education, these programmes will be self-sustaining. What is needed is initial seed support for these consultations and to design the various programmes that could be offered as well as to identify the niches of the respective institutions.

Within a few years, this approach should hopefully produce substantial numbers of persons who can enter the public services, the security agencies, traditional administrations and non-governmental agencies and institutions and utilise their acquired knowledge to make a difference in how these institutions respond to problems. It is important to have quick wins to demonstrate that Ghana is moving towards non-violent means of resolving differences, and this can be achieved utilising this approach.

Related to this stage should be a programme to bring the academia and the community closer. Many NGO’s and other actors have tremendous experience of community peace building. At the same time, researchers at the tertiary institutions are deepening the pedagogy of the subjects and are offering critical new insights in how to solve old and emerging problems. A process of closer interaction and exchange between “town” and “gown” should mutually benefit both and is in the larger interests of our country.

The second stage is the introduction of peace education into the curricula of teacher training and secondary schools, while the third stage will be to mainstream peace education into the curricula basic schools. Given the large number of subjects being proposed to be taught to children at the basic and secondary school levels, additional consultations are needed with the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service on the modality for introducing peace education in the schools, so that the children are not overloaded. Related to this phase should be the establishment of peace clubs at all levels of education. It is also important to organise public education programmes, quizzes and competitions among schools on peace education issues.

Strengthening the Media

The media is seen as an important space for dialogue and conversation on the national development agenda. There is concern in many circles how the media is managing the freedom to own a communication medium guaranteed by the Constitution. There are no accepted standards of entry into the journalism profession and the quality of broadcasts and writings is often quite sensationalistic and has the potential to polarise the country. This component of the
architecture for peace will promote the organisation of capacity building programmes for media practitioners.

The architecture will support increased peer regulation and self-monitoring by media practitioners. It will also support the review of the broadcast code to strengthen it as the existing code is grossly inadequate to meet the challenges of today’s media. The architecture for peace will support capacity development of the National Media Commission so that it can be a more effective monitor of the work of the media. Finally, it will support the development of better operational relations between the National Media Commission and the National Communications Authority so that there is better synergy between them in the licensing and renewal of licenses of media institutions.

**International/Border Conflicts in Ghana**

Over the years, Ghana has maintained a relatively peaceful co-existence with her neighbouring countries; a situation that has facilitated the free movement of goods, services and people across their common boundaries in the spirit of the ECOWAS Protocol on the free movement of goods, services and people. However, lately, a few incidents along the nation’s common borders with her neighbouring countries have affected the tranquillity that has often characterised her international borders.

A major crude oil-induced border dispute could break out between Ghana and neighbouring Ivory Coast, if immediate steps are not taken to enter into appropriate negotiations to redefine the international boundary between the two West African nations. Ghana’s Western neighbour, Ivory Coast, is reportedly laying claims to portions of the huge oil wealth in the deep waters of the Western Region of Ghana. The news of Ivory Coast’s claim to parts of Ghana’s oil fields came just days after United States operator Vanco Energy struck oil in the deep-water Dzata-1 well, off Ghana’s Cape Three Points near Ivory Coast, further boosting the oil wealth in Ghana’s booming offshore Tano basin. Petroleum exploration firm, Vanco Ghana Limited, has dismissed suggestions that its oil field in the Western Region is at the centre of a possible boundary dispute between Ghana and the Ivory Coast. The company contends that its oilfield, known as Gyata-1, is so far away from the maritime boundary between the two countries that it cannot be the subject of any dispute.

Ghana’s Minister for Lands and Natural Resources has explained that Ghana’s boundary with Ivory Coast had not been clearly demarcated, but both countries have since long shared and respected a ‘median line’ which has served as a boundary between the two countries. However, this long shared and respected boundary changed when Ivory Coast, in its recent correspondence with the government of Ghana, indicated that it no longer respected the existing “median line” dividing the two countries, and subsequently served the United Nations with a similar correspondence.

The Minister acknowledged that the development could have serious international and diplomatic repercussions, if not handled with tact, adding that the claim by Ivory Coast was baseless, as it was not in line with certain internationally acceptable standards of determining maritime boundaries. He disclosed that in 2009, Ghana appealed to the United Nations to extend its maritime boundary by 200 nautical miles, and as a precondition, the country was directed to negotiate boundaries with its neighbours. The main preoccupation should be the need to have clarity on the maritime border demarcations to forestall future differences with Ghana.
In a move to save the situation, Ghana has begun an urgent move to pass a new law that seeks to establish the Ghana Boundary Commission to undertake negotiations to determine and demarcate Ghana’s land boundaries and de-limit Ghana’s maritime boundaries. Parliament has therefore been tasked to race against time to pass the Ghana Boundary Commission Bill under a certificate of urgency. The National Boundaries Commission expectedly would engage its neighbours in Côte d’Ivoire, with a view to negotiating maritime boundary between the two countries. Even though it is a very delicate matter, there is much confidence that Ghana and Ivory Coast will be able to resolve the matter without any conflict due to the good relations between the two countries. The government is therefore doing everything possible to avoid a full-blown international dispute with the nation’s Western neighbour.

Accordingly, the government of Ghana is in the process of fast-tracking the establishment of a National Boundary Commission, to negotiate the country’s maritime boundaries with Ivory Coast. A Bill for the institution of the Commission has since been sent to Parliament, under a certificate of urgency.

Indeed, there seems to be a “scramble” for natural resources in the “latent belt of oil” stretching from Sierra Leone eastward to Nigeria, a region that may one day become a major producer of oil. The disagreement between Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire foreshadows the sort of conflicts likely to take place in West Africa, as more oil wealth is unearthed in “marginal areas” and in countries that petroleum firms have not yet explored. As a pre-emptive measure, it is important that countries within the sub-region engage one another to ensure clearly demarcated land and maritime boundaries in order to forestall similar disputes.

In the wake of the declaration by the Electoral Commission of Ivory Coast that Mr. Alassane Ouattara had won 54% of the vote, the Ivorian military sealed the country's borders and cut international media as tensions rose over the outcome of the presidential election run-off. It came after the Constitutional Court rejected a declaration by the Electoral Commission that opposition candidate Alassane Ouattara had won. Supporters of President Laurent Gbagbo had tried to block the long-delayed result, alleging fraud in the north. The UN Security Council asked both sides to show restraint. The air, land and sea border of the country were, however, closed to all movement of people and goods, until further notice. The border with Ghana has since reopened allowing for the stream of refugees to flee from the conflict currently raging in the country.

Trade between Ghana and Burkina Faso has returned to normal following the rioting by Burkinabe soldiers in April 2011 that closed the border between the two nations. The frontier at the northern Ghanaian town of Paga and the nearby Burkinabe community of Po was closed for 24 hours between April 16 and April 17 after a mutiny by soldiers in several towns, including Po. Some Ghanaians were robbed of their money and other personal items. Since the Burkinabe government met the demands of the mutinous soldiers, calm has been restored along the border and the situation has returned to normalcy.

**Emerging new threats in the Sub-region**

Threats to the security of our nations in modern times have assumed different dimensions. Whereas inter-state conflicts, ones that involve combat operations of the military of two countries, have become fewer, there are emerging threats to the peace and security of our countries. Illegal disposal of toxic substances from yonder lands, cross border armed robbery and the exportation of banditry, piracy, spread of weaponry, refugee flow across borders and the
repercussions of security threats are some of the new challenges facing the security of the country.

Even though Ghana has, over the years succeeded in maintaining a peaceful co-existence with her neighbouring countries, it can no longer remain oblivious about the unfortunate security challenges currently fomenting in her sister nation of Nigeria. The issue of concern has to do with the terror campaign being waged by Boko Haram, the radical religious organisation which has emerged on the Nigerian scene with its stock in trade being the assassination of local politicians, community leaders and Islamic clerics who oppose the group in addition to the bombings of churches and vital national and international edifices in Nigeria. The concern about these developments is borne out of the fact that they constitute potential and major security threat not only to Nigeria but to the whole of the West African sub-region.

Ecowas is urgently implored to intervene to deal with the insurgency. Unfortunately the response of the sub-regional organisation to such political crisis in West Africa has been anything but commendable. Its leaders have been known to be quick to sign conventions and pass resolutions but have proven inept at in implementation. Ecowas protocol relating to the mechanism for conflict preventing, management, resolution peace-keeping and security’s objectives is, among other things, to prevent manage and resolve internal and interstate conflicts. Article 25 of the protocol provides that in cases of aggression or conflict in any member state or threat thereof in case of internal conflict that threatens to trigger a humanitarian disaster or that poses a serious threat to peace and security of the sub-region, the mediation and Security Council shall intervene. It is worthy of note that in spite of these articles, Ecowas is still waiting at the fringes without any directive and mechanism to deal with this insurgency.

Opinions are divided on how to effectively deal with the problem. There are those who favour the military option to suppress the uprising. Many others also opine that the combination of strategies should be pursued and that the military option should be the last. A strategy that best guarantees the prevention of conflicts in Nigeria and the continent is to address the root causes of the conflicts often fueled by identify crises, structural inequality within the society and unequal access to political power. It is important to deal with issues of corruption, the provision of the needs of the greater majority whilst the community of the ruling elite must face the economic realities of their action on the grater majority of the people.

What is happening in Nigeria should be seen as potentially disruptive of the fragile peace within the sub-region and capable of wreaking considerable havoc and devastating consequences on the states in the sub-region without any two of them being directly engaged militarily. The conflicts do not only threaten the very existence of their people but also act as a drawback to progress. Furthermore, the spill-over effects of the conflicts in Nigeria and other Ecowas states on neighbouring states and the region as a whole remain monumental. These are occurring at a time when the citizenry of these nations in the sub-region expect greater socio-economic returns from their nations after many years of independence.

For the nation Ghana, a good response to this threat is for the government to invest in the security forces to adequately resource them to meet the emerging security threats and challenges within the sub-region. Additionally, it should be recognised that security in modern time is no longer the preserve of the traditional security service. It should be a collective responsibility that includes other stakeholders and organisations like the judiciary, civil societies, among others.
Conclusion

Governance essentially is conflict management. The ability of government and its institutions to effectively mediate grievance and differences is one of the main purposes of government. When people lose faith in the ability of government to be an honest broker or to effectively manage differences, they may feel compelled to resort to other loyalties and allegiances, which purpose may be contrary to national unity and stability. It is therefore important that officers of government fully appreciate how their decision-making processes can contribute to peace building and conflict prevention. The architecture for peace strengthens the country’s role as a pacesetter in governance initiatives and follows our recent achievement of being the first country in Africa to be peer-reviewed in the context of the NEPAD Africa Peer Review Mechanism. It behoves us all therefore to support the implementation of the architecture for peace so that we can secure peace, stability and sustainable development for a long time. It is also of critical importance for the state to be wary of the new dimensions of inter-state conflicts currently evolving the sub-region and to take pragmatic steps to forestall any possible negative consequences in the country.

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Drug Trafficking

West Africa and Ghana in particular is increasingly becoming a favoured transit route or springboard for drug smugglers from South America to UK and Europe as international criminal networks exploit the region’s lack of resources to combat drug trafficking. In 2006, there was a sharp rise in the volume of cocaine transiting through West Africa to UK and Europe, primarily by cocaine “swallowers”. The use of drugs in Ghana is mainly associated with youth.

The country is believed to have been extensively penetrated by drug money, a situation that poses a threat to Ghana’s national security and erodes her reputation as a functional state. For example in 2005, about 588 kg of cocaine were seized in a raid in a house at East Legon in Accra and about 230 kg of cocaine were imported to Ghana and discharged from the vessel, MV Benjamin which docked at the Tema Harbour. Studies carried out by the United Nations indicates that the sub-region is increasingly being used by the drug cartels for processing and consumption of illicit drugs as well as money laundering, with African governments grappling with how best to face this new threat.

The Ghanaian Situation

The news media have been full of stories of Ghanaians either being arrested at the Kotoka International Airport or at airports in London and New York. Drugs trafficking cases continue to jam the law courts, crowd the prison cells, splash the pages of the press and engage the daily conversation of Ghanaians. On a regular basis, Ghanaians are arrested at the airport for having concealed drugs, either suspected cocaine or heroine, in their hair, brassieres, panties, stomach etc. Though it is not a new phenomenon in Ghana, recent developments give cause for worry. This is so because of the dimension it has taken over the past years. Swift action is needed lest the country’s image will continue to sink deep in the marshes of international drug transit trade with its embarrassing and bitter consequences. Because of such poor record, passengers arriving in London on flights from Ghana are subjected to extensive searches. However, with the vigilance and surveillance at the Kotoka Airport, people are being arrested before they board their flight either to North America or Europe, though some of these drug dealers have managed to get through. Also troubling is the recent case in which confiscated drugs went missing at the National Narcotic Control Board (NACOB). The country’s image has been further battered by the recent chain of arrests at airports. An honourable Member of Ghana’s Parliament was incarcerated in New York over alleged involvement in heroine deal. A top musician, a top model and actors have also been arrested for drug-related offences.

The drug barons usually do not have problems with recruitment of carriers from the massive army of the unemployed. Most carriers are promised free visa and tickets to the West by the drug traffickers and given ‘parcels’ containing the illegal drugs to be delivered to some unknown person(s) mainly in Europe or the USA. Though Ghana is mostly a transit point for drug trafficking, senior security officials, including members of the judiciary, are suspected
accomplices in the drug trade. Watchers of the Ghanaian judicial system revealed that the recurring decimal is that judges give judgments in drug cases that have revealed a culpable pattern. When those involved in a 675-kilo cocaine (worth $140 million at street value) heist were apprehended, the judge granted bail of $2,000.00. The Ministers of the Interior and Justice then cried foul over the matter and the suspects were not released in the long run. The erring judge who was transferred following the suspicious manner he was alleged to have handled the case, promptly resigned his position as judge.

The Roots of the Menace

Drug trafficking in West Africa is nothing more than the most visible symptom of a much deeper and destabilizing disease, which is slowly but progressively affecting the bodies of African states and institutions. Harsh economic and social conditions, widespread corruption, conflict and post conflict scenarios, porous borders, failing national administrations, and a growing culture of impunity feed the development of criminal practices in the region. The inability by State actors to systematically enforce the rule of law and guarantee the security of individuals and economic stakeholders provides the most conducive environment for the development of all sorts of criminal enterprises aimed at generating easy profits at the expense of human beings and societal security.

Wide inequality in the distribution of wealth, unchecked demographic growth associated with rapid, unplanned and often chaotic urbanization, are all features common to West African societies, and factors contributing to the increased relevance of crime and criminal activities as a viable and profitable option for breaking the cycle of poverty. The very structure of West African economies, based on exploitation of natural resources (mining or single crop export oriented agriculture), coupled with a patrimonial conception of the State, also contribute in creating an enabling environment within which disrespecting existing laws and using institutional prerogatives for private goals are not only justified, but considered as an indicator of power. All such factors also attract unscrupulous economic operators, facilitate the establishment and development of local and transnational criminal networks, and promote the rooting of a cultural model under which money can buy everything including impunity, political power, social consideration and respectability.

On the other hand, the control and regulation of cross-border activities are critical for ensuring peace and stability, and for promoting appropriate political and socio-economic activities needed to integrate West African economies. The movement of persons and goods is inevitable in undertaking these cross-border activities. Studies have shown that between 4 and 5 million ECOWAS citizens ply the highways and frontiers of the Community’s territory every month.

Combating Drugs Trafficking

Ghana has chalked great successes in combating narcotic drugs trafficking. Training programmes and intelligence work by NACOB have contributed to a decrease in the drug menace in the country. The public also is to be commended for providing information on activities of some drug barons to security officials to help curb the menace. The international community in particular have been supportive in donating items such as test kit meant to provide a proactive tool for the officers at NACOB to profile drug couriers at the airport as a means to enhancing the performance of NACOB to enable it rise up to the task of fighting drug trafficking.
The Impact of Operation Westbridge in Ghana

One major initiative to deal with the drug menace in Ghana is the institution of Operation Westbridge which is a joint exercise between the HM Revenue & Customs (now United Kingdom Border Agency, (UKBA) and the Narcotics Control Board (NACOB) of Ghana, based at Accra Kotoka International Airport. Its goal is to build Ghana’s law enforcement capacity by providing technical and operational expertise and structured training. The team focuses on “swallowers”, who attempt to reach Europe by air but include other methods of smuggling such as airfreight. This complements the activity of a seaport project at the port of Tema. UKBA deployments continue to be funded by the FCO’s Drugs & Crime Programme Fund. In addition, since February 2009, the Drugs & Crime Programme Fund has supported the secondment of a UKBA official to act as an operational and strategic mentor to NACOB.

Daily mentoring and capacity building are the key headline outcomes from this project. To put this in more tangible terms, in its first two years to November 2008, Operation Westbridge was responsible for seizing 463kgs of cocaine, 3.4 tonnes of cannabis and 1.3kgs of heroin. The project is important to the UK and Ghana because tackling drugs trafficking on arrival in the UK has proven to be costly – in terms of airport operations, staffing resources, policing and custody services. In addition, the UK suffers drugs-related crime and tackling the menace before it reaches the UK’s shores is much more cost effective.

In addition to the very obvious benefits of this project for the UK, the project has built local Ghanaian capacity and helped Ghana law enforcement agencies tackle the problem in Ghana. The project has also helped increase the perception that Ghana is a difficult places for drugs traffickers to operate, thus discouraging Ghanaians and visitors to Ghana from acting as drugs couriers. The project is also significant to the UK Government, specifically the Foreign and Commonwealth Office’s Departmental Strategic Objectives (DSO), because cocaine trafficked through West Africa now supplies 50% of the UK’s market.

The success of the Operation Westbridge model has led UKBA to seek to replicate elsewhere, and to generate other sources of funding beyond the FCO. The project has put the UK at the forefront of global drugs interdiction, and it is hoped other governments and European law enforcement agencies might adopt similar models in collaboration with the UK.

Recommendations

Put in place robust policing and enforcement. According to Section 1 of the Narcotics (Control, Enforcement and Sanctions) Law, 1990, any person found guilty of importing or exporting narcotic drugs without a license will spend no less than ten years in prison. Any person found guilty of the unlawful manufacture or distribution of narcotic drugs in Ghana is liable on conviction to a term of imprisonment of not less than two years. However, laws without law-enforcement are powerless. Improved policing would allow for a comprehensive clampdown on illicit drug dealers.

Put in place effective border control mechanisms. Accra's Kotoka International Airport is increasingly a focus for traffickers, with similar activity all-too-apparent at ports in Tema and Sekondi. Border posts at Aflao (Togo) and Elubo and Sampa in Cote DIvoire see significant drug trafficking activity.
Launch a zero-tolerance approach to law enforcement. Drug dealers must know that the laws that are in place will be acted upon; and government must ensure that this is the case. Laws must not only be stringently enforced, but made tougher. With worldwide attention suddenly drawn to the problem, Ghana needs to be seen to be proactive in dealing with it.

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Organised Crime

Transnational organized crime is considered as one of the major threats to human security, impeding the social, economic, political and cultural development of societies worldwide. It is a multi-faceted phenomenon and has manifested itself in different activities, among others, drug trafficking, trafficking in human beings; trafficking in firearms; smuggling of migrants; money laundering etc. In particular drug trafficking is one of the main activities of organized crime groups, generating enormous profits.

As globalization has expanded international trade, so the range of organized crime activities has broadened and diversified. The traditional hierarchical forms of organized crime groups have diminished; replaced with loose networks who work together in order to exploit new market opportunities. For example organized crime groups involved in drug trafficking are commonly engaged in smuggling of other illegal goods. The links between drug trafficking and other forms of transnational organized crime calls for a more integrated approach to address this nexus. The signing of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime in 2000 was a historic step forward in countering this threat.
Organised crime, particularly within the West African sub-region, is an issue of growing concern to many governments. The extent, as well as the range of illicit activities that are engaged in, are diverse. These include human trafficking, smuggling of precious metals, drug trafficking, advanced fee and internet fraud, illegal manufacturing of firearms and trafficking same, armed robbery and smuggling of oil. In view of the fact that these are essentially hidden practices, the challenge of providing accurate picture of these crimes are quite daunting. The United Nations Conventions Against Transnational Organised Crime defines an organised crime group as a structured group of three or more persons existing for a period of time and acting in concert with the aim of committing one or more serious crimes or offences established in accordance with this convention, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly a financial or other material benefit. The growing incidence of these crimes is often informed by certain socio-economic and historical contexts.

Types of Organised Crime

Drug Trafficking
Ghana has been identified as an emerging transit point for global movements of narcotic trading. It is alleged that drug trafficking was introduced into the country by nationals of some countries within the sub-region seeking new operating locations. In the recent past a number of prominent citizens as well as the Police Service have been implicated as conniving in cocaine cases.

Advance-fee and Internet fraud
Advanced-fee fraud through the Internet, appears to be a field in which some West African nationals remain prominent. While advance fee fraud or “419” can take variety of forms, they are by definition attempts to obtain pre-payment for goods or services that do not actually exist or which the proposer does not actually intend to deliver. One of the key features of typical “419” fraud of this type is that the instigator proposes a service that is clearly illegal such as the laundering of illicitly acquired funds through the target’s bank account. Anyone who responds positively to such as proposition is knowingly participating in an illegal activity.

Human Trafficking
This takes the variety of ways. One form is that of agricultural slavery where children or even young adults are trafficked across international borders to serve as farm hands on cocoa farms and other agricultural entities. Another form of human trafficking relates to people seeking to avoid international controls and migration and therefore the activities of some international groups which use particular countries as transit points for labour migrants. A third form of trafficking is for purposes of prostitution or sex slavery. Young girls, mostly under 18 years, are trafficked outside their countries of origin ostensibly to work as maids but end up in prostitution business.

Diamond smuggling
The smuggling of diamonds has become something of a specialty in parts of West Africa, due largely to the occurrence of high-quality alluvial diamonds that can be mined with no more equipment than a spade and a sieve, and deficiencies in government that permit smuggling and other evasion of official regulations on a massive scale. The most profitable part of the diamond trade is not the extraction of the stones, but their export to wholesale and cutting centres overseas, most notably in Belgium. The mining and export of diamonds overlap with organised crime in at least three respects. First, rebel groups use diamonds to finance their war effort, and there is substantial evidence that diamonds may be used for financing a variety of political or guerrilla movements. Third, organised crime groups may engage in the licit diamond trade partly
to cover illicit activities elsewhere, as a form of money-laundering. Most observers of the
diamond business believe that this takes place to some extent, although there appears to be little
hard evidence available to suggest exactly how such networks may function.

Forgery
Forgery may be a lucrative business in itself, such as in the recorded cases of forgery of
passports which are then sold for very high prices. However, much of the sophisticated forgery is
required for other criminal purposes, such as drug traders or people traffickers who may require
documents in order to follow their trade.

Cigarette smuggling
The smuggling of cigarettes is recorded in several countries of the sub-region where the
existence of differential rates of excise duty on cigarettes provides an incentive to smuggle
cigarettes from one country to the other. They are usually imported from abroad and exported
under cover of darkness across borders in trucks, generally covered by legitimate merchandise to
disguise them.

Money-laundering
The laundering of the proceeds of crime in West Africa appears to occur through a wide variety
of methods. As noted, there are indications that some of the wealthiest individuals, including
those who have gained wealth through massive corruption may enjoy the complicity of major
international companies to move their wealth to bank accounts outside Africa. Some of the
world’s largest banks are known to have been complicit in such schemes.

Arms manufacture
Several countries in the sub-region, especially Ghana, have a flourishing artisanal industry of
arms manufacture. Such artisanal manufacture in Ghana is increasingly transnational, as arms are
smuggled outside Ghana for use in violent crime. Iron-working technology has been known in
West Africa for many centuries, but the manufacture of guns was made a criminal offence in
colonial times. However, local smiths have not lost the skill of making guns, and recent research
indicates that local processes of gun-making have gained greatly in sophistication. In Ghana
there are also smiths who are able to produce pistols, shotguns, revolvers and the country in fact,
appears to have the region’s most sophisticated capacity for manufacturing firearms.

Arms trafficking
It is common cause that West Africa contains large quantities of illicit small arms. ECOWAS
adopted a moratorium on imports in October 1998, with a provision that Member States wishing
to import weapons should notify ECOWAS of their intention to secure exemption from the
moratorium. In fact, the Moratorium on the Importation, Exportation and Manufacture of Small
Arms and Light Weapons in West Africa has not worked well, as many countries have all
violated it by supplying non-State actors with freshly imported weapons and ammunition. In
addition to the import and distribution of light weapons by Governments, notwithstanding their
signature of the ECOWAS Moratorium, there is an unregulated non-State trade. Virtually every
country in the region has a problem in this regard. The availability of weapons interacts with
illegal oil bunkering, endemic corruption, high youth unemployment and social disintegration to
produce a highly dangerous mix.

Armed robbery
There seems to be a clear relationship between the existence of war and the incidence of armed
robbery. Countries that have been in war situations have experienced growing incidence of
armed robbery. Some such groups may receive arms from the regular armed forces and may sell
stolen goods, especially hi-jacked cars, in neighbouring countries. Some armed groups are also known to have developed and maintained connections in far away countries.

**Oil bunkering**

“Bunkering” is the process of illegally filling a ship with oil. Oil bunkering is common in oil producing countries. Thousands of barrels of oil are illegally exported per day. Although oil bunkering on this scale requires sophisticated organisation, and the complicity of state officials up to a very high level, it also flourishes amid the poverty and a sense of injustice in deprived areas of the country. People in many communities feel that they derive no benefit from the oil trade, and may therefore collaborate with criminal networks in the illegal export of oil. These networks also enjoy patronage from some senior government officials and politicians, who use bunkering as a source for political campaigning. The oil bunkering syndicates are highly international, including not only other West Africans, but also other foreign nationals. By these means, oil bunkering links to wider patterns of organized crime, with cash, drugs and weapons all being traded in exchange for illegal oil. With the recent discovery of oil in commercial quantity, Ghana stands the risk of experiencing oil bunkering if the necessary mechanisms are not put in place to contain it.

**International Convention**

The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, which entered into force in September 2003, is the main international instrument to counter organized crime. UNODC helps countries use the provisions of the Convention to create domestic criminal offences to counter the problem; to adopt new frameworks for mutual legal assistance; to facilitate extradition; law enforcement cooperation; technical assistance and training.

UNODC works closely with national governments, organisations and civil society to enhance international cooperation to counter the pervading influence of organized crime and drug trafficking. The Unit has initiated and oversees numerous counter-narcotics and anti-organized crime project including the following:

- Assisting Member States in the ratification and implementation of the Transnational Organised Crime (TOC) Convention;
- Monitoring the implementation of the Convention;
- Developing and promoting best practice in countering organised crime across the globe;
- Improving the exchange of information; judicial cooperation and mutual legal assistance between law enforcement officials and;
- Determining the most effective method for collecting information on organised crime from a regional and global perspective and ensuring that such information is available to policymaking and technical assistance projects.

**Organised Crime Bill**

The Parliament of Ghana has passed the Organized Crime Bill, which seeks to establish a comprehensive legal framework to monitor, investigate and facilitate the prosecution of organised crime. The passage of the Bill will facilitate the establishment of the Economic and Organised Crime Centre to fight organised crimes and other business-related crimes in the country. It is also to ensure the recovery of proceeds of crime both within and outside the jurisdiction in the interest of the republic. This follows the increasing spate of economic and organized crimes including cyber offences like advanced fee fraud popularly known as “419”,
drug trafficking, money laundering and terrorism which continue to pose threats to lives and properties both locally and internationally.

A report by the Committee on Constitutional, Legal and Parliamentary Affairs on the Economic and Organised Crime Bill said Ghana’s obligation in support of a global action plan towards combating these crimes had, over the years, resulted in the passage of a number of legislations including the Organised Crime Bill. The Narcotics Drugs (Control and Sanctions) Act, 1990 (P.N.D.CL 236) also seeks to combat dealings in narcotics and makes provisions for assistance that may be rendered by Ghana to foreign states in relation to drug related matters. The Government has also set up a Financial Intelligence Centre to fight money-laundering and other related crime activities.

One major challenge in the fight against organised crime has been identified. This is related to the fact that the Ghanaian Courts may not be adequately prepared to deal with organised crime; a situation that might have contributed to the seeming disregard for the punishment of organised crimes. The massive revolution in crime has dramatically changed the landscape, with criminals finding new ways of dodging prosecution when caught, thus suggesting that the laws should be reviewed and amended to reflect recent trends in combating the menace which has assumed a global dimension. The sophisticated stance of organised crime poses a challenge to sitting Judges and prosecutors because most of those crimes and the corresponding punishment are not listed in the statute books. The situation thus makes it difficult to handle such previously unknown crimes and that also has the potential to corrupt law enforcement agencies.

The situation calls for a new look at the way crime is being documented to know what criminals are doing to outwit the authorities and the security agencies should start considering the use of covert surveillance by employing equally sophisticated systems to understand the new trends in crime to assist in the apprehension of perpetrators. Further, the country’s laws should be reviewed periodically to contain such trends because Ghana’s administration of justice cannot remain immune to global challenges. Crime must be seen in the broader context because it is now organised and perpetrated by networks and syndicates whose activities cut across boundaries. In this regard, the collaborative effort among the Judiciary, Prosecutors and law enforcement agencies in combating organised crime in the country is paramount.

Initiatives

The Government has initialed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) between the Ghana Police Service and the British Police at the offices of the New Scotland Yard in London to promote collaboration between the two security agencies to combat organised crime. No country is an island of its own; therefore co-operations of this sort are of permanent interest to both Ghana and the UK.

A similar MoU has been signed between the Attorney General’s Department and the US Embassy in the government’s continuous determination to fight organised crime especially drug trafficking and money laundering. The MoU is for the provision of a temporary US Government Prosecutor to train and work with Ghanaian prosecutors on how to investigate organised crimes associated with narcotic trafficking and money laundering. The MoU is another indication of the continuing partnership between US and Ghana on projects of mutual interest. The mode of narcotic trafficking and laundering has become complicated and requires collaboration with other international organisations to fight the cross-border crimes.
References


Mining and other resources harvesting initiatives

The Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources is the sector Ministry entrusted with the management of Ghana's land, forest, wildlife and mineral resources. The vision of the ministry is to ensure the sustainable management and utilisation of Ghana’s lands, forests, wildlife and mineral resources for socio-economic growth and development. This is achieved through:

- efficient formulation, implementation, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes of sector agencies;
- efficient and equitable land delivery;
- promotion of sustainable forest, wildlife and mineral resource management and utilization;
- promotion of effective inter-agency and cross-sectoral linkages;
- creation of an enabling environment for effective private sector participation; and
- promotion of effective community participation in multiple use of land, forest wildlife and mineral resources.

Aims and Objectives

The Ministry's activities and implementation of the current reforms are in pursuance of its set aims and objectives. These are:
• to develop and manage sustainable lands, forest, wildlife and mineral resources;
• To facilitate equitable access, benefit sharing and security to land, forest and mineral resources;
• To promote public awareness and local communities participation in sustainable forest, wildlife and land use management and utilization;
• To review, update, harmonise and consolidate existing legislation and policies affecting land, forest and mineral resources;
• To promote and facilitate effective private sector participation in land service delivery, forest, wildlife and mineral resource management and utilization;
• To develop and maintain effective institutional capacity and capability at the national, regional, district and community levels for land, forest, wildlife and mineral service delivery;
• To develop and research into problems of forest, wildlife, mineral resources and land use;

Functions
In terms of functions the Ministry is responsible for:

• Policy formulation;
• Co-ordination;
• Monitoring and Evaluation;
• Validation of Policies, Programmes and Projects;
• Supervision of Sector Departments and Agencies; and
• Negotiations with Development Partners.

Achievements of the Ministry
Lands Sub-Sector
To address the problems in the sub-sector, the Ministry is implementing a Land Administration Project (LAP). This Project involves all the Land Sector Agencies and the Town and Country Planning Department which is not under the Ministry. The first phase commenced in October 2003 and ran until 2008, with the focus on developing a sustainable and well functioning land administration system that is fair, transparent, cost-effective, efficient, client-centred and decentralised. Expected outputs of this phase include the following:

• A harmonised and streamlined policy and legislative framework; including land-use planning.
• An efficient and cost effective One-Stop-Service centre for land administration services
• Improved security of tenure through systematic land titling, establishment of customary land secretariats and customary boundary demarcations
• A re-engineered, self-financing institutional structure.

The following activities have been undertaken:

• Proposals have been prepared, through participatory processes, for the consolidation of all the land laws into one comprehensive law and the merger of the six public land sector agencies into one institution.
• Inventory of state acquired sites in Accra and in the Central Region with the objective of preparing appropriate policy responses to address outstanding issues on compulsory acquisition and compensation.

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• The establishment of Customary Lands Secretariats and the strengthening of existing secretariats to improve customary land administration.

• Deed Registries have been established in Sekondi, Sunyani, Koforidua and Tamale in addition to the two registries existing in Kumasi and Accra. This is the beginning of the process of decentralising the registration of land transactions and the preparation of the grounds for eventual title registration.

• The process of systematic land titling on pilot basis has commenced. The benefits to be derived include improved security of tenure, cheap, fast and safe handling of land transactions.

• Customary boundary demarcation has commenced. Stakeholder sensitisation and consultations have been held with Paramountcies that share boundaries with other traditional areas to inform, educate and seek their cooperation for the take off of the fieldwork. The exercise will improve on security of tenure and certainty of land rights/holding and also serve as an incentive for attracting investment.

• Extensive collaboration and participatory meetings have been held across the country with the Judiciary and the various Houses of Chiefs (Regional and National), key stakeholders and civil society on the reform processes to create awareness, provide a platform for participation and to solicit views.

• The project has also undertaken a scoping study on gender and land and the key recommendation is that the land sector should have a gender strategy, which is being worked on.

Under their specific mandates the various land sector departments and agencies have also undertaken some important activities. Some of these include:

• Mapping of 512 kilometres of coast line of Ghana for tourism development, development of salt industry, checking of coastal erosion and the extension of Ghana’s continental shelf beyond the 200 nautical miles exclusive economic zone to facilitate oil exploration.

• Preparation of large scale maps for planning and developmental purposes and rating valuation.

• Valuation and revaluation of properties of Metro/Municipal/District Assemblies to improve their revenue generation base.

• Redevelopment of selected Government Residential areas to increase the density of development to take advantage of the existing infrastructure. This is being undertaken jointly by the Lands Commission and the Ministry of Works and Housing.

**Forestry Sub-Sector**

In order to restore the forest cover of the nation and to create employment for the rural and depressed urban communities, the Ministry is implementing six forest plantation projects. These are:

• The Modified Taungya System (implemented by the Forestry Commission (FC));

• Government Forestry Plantation Development Project, funded under the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative;

• Community Forestry Management Project, funded by African Development Bank (ADB);

• Participatory Forest Management Project in the Transitional Zone of Ghana, funded by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA);

• FORUM Project, funded by German Technical Cooperation (GTZ);
Private Sector Plantation Development, partly supported by the Forest Plantation Development Fund established by the Ministry.

To date, the total area planted under the various approaches is approximately 81,000 ha and has provided employment for 46,058 people on full time base and 1,049,833 on part-time. In addition, the programme has made significant achievement in the area of:

- Food production in the various project areas, thus providing food security for the nation
- Securing water catchments areas.

The Ministry is actively promoting the use of Bamboo and Rattan as an alternative and supplement to the wood deficit in the country.

As part of the sensitisation programme under the project, exhibitions have been mounted for the mining sector on the use of bamboo for land reclamation after mining operations have ceased and on the use of bamboo as an alternative to timber for the construction of schools and manufacture of furniture.

The Ministry is encouraging the development of eco-tourism through public-private partnerships. It is also implementing a Wildfire Management Project, to reduce the negative impact of bush fire on natural resource management and development. Even though the project implementation is on-going, preliminary assessment by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) indicates that wildfire menace is being reduced particularly in the pilot areas of the project. As part of the project component the Ministry together with other stakeholders have developed a National Wildfire Management Policy to provide an institutional framework and strategies to guide Wildfire prevention and control in Ghana.

Various alternative livelihood schemes to wean fringe communities off forest resources have been instituted by the Ministry. An example is the disbursement of 2.5 million dollar Community Investment Fund (CIF) to over 5,255 beneficiaries under a grant arrangement with the Global Environmental Facility (GEF). Loans granted with low interest rates have stimulated economic activities in the areas of bee-keeping, grasscutter rearing, piggery, oil palm processing, soap making, cold stores businesses, sewing and bakery.

A History of Mismanagement: Forestry plays an important part in Ghana’s economy. In the 1980s, timber was the third-largest export commodity after cocoa and gold, accounting for 5–7% of the total gross domestic product (GDP), and the forestry sector employed some 70 000 people. Forests also provide 75% of Ghana’s energy requirements. More than 90% of Ghana’s forests have been logged since the 1940s. Primary forest practically disappeared a little over two decades ago and the extent of remaining forest cover has been estimated at about 15 000 km² which is scattered as small isolated fragments throughout the southern part of the country. During 1981–85 the annual rate of deforestation in Ghana was estimated at 1.3%, but more recent estimates set it at close to 2%.

The timber industry in Ghana had practically collapsed by the early 1980s, mainly because of the global recession in the late 1970s and early 1980s. A new administration came into power in 1981, but despite the government’s efforts to halt the economic crisis, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) had to intervene through a Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). The IMF...
promoted the expansion of Ghana’s exports to enable the country to acquire additional foreign exchange. The timber sector was given special attention through the World Bank’s Export Rehabilitation Project of 1983–86. Sawmills were renewed; logging operations, modernized; harbours, rebuilt; and timber exports, increased. The economy improved, but at the expense of Ghana’s forests. Additionally, the aid money provided a new source of illegal profits for many companies, and millions of dollars disappeared out of Ghana as a result of corruption and fraud.

Overexploitation of a limited number of species led to a ban on the export of 14 primary species in 1979 and of an additional four species in 1987. This ban resulted in the increased use of secondary species. Exact figures on Ghana’s timber exports are difficult to obtain, but the country remains one of the most important African suppliers to the EU.

The timber industry comprises many logging companies and firms, which operate through long-term concessions and short-term licences. There are several problems in the forestry sector: repeated logging of commercially exploited areas without allowing the forest to recover; the very small size of some concessions (in one case, only 2 km²), which makes proper management difficult; and a disregard for felling cycles (15 years, instead of the recommended 40 years). In addition, very high levels of waste in timber processing and inefficient extraction methods result in a final lumber volume that is only 25–40% of the total log volume extracted.

As an alternative for meeting domestic and industrial demands for wood, plantations have been developed in Ghana as far back as the first decade of this century. Between 1968 and 1977, planting was used to convert some 400 km² of natural forest into logged-over forest reserves. As a result of poor management, though, planting has declined to a mere 10–20 km² a year, and this is mainly for rehabilitating failed plantations. In view of their history, industrial plantations do not appear to offer a solution to Ghana’s deforestation problem, either for the near future or for the medium term.

The major causes of deforestation have been fires, over logging, shifting cultivation, and an ever-increasing demand for fuel wood. Over logging is a serious threat: the annual cut is 1.6–2.5 times higher than the optimistically calculated sustainable cut. Shifting cultivation traditionally accounts for up to 70% of deforestation. Fuel wood and charcoal consumption accounts for 75% of all energy consumed in Ghana.

Impacts: The impacts of deforestation are widespread. Not only are biodiversity, ecological processes, and environmental functions affected, but also the livelihoods of local people. Non-timber forest products are used by a large part of the Ghanaian population. It has been estimated that 75% of the population relies on bush-meat for protein. Apart from subsistence use and local trade, another drain on wildlife species is a lucrative export market. In addition, forest loss results in serious land degradation (soil erosion, nutrient depletion, and desertification), which is an increasing problem in northern parts of Ghana. Because of current unsustainable forest use, Ghana is also losing impressive fauna, ranging from rare and endangered species.

Forest resources have played a significant role in the provision of food, clothing, shelter, furniture, water-supply sources, bush meat, and traditional medicine for the local community. The rapid destruction of the forest through excessive logging is therefore of much concern to development planners and policymakers. The degradation of the forest has resulted in field-productivity losses of 0.5–1.5% of gross national product, loss of sustainable logging potential and erosion prevention, loss of watershed stability and carbon sequestration, and loss of potential new drugs as a result of the loss of genetic resources. The people most affected live below the
poverty level in environmentally fragile rural areas. These people rely on the forests for their livelihood but have very little legal hold on the resources. The economic activities of these people often intensify the deforestation process and lead to pollution and soil degradation, exposing them to even greater environmental risks.

Factors that make tackling of the problem difficult are the following:

- The lack of an updated and clearly defined forest-policy document spelling out goals, objectives, strategies, and future direction of the timber industry;
- The lack of a clear land-use policy to guide the use of land in the country, without which encroachment on forest reserves occurs;
- Domination of the timber-export trade by round logs that generate low foreign earnings from large volumes of log exports;
- The Forest Department’s deficient protection of forests outside reserves under any form of sustainable management, a deficiency that promotes illegal harvesting of logs; and
- The low fines for offences, which stimulates even more malpractice both within and outside reserves.

A new Forest and Wildlife Policy has been formulated and published to replace the Forest Policy of 1948. This new policy was informed by current national-development policies as embodied in the 1992 Constitution, the Environmental Action Plan (1991), and the Forest Resource Management Project (1989–95). It was also informed by “accepted” international principles of resource management and sustainable development as stated by the ITTO Guidelines for the Sustainable Management of Natural Tropical Forests (ITTO 1990); The Rio Declaration and The Statement of Forest Principles, both prepared at the 1992 Earth Summit (UNCED 1992); the 1968 African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (also known as the African Convention) (OAU 1977); and other conventions to which Ghana is a signatory. Before 1992, timber royalties in Ghana were said to be the lowest among the tropical African countries. As a result of this, the Forestry Department has been unable to meet the cost of sustainably managing Ghana’s timber resources.

With the Fourth Republic coming into office, the Ministry of Lands and Forestry revised most of the old legislation and proposed new legislation, including new regulations to help mobilize revenue for forest management. The Trees and Timber (Amendment) Act (1994) increased the fees for property and provided higher penalties for contravention of forestry laws. The Act also introduced export levies to limit the export of certain timber species, thereby regulating the harvest of endangered and environmentally sensitive timber species. A Collaborative Forest Management Unit has been set up under the Forestry Department to promote community monitoring of timber harvesting in reserves. Furthermore, the Ministry of Lands and Forestry has drafted a 20-year Forestry Development Master Plan for forest resources, forest industries, and wildlife management. The 1994 Forest and Wildlife Policy identified the need to strengthen public participation in forest management.

The Mining Sub-Sector

The Ministry, through its mining sub-sector Agencies, has initiated policy reforms and undertaken various strategic programmes and projects. The following programmes and activities have been undertaken. Local Economic Development (LED) Or Alternative Livelihood Projects (ALP) in mining communities. Since minerals are depletable resources there is the need to have
an alternative source of livelihood. The Ministry has also been working with the National Board for Small Scale Industries (NBSSI), to develop non-mining skills such as fish farming, snail rearing, livestock and poultry farming, soap making, batik tye & dye, etc., in mining communities. The Ministry is undertaking studies to reclaim land degraded through illegal mining activities. These areas will be planted with economic and citrus trees and handed over to the communities. The rationale for such reclamation exercise is to demonstrate to communities that mined out areas can be reclaimed for economic use.

Relocation of illegal small-scale miners: The Ministry has adopted a policy to accommodate and support small-scale mining within a legal framework. In view of this development, efforts have been made to identify suitable areas on pilot basis for illegal miners (Galamseyers). Efforts are also underway to carry out further geological work. The success of this exercise will help the Ministry replicate the resettlement of other illegal miners in suitable areas. It is expected that this new initiative will lead to a better organisation, control and monitoring of small scale mining operations. The increased production that will be derived from these small-scale miners will be sold to the Precious Minerals Marketing Company (PMMC) for value-addition.

Mining Sector Support Programme (MSSP): The Ministry, with funding from the European Union (EU) is undertaking the Mining Sector Support Programme. Activities being carried out under the programme are:

- Airborne Geophysical Survey over the Volta River and Keta Basins and Geological Mapping of prioritized field sheets for the discovery of minerals leading to the diversification of the mineral production base of the country.
- Environmental Impact Assessment and National Strategic Assessment Programme to measure the effect of past, current and future consequences of large scale mining operations in order to find appropriate solutions to them.
- Mercury Pollution Abatement Project which seeks to find alternate gold processing methods for small scale gold miners to eliminate the use of mercury. This component is expected to eliminate the hazards that small scale miners are exposed to.

Investment Opportunities

Gold Refinery and Value-Added Products: Ghana is already producing over 2 Moz/y of gold. In spite of this level of production, there is no refinery in the country and the bullion is exported for final refining. Feasibility studies have confirmed the viability of refining gold in Ghana. Such a facility will serve other gold producing countries within the sub-region. This is a project that investors with the technical know-how might wish to consider.

Solar Salt: Ghana possesses one of the largest proven renewable solar salt production potential along the entire coastline; stretching for a distance of over 500 km. Effective exploitation would enable the country to supply the needs of the entire sub-region. Government is carrying out a study to identify and demarcate areas that will be suitable for salt winning.

Chlor-Alkali Industry: Potential exist for the utilisation of part of the salt to produce caustic soda which is a raw material for the soap and detergent industry and bauxite/alumina production. The chlorine co-product can also be used as water treatment chemical and also serve as raw materials for the production of various health and sanitation chemicals.
**Service and Engineering Sector**

There are several service companies in Ghana who are providing support services, including contract drilling, assay laboratories, contract mining and geological consultancies to mining companies. Using Ghana as a base, these companies have ventured and expanded their activities into the West African sub-region. Government has, through incentives, encouraged such companies. Investment opportunities exist for investors to set up manufacturing plants and machinery for the mining industry.

**Sector Performance**

Since 1986 when the old minerals and mining law PNDC Law 153 was enacted, there has been a generally increasing trend in mineral production. Similarly, there have been significant increases in the production of diamonds, bauxite and manganese over the same period. The sector was consistently the highest gross foreign exchange earner as well as a provider of high quality employment to Ghanaians. Currently, the sector contributes about 7% of Ghana’s total corporate tax earnings, 37% of total exports, 12% of Government revenue and 5% GDP. The sector also employs 20,000 people in the large-scale mining industry whilst over 500,000 people are engaged in the small-scale gold, diamonds, sand winning and quarry industries. In 2005, export revenues from the mineral sector amounted to US$1 billion. Total Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) into the minerals and mining sector from 1980 to 2005 amounted to US$6 billion.

**Oil Production**

The discovery of crude oil in commercial quantities has placed it among the oil producing nations of the world. The discovery of oil holds the potential to restructure the country’s economy from a predominantly agricultural based economy to an industrialised petro chemical based one. The challenge to the nation currently is how to develop a framework for harnessing the oil resources to ensure equitable distribution of the oil wealth among the populace. The other concern is how to avoid the pitfalls of some oil producing countries on the continent where the discovery of oil has become a curse rather than a blessing. Currently the Oil and Gas Bill is before Parliament for consideration. The contents of the Bill have been informed by a nationwide consultation among various stakeholders and interest groups as well as the lessons that various models of oil management worldwide have to contribute to Ghana’s experience. It is envisaged that the oil sector will serve as a catalyst for the growth and expansion of other sectors of the economy such as the agricultural and financial sectors. Institutions of higher learning are also challenged to position themselves to produce the required manpower for the oil sector.

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**Economic inequality and wealth distribution**

The gap between the rich and the poor is widening, a situation that is all the more unsupportable in the midst of relatively high economic growth rates. The citizenry have a right to their share of the national wealth and countries could run the risk of a social unrest if endemic poverty continues to exist alongside visible signs of wealth.

In the 1980s and 1990s, when the performance of African economies was stagnant or declining, economists at international financial institutions attributed the continent’s widespread poverty to the lack of economic growth. However, while African growth rates rose over the past decade, the proportion of Africans living on less than US$1 per day continued to rise. Meanwhile, the international community’s focus on achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) such as halving the percentage of people in the world with incomes below $1 a day by 2015 has drawn greater attention to the various factors that influence poverty trends. Inequality, particularly with regard to assets and gender, can reduce rates of growth, hence indirectly limiting poverty reduction.

The World Bank, which for years emphasised market liberalisation as the best route to economic growth and poverty reduction, now also recognises the role that inequalities play in hindering those goals. Equity considerations therefore need to be brought squarely into the centre of both diagnosis and policy. Ignoring inequality in the pursuit of development is perilous. Focusing exclusively on economic growth as a development strategy is ineffective, because it leads to the accumulation of wealth by a few and deepens the poverty of the many. Combating inequities globally and within countries is an ethical and moral imperative. Gaping poverty and inequality exist at a time of breathtaking advances in science, technology, industry and wealth accumulation. Addressing the problems of inequality requires introducing policies that specifically target the gaps and ensure that the poorest segments of the population are able to overcome their disadvantages.

**Gaping divides**

In recent decades, African and Latin American countries have had the highest levels of inequality in income. Such inequality meant that when economic downturn or disaster struck, those at the bottom of the income scale, the most vulnerable, were hurt disproportionately. And when national incomes rose, those at the top benefited the most, while the poor saw few gains, if any. Partly as a result, the number of people in sub-Saharan Africa living in absolute poverty (with incomes of less than $1 per day) doubled during the two decades of the 1980s and 1990s climbed from 288 million in 1981 to 516 million in 2001. While South Asia also saw a rise in the total number of poor in that period, the region’s proportion of people living on less than $1 a day fell from 52 per cent to 31 per cent, marking progress towards the MDG target. But in sub-Saharan Africa, that share actually rose, from 42 per cent to 47 per cent.

Among other elements contributing to inequality and poverty are two broad conditions that strongly affect people’s incomes and access to social services. In most African countries, the urban-rural gap is especially wide. In Ghana, for example, the incidence of poverty in Accra, the capital, is only 2 per cent. But in the dry rural savannah regions in the north, it is 70 per cent. In Accra poverty has been declining, but in the savannah it has not budged. Gender also is a prevalent factor. Overall, women have access to fewer economic resources and have far less
social and political power than do men, which greatly restricts their opportunities to climb out of poverty.

**Health and education disparities**

Economic inequalities are only part of the picture. Across Africa, health, education, social welfare and many other aspects of human well-being are also marked by wide disparities. The wealthy receive the best schooling and medical care, while many of the poor simply do without. The poor education and health of those living in poverty in turn make it harder for them or their children to advance their economic position. During the 1980s and 1990s, the market liberalization policies pushed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank and other donor institutions led to drastic cuts in government-backed social programmes that in turn exacerbated inequalities. By the end of the 1990s, the disastrous impact of such cuts had become so glaring that policies shifted again, towards increasing social spending. While many argue that health and education spending in Africa is still far below what it should be, others point out that allocating more money alone will not solve all the problems. In Africa social sector spending is poorly targeted and often regressive. The poor are therefore benefiting much less than the level of social expenditures would suggest. Education is typically seen as a means of narrowing inequalities. However, across sub-Saharan Africa, 37 per cent of children did not go to primary school in 2001, the highest rate for any world region. Among females, the share was 41 per cent. Almost all children out of school are from poor families. Over the past decade, African governments and donor institutions have been making a concerted push to significantly increase primary school enrolment rates, with some success. This is an important first step. Ghana increased primary schooling for the poor does very little to improve their immediate chances of escaping poverty. Most of the economic benefits of education do not kick in until students have reached at least a middle-school level.

**Poverty amidst growth**

For years, mainstream economists and development planners argued that the most important task facing African societies was to achieve macroeconomic stability, liberalize their economies and promote market-based policies that would stimulate economic growth. With growth, they maintained, there would be more resources for everyone, making it easier to reduce poverty. “A rising sea lifts all boats” was a favourite metaphor. But that view ignored how inequality seriously skews the distribution of resources. It therefore could not convincingly explain increases in poverty in the midst of growth. Inequality may prevent the benefits of growth from reaching many of the poor, but the relationship also works in another direction. Extreme inequality is not just bad for poverty reduction — it is also bad for growth. Poor people remain poor partly because they cannot borrow against future earnings to invest in production, the education of their children and assets to reduce their vulnerability. Insecure land rights and limited access to justice can create further barriers to investment. Deprived of public goods — such as information and legal rights — poor people are denied opportunities to contribute to growth.

**Inequalities in power**

Inequality and politics also interact, often in negative ways. Inequalities in income and human capabilities often reflect inequalities in political power. Poor people, women, rural populations and marginalised ethnic groups are disadvantaged in part because they usually are badly organised, have a weak political voice and in many countries are excluded from major areas of decision-making — especially those involving the distribution of economic and social resources.
Unequal political power leads to the formation of institutions that perpetuate inequalities in power, status and wealth.

**Bringing back the state**

Where extreme inequalities exist, markets, by themselves, do not lessen the gaps. The poorest and most marginalised lack the resources or political voice to influence the distribution of goods and services. Markets most benefit those with the greatest wealth and power. Therefore, the main means for overcoming inequity lie with state institutions that operate in the interests of the general public. The essential importance of the state transcends the logic of market forces, particularly in areas such as ethics, equality, social justice and the defense of rights intrinsic to citizenship, which are foreign to market mechanisms and institutions. The state is also more effective in addressing risk, vulnerability, social exclusion, destitution and many other issues not amenable to microeconomic calculus. Many development experts now opine that it is vital to end the spate of privatising state functions on a large scale and to rebuild the public institutions and services that were weakened or dismantled in recent decades. A majority of Africans seem to agree. The surveys by the Afro-Barometer project found that even though most Africans prefer a mixed economy, their vision favours state intervention above market forces. Across the 15 countries surveyed, an average of 70 per cent opposed reducing the size of the public sector. Some officials still object that governments do not deliver services very effectively, citing their poor performance in the 1970s and early 1980s, when public sectors dominated. However, while corruption, cronynism and mismanagement continue to plague many state institutions across Africa, the continent’s shift towards multiparty electoral systems and the proliferation of programmes to strengthen good governance have improved the accountability and capacity of those institutions.

**Shifting policies**

Among the tasks that public institutions can perform to help lessen inequality and realise the progressively redistributive dimensions of development, are ensuring that all sectors of the population are socially and politically integrated, that roads and other infrastructure are extended to geographically remote areas and that economic policies emphasise activities that stimulate the creation of jobs. National tax systems also should be made “moderately progressive,” so that the rich — many of whom now evade taxes — pay more, thus generating additional funds for poverty reduction and basic social services. For example a greater portion of spending within the health sector should shift from services that mainly benefit the wealthy to those used mostly by the poor. In Ghana, for example, two-thirds of all health expenditures now go to hospitals, located largely in the main towns, while poor Ghanaians generally go only to primary health clinics. Since the poor often cannot afford to pay “user fees” in the clinics, such charges should only be applied to the better-off. Selective government subsidies can help ensure that the poor have access to other services as well. In earlier decades, such government subsidies often were not targeted very well. Corrupt bureaucrats or those with high-level political connections were frequently able to divert the resources or benefits away from the intended recipients. With that experience in mind targeting should be “community-based,” with local communities directly involved in identifying beneficiaries. Experiences with such an approach in some countries have demonstrated that community-based targeting not only promotes greater equality, but also strengthens local capacities more generally.
**Redistributing assets to women**

In Africa — indeed, across all societies — gender is one of the most common markers of inequality. Women, who generally have less political and social power than men, usually also have much lower incomes and far less access to productive resources and opportunities. Nowhere are power inequalities and their consequences more clearly displayed than for women. Examples are numerous, across virtually all areas of activity. According to World Bank statistics, drawn from detailed household survey data, females have less than half the average number of years of education than do males in and on the average complete less than a quarter of the schooling that men do. Overall gender inequalities affect women's health and also the nutrition and health of their children. The Washington-based International Food Policy Research Institute calculates that if gender equity were achieved in sub-Saharan Africa, child malnutrition would fall by 3 per cent, with 1.7 million fewer malnourished children. Women have far less access to land and other productive assets. In many African countries, women do more than three-quarters of agricultural work, but hold less than 10 per cent of all land titles. In Ghana, because women lack the social status to hold onto land during fallowing periods, they tend not to let the land rest, thus worsening soil degradation. In addition to tackling inequalities in education, health and other areas, it is suggested that not only is redistributing assets in favour of women essential but also redistributing access to capital, perhaps by promoting microcredit, strengthening women's land rights or access to jobs and welfare programmes, designing affirmative action programmes to break down stereotyping and improving access to justice systems.

**Mitigating factors**

Many factors constrain economic inequality - they may be divided into two classes: government sponsored, and market driven. The relative merits and effectiveness of each approach is a subject of debate. Government initiatives to reduce economic inequality include:

- Public education: increasing the supply of skilled labour and reducing income inequality due to education differentials.
- Progressive taxation: the rich are taxed proportionally more than the poor, reducing the amount of income inequality in society.
- Minimum wage legislation: raising the income of the poorest workers (though probably increasing unemployment).
- Nationalisation or subsidisation of products: providing goods and services that everyone needs cheaply or freely (such as food, healthcare, and housing), governments can effectively raise the purchasing power of the poorer members of society.

These provisions may lower inequality, but have sometimes resulted in increased economic inequality. Market forces outside of government intervention that can reduce economic inequality include:

- Propensity to spend: with rising wealth and income, a person must spend more. In an extreme example, if one person owned everything, they would immediately need to hire people to maintain their properties, thus reducing the wealth concentration.
- Unionisation: although not a market force, per se, labour organisations may reduce inequality by negotiating standard pay rates (though probably increasing unemployment). As union power has declined, and performance related pay has become more widespread, economic inequality has mirrored productive inequality.
**Effects of inequality**

Research has revealed:

- In more equal societies, people are much more likely to trust each other.
- Economic equality and social cohesion are linked.
- That there is a high correlation between the amount of trust in society and the amount of income equality.
- In addition to affecting levels of trust and civic engagement, inequality in society has also shown to be highly correlated with crime rates. Most studies looking into the relationship between crime and inequality have concentrated on homicides—since homicides are almost identically defined across all nations and jurisdictions. Over fifty studies show tendencies for violence to be more common in societies where income differences are larger.
- Research has also presented evidence that both social cohesion and health problems are greater in countries or states where economic inequality is highest. For instance, crime rates, mental health problems and teenage pregnancies are lower in countries like Japan and Finland compared to countries with greater inequality such as the US and UK.

**Health of the Population**

- Some studies have found a lower health levels in economically less equal countries.
- Income inequality and mortality: Mortality is strongly associated with higher income inequality, but, within levels of income inequality, not with per capita income.
- There has been increasing interest from epidemiologists on the subject of economic inequality and its relation to the health of populations. There is a very robust correlation between socioeconomic status and health. Lower socioeconomic status has been linked to chronic stress, heart disease, ulcers, type 2 diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, certain types of cancer, and premature aging.

**Ghana's Poverty Line Reduces Significantly**

The Ghana Living Standard Survey (GLSS) has noted that Ghana is experiencing rising inequality, growing regional disparity and deep poverty. There is however a reduction of inflows of donor funds to both government and CSOs worsening the plight of the rural poor and urban women and children, as well as the vulnerable in society.

The Social Watch report, Titled 'Making Finances Work: People First', is a collection of reports from over sixty member countries around the world, on the general impacts of the economic and ecological crisis on these countries. In the 2009 edition are issues about food insecurity from the World Food Programme Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis of Ghana. In this document, the World Food Programme identified food insecurity among some 1.2 million and another 2 million people who had inadequate consumption patterns in Ghana's entire population. The study revealed a worrying trend of 34%, 15% and 10% of the people of Upper West, Upper East, and Northern Regions with inadequate consumption patterns respectively.

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**Illicit Arms Trade**

The illicit trade in small arms and light weapons is counter-developmental on many levels. It is also a global enterprise with illicit weapons across Africa coming from virtually every major arms producing country in the world. The sources of small arms and light weapons are many. Only a handful of African countries has the capacity to manufacture arms and ammunition. Because national governments tightly monitor and regulate African manufacturers, very limited numbers of African-manufactured arms and ammunition enter the illegal market. Instead, small arms are seized or stolen from government forces, looted from state armories, purchased from corrupt soldiers and stolen from private owners. Similarly, peacekeepers are occasionally relieved of (or voluntarily part with) their small arms, which often end up in rebel arsenals.

The illicit arms trade is not isolated from other global illegal activities. When small arms flow to the black market, they become one of many illegal commodities there. The arms can be exchanged for money, drugs, conflict diamonds, endangered species etc. It becomes extremely tough to distinguish individual illegal acts in a web of transnational crime. Activities of arms dealers stretch across to other Transnational Criminal Organisations (TCOs), like the drug and human traffickers, smugglers, terrorists, mafias etc. Ghana's reputation as being West Africa’s most stable nation is under threat. There are enough weapons in the system to destabilise the country if care is not taken. Over the last year there has been a noticeable rise in the number of violent crimes committed across the country. As a member of the ECOWAS trade union, Ghana has opened up its borders to the free movement of goods and citizens of West Africa. However, the result has been free movement of weapons and drugs as well.

ECOWAS has made it more difficult to control the movement of these weapons. But because of the lack of adequate security at the borders, Ghana’s Small Arms Committee is unable to even estimate just how many guns are smuggled into the country on a monthly or yearly basis, or even pinpoint exactly which countries provide the greatest number of weapons to the country. The Committee hardly ever finds out about smuggled weapons, and when it does, the policy is to seize and destroy, so it cannot trace where the source of the problem is, and the smugglers never...
reveal their source. However, most of the weapons used to commit crimes are manufactured in Ghana. A person can set up a legitimate business as a blacksmith, and sell crude weapons on the side. For as little as $100 one can get a gun on the black market in Ghana.

Guns are being sold at the same price as most cellular phones, and they are as simple to obtain as walking into a store. Although strict laws are in place prohibiting the manufacturing of guns in the country, implementation has not been effective. On 14 June 2006, a convention was signed by all ECOWAS Heads of State to halt the manufacture, sale and proliferation of small arms and other weapons. For those who make guns it is more cost effective than farming or making other tools and this will need to be countered by making legitimate activity more worthwhile and profitable than illegal arms production.

**Traffic Methods and Routes**

As small arms are lightweight, concealable and durable, the ways in which they can be smuggled are nearly limitless. Long, porous and poorly patrolled land borders facilitate the illicit transfer of small arms on foot or by truck. Some of this trafficking is large-scale and systematic. Rogue soldiers, rebels, refugees and others also walk across borders with one or two small arms at a time. Traffickers also smuggle small arms along Africa’s rivers and coasts. The unauthorised craft production of firearms by local gunsmiths is a significant source of illicit small arms in some areas. A recent study of craft production in Ghana found that the country’s unlicensed gunsmiths have the collective capacity to produce up to 200,000 firearms a year, some of which are reportedly of a quality comparable with industrially produced guns. Governments and armed groups in neighbouring states are also significant sources of illicit small arms. Many civil conflicts in Africa quickly transform into regional wars as neighbouring governments provide material support to one or more of the parties to the conflict. This support often includes large numbers of small arms, many of which are transferred illicitly.

**Effects of Small Arms**

Illicit small arms have also led to the violent intensification of inter-community tensions and conflicts over scarce resources. Hundreds of people have been killed and numerous communities displaced in such intra and inter community violence. It is estimated that small arms have resulted in hundreds of thousands of deaths and millions of injuries each year. They are further responsible for 60 to 90% of total conflict deaths. Small arms have also been used to engage in poaching activities in poverty-stricken areas near wildlife parks and sanctuaries. Armed conflict seriously disrupts or even destroys food production and distribution processes, with hunger and malnutrition being the direct result, especially among the most vulnerable population groups. The availability and proliferation of small arms in contexts of violent conflict hinder the ability of development agencies to provide aid and food relief and for governments to provide security, enforce the law and repair damaged or destroyed infrastructure.

**International Conventions**

A number of arms control and disarmament strategies have been implemented in Africa at the national, sub-regional and regional levels. These control measures have generally been guided by a combination of international and regional small arms agreements. The most prominent has been the Bamako Declaration (2000), which represents a common African position on the trafficking and proliferation of illicit small arms, and the UN Programme of Action (UNPoA) on illicit use, trade and proliferation of small arms (2001). Arms control agreements have also been negotiated at the sub-regional level, usually through Regional Economic Communities. These
agreements have sought to, among other objectives: make illicit small arms production and possession a criminal offence, destroy stocks of surplus weapons and introduce tighter stockpile and arms transfer control measures. An innovative feature of both the Bamako Declaration and the UNPoA has been the recommendation that states establish National Focal Points (NFPs), which are coordination bodies responsible for devising a national arms control action plan, as well as facilitating small arms control research, monitoring, and the formulation of policy and legislation. Arms collection and destruction has been a popular strategy for reducing the quantity of illicit small arms in Africa. Countries have destroyed large quantities of small arms and ammunition that were surplus, obsolete or confiscated by security forces.

The Way Ahead

The regional and international agreements identified above provide a road map for reducing the illicit small arms trade, both in Africa and globally. Implementing these agreements requires significant and sustained political will and a steady infusion of resources. While the responsibility for implementation lies primarily with African governments, the international community must do its part. The four action items below, if fully implemented, would help to reduce the illicit small arms trade in the sub region:

- Expand foreign aid programmes that target the illicit arms trade. Over the years, several international organisations and individual countries have established aid programmes that fund the destruction of surplus or obsolete small arms and improve the security of small arms storage facilities. These programmes have eliminated millions of surplus weapons from dozens of leaky stockpiles in places. These programmes should be expanded and more funding should be allocated for programmes that help African governments acquire the vehicles, equipment and training they need to better control their seaports, airspace and land borders. Donor states should work with recipients to ensure that they have the capacity to use and maintain the equipment properly, preferably with minimal outside support.

- Crack down on violations of UN arms embargoes. Too often, governments fail to respond decisively to violation of UN arms embargoes which are instruments of coercive diplomacy that seek to prevent the transfer of arms and military-related material to a specific state or armed group, deemed to pose a threat to international peace and security. This failure takes many forms, including the continuation of arms sales against sanctions.

- Strengthen national arms control legislation. Regional and international arms control agreements are limited in that it is the prerogative of African governments to implement the provisions of these agreements by amending or establishing relevant legislation and policy. Even if legislation and policy are in place, the necessary resources and systems, such as small arms registers and license-vetting procedures, are often dysfunctional or absent. Hence, sub-regional organisations and the international community should support the establishment and effective implementation of national arms control legislation through the provision of resources and technical expertise.

- Address the factors that fuel the illicit small arms economy. The illicit small arms market in Africa flourishes due to a combination of underdevelopment, insecurity, inequality and ineffective governance. As a result, destroying small arms, reinforcing arms embargoes and bolstering national arms controls will not have a decisive effect on the illicit small arms trade.
arms economy unless the root causes of violence and conflict are comprehensively addressed. This is typically a long term and multi-dimensional process.

**Global Governance**

United Nations (UN) Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) in all Its Aspects. The UN initiated the Programme of Action after initial study on the effect of small arms on societies. In July 2001, UN conducted a conference on the Illicit Trade of SALW in All its Aspects. The conference focused on the measures nations could take to combat the widespread problem of illicit arms trade. During this period, numerous NGOs came together to form the International Action Network on Small Arms (IANSA), which today, has about 700 members and focuses on making illicit gun manufacturing a criminal act, destroying surplus arms, issuing end-user certificates for transfers, marking and tracing guns, sharing information, documenting the records of gun production and imposing stricter enforcements on weapons sanctions.

UN Firearms Protocol:
Another programme commenced by the UN was the UN Firearms Protocol, which came into effect from 3rd July 2005. This programme was to supplement the United Nations Convention against TCOs. The protocol seeks to encourage, assist and build up cooperation between states to combat illegal trafficking in SALW and monitoring its activities. By September 2005, 44 states had approved the Protocol. A major problem hindering in the success for the programme was the acceptance of majority of the states. It is important to penetrate the will of the global community, so that the measures proposed in the programme are effectively implemented.

Control Arms Campaign and the Arms Trade Treaty:
Control Arms is a global campaign launched in October 2003 by Amnesty International, Oxfam International and IANSA. It centers on the global trade of SALW and advocates against irresponsible transfers of arms to countries with human rights violations. It endorses stricter arms trade laws that would prohibit the augmentation of grey market and black market. The control arms campaign proposes an International Arms Trade Treaty (IATT). The IATT is a legally binding treaty which unites the country’s present commitments under an international law. Presently, the treaty has the support of about 153 countries and more than 800 NGOs.

International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol)
Interpol is an organisation that facilitates cooperation of international police. It was established in 1923 and today enjoys a membership of 186 member states. It focuses on transnational crimes like terrorism, money laundering, drug, human and illicit arms trafficking. Interpol has been aggressively involved in the illicit arms trade and has been tracing and tracking arms trafficking activities world over, with cooperation from its members.

Regional Level, Sub-Saharan Africa, Major Problems:
Demand due to inter/intra state conflict and other ethnic and religious disputes.
Firearms have fuelled uncontained conflicts like Liberia, Congo etc.
Slow progress in developing national and regional points of contact on the issue.

Regional efforts:
The Programme for Coordination and Assistance for Security and Development (PCASED), (ECOWAS + UN Development Programme) has supported 13 out of 15 ECOWAS Members to
create commissions for the execution of ECOWAS Moratorium on Importation, Exportation and Manufacture of Light Weapons.

National Level:
Illicit arms trade is a threat to majority of countries in the world. The word illicit makes it tough to trace national efforts taken by different countries. Primarily, all countries working towards this problem employ their national police service, administrative and bureaucratic services to combat the problem. The degree of devotion to the problem varies with countries majorly depending on the level of threat the problem poses to them.

Loopholes:
No internationally binding treaty to combat the problem.
No agreed international standard of marking and tracing weapons.
No transparency in arms export and transfer of arms to ‘high risk regions.’
Covert authorised arms transfers.
Arms supply to non-state actors/embargoes countries.
Lax custom policies or careless officials.
No agreement/treat directly targeting the illegal arms brokers.

The problem of small arms is generally viewed as an issue of security, human rights and as the weapons of choice for terrorists and transnational criminal networks. With the passing years, the daunting number of small arms and light weapons in circulation and the devastation they cause bear witness to the fact that not much has been done to contain the scourge. Indeed, Ghana believes that small arms, despite their designation, are real weapons of mass destruction and is committed to the United Nations Programme of Action and support the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) moratorium, which has been transformed into an internationally binding instrument. As a result of the negative impact of the proliferation and misuse of small arms and light weapons on the rule of law, political stability, and broader development, the government of Ghana commissioned a national baseline survey that became the background document for a National Strategic Conference on Small Arms. That conference brought together donors, security professionals, civic actors and local crafts persons for a dialogue towards the elaboration of a national plan of action. Ghana’s National Commission has also embarked on a number of other activities, including crisis prevention and assembling more reliable data on firearms. The Commission also targeted conflict-prone areas to raise awareness about the impact of small arms and what was going on at national and regional levels. Although the country has never experienced any large-scale armed conflict, there are pockets of low-intensity communal conflicts.

Ghana and the ECOWAS Protocol
Ghana is commended for ratifying the ECOWAS Convention on Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW). UNDP sensitised the Parliamentary select Committee and supported the Small Arms Commission on the need to ratify and put Ghana in harmony with the UN Programme of Action for Small Arms and Light Weapons. UNDP also supported with technical knowledge to explain the good that it was going to serve. Ghana’s ratification sent a strong signal of commitment towards the fight against the proliferation of small arms and light weapons in the sub-region. The ratification also demonstrates the government’s commitment to the ECOWAS Protocol relating to the Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peacekeeping and Security signed in Lome in 1999. The Convention provides for a ban of arms transfer by member states with possibility of exemption for the legitimate defense and security
needs, law enforcement and participation in peace support operations. The Convention, which also provided for the prohibition without exception, arms transfer to non-state actors without the approval of the importing country was adopted by the Authority of Heads of State and Governance in 2006 in Abuja.

Prevention and control of small arms and light weapons
A number of capacity gaps have been identified in the management of small arms inventories and control in Ghana. Studies conducted in the country have shown that there is substantive local production, and poorly regulated importation of arms. While small arms and light weapons do not by themselves cause wars, their ready availability could be both triggering and perpetuating factors. Given the civil wars that have taken place within the sub region, and the huge market for arms in the region, there could be increased acts of violence through the use of these arms. Being a signatory to the ECOWAS Moratorium on Small Arms, the country is keen to develop more effective mechanisms for the control and management of small arms, better tracking by the security agencies, and to work towards promoting the development of alternative livelihoods for the producers of small arms. Under this component of the architecture for peace, the country has established a National Commission on Small Arms, engaged in public education on the dangers of small arms and light weapons, strengthen the Firearms registry, established a mechanism for tracking the flow of small arms, proposed and facilitated the enactment of a legislation on small arms and promoted schemes offering alternative livelihoods to local firearms producers.

Recommendations:

- Establish a common international standard of marking and tracing the SALW. This should be followed by all countries so that there is no discrepancy in the markings. If followed properly, this practice would make it easier to trace the illegal weapons and the routes from where they reach the wrong hands.

- Stipulate common paradigms of stockpile management and security. This would consequently make it easier for officials to minimise cases of stockpile loot. Adding to this, the practice of destroying surplus arms should be well promoted to avoid the arms reaching unlawful dealers.

- The governments should make arms licensing stricter and lesser available for the civil population and establish tougher requirements for attaining arms. Parallel to that, laws should be enacted to monitor the activities of arms brokers and clearly lay down the boundaries of their role.

- National laws relating to illegal arms trade should be strengthened, regularly updated and reformed according to the progress and needs of the problem. The government should also control the activities of private companies within their jurisdiction. Private companies should be restricted to supply arms to states where slack law enforcements make it easier for illicit dealers to siphon arms.

- The present multilateral agreements should be strengthened. The most effective action can be taken at regional levels, as the agreements are flexible to the needs of each region. Therefore, the more multilateral and regional agreements should be worked upon through
better cooperation, information sharing and strictly adhering to embargoes imposed on various regions.

- Arms sales should be regulated and monitored nationally and internationally and common international benchmarks of export practices should be established for countries.

- Transparency is the most important factor for pursuing responsible exports. Presently, the exporters of arms hardly practice transparency. It is not just important to transfer arms to countries but ensure that the arms are in responsible hands and not abused for inhuman purposes or illegitimate practices.

- It is important to pave the way towards an International Arms Trade Treaty (IATT). The IATT proposed a well-documented treaty containing majorly all aspects of arms trade. If the treaty is accepted internationally, it would form the basis of a strong mechanism to restrict the irresponsible sale of SALW and reduce the negative effects that it has on the global society.

References


Ethnic, Religious and other Diversities

Known as the “Land of Gold,” Ghana is also characterised by another rich resource, a diversity of religious and cultural groups. Within Ghana's 95,373 square miles live some 24 million people who belong to four major religions, five major ethnic groups, and at least nine languages, in addition to a number of regional languages and religions. The people of Ghana belong to both the larger African family and to smaller ethnic groups. It is estimated, based on language, that there are at least 75 different ethnic groups in Ghana. The largest groups are: Akan, Dagomba, Ga, Gurma, and Ewe. Many of these groups migrated into Ghana within the last 700 to 1,000 years. More than 50 languages and dialects are spoken in Ghana. Among the more important linguistic groups are the Akans, which include the Fantis along the coast and the Ashantis in the forest region north of the coast; the Guans, on the plains of the Volta River; the Ga- and Ewe-speaking peoples of the south and southeast; and the Mossi-Dagomba-speaking tribes of the northern and upper regions. English, the official and commercial language, is taught in all schools. Hausa is the lingua franca used amongst Muslim peoples, and is usually spoken alongside their native languages.

People throughout Ghana still practice various traditional religions, but the majority of the population is Christian followed by the Muslims. Many indigenous Ghanaian religions honour a higher power, which include natural phenomena and the deceased. Dead ancestors are considered omnipresent beings who are capable of influencing real-life events and acting as intermediaries between the living and the gods. There is no government body that regulates or oversees religious affairs as all religious bodies are independent institutions; however, religious institutions must register with the Registrar General's Department to receive formal government recognition. The registration requirement for religious bodies at the Office of the Registrar General is the same for an NGO. The Government does not provide financial support for any religious organization. Formally registered religions are exempt from paying taxes on ecclesiastical, charitable, and educational activities that do not generate income. However, religious organizations are required to pay progressive taxes, on a pay-as-you-earn basis, on business activities that generate income. The Government often takes steps to promote interfaith understanding. At government meetings and receptions, there are usually multidenominational invocations led by leaders from various religious groups.

Unity in Diversity

Ghana is a mosaic made up of the lives and experiences of many peoples. Embracing the country’s diversity is critical, yet is often thwarted by religious intolerance, ethnic stereotyping, cultural exclusivity, racial prejudice, gender bias, hate crimes and violence. There is a need to reexamine the rights and responsibilities of all people in a way that respects changing demographic realities. One area of potential is for various religious to undertake this reexamination. As traditionally recognised teachers of ethical values, religious groups can suggest touchstones for legitimate public discourse on such topics as being respectful of others’ traditions and working together for the common good.

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**Objective 2: Consolidate Constitutional democracy, including periodic political competition and opportunity for choice, the rule of law, and citizen rights**

Although military rule characterized the greater part of its 54 years as a nation, Ghana is now a stable democratic country governed by the 1992 Constitution which ushered in the Fourth Republic. Over the course of 19 years Ghana has witnessed four successive elections and the successful transfer of power of two incumbent governments. The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana affirms that: (1) The Sovereignty of Ghana resides in the people of Ghana in whose name and for whose welfare the powers of government are to be exercised in the manner
and within the limits laid down in this Constitution, and (2) The Constitution shall be the
supreme law of Ghana and any other law found to be inconsistent with any provision of the
Constitution shall, to the extent of the inconsistency, be void.

Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms of the citizen are provided for in the constitution:

12. (1) The fundamental human rights and freedoms enshrined in this Chapter shall be
respected and upheld by the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary and all other organs of
government and its agencies and, by all natural and legal persons in Ghana, and shall be
enforceable by the Courts as provided for in this Constitution.

(2) Every person in Ghana, whatever his race, place of origin, political opinion, colour,
religion, creed or gender shall be entitled to the fundamental human rights and freedoms
of the individual contained in this Chapter but subject to respect for the rights and
freedoms of others and for the public interest.

15. (1) The dignity of all persons shall be inviolable.

(2) No person shall, whether or not he is arrested, restricted or detained, be subjected to -
(a) torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

16. (1) No person shall be held in slavery or servitude.

(2) No person shall be required to perform forced labour.

17. (1) All persons shall be equal before the law.

2) A person shall not be discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, colour, ethnic
origin, religion, creed or social or economic status.

The Constitution also guarantees various “freedoms” to its citizenry.

(1) All persons shall have the right to-
(a) freedom of speech and expression, which shall include freedom of the press and other
media;
(b) freedom of thought, conscience and belief, which shall include academic freedom;
(c) freedom to practise any religion and to manifest such practice;
(d) freedom of assembly including freedom to take part in processions and
demonstrations.
(e) freedom of association, which shall include freedom to form or join trade unions or
other associations, national and international, for the protection of their interest;
(f) information, subject to such qualifications and laws as are necessary in a democratic
society;
(g) freedom of movement which means the right to move freely in Ghana, the right to
leave and to enter Ghana and immunity from expulsion from Ghana.

(2) A restriction on a person’s freedom of movement by his lawful detention shall not be
held to be inconsistent with or in contravention of this article.
(3) All citizens shall have the right and freedom to form or join political parties and to participate in political activities subject to such qualifications and law as are necessary in a free and democratic society and are consistent with this Constitution.

Ghana’s Democratic Transition

Ghana’s post-independence history has been characterized by long periods of military rule, marked by gross human rights abuses. With the exception of the First Republic under Nkrumah (1960-1966), the interludes of civilian governments under the Second (1969-72) and Third (1979-81) Republics have been short-lived, unable to survive for up to three years without being overthrown in a coup d’état. In the late 1980s, after nearly one decade of quasi–military rule under the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC), strong internal and external pressures on the government led to the promulgation of a liberal constitution in 1992 and the inauguration of a multiparty party democracy in 1993, ushering Ghana into its Fourth Republic.

A new phase of the political struggle of the opposition against the PNDC opened in January 1990 when the Ghana Bar Association (GBA) called on the PNDC to immediately initiate a referendum that would permit the Ghanaian people to determine openly the form of constitutional government they wished for themselves. In his end-of-year message in 1989, Flight Lieutenant Jerry John Rawlings had promised that the government would strengthen participatory democracy at the grass-roots level. He also proposed that the National Commission on Democracy (NCD) initiate nationwide consultations with various groups to determine the country's economic and political future. These consultations consisted of a series of seminars in all the ten regional capitals from July 5 to November 9, 1990, at which the public was invited to express its views.

On July 24, the Kwame Nkrumah Revolutionary Guards (KNRG) issued a statement calling for a return to multiparty democracy, for the lifting of the ban on political parties, and for the creation of a constituent assembly to draft a new constitution to be approved by a national referendum. On August 1, the KNRG, other opposition organisations, and some prominent Ghanaians formed the Movement for Freedom and Justice (MFJ). The MFJ identified the restoration of multiparty democracy and the rule of law in Ghana as its main objectives. Its leaders immediately complained about harassment by the security agencies and about denial of permits to hold public rallies by the police.

Debate about the country's political future dominated 1991. In his broadcast to the nation on New Year's Day, Ft. Lt. Rawlings outlined steps toward the next stages in the country's political evolution, which included issuance of an NCD report on what form of democracy Ghanaians preferred. The PNDC made it clear that it did not favour multiparty democracy, although its spokesmen indicated that the PNDC had an open mind on the matter. The MFJ immediately called for a constituent assembly, where all parties, including the PNDC, would submit proposals for Ghana's constitutional future.

In late March, the NCD presented its findings on “true democracy” to the PNDC. After receiving the NCD report, the PNDC announced in May that it accepted the principle of a multiparty system. In its response to the NCD report, the PNDC pledged to set up a committee of constitutional experts that would formulate the draft constitutional proposals to be placed before a National Consultative Assembly. The committee came into being in May. A 258-member National Consultative Assembly, comprised of a broad spectrum of the Ghanaian public, was
constituted in June 1991 with the task of preparing a draft constitution for submission to the PNDC not later than December 31, 1991. The PNDC was then to submit the draft constitution to a national referendum, after which, if approved, it was to enter into force on a date set by the PNDC.

In August 1991, Ft Lt. Rawlings announced that presidential and parliamentary elections would be held before the end of 1992 and that international observers would be allowed. By the end of 1991, however, the PNDC had not announced when the ban on political parties would be lifted, although many individuals and organizations, such as the Kwame Nkrumah Welfare Society, the Friends of Busia and Danquah, and the Eagle Club, had formed or reemerged and were active as parties in all but name. Despite persistent acrimony surrounding the management and control of the transition process, the PNDC appointed an independent Interim National Electoral Commission in February 1992. The Commission was responsible for the registration of voters, the conduct of fair elections, and the review of boundaries of administrative and electoral areas.

In a nationwide radio and television broadcast on March 5 marking the thirty-fifth anniversary of Ghana's independence, Ft Lt. Rawlings officially announced the following timetable for the return to constitutional government:

- presentation of the draft constitution to the PNDC by the end of March 1992;
- a referendum on the draft constitution on April 28, 1992;
- lifting of the ban on political parties on May 18, 1992;
- presidential elections on November 3, 1992;
- parliamentary elections on December 8, 1992; and
- the inauguration of the Fourth Republic on January 7, 1993.

The PNDC saw the constitutional referendum as an essential exercise that would educate ordinary Ghanaians about the draft constitution and that would create a national consensus. The opposition to the PNDC urged its supporters and all Ghanaians to support the draft constitution by voting for it. In the April 1992 national referendum, the draft constitution was overwhelmingly approved by about 92 percent of voters. Although the turnout was lower than expected (43.7 percent of registered voters), it was higher than that of the 1978 referendum (40.3 percent) and that of the 1979 parliamentary elections (35.2 percent). The new constitution provided that a referendum should have a turnout of at least 35 percent, with at least 70 percent in favor, in order to be valid.

After the lifting of the ban on party politics in May, several rival splinter groups or offshoots of earlier organizations, notably the so-called Nkrumahists and Danquah-Busiaists as well as new groups, lost no time in declaring their intention to register as political parties and to campaign for public support. In June the Washington-based International Foundation for Electoral Systems, which had sent a team to Ghana to observe the April referendum, issued a report recommending re-registration of voters as quickly as possible if Ghana were to have truly competitive presidential and parliamentary elections. The foundation claimed that the total number of registered voters—8.4 million—was improbable. Given an estimated national population of about 16 million—of whom about half were under age fifteen—the Foundation concluded that with a voting age of eighteen, the total registrable population ought not to be above 7.75 million.

This discovery fueled a persistent opposition demand to reopen the voters' register, but constraints of time, technology, and money made such an effort impossible. Instead, the Interim
National Electoral Commission embarked on a "voters' register cleansing." Only about 180,000 names were removed from the referendum register, however, leaving the total registered voters at 8.23 million, a statistical impossibility, the opposition insisted. Estimates put the actual number of registered voters at about 6.2 million, making the 3.69 million turn-out at the referendum an adjusted 59.5 percent.

Since 1992, Ghana has held five successful multiparty elections. The peaceful transfer of power from the government of the National Democratic Congress (NDC) to the New Patriotic Party (NPP) following national elections in December 2000 clearly demonstrates how far Ghana has travelled along the path towards democratic consolidation over the past decade. Beyond successful elections, Ghana has made appreciable progress in institutionalising multiparty democratic governance within the framework of the 1992 Constitution. To date, there is considerable evidence of political liberalisation which allows Ghanaians to enjoy a much wider range of rights and liberties, as well as the emergence of a vibrant civil society and a free and independent media that increasingly hold government accountable on behalf of citizens. Indeed, with these significant developments, Ghana’s democratisation has been touted as one of the political success stories in Africa.

Ghana’s transition processes has essentially been characterised by two related struggles: the struggle for economic recovery from decades of economic decline and for better living standards for the average Ghanaian; and the struggle for "true democracy". The PNDC assumed power against the background of devastating and unenviable economic and social indicators. The growing popular dissatisfaction with the economic performance of past military governments was joined with demands for greater political freedom.

An analysis of the most powerful economic and political actors that underpin Ghana’s nascent democratic processes and the extent of her democratic consolidation shows that she has made modest but significant progress in democratic governance in the past 18 years. In a region marred by authoritarianism and gross human rights violations, Ghana stands out as a positive example of democratic progress in Africa from several perspectives:

- First, the peaceful alternation of power from the National Democratic Congress (NDC) government to one of its arch rivals, the New Patriotic Party (NPP), through the ballot box in January 2001 has been a highly significant development, especially by the standards of sub-Saharan Africa.

- Second, with the promulgation of a liberal Constitution, inclusive of provisions on human rights protection and promotion and the establishment of independent commissions of horizontal accountability, there have been considerable improvements in the respect for human rights since the restoration of multiparty democracy in 1993.

- Third, the democratic transition has significantly changed the country’s political environment, enabling non-state actors in civil society and the private sector to assert themselves more proactively in influencing government policies than in the past.

Accordingly, the past 18 years have seen the emergence of vibrant, independent media and an active civil society in effective exercise of the freedom of association guaranteed under the 1992 Constitution. Nonetheless, to characterise Ghana’s democratic practices in the above positive manner is not to deny that major democratic deficits persist.
First, even though the Constitution guarantees a broad range of rights, including those of civil and political rights as well as economic and social rights, Executive/Presidential dominance over other structures of power remains a major factor undermining citizens’ ability to claim their rights. This is largely because the political system and the underlying distribution of power among the various organs of government fosters executive hegemony and weakens the effectiveness of formal oversight institutions such as Parliamentary committees, CHRAJ and the judiciary in the protection and promotion of rights – a problem largely traceable to flaws in constitutional designs and provisions. Key among such flaws are the excessive constitutional powers entrusted to the President in the appointment of judges, the Judicial Council and the Council of State, as well as executive-legislature fusion through the President’s power to appoint the majority of cabinet ministers from within Parliament.

This latter provision has significantly empowered the President “to recruit ... MPs to join the government and for enforcing loyalty to the executive undermining the oversight functions of the legislature” (Linberg 2008:26). Executive dominance extends from the central to regional and local levels where the President’s power to appoint members of the Regional Coordinating Councils, District Chief Executives as well as one-third of the membership of the District Assemblies foster upward accountability to the central government rather than downward accountability to citizens and their communities. Thus, if by democratic decentralization is meant “entrusting downwardly accountable representative actors with significant domains of autonomous discretionary power” (Ribot 2001:vi), then “democratisation in Ghana seems to lack depth at the local government level and there is an urgent need for reforms in the local government sector” (IEA 2008:73).

Second, while civil society activity may have grown tremendously over the past 18 years, it must also be acknowledged that this growth has not translated automatically into effective impact of non-state actors in policy making. Indeed, effective civic participation in policy making is still undermined by a variety of factors. These include: limited availability of relevant information to CSOs mainly due to the lack of a freedom of information law; limited civil society capacity to effectively influence government’s policies; and over dependence of CSOs on donor funding leading to their co-optation by external partners. It is worth noting that Freedom House’s ratings of Ghana have soared from a low of six on both political and civil liberties in 1991 to a high of two on both scales in 2004.

Moreover, the absence of structures through which non-state actors can evaluate the extent to which their engagement with the state influence the outcome of public policy choices and to hold government accountable to any decisions reached in the course of consultations (Whitfield 2005:653), gives government the leverage to consult but ignore civil society’s views in setting national development agenda. Not surprisingly, whilst representatives of civil society and private sector organizations are increasingly being invited to participate in poverty reduction strategies and social development programmes, non-state actors who have been involved in these participatory processes “maintain that the process neither sufficiently empowers them to influence public policy choices nor mobilises them for public action in support of ensuing policies and programmes” (IDEG 2004:12). Indeed, some CSOs and private sectors that have participated in the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I & II) processes have expressed dissatisfaction with the extent and quality of their participation, arguing that it was more of ‘consultation’ and ‘information sharing’ exercise than a public deliberation process (Abdulai and Quantson 2008). The result of this limited non-state actors’ engagement at the national level is the outcome of public policy choices not backed by effective civic action. Also at the local level,
the weakness of the sub-district structures, particularly the Unit Committees, means that citizens have no mechanisms for effectively influencing decisionmaking and development planning beyond periodic elections.

The third major democratic deficit is the marginalization of women in the power structures of the state not only at the national and local levels, but also in the country’s traditional governance system. Although the constitution guarantees all persons the opportunity to participate in decision making at every level, low levels of education as well as deep-seated socio-cultural practices constitute a formidable hindrance to the effective participation of women in politics and public life. Accordingly, despite constituting over 50% of the country’s population, the share of women in political and public office’s appointment is a paltry 8%. Affirmative action in this area in recent times, consisting in part of the purposeful and targeted nomination of women to key positions, have so far made minimal impact in enhancing the visibility of women in Ghanaian politics.

Consolidating democracy in Ghana will therefore require a conscious effort in addressing the socio-cultural factors that tend to limit the rights of women in effectively participating in active politics. Civil society has a crucial role in this regard by continuously and vigorously advocating gender equity and equality in all fabrics of life as a basic right, and as a means for addressing women’s concerns. Political parties can also assist by deliberately fielding female parliamentary candidates in their strongholds, and by ensuring that women play more visible roles in their party structures.

After operating the Constitution for nearly two decades the country has found it necessary to review portions of the document to conform to the challenges of modern times. Consequently in 2010, the President inaugurated a Constitutional Review Committee to examine portions of the Constitution that need to be reviewed or amended. To ensure that the process is participatory, the Committee’s modalities involved nationwide consultations with various stakeholders and where necessary, Ghanaian Communities in other countries were also engaged in the deliberations for their views to be accommodated in the final outcomes. The expectation is that the evolving document will respond more adequately to the changing times.
**Party Financing**

The mode of funding political parties in the country is provided for in sections 23 and 24 of the Political Parties Act, 2000 (Act 574). Only a citizen of the country may contribute in cash or kind to the funds of a political party. A firm, partnership, or enterprise owned by a citizen or a company registered under the laws of the Republic, at least seventy-five percent of whose capital is owned by a citizen, is for the purposes of the Act a citizen. A non-citizen shall not directly or indirectly make a contribution or donation or loan whether in cash or in kind to the funds held by or for the benefit of a political party and no political party or person acting for or on behalf of a political party shall demand or accept a contribution, donation or loan from a non-citizen. Where any person contravenes section 23 or 24, in addition to any penalty that may be imposed under the Act, any amount, whether in cash or in kind paid in contravention of the section shall be recovered from the political party as debt owed to the State. A non-citizen found guilty of contravention of section 24 shall be deemed to be a prohibited immigrant and liable to deportation under the Aliens Act, 1963 (Act 160). The provisions of sections 23 and 24 however do not preclude any country or a non-governmental organization from providing assistance in cash or in kind to the Electoral Commission to be used for the collective benefit of registered political parties.

It is apparent from the provisions of the law regarding the funding of political parties that the framers took caution to ensure that the political process is indigenously owned by Ghanaians themselves and also to preclude the situation where the destiny of the country could fall into the hands of foreigners who have invested so much in a political party to bring it to power. The country’s constitution guarantees that political parties operate very transparent financial systems: Article 21 (1) of the Political Parties Act 2000 (Act 574) states that within six months from the end of each year, a political party is to submit a statement of account to the Electoral Commission, including the following: Sources of its funds, membership dues paid, contributions or donations in cash or kind received, properties of the party and when they were acquired.

**Political Parties in Ghana**

With its fifth successful national election since the return to democracy, Ghana increased its credentials as the beacon of democratic praxis on the African continent. Ghana's democratic political system survived the closeness and intensity of the 2008 elections because it has developed stabilizing characteristics evidenced by:

- an independent Electoral Commission and transparent electoral processes,
- the integration of the political elite alongside the creation of norms and institutions structuring elite behaviour, and the institutionalization of political parties.

Undoubtedly, elections in Ghana are competitive because of the *de facto* two-party system where voters and political elites are mobilized around two political traditions and in which both the National Democratic Congress (NDC) and New Patriotic Party (NPP) serve as the ruling party or a credible opposition. The parties mobilize voters and political elites around two political traditions which emerged during decolonization and still remain salient. These political traditions provide ideological images, founding mythologies and political styles for the parties which cut across social cleavages such as ethnicity, region, urban/rural and social status. The two parties have established institutional networks in all regions of the country, although there are two regions which lean predominantly to one party or the other.
While each party has strongholds, the outcomes of elections are determined by so-called swing regions, which contain a large number of floating voters who are not party loyalists and may switch their vote based on government performance. Thus, Ghana is different from several African countries where parties split or form around leaders, who bring their popular support base with them. It is also different in that elections are not dominated by ethnic politisisation, because the two main parties in Ghana have a strong political support base in most regions and party identification is based on cross-cutting social cleavages of which ethnicity forms only one part.

The real origins of Ghana's credible opposition, and its two-party system, lie in the political traditions that developed during decolonization in the 1950s: the Danquah-Dombo-Busia tradition versus the Nkrumahist tradition. Since the first elections in Ghana's history, parties have formed around these two traditions. The situation of the Fourth Republic is somewhat different. The consolidation of the two-party system since the 1992 elections resulted from a new party, the National Democratic Congress, effectively occupying the Nkrumahist tradition and thus displacing the old Nkrumahist parties.

The United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC) was established in 1947 with the declared aim of working for self-government at the earliest possible date. In 1949, as most of the UGCC leadership came to accept constitutional reform as an alternative to immediate self-government, the party secretary, Kwame Nkrumah, broke away and formed his own group, the Convention People's Party (CPP). In January 1950, Nkrumah announced a programme of "positive action" for which he and the main leaders of the party were prosecuted and sentenced for sedition. At the first elections held in 1951 under a new constitution, the CPP obtained 71 of the 104 seats, and Nkrumah and his colleagues were released from prison to enter the new government. In May 1952, Dr Kofi A. Busia founded the Ghana Congress Party (GCP), which continued the UGCC position of trying to form alliances with traditional chiefs. The GCP's leadership was a mixture of dissatisfied former CPP members and the professional-oriented leadership of the UGCC. In 1953, Nkrumah was elected life chairman and leader of the CPP. The Nkrumahist tradition is perceived in Ghanaian popular imagination as ethnically and socially inclusive, broad-based, populist and left-wing. The Danquah-Dombo-Busia tradition is perceived as elitist, ethnically exclusive (predominantly Ashanti and Akyem sub-groups of the Akan), liberal-democratic and right-wing.

One of the first acts of independent Ghana under Nkrumah was the Avoidance of Discrimination Act (1957), prohibiting sectional parties based on racial, regional, or religious differences. This led the opposition parties to amalgamate into the new United Party (UP), opposing the government's centralization policies and the declining power of the traditional rulers. The effectiveness of the opposition was reduced following the 1960 election by the withdrawal of official recognition of the opposition as such and by the detention of several leading opposition members under the Preventive Detention Act (1958). In September 1962, the National Assembly passed by an overwhelming majority a resolution calling for the creation of a one-party state; this was approved by referendum in January 1964.

Nkrumah was overthrown in 1966 by the military, and the country experienced oscillations of military and civilian rule. After the military takeover of February 1966, the military junta of the National Liberation Council outlawed the CPP along with all other political organisations. The ban on political activities was lifted on 1 May 1969. When elections were held in 1969 and 1979, the main parties contending the elections were reincarnations of the CPP and the UGCC/UP traditions. Until the Fourth Republic, parties were forbidden to use the names of parties thrown
out of government, but the link to the first parties was made clear. The Progress Party (PP) won the 1969 elections, marking the first time that the UGCC/UP elite came to power. The People's National Convention (PNC) party won the 1979 elections, marking the return of the CPP.

The coup of December 1981 by the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) brought yet another dissolution of Ghana's political party structure. With adoption of a new constitution in April 1992, the longstanding ban on political activity was lifted on 18 May 1992. The parties that emerged could be grouped into three clusters. The center-right group was the most cohesive and it consisted of followers of the Danquah-Dombo-Busia tradition. They formed the New Patriotic Party (NPP). The center-left group was Nkrumahists. Ideological and leadership differences kept them divided into 5 separate parties, of which the People's National Convention (PNC) was the best organised. PNDC supporters comprised the third grouping. They favored continuity and, after forming the National Democratic Congress (NDC), put forward Flight Lieutenant Jerry John Rawlings as their candidate.

While the NPP's institutional network dates back to the UGCC in the 1950s, the NDC institutional network emerged only in the early 1990s. The NDC was formed around Rawlings, who led a ‘people's revolution’ in December 1981 which overthrew the Limann government and established an authoritarian-bureaucratic government with members from the military and from outside the established political elite. Through the establishment of ‘revolutionary’ groups and through local government reforms in 1988–9, Rawlings built a political support base that very closely resembled the political machine of Nkrumah's CPP. He converted this support base and the senior personalities of his regime into the National Democratic Congress (NDC), drawing its founding mythology from the 1981 ‘revolution’. The attempt by the NDC to establish itself as the “Third Force” on the political landscape with “Rawlingsm” as its political ideology failed to take roots.

Nonetheless, the rhetoric and actions of Rawlings as a non-elite figure (when he took power), championing the cause of ‘the people’, allowed him to usurp the Nkrumahist tradition away from the old Nkrumahist parties. Although the NDC does not refer to Nkrumah's legacy and doctrine in its founding mythology and everyday speech, it uses a similar brand of populist rhetoric and claims, as Nkrumah's CPP did, to represent the ordinary person and to be the party of the masses. For the 1992 elections, the NDC allied with the remnant of the CPP, but from 1996 onwards the NDC stood alone, and the smaller parties tracing their heritage back to the Nkrumahist tradition polled very little of the vote. Thus, the NDC replaced the CPP as the party of the people and the alternative to the Danquah-Dombo-Busia tradition, effectively embodying the Nkrumahist tradition even if its party history and institutional networks do not link back to the 1950s.

These events have significantly shaped not only the trajectory of elite formation in Ghana, but also its party structures. Both the NDC and NPP embody the ideological ideas and political styles of these political traditions established during decolonization, the Nkrumahist and Danquah-Dombo-Busia traditions respectively. While the two political traditions have been instrumental to party institutionalization and the consolidation of a two-party system, the NDC and NPP are not sharply differentiated along ideological lines. There is a gap between the ideological images constructed by the parties and the actual policies pursued by those parties when in government. The NDC calls itself the Social Democratic party, and the NPP sees itself as right of centre. However, the policies pronounced and pursued by the NPP and NDC governments since the 1990s have not been that different.
### Ghana’s Political Parties since Independence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period/Era</th>
<th>Political Parties</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Independence</td>
<td>Anlo Youth Organization, Convention People's Party, Federation of Youth Organization, Ghana Congress Party, Muslim Association Party, National Liberation Movement, Northern People's Party, Togoland Congress, United Gold Coast Convention</td>
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Currently the only active political parties in the country are the National Democratic Congress (NDC), The New Patriotic party (NPP) which is the main opposition Party, the People’s National Convention (PNC) and the Convention People’s Party (CPP). The rest are either dormant or defunct, only to revive themselves during election years.

**Political Party Activities**

The democratic culture of the country has thrived on an effective multi-party system of governance with a vibrant electoral machinery. The Political Parties Act prohibits the founding of parties along ethnic, gender professional, regional or religious lines or the use of words, slogans or symbols which could arouse ethnic, gender, regional, professional or other sectional divisions. The electoral machinery occupies a very important and strategic place in the democratic culture of the country. The electoral system is provided for and protected under the Constitution of the Republic. It provides for an independent Electoral Commission, which, in the performance of its functions, shall not be subject to the direction of any person or authority. The Commission has, since the inception of the Fourth Republican Constitution, organised four successful elections in the country and has earned worldwide acclaim for the successful conduct of free and fair elections in the country.
Electoral Law

The Political Parties Act, 2000 (Act 574) is the main legislative framework for the conduct of elections in the country. It is divided into four parts and deals with all matters relating to the electoral process in the country. These include:

- The founding and registration of political parties, which deals with the method and conditions for registering a political party as well as certain prohibitions regarding the formation and conditions for registration.
- The operation of political parties, which touches on the declaration of assets and expenditure by political parties, declaration of assets, liabilities and expenditure in relation to elections, returns and accounts of political parties and provision of particulars of national, regional, district and constituency offices and officers.
- The funding of political parties, which establishes the fact that only citizens of the country can contribute to the funding of political parties.
- General miscellaneous provisions, which touch on issues as chiefs, public officers and political activities, political meetings and winding of political parties.

Electoral Process

The electoral process is outlined in the functions of the Electoral Commission and includes the following:

- The compilation of the register of voters and its revision at such periods as may be determined by the Commission;
- The demarcation of the electoral boundaries for both national and local government elections;
- The conduct and supervision of all public elections and referenda and the education of the people on the electoral process and its purpose;
- Undertaking programmes for the expansion of the registration of voters.

The Actors

There are a number of actors and stakeholders in the electoral system each with a duty and responsibility to ensure the integrity of the process. These include the ruling party in government, the three arms of government, namely, the Executive, Legislature and the Judiciary. Others are the Electoral Commission and its various functionaries, the media, the security apparatus of the State, the political parties and their supporters and functionaries (polling agents etc) the international community and Non-governmental organisations which have supported the electoral process over the years.

Management of electoral outcomes/dispute resolution mechanisms

It is generally agreed that the management of post election disputes, especially those related to parliamentary results, should be the responsibility of all stakeholders including the ruling government, the Electoral Commission (the election management body) and the political parties and their supporters. The responsibility devolves on all these political actors to ensure that the rules of the electoral game are respected to ensure violence-free elections. Among other measures;

- The government (the ruling party) has the responsibility to ensure that all suspicion that it can manipulate the electoral process in its favour is removed. This responsibility includes refraining from abuse of incumbency and attempts to exercise control over the election management body.
The election management body also has the responsibility to assert its independence by resisting attempts by either the government or political parties to influence it unduly. It is important that the public has confidence that the election management body cannot be manipulated by political actors.

Much of the responsibility to ensure violence free election also rests with political parties and their supporters. Political parties have the responsibility to educate their members against lawless acts that will disturb the peace before, during and after elections.

There is the need for political parties to work hard to strengthen their support base instead of seeking opportunities to rig elections through intimidation and vote buying.

It is also important for political parties to commit themselves in a binding code of conduct backed by a strong sanction regime which commits them and their supporters to ‘good behaviour’ during elections.

The media also has the responsibility to refrain from hyping baseless allegations that will heighten political tension before, during and after an election. The responsibility of the media should include educating the public against acts of violence during elections.

Civil society groups and research centres must increase inter-party dialogue and help parties to assess their true strength before elections so that they will gracefully accept defeat in elections.

The voting public and society as a whole has the responsibility to reject attempts by political parties to buy their votes, take part in vote rigging or participate in street protests that have no basis.

There is the need to cultivate a constant dialogue among the key stakeholders in the electoral process to deal with all real or perceived issues likely to cause violence during elections. The Inter-Party Advisory Committee (IPAC) serves as a forum for political practices in Ghana to address their grievances in relation to the conduct of general elections.

Managing post election disputes, especially those related to parliamentary results, require the Judiciary to act swiftly. In the event of election disputes the cases should be handled with dispatch.

Debating the Issue of Political Party Funding

Article 21(1) of the Political Parties Act 2000, Act 574 prescribes clear rules for financial reporting. Within six months from the end of each year, a political party is to submit a statement of account to the Electoral Commission, including the following:

- source of its funds, membership dues paid,
- contributions or donations in cash or kind received,
- properties of the party and when they were acquired.
Article 23 regulates the funding of political parties: only Ghanaian citizens or firms, partnerships, or enterprises in which a Ghanaian owns at least 75% and is registered under the laws of Ghana can contribute or make donations in cash or kind to a political party. It is illegal for non-citizens to make contributions in cash or kind to a political party. These regulations are intended to ensure transparency and accountability in the operation of political parties, as well as avoid exposing an important institution of democracy like the political party to the power of the few who are rich and powerful in society. It was, however, wrongly assumed that voluntary contributions or donations and membership dues will be adequate for running a political organization in a democracy. Realizing this ideal in practice has been problematic and illusory. Even the two major political parties – the New Patriotic Party (NPP) and the National Democratic Congress (NDC) – have found it extremely difficult to finance their operations from such honest sources.

State Funding of Parties

The fact, however, is that finance is a major problem for all the political parties except the one that is in power. Consequently, all the non-governing parties have at one time or the other agitated for state funding of political parties. As the political parties have justifiably asserted, the major problem that militates against any effective party organisation in this country is lack of funding. Funds are required to help build the capacity of party functionaries at all levels of the party structure and to help provide adequate logistics for internal party organisation. The arguments adduced for the state funding of political parties, therefore, are as follows:

- State funding of political parties will always create an even playing field during elections.
- State funding of parties will prevent graft and patronage from becoming institutionalized as a means of accumulating money for party and non-party purposes.
- State funding of parties will sustain the vibrancy of political parties and enhance the culture of multi-party democracy in the country.
- State funding will prevent individual parties from becoming too strong and thereby using its political and financial clout to cripple other parties on the path to becoming a one party state.
- It will also forestall the probable event of a foreign country or business interest financing a political party to attain power and subsequently dictating its terms to the ruling party.

When the New Patriotic Party (NPP) was in opposition it was a vocal advocate of state funding of political parties. However, when it was voted into power it became less enthusiastic about the issue of state funding of political parties. The same applies to the National Democratic Congress (NDC) which, when out of power, often lamented the paucity of funds for party work and joined the smaller parties to advocate state funding of political parties. Thus, both the NDC and the NPP, when out of power and in opposition, complained bitterly about the terrible state of their finances.

The reason for this nonchalant attitude towards political party funding can be explained as follows. The party that wins executive power uses its control of state resources to stuff its
elections chest with slush funds obtained through graft and patronage. Ensconced in the comfort zone of its financial solvency, the ruling party soon forgets about the dire financial straits it found itself while in opposition and assumes much less interest in advocating for state funding for the other parties in opposition. The financial advantage that incumbency creates thus leaves the other political parties solely dependent on membership dues, contributions from their members of parliament (if any), and donations. Reliance on membership dues especially reduces a political party’s finances to a rather precarious state. The truth is that registered (or card-bearing) membership is generally insignificant and even where it is substantial, pervasive poverty among Ghanaians limits the amount ordinary members can pay as dues to their parties.

Public Opinion on State Funding

Various opinion polls have been conducted to assess the views of the public regarding state funding of political parties. The consensus, however, does not favour the option of state funding of political parties. This public opinion is shaped by a number of factors. In accordance with the Political Parties Act 2000, Act 574:

- all political parties are to be organized as national parties;
- each of them is further to be organized at the regional and district or constituency levels;
- in addition to these mandatory requirements, the major political parties strive to organize branches in every town and village of the country.

Even though the law stipulates that political parties should be organized at the district rather than the constituency level, political parties choose to organize at the constituency instead of the administrative district. This is a strategic choice compelled by the need for effective mobilization of voters during elections. This electoral imperative has made the constituency branches of the political parties the most important organizational unit below the national headquarters of the parties.

Over the years, the Ghanaian public has come to realise that parties spring up during election years and those that have been inactive endeavor to oil their party machinery into active electioneering campaigns. Most of these parties fail to maintain offices in the constituencies and the lower party hierarchies and only arrange with landlords for short term occupancy arrangements during election years, only to fold up when elections have been held. Again, in the intervening period between electioneering years, one could hardly hear these political parties contributing to national debates and providing alternative policy positions on national issues.

Even though the state does not fund political parties, the Electoral Commission has, over the years, been supplying political parties with some logistics including computers and accessories and some vehicles which it often receives from development partners to assist in their electioneering campaigns. All the registered parties, no matter how small, have benefitted from this largesse from the Electoral Commission. The behaviour of some of these political parties has eroded any confidence vote from the public for the state to provide some funding. This is in the belief that most of them exist to benefit from the system and really do not have an agenda and a blueprint to lead the country. Most of these parties are therefore regarded as not serious and therefore do not deserve tax-payers’ money being wasted on them.

Again, there is the public believe that any party that wishes to lead the nation should assess itself if it was capable of prosecuting its own agenda. The situation where a party enters into the fray
of political contest before crying out that it is under-resourced and therefore should be bailed out with the taxpayers’ money does not seem to be an acceptable proposition to the Ghanaian public. Moreover, considering the enormous development challenges confronting the nation in terms of the provision of social amenities and infrastructure for her people, it will be a misplacement of priority on the part of the government to use the scarce resources of the country to fund political parties which, by their conduct have not proved to be trustworthy entities to lead the country.

From the arguments adduced above, it means that until there is a major shift in public opinion on state funding of political parties, the precarious financial situation of most political parties, especially those that are not in power, will continue for a long time with dire consequences for democratic practice. First, incumbent parties will always enjoy considerable financial advantage over both major and minor parties in opposition. It is obvious that this will always create uneven playing field during elections graft and patronage will become institutionalized means of accumulating money for party activities.

The entrenched nature of the two political traditions which makes it difficult for the introduction and acceptance of a completely new political tradition, coupled with the lack of state support for political parties has, principally, served to constrain the mushrooming of political parties on the Ghanaian political scene, very much unlike what is happening elsewhere on the African continent.

**Conclusion**

Political parties have made invaluable contributions to Ghana’s struggle for independence and the promotion of democracy and good governance. However, military interventions in the democratic process have intermittently stalled the activities of Parliament, the Executive and Judiciary as well as political parties. However, any time there is a programme to return the country to civilian rule, political parties are always the first to resurrect to give the process a moving spirit as was witnessed by activities leading to the establishment of the Fourth Republic. Currently, the country is blessed with political parties of varied ideologies, some of whose leaders have acquired political experiences spanning decades. Some of these parties have drawn their inspiration and philosophies from tested political traditions that have existed since the pre-independence era.

The role of political parties in ensuring probity, accountability, transparency and preventing corruption, especially among government officials, is a regular feature of every democracy. The fight against corruption, in particular, is difficult and multifaceted and would require the collective efforts of all political parties. They would be expected to demonstrate their commitment to such a crusade by abiding by all laws regarding their financial operations. It is mandatory for all political parties to refrain from acts that are likely to undermine the authority of the Electoral Commission (EC) and bring the conduct of elections into disrepute. It is an undeniable fact that the mandate to conduct free, fair and credible elections in Ghana lies within the purview of the Electoral Commission. Nonetheless, the EC may not be able to accomplish this task without the support of all the stakeholders, especially the political parties and their agents.

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**Objective 3: Promote and protect economic, social and cultural rights, civil and political rights as enshrined in African and international human rights instruments**

**Human Rights in Ghana – International Conventions /Protocols**

The Republic of Ghana is a member of the United Nations and the African Union. It has ratified many UN Human Rights Conventions and thus has made binding international commitments to adhere to the standards laid down in these universal human rights documents. Ghana is also a member of the regional economic communities ECOWAS and CEN-SAD. With a Human Development Index of 0.53 Ghana ranks 152nd of 182 countries ranked in the UNDP Human Development Report of 2009. Life expectancy of the 23.4 million population at birth is 57 years, population growth is 2.1 percent per year. GNI is about 670 US-$ per capita.

In as far as Ghana has ratified the Optional Protocols for UN Human Rights Conventions or has accepted the Competence of the corresponding UN Treaty Bodies the citizens of Ghana and their representatives are able to invoke their human rights through these bodies. Ghanaians may turn to the UN Human Rights Committee through procedure 1503, to the Special Rapporteurs for violations of specific human rights or to ECOSOC for women's rights violations. Since Ghana is a member state of UNESCO, its citizens may use the UNESCO procedure for human rights violations in UNESCO's fields of mandate. Employers' or workers' and certain other organisations (not individuals) of Ghana may file complaints through the ILO procedure in the cases of those conventions which Ghana has ratified.

Since Ghana is an AU member, its citizens and NGOs may file complaints to the African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights. They may also file complaints according to the EU guidelines (on Human Rights Defenders, Death Penalty and Torture) to Embassies of EU Member States and the Delegations of the European Commission. In cases of human rights violations by multinational enterprises, they may also invoke the National Contact Point in an OECD member state.

*The Banjul Charter*

The *African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights* (also known as the *Banjul Charter*) promotes and protects human rights and basic freedoms on the African continent. It emerged under the aegis of the OAU (since 2002 replaced by the African Union) which, at its 1979 Assembly of Heads of State and Government, called for the creation of a committee of experts to draft a continent-wide human rights instrument. This committee produced a draft that was unanimously approved at the OAU’s 1981 Assembly. The Charter entered into force on 21 October 1986. Oversight and interpretation of the Charter is the task of the African Commission.
on Human and Peoples' Rights, set up in 1987 and headquartered in Banjul, Gambia. A protocol to the Charter was subsequently adopted in 1998 whereby an African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights was to be created. The protocol came into effect on 25 January 2005.

**African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights**

This was adopted by the 18th Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the Organisation of African Unity on 27 June 1981 in Nairobi, Kenya and entered into force on 21 October 1986 after the ratification of the Charter by 25 States. As of 1 December 2009, all 53 members of the African Union including Ghana had ratified the Charter:

**Protocol on the Rights of Women**

The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, also known as the Maputo Protocol guarantees comprehensive rights to women including the right to take part in the political process, the right to social and political equality with men and the right to control of their reproductive health. It also announces an end to female genital mutilation. The text was adopted in the form of a protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights by the African Union. The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa was adopted in Maputo on 11 July 2003 and entered into force on 25 November 2005. As of 1 December 2009, 27 African States including Ghana had ratified the Protocol:

**The Procedure of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (the Commission on the Status of Women and the Rights protected by it)**

The Commission on the Status of Women, an organ belonging to the UN Economic and Social Council, aims at detecting tendencies and world-wide patterns concerning the rights of women. Implementing the Procedure: The first objective of the procedure provided by the Commission on the Status of Women is not to offer a direct compensation for victims of human rights violations. The Secretariat of the Commission receives communications from individuals and organizations. They acknowledge the receipt of them and explain the procedure briefly to the claimant. They summarize the communications then and send them to the government concerned so they can submit their observations. The names of the claimants are only communicated to the government concerned (and then to the Commission) with the explicit authorization of the persons involved.

The communications are then examined by a working group on communications which prepares a report in which the most frequently submitted categories of communications are named. The Commission on the Status of Women considers the report and submits then on its part, if the Commission deems it necessary, an accompanied report to the Economic and Social Council containing recommendations on the measures to be taken on the subject of tendencies and regularities which emerge from the communications.

**Protected Main Rights of the ICESCR**

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) protects numerous fundamental rights, among them:

- Right to work (Articles 6 and 7)
- Right to form trade unions and to join the trade union of his choice (Article 8)
- Right to social security, including social insurance (Article 9);
• Protection of children and the family (Article 10);
• Right to an adequate standard of living (Article 11);
• Right to health (Article 12);
• Right to education (Article 13);
• Right to take part in cultural life, to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress and the right to intellectual property (Article 15).

The Human Rights Committee
The Committee consists of 18 independent experts elected by the States Parties to the treaty who monitor the implementation of the provisions of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and its two Optional Protocols. The Committee normally meets three times a year, for two sessions in Geneva and one in New York. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights was adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 2200 A (XXI) of 16 December 1966. It entered into force on 23 March 1976, in accordance with Article 49.

Human Rights Initiatives in Ghana
In the light of the gross human rights violations that characterised past military regimes in Ghana’s political history, one key feature of the 1992 Constitution of the Fourth Republic has been a strong emphasis on human rights protection. Chapter Five of the Constitution is entitled ‘Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms’ and is dedicated to the protection and promotion of a wide-range of rights including civil and political rights as well as economic, social and cultural rights. In recognition of the discrimination against vulnerable groups, the Constitution mandates the state to enact appropriate laws to ensure “protection and promotion of all other basic human rights and freedoms, including the rights of the disabled, the aged, children and other vulnerable groups in development process”.

The rights of women are also protected to some extent, with Article 27 of the Constitution, entitled ‘Women’s Rights’, providing for maternity leave, pre and post-natal care for mothers, and equal rights of training and promotion for women. Beyond these constitutional provisions, government has undertaken a number of reforms aimed at giving formal legal protection to the rights of certain socially disadvantaged groups and individuals including women, children and the disabled. Among these reforms are the passage of a Human Trafficking Act of 2005 (Act 694) to combat the growing trafficking of children for forced labour; Disability Act of 2006 (Act 715) to protect and promote the rights of persons living with disability; and more recently, a Domestic Violence Act of 2007 (Act 732) to protect women and girls from all forms of violence at all places. In 1998, the then NDC government also established Women and Juvenile Units (WAJU), which in 2005 was renamed the Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit (DOVVSU) in the Ghana Police Service to give special attention to addressing discriminatory acts against women and children Ghana’s commitment to human rights protection is also reflected in the country’s ratification of important human rights treaties at both international and regional levels.

The following are the provisions on human rights under the Constitution of the Republic of Ghana for her citizenry:

Political and Civil Rights Guaranteed in the 1992 Constitution
• Protection of the Right to Life (Article 13)
• The Right to Personal Liberty (Article 14)
• Respect for Human Dignity (Article 15)
• Protection from Slavery and Forced Labour (Article 16)
• Equality and Freedom from Discrimination (Article 17)
• Protection of Privacy of Home and other Property (Article 18)
• The right to a Fair Trial (Article 19)
• Protection from Deprivation of Property (Article 20)
• General Fundamental Freedoms relating to speech, expression, information, thought, conscience, belief, movement, assembly, association (Article 21)

**Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Guaranteed in the 1992 Constitution**

- Property Rights of Spouses (Article 22)
- Economic Rights (Article 24)
- Educational Rights (Article 25)
- Cultural Rights (Article 26)
- Women's Rights (Article 27)
- Children's Rights (Article 28)
- Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Article 29)
- Rights of the Sick (Article 30)

At the international level, Ghana is a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), amongst others. In January 1990, Ghana became the first country in the world to sign the Convention on the Rights of the Child At the regional level, Ghana has also acceded to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights, including its protocol establishing a human rights court and the African Charter on the Rights of the Child Finally, Ghana’s commitment to human rights promotion was demonstrated by the establishment of a National Reconciliation Commission (NRC) in 2002 to investigate and address past human rights abuses during the country’s periods of unconstitutional government between 1957 and 1993.

In its final report submitted to the government in October 2004, the NRC recommended a comprehensive reparations package that covers a range of acts including a formal presidential apology to victims of human rights abuses by state agents, scholarship and health benefits for survivors and their families; restitution of confiscated property; monetary compensation; and the need for institutional reforms such as training on human rights for the military, police, judges and prison officials, given that these were the institutions most responsible for past human rights violations.

In 2005, the government issued a White Paper accepting some of the recommendations of the Commission, and promising to establish a reparation fund to compensate human rights victims. The NRCs’ recommendations on reparations required approximately US$1.5 million, and the government began paying reparations to some 2,000 Ghanaians in October 2007. The government also issued an apology to all those who had been wronged by past governments. Beyond the monetary compensation and formal presidential apology, however, implementation of other recommendations has been weak. In particular, although the government White Paper accepted the recommendation of reforming the security agencies, responsibility for
implementation was shifted from government to the institutions concerned, with no mention of a plan on the part of government for implementation or monitoring.

A number of measures have been put in place to promote, respect, fulfill and guarantee the economic, social, cultural, civil and political aspirations and rights of the Ghanaian citizenry. These have been discussed in the subsequent sub-headings of the third objective of this report.

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Employment

Unemployment remains a major development issue in many countries, and in Ghana, the rates are quite high especially among the youth. Recent improvements in Ghana’s economic growth since 2001 have not translated adequately into employment. Evidence indicates that there has been an increasing trend towards the expansion of urban informal sector and a decline in opportunities for productive employment in the formal sector. Consequently, the unemployment among the economically active population is still high. Under-employment is also a major problem especially among women engaged in agriculture in rural areas.

The National Development Challenges

Ghana’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has shown steady and positive growth of an average 4 per cent per annum over the last decade. In fact the economy of Ghana grew at 6 per cent in 2005. Sectoral growth rates in the major agricultural, industrial and services sectors remain reasonably high and have added significantly to the overall GDP. Ghana’s impressive macroeconomic performance has, however, not facilitated the needed structural transformation of the economy. The limited diversification of the economy, including its dependence on primary commodity exports, has changed very little since independence.
The lack of structural transformation of the Ghanaian economy has constrained the development of new and better employment opportunities and a fuller utilisation of the labour force. As a result, the majority of employment opportunities continue to consist of low-income agricultural and informal activities. Formal public and private sector jobs have declined. Reversing the unemployment trend will require that the macroeconomic situation continues to be stable to propel the achievement of sustained high rates of economic growth.

**National and International Initiatives to Address the Challenge of Unemployment and Poverty**

The Millennium Development Goals address employment from the perspective of decent and productive work for the youth. Supportive economic and social policies are needed to ensure that the youth have adequate levels of employment, and that their rights are respected. The Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) places employment at the center of poverty reduction efforts and aims at the development of human resources as one of its key strategies. This is consistent with the objectives of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) Decent Work Agenda.

At the African Union Summit on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa held in Ouagadougou in September 2004, the Heads of African States and government underscored their conviction that the creation of decent employment was the most effective means of reducing poverty and accordingly drew up an 11 point Plan of Action to address the worsening employment situation. Government has, in accordance with this, outlined the broad policy guidelines on employment in GPRS II. Government has also taken specific initiatives to sustain accelerated economic growth, wealth creation and poverty reduction. However, since a significant proportion of Ghanaians still live below the poverty line, every effort would have to be made to enable them participate in the process of economic transformation through their full participation. This means that the poor must have access to productive employment opportunities if the process is to be meaningful to them.

Significant progress has further been made with efforts to ensure democratic governance which allows people’s participation through the decentralized system of District Assemblies for economic empowerment and sustainable development. Decentralised systems of governance facilitate transparency and accountability. They also ensure that people’s basic needs are met, including coherent decentralized programmes with an increased focus on poverty eradication and employment creation.

Following the achievement of macroeconomic stability, and improvement in good governance, Government is now set to deal with the employment challenge. A number of efforts have therefore been initiated to tackle the serious employment and poverty situation through the implementation of policy interventions, programmes and projects under the GPRS I and II. Some of the initiatives have sought to make the country’s production processes and public investment programmes more employment intensive as direct ways of generating employment in the country.

Government obviously cannot do all these alone and will have to collaborate effectively with social partners, private sector, civil society and development partners to ensure that the process for achieving increased productive employment opportunities is sustainable and done with the participation of the poor. This National Employment Policy is therefore a bold attempt of Government to provide the needed policy response to the precarious employment situation and to assist the poor and unemployed to take advantage of the opportunities to be gainfully employed.
and contribute their quota to the national development process. Achieving the goal of full, freely chosen productive employment is not an easy task for a growing economy such as Ghana. Government has, however, taken the first bold steps and is determined to overcome the structural impediments in the economy and make the ultimate development goal of full employment attainable through the effective implementation of this National Employment Policy.

Employment growth by economic sector

Agriculture

Agriculture is currently the highest contributor to GDP and provides employment to over 60 per cent of the population. In 2005, agriculture grew at 4.1 per cent and its share of GDP was 36 per cent. Agricultural production faces a number of challenges. Ghana’s agriculture is still rain-fed which is unreliable and hence could disrupt crop production. Limited attempts to implement policies aimed at conserving and utilising rainfall to improve agriculture have been frustrated by the choice of inappropriate technology. Land acquisition for large scale commercial farming is still difficult. Other constraints include lack of affordable credit for agricultural development, rampant bushfires, post-harvest losses, lack of storage facilities, high transportation costs and marketing problems.

The GPRS II aims at modernising agriculture through applications of science, technology and research, improving linkages with industry and improving management practices of farmers. The average trend of agricultural activities relating to food security, fisheries, crops and livestock have shown positive adjustments. Agricultural mechanisation and the proportion of arable land under irrigation have also increased though marginally.

The overall picture for the forestry sub-sector is mixed. While the hectares of degraded forest reserve planted increased significantly, the hectares of urban area planted did not make any progress. Significant employment was however generated. The average number of jobs generated over the past four years amounts to 101,396 per annum. In terms of employment creation, this sub-sector seem to be doing well but the key issues of non-sustainability and low productivity which had continuously undermined the agricultural sector would have to be addressed.

Land administration is still a major problem confronting investors in all sectors of the economy. Problems of poor land use practices, multiple sales, multiple ownership, delays in processing of documents, etc. are serious constraints that hinder investment in particularly the productive sectors thereby constraining employment generation. A review of progress of GPRS I on land administration indicate that progress at reforms is slow and interventions put in place to remove constraints in the land sub-sector including those contained in the Land Administration Project are still at their preparatory stages. If agriculture is to play its economic role effectively and continue to provide quality raw materials to industry to support increased productive employment generation then it is imperative that the constraints and impediments are removed and the sector modernised.

Non-farm Activities and Rural Sector Employment

The rural environment is characterised by relatively higher levels of economically active female population compared to males, widespread illiteracy, and poor state of economic and social infrastructure including education and health facilities, road and transportation, electricity, water supply, housing, markets, and banking services.
A high majority of the economically active rural population is engaged in agricultural activities, notably farming. The per capita incomes earned from these activities are significantly lower than the average national income resulting in a high incidence of rural poverty. The unattractive rural environment has been a major cause of the educated rural youth increasingly migrating as they come out of school to urban centres, leaving behind aged and illiterate labour force. Rain-fed crop farming does not provide full employment for farmers all year round due to slack and peak periods and seasonality in farming. The absence of irrigation technology for farmers in rural areas makes farming activities virtually come to a halt during intervening dry periods. Consequently, many of the economically active rural farm labour turns attention to non-farm activities to gainfully use their time and supplement their incomes. Also due to the overwhelmingly small scale of farm enterprises in the country many of the members of the farm households are usually under-employed and tend to undertake some non-farm activities. This is clearly one area that requires intervention through the provision of incentives and education to improve farmers’ productivity and incomes.

Industry, Trade and Investment
The industrial sector is the vanguard of structural change with the expectation that its share in GDP will be increased from 25.1 per cent in 2005 to 37 per cent by 2007 and beyond. The sector also registers the highest level of labour productivity indicating greater potential for job creation and employment. This notwithstanding, the sector faced serious operational and management difficulties in the 1970’s and early 1980’s mainly as a result of instability in the macroeconomic environment. Though the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) succeeded to a large extent to liberalise the economy, the anticipated expansion in the industrial sector particularly manufacturing, and private sector investment could not be achieved because the constraints facing the sector were still persistent.

Ghana relies heavily on Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) for significant changes in the industrial sector and a lot of attention is paid to foreign investment campaigns at the highest levels of government. Nevertheless, the records reveal sluggish inflows of FDI with dire implications for employment creation particularly in industry. Shifting the balance from the age-old promotion of FDI enclaves to models linking FDI to in-country business alliances, forging relationships with local suppliers of materials, components and value-added services, through sub-contracting, partnership exchanges and other arrangements will lead to significant value retention in-country which will have a phenomenal impact on employment generation country-wide.

The Services Sector
The services sector is the largest source of employment after agriculture, employing about 33 per cent of the economically active population. The services sector is also the second largest contributor to GDP at about 30 per cent of total contribution in 2005. Sectoral growth in 2005 was 6.9 per cent indicating a positive trend from 4.7 per cent in 2003 and 4.9 per cent in 2004. Immense opportunities for economic growth and employment generation exist in the services sector. These include tourism, ICT, light industrialisation based on textiles, garments and value addition to metallic and non-metallic minerals. Presently, most of these activities are gradually being developed within the framework of the selected Special Initiatives. A strategic redefinition of the services sector to target Trade in Services will uncover new directions for economic growth and employment generation.

From a trade promotion perspective, services exports fall into five general categories:
• Infrastructure services, including architecture, engineering, construction, transportation, distribution and financial services
• Information technology and related services, including computer consultancy, software development, data processing, data management and call centres
• Business services such as research and development, equipment leasing and maintenance, market research, management consulting, translation, investigation and security
• Professional services, including licensed professions such as accounting, law, medicine, dentistry, etc.
• Quality-of-life services, such as education and training, health related services, entertainment, culture, recreation and sports.

However, Information Technology/Business Process Outsourcing (IT/BPO) firms are the fastest employment generators in Ghana today. Affiliated Computer Services (ACS) which was established in the country in November 2000 with 85 workers employed 1400 persons in early 2004 with an end of year 2004 projection of 2000 persons.

Tourism is one economic sub-sector with a recognised high potential for growth and employment generation in Ghana. Tourism contributes 3.7 per cent to GDP with a 3.4 points multiplier effect on income. Direct employment from tourism increased from 26,000 to 33,094 in 2002, with indirect and induced employment rising from 64,000 to 82,129 over the same period, recording an employment multiplier effect of 3.5. Tourism is also a service export, mostly dependent on Private Sector Initiatives (PSI), with the majority of operators being small and medium-sized enterprises. This will create value, contribute to value-addition and improve levels of value retention in the country which meet the national development objectives of employment creation and poverty reduction in defined economic zones around tourism sites.

Analysis of the employment generation potential of the three broad economic sectors indicates that agricultural sector income employment elasticity has been very low for all periods ranging between 0.31 and 0.57. This low elasticity indicates that the agricultural sector is saturated with labour and that expansion of employment opportunities is limited. Meanwhile, income employment elasticity in both industry and service exceed unity, 2.12 for industry and 1.22 for service indicating that there are greater opportunities for job expansion in industry and service sectors.

Public Sector Employment
The public sector of Ghana is currently made up of about 650,000 employees. The public sector serves as buyer of goods and services, provider of services and employer thereby influencing output and employment. Prior to 1983, several public sector institutions were established to generate employment opportunities resulting in phenomenal increase in the annual growth rate of employment by 14 per cent in the government sector while the overall rate of increase (government and private) increased by 4.2 per cent.

Since the adoption of the ERP in 1983, conscious effort has been made to address employment policy in the public sector focusing on restructuring of the workforce and compensation. Several development programmes introduced at the time to boost economic infrastructure development had high employment content. These efforts, though commendable at the time, had little effect on the total employment situation because government employs less than 12 per cent of the total labour force. Public sector employment policy must therefore, among other things, focus on problems of labour turnover especially among qualified and experienced staff, the inability to attract and retain professionals, low labour productivity and limited labour-intensive programmes for the different vulnerable groups.

Employment Policy Challenges
The major employment policy challenges facing the country include:

- Unemployment and poverty
- Poor labour statistics and ineffective labour market information system
- Non-competitiveness of the private sector as a result of micro- and macro-economic rigidities
- Low professional, technical and managerial human resource base of the economy to support rapid private sector development, industrial expansion and the creation of more productive job avenues
- Vicious cycle of low productivity and low wages and incomes
- Negative impact of industrial unrests on the economy, loss of productive working time, incomes and private new investments
- High unemployment and under-employment rates among vulnerable groups including the youth, women and persons with disability, and challenges for mainstreaming the vulnerable and excluded to make them productive
- Persistence of child labour against provisions of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana and international conventions
- Effects of globalisation on labour standards, the environment and public health, and the capacity inadequacies to address occupational safety and health issues
- Loss of valuable workforce, productivity and income through HIV infection and AIDS.

The National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP)
The National Youth Employment Programme was initiated by the previous administration of the New Patriotic Party to provide employment, howbeit, temporary to teeming Ghanaian youth who are without employment. Some of the employment modules under the programme include Health Extension, Youth in Agriculture, Community Protection Unit, Community Education Assistance and Volunteer. The current National Democratic Congress (NDC) administration in continuing with the programme has added some modules which include Youth in Eco Brigade, Youth in Afforestation and Youth in trade and vocation (which encompass grass-cutter production, phone repairs, bamboo processing, shea nut processing and dressmaking). One major management problem facing the programme is how to adequately fund it, as oftentimes it is in arrears in settling the remuneration of the youth employees.

It is important for the NYEP to be turned into a viable self-supporting venture instead of depending on the national coffers for funds to pay salaries and cover overhead expenditure. If it is tied to the government’s aprons and sustained by the Consolidated Fund, it will be a needless burden.

Thus, it is imperative that the government should have a long-term plan for it to make it attractive. One such plan is to gradually shed off the NYEP to the private sector. Enterprising entrepreneurs should be identified as early as possible and incentives provided for them to begin efforts toward collaboration with the management of NYEP. Gradually, it will be beneficial for the NYEP to be folded into the private small scale sector and managed to generate revenue. The various modules look promising and should be promoted through practical action.

Another challenge facing the programmes is the absence of legal foundation for the programme. For all these years that the NYEP has been in existence, there is no legal backing for it. Parliament has so far not been able to exercise its oversight responsibility over expenditure by the Executive on such a major programme. It is important for parliament to make immediate moves to take up the matter and support various legal arrangements and reforms being initiated.
by the Ministry of Youth and Sports to provide the necessary legal framework within which the NYEP should function as it seeks to create more jobs for the youth.

Of all the challenges, the most worrisome one is the politicisation of the NYEP, which detracts from the programme. This politicisation has already created tension in the ranks of those employed by the erstwhile NPP government who are being threatened with dismissal because of the suspicion that they were favoured because of their loyalty to the NPP. The agitations by some NDC activists for the removal of some of those officials were some of the consequences of the dangers of politicising the NYEP and other institutions of state.

More importantly, the government needs to sustain the NYEP and expand it into a viable national asset that can stand the test of time. Tackling unemployment, however, must go beyond the confines of the NYEP. It must make more positive moves to put in place the institutional support for other initiatives.

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Education
Ghana's system of education has undergone several stages of restructuring over the past 25 years. The most dramatic change entailed phasing out the O-level and A-level system based on the British model and introducing a new Senior Secondary School system. Up until the mid-1970s, the system of education in Ghana consisted of six years of primary education at the end of which time students were required to take the Common Entrance Examination. Students then had a choice of going on to either middle school or secondary school. After four years of middle school, students took the Middle School Leaving Examination, which provided admission to teacher education and some technical schools. Secondary school lasted five years. Graduates were awarded the West African School Certificate (WASC) and the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at the Ordinary ("O") level. A small number of students were given the option of undertaking a two-year Form Six programme, leading to the Joint Examination for the Higher School Certificate and General Certificate of Education at the Advanced ("A") level. Tertiary education leading to a bachelor's degree required three years of study.

From the mid-1970s until 1990, Ghana's education system consisted of six years of primary schooling followed by five years of secondary education. However, this five-year secondary cycle (called Lower Secondary Education) was divided into two phases: three years of junior secondary school leading to the Junior Secondary School Leaving Certificate; and two years of senior secondary school leading to the WASC/GCE O-level. This in turn was followed by two years of A-level schooling called Upper Secondary Education. In 1990, additional reforms created a new three-year senior secondary system alongside the old O-levels and A-levels while
lengthening tertiary education to four years. Prior to the restructuring, schools and universities were considered elite institutions designed to turn out administrators and bureaucrats for government positions. The more recent reforms were designed to increase access to Ghana's educational system.

Ghana has 12,130 primary schools, 5,450 junior secondary schools, 503 senior secondary schools, 21 training colleges, 18 technical institutions, two diploma-awarding institutions and seven public universities serving a population of 17 million. Currently there are also more than twenty accredited private universities. This means that most Ghanaians have relatively easy access to good education. In contrast, at the time of independence in 1957, Ghana had only one university and a handful of secondary and primary schools. In the past decade, Ghana's spending on education has been between 28 percent and 40 percent of its annual budget.

**Basic education**

Primary- and middle-school education is tuition-free and will be mandatory when enough teachers and facilities are available to accommodate all the students. Students begin their 6-year primary education at age six. Under educational reforms implemented in 1987, they pass into a new junior secondary school system for 3 years of academic training combined with technical and vocational training.

**Senior Secondary education**

After basic school, pupils may enter Senior secondary (or technical/vocational) schools for a three-year course, which prepare them for university education. Students usually study a combination of three (in some cases, four) 'elective' subjects and a number of core subjects. For example, a science student could study Additional Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology and Physics as his 'elective' subjects. An arts student might study Geography, Economics and Literature as his elective subjects. In addition to the elective subjects, there are 'core' subjects, which are those studied by all students in addition to their 'electives'. The 'core' subjects include Mathematics, English and Science.

At the end of the three year senior secondary course, students are required to sit for the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (WASSCE). Students who obtain aggregate 18 or better (six is best) can enter the university. Usually, the score is determined by aggregating the student's grades in his elective subjects. The aggregate score is then added to the aggregate score of his best 'core' subjects, with scores in English and Mathematics considered first.

**Tertiary Education**

Higher education in Ghana is provided by universities, university colleges, polytechnics and pre-service training institutes. All institutions of higher education fall under the jurisdiction of the National Council for Tertiary Education, which is administered by the Ministry of Education. The polytechnics are currently being upgraded to offer university-level courses. Entrance to the universities and other tertiary institutions is by examination following the completion of senior secondary.

The sole official language of instruction throughout the Ghanaian educational system is English. Students may study in any of eleven local languages for much of the first three years, after which English becomes the medium. Students continue to study a local language and French as
classroom subjects through at least the ninth grade. All textbooks and materials are otherwise in English.

**Policy Framework**

Ghana has since 1951, and especially after independence in 1957, made significant strides in its education system. The system, as it is now, is the result of major policy initiatives in education adopted by both the present and past governments. Some of the laws, policy documents and reports, like the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (FCUBE) (1996) have helped in meeting the educational needs and aspirations of the people. Article 38 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana requires Government to provide access to Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education and depending on resource availability, to Senior Secondary Technical and Tertiary education and life-long learning. In recent times, the government’s commitment towards achieving her educational goals has been expressed in the following policy frameworks and reports:

5. Education for All (EFA, UNESCO, Dakar, 2000) – international paper.

In 2006 Ghana started the implementation of its second Growth Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II). The GPRS II was very much focused on developing Ghana to the status of a middle-income country by 2015. Developing its human resources was one of the three main thematic areas of the GPRS II, emphasising the creation of competent manpower for development of the country whereby education obviously plays an important role. The GPRS II not only aimed to meet the MDG 2 goal but also to strengthen the equality in basic education, improve quality and efficiency in the delivery of education service and bridge the gender gap in access to education.

The Education Strategy Plan (ESP) that came out in 2003 and was focused on the period 2003-2015, was based on the Poverty Reduction Strategy and operationalises within the framework of a sector wide approach (SWAP) for education, which in Ghana is partly situated within the Multi-Donor Budget Support (MDBS) framework.

The ESP provides the framework and roadmap for achieving the education related MDGs. The strategic framework of the Education Strategic Plan 2003-2015 is based around four focus areas: Equitable Access to Education, Quality of Education, Educational Management and Science, Technology and Technical and Vocational Education (TVET). The ESP has ten policy goals like increasing access to and participation in education and training, improving the quality of teaching and learning for enhanced pupil/student achievement, promoting good health and environmental sanitation in schools and other institutions.

In 2004, the Government of Ghana came out with a White Paper on Education Reform. The White Paper Reform outlined a portfolio of reforms and objectives spanning the entire education sector, which were to be implemented from 2007 and had major targets identified for 2015 and 2020. The key objectives of the White Paper Reform were twofold. First and foremost to build upon the ESP commitments and ensure that all children were provided with the foundation of
high quality free education. Secondly to ensure that second cycle education was more inclusive and appropriate to the needs of young people and the demands in the Ghanaian economy

Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2015

The government of Ghana has tried in various ways to show her commitment towards the achievement of Universal Primary Education (MDG 2) by ensuring that all children of primary school-age enroll and complete by 2015. The government has shown this commitment through policy directives and interventions like the Education Strategy Plan (ESP) for 2003-2015, the Growth Poverty Reduction Strategy, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme and the 1992 Constitution of Ghana. Strategies adopted to operationalise the policies include the introduction of the Capitation Grant (School Fee Abolition), expansion of Early Childhood Development services, promotion of measures to improve Gender Parity in Primary Schools, and the introduction of Nutrition and School Feeding Programmes.

These measures have led to improvement in various key indicators in education in recent years, notably, Gross Enrollment Rates, Gender Parity Index, Net Enrolment Rate and Net Admission Rate. In spite of increased enrolment rates, enrolment at primary level has not been increasing sufficiently to meet the goal of Universal Primary Completion by 2015. Major Challenges facing the sector include:

- Gross inadequacy of teachers in some places of the country
- Insufficiency of some school infrastructure (classrooms, sanitary facilities, etc) in some places in the country
- Unfavourable socio-economic and cultural factors
- Geographically hard to reach areas, hard to reach children
- Low enrolment of children with disabilities, etc

These challenges call for special approaches if Universal Primary Completion (UPC) is to be attained by 2015. There is therefore the need to adopt a programme that is flexible and adaptive and can reach large numbers of children in hard to reach areas as well as children living in underserved areas.

Complementary education programmes can better serve the most disadvantaged and/or remote areas. Evidence from a number of developing countries such as Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, Bangladesh, Ethiopia as well as some pilot projects in Ghana show that complementary basic education can be used to address a number of problems in education as well as reach children who would otherwise not be reached by the formal system. It is expected that such an exercise will address challenges related to:

- Areas of very low population
- Long distance to school
- Over-aged out-of-school children, especially girls, and
- High opportunity cost of education, especially for girls.

A complementary education programme appears able to supplement efforts made through the formal school system. For it to be successful, however, it requires strong government commitment, strategic vision and policy framework, effective partnerships, and reallocation of existing resources or mobilisation of additional resources.
Conclusion

Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various peoples, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of the social life, adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas, as an agent of natural growth and evolution. Its aim should be to render the individual more efficient in his or her condition of life, whatever it may be, and to promote the advancement of the community as a whole through the improvement of agriculture, the development of native industries, the improvement of health, the training of the people in the management of their own affairs, and the inculcation of true ideals of citizenship and service. It must include the raising up of capable, trustworthy, public-spirited leaders of the people, belonging to their own race. Education, thus defined, will narrow the hiatus between the educated class and the rest of the community.

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Freedom of Speech

Freedom of speech is the right to freely say what one pleases, as well as the related right to hear what others have stated. Recently, it is also commonly understood as encompassing full freedom of expression, including the freedom to create and distribute movies, pictures, songs, dances, and all other forms of expressive communication. Freedom of speech is often regarded as an integral concept in modern liberal democracies, where it is understood to outlaw government censorship. Thus states may still punish (but not prohibit) certain damaging types of expressions, notably sedition, defamation, publishing secrets regarding matters of state security, etc.

Freedom of Speech and expression means the right to express one's own convictions and opinions freely by word of mouth, writing, printing, pictures or any other mode. It thus includes the expression of one's idea through any communicable medium or visible representation, such as gesture, signs, and the like. This expression also connotes publication and thus the freedom of the press is included in this category. Free propagation of ideas is the necessary objective and this may be done on the platform or through the press. This propagation of ideas is secured by
freedom of circulation. Liberty of circulation is essential to that freedom as the liberty of publication. Indeed, without circulation the publication would be of little value. The freedom of speech and expression includes liberty to propagate not one's views only. It also includes the right to propagate or publish the views of other people; otherwise this freedom would not include the freedom of press.

On a more practical plane, freedom of speech serves many functions. One of its most important functions is that decision-making at all levels is preceded by discussion and consideration of a representative range of views. A decision made after adequate consultation is likely to be a better one. Thus freedom of speech is important at all levels in society, yet it is most important for government. A government that does not know what the people feel and think is in a dangerous position. A government that muzzles free speech runs a risk of destroying the creative instincts of its people.

Freedom of speech is also important to governments because when criticisms of a government are freely voiced, the government has the opportunity to respond to unfair comments and criticisms about its actions. On the other hand, when freedom of speech is restricted, rumours, unfair criticisms, comments and downright falsehoods are circulated by word of mouth. These have a habit of spreading across the length and breadth of the country through conversation and surreptitiously circulated writings. The government is in no position to answer these views, because they are not publicly stated. It is in a government's interest to have criticisms in the public arena where it can answer its critics and correct its mistakes. The government generally has access to electronic and printing communication far in excess of individuals and groups. It is able to present its view only if the opposing views are in the open and known.

Finally, the freedom of speech is the single most important political right of citizens, although private property is required for its operation. Without free speech no political action is possible and no resistance to injustice and oppression is possible. Without free speech elections would have no meaning at all. Policies of contestants become known to the public and become responsive to public opinion only by virtue of free speech. Between elections the freely expressed opinion of citizens help restrain oppressive rule. Without this freedom it is futile to expect political freedom or consequently economic freedom.

**Freedom of Speech in Ghana**

In 1992, the Fourth Republic of Ghana adopted a constitution in which the right to free speech was forever enshrined. The 1992 Constitution declares in no equivocal terms that: All persons shall have the right to freedom of speech and expression, which shall include freedom of the press and other media. The Constitution guarantees that the press and every individual in Ghana has the right to say anything that they want, whenever that they want and wherever that they want. Furthermore the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, and to which Ghana is a signatory, also states in Article 19 that: Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers. Hence the freedom to express one’s opinion without any kind of censorship is a natural right guaranteed by the highest law of our land, the Constitution, and also guaranteed by the entire human race through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

The right to freedom of speech is not absolute in any part of the world. Both international law and most national constitutions recognise that freedom of expression may be restricted. However
any limitations must remain within strictly defined parameters or the confines of the law. Ghana was ranked “Free” by the Freedom of the Press 2008 survey conducted by the Freedom House and second in Africa as regards freedom of speech. Still, in no country is freedom of speech absolute. Limits include, for instance, the prohibition of libel and slander (or defamation) – that is, publishing or saying things that are detrimental to one person in an "unfair" way, though, again, the exact limits of what is prosecutable vary. Some democratic countries banish so-called "hate speech" – speech that is intended to stir up aggression against certain groups for religious, racial or other reasons.

Limitations on Freedom of Speech in Ghana

Regulations related to the freedom of speech and expression in Ghana can be broadly categorized into three: the criminal law, the tort of defamation, and contempt of court, especially by scandalizing the courts or prejudicing a fair trial. One area of import to journalists is state security. The term “security of state” refers only to serious and aggravated forms of public order e.g. rebellion, waging war against the State, insurrection and not ordinary breaches of public order and public safety, e.g. unlawful assembly, riot, affray. It includes speeches or expression on the part of an individual that incite or encourage the commission of violent crimes that would undermine the security of State.

“Public order” is an expression of wide connotation and signifies "that state of tranquillity which prevails among the members of political society as a result of internal regulations enforced by the Government which they have established." Public order is something more than ordinary maintenance of law and order. The test for determining whether an act affects law and order or public order is to see whether the act leads to the disturbances of the current of life of the community so as to amount to a disturbance of the public order or whether it affects merely an individual being. Anything that disturbs public peace is assumed to disturb the public order. Thus communal disturbances and strikes promoted with the sole object of causing unrest among workers are offences against public order. Public order thus implies absence of violence and an orderly state of affairs in which citizens can peacefully pursue their normal avocation of life. Public order also includes public safety. Thus creating internal disorder or rebellion would affect public order and public safety. But mere criticism of government does not necessarily disturb public order.

Restriction on the freedom of speech and expression can be imposed if it exceeds the reasonable and fair limit and amounts to contempt of court. “Contempt of court” may be either “civil contempt” or “criminal contempt.” A statement, which injures a man's reputation, amounts to defamation which consists in exposing a man to hatred, ridicule, or contempt. In 1960, Kwame Nkrumah with the ruling CPP tried to strengthen their hold on power in Ghana and therefore passed a Criminal Code in which section 208 criminalised “any statement, rumour or report which was likely to cause fear and alarm to the public or to disturb the public peace, knowing or having reason to believe that the statement, rumour or report was false.” This law is repugnant and contradicts the spirit of the 1992 Constitution, which enshrines free speech. The greatest problem with this law, however, is the fact that it is liable to abuse by any government that does not believe in free speech.

The right to know, receive and impart information has been recognised within the right to freedom of speech and expression. A citizen has a fundamental right to use the best means of imparting and receiving information and as such to have an access to telecasting for the purpose. The right to know has, however, not yet extended to the extent of invalidating The State Secret
Acts, 1962 (Act 101) which prohibits disclosure of certain official documents. One can conclude that the right to information is nothing but one small limb of right of speech and expression.

**Incidents Regarding Free Speech**

In the early part of 2010 a radio commentator was hauled off to court by the police and charged with section 208 for making a statement to the effect that ex-president Rawlings burnt his own house. The statement was deemed to cause fear and alarm in the public and disturb the public peace. He was expressing his own opinion, a right that is granted to him by the Constitution of the land and the UDHR to which Ghana is a signatory. His opinion was misguided, certainly, and probably false too but it was his own opinion. It should be noted that the Constitution does not give the right to free true speech but it gives the right to free speech. If the ex-president felt aggrieved with what he had said, he should have instituted civil proceedings on the grounds of libel against him. Instead, the police jumped in, applied section 208 and hauled him off to court.

Not long after that, a certain “High Priest” in a radio programme described the sitting President in derogatory terms. He was only exercising the right granted to him by the constitution but the police again tried to arrest him. However, this time the president intervened and ordered the police to back off. If the case had been allowed to go on, he would certainly have been charged with section 208.

Then is the situation of a News Editor with Joy FM who, while on a show on air, declared that some individuals in Ghana Real Estate Development Association (GREDA) had received death threats. The government fumed that he had dared to publish such a story. Whether the story was a fabrication or the truth, Joy FM and the News Editor were within their rights to publish the story. The Constitution had already sanctioned their actions as completely acceptable. The government, claiming that the story was false, came out with a rejoinder. The issue should have then died out. Some people in government did not feel that was sufficient and decided to cause the arrest of the News Editor using section 208 of the criminal code. They also tried to force him to reveal his sources as if they were not aware that it was unethical for a journalist to reveal his sources. His arrest was uncalled for since the news he published did not cause any public fear and especially so when he was clearly in his right to do so. In addition, the editor of the Ghanaian Times was also nearly charged with that same section 208.

These seem to be a disturbing trend in the country. In all these cases, it was obvious the police was not acting alone. Anyone familiar with Ghanaian politics will agree that some individuals in the government instigate the police to these actions. If no one did, then the government is still complicit for not ensuring that the police was doing its job properly. In any case any blame for these misguided applications of the law and human right abuses should be laid squarely at the feet of the government.

**Recommendations**

- The government should come out to affirm its unequivocal support for uncensored and unfettered free speech in Ghana in keeping with its oath to uphold the Constitution of Ghana.
- The Attorney General’s office should not entertain such cases brought before it.
- The government should initiate moves to repeal the repugnant section 208 of the criminal code.
The National Media Commission (NMC)

The National Media Commission (NMC), a constitutionally mandated independent government body, is charged with maintaining journalistic standards, including the investigation, mediation, and settlement of complaints made against or by the media. However, it does not have legally binding authority to implement its recommendations. The NMC has published standards and guidelines and voluntary use of its alternative dispute resolution offices continue to increase. Resolutions recommended by the NMC include retraction, apology, and the printing of rejoinders.

Conclusion

The citizenry are increasingly becoming concerned about intolerance of opposing views. The surveillance, spying and harassments of political opponents, the beating of an NDC serial caller at NDC headquarters for criticising ex-president Rawlings, the beatings and arrests of journalists at the celebration of Brong-Ahafo at 50, and the blanket threat of harm edict issued by Ashanti Regional Minister against some opposition members are all examples of the government’s failings in creating a congenial atmosphere for freedoms for the people.

All these point to a disturbing trend to suppress dissenting views, restrict expression of diverse opinions, suffocate debate and intimidate media houses, journalists and opinion leaders. The civil society must not allow repression and state sponsored harassment on journalists to take place and must rise up against all attempts to stifle free speech.

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Freedom of Religion

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana provides for freedom of religion, and other laws and policies contribute to the generally free practice of religion. Chapter 5 12 (2) of the Constitution states that, “Every person in Ghana, whatever his race, place of origin, political opinion, colour, religion, creed or gender shall be entitled to the fundamental human rights and freedoms of the individual contained in this Chapter but subject to respect for the rights and freedoms of others and for the public interest”. Section 17 of the Constitution further states: “(1) All persons shall be equal before the law and 2) A person shall not be discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, colour, ethnic origin, religion, creed or social or economic status.” The Constitution thus at all levels protect this right in full against abuse either by government or private actors.
International Resolutions on Religious Freedom

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 10 December 1948 and the Declaration of Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and Discrimination adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1981 declared, inter alia, the right to profess, practice and promote freedom of religion and faith for one and all; they also proclaimed the principle of non-discrimination, equality before the law and the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief and repudiated all forms of intolerance and discrimination based on religion and belief. They also emphasised the vital importance to preserve and promote all native cultures, traditions, faiths and beliefs throughout the world.

The World Congress for the Preservation of Religious Diversity which took place in November 2001 was the first international event of its kind. The main emphasis of the Congress was the preservation of religious diversity. There was unanimous consensus among the religious leaders that gathered at the Congress that ethnic religions and cultures were in need of protection for religious diversity to exist in the world. The aim of the conference was to create an international body that will work for dialogue, mutual respect and harmony among all religions. A body to be called the “Global Commission for the Protection of Religious Diversity” would work constructively with many religious groups to promote harmony and protect religious diversity in the world.

Ghana’s Religious Demography

The country has a population of about 25 million. According to the 2000 government census, approximately 69 percent of the population is Christian, 15.6 percent is Muslim, 8.5 percent adheres to indigenous religious beliefs, and 6.9 percent is classified as other religious groups, which includes those who profess no religious beliefs. The Muslim community disputed these figures, asserting that the Muslim population was substantially larger.

Christian groups include Roman Catholic, the Orthodox Churches like the Methodist, Anglican, Presbyterian, Mennonite, Evangelical Presbyterian and numerous charismatic religious groups. Several Islamic traditions are present in the country: Orthodox Sunni, Ahmadi, the Tijani and Qadiriyya orders of Sufi, and a small number of Shi’a. Indigenous religious groups include Afrikania. Other religious groups include the Baha’i, Buddhist. There are also some syncretistic groups that combine elements of Christianity and Islam with traditional beliefs.

There is not a significant link between ethnicity and religion; however, geography is often associated with religious identity. The majority of the Muslim population resides in northern areas as well as in the urban centers of Accra, Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi, Tamale, and Wa, while the majority of the followers of indigenous religious beliefs reside in rural areas. Christians live throughout the country.

Legal/Policy Framework

Government employees, including the President, are required to swear an oath upon taking office. The oath can be either religious or secular, depending on the preference of the individual. The Government observes the following religious holidays as national holidays: Good Friday, Easter Monday, Eid al-Fitr, Eid al-Adha, and Christmas. There is no government body that regulates or oversees religious affairs, as all religious bodies are independent institutions. However, religious institutions must register with the Registrar General’s Department to receive
formal government recognition. The registration requirement for religious bodies at the Office of the Registrar General is the same for nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

The Government does not provide financial support for any religious organization. Formally registered religions are exempt from paying taxes on ecclesiastical, charitable, and educational activities that do not generate income. However, religious organizations are required to pay progressive taxes, on a pay-as-you-earn basis, on business activities that generate income.

The Ministry of Education includes religious and moral education in the national public education curriculum. The Government often took steps to promote interfaith understanding. At government meetings and receptions Christian and Muslim prayers are used; occasionally there are indigenous invocations.

**Restrictions on Freedom of Religion or Belief**

The Government generally respects religious freedom in practice. There are, however, some reports of societal abuses or discrimination based on religious affiliation, belief, or practice. Some traditional village authorities and families continue to banish rural women, often older women and widows, for suspected witchcraft. Fellow villagers identify these women as the cause of difficulties such as illness, deaths, crop failure, or financial misfortune. Many of these banished women are sent to live in “witch camps,” villages in the Northern, Upper East, and Upper West regions that are populated by suspected witches. The women do not face formal legal sanction if they return home; however, most fear that they would be beaten or killed if they returned to their villages.

Government agencies, such as the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice, continue to campaign against Trokosi, a practice in the Volta region of pledging youth (commonly young females) to extended service at indigenous shrines. (For more on this practice, see the section on child slavery, below.) There are also high incidences of human rights abuses at prayer camps, where persons, often with mental illness, are chained up for weeks, physically assaulted, and compulsorily made to fast in the name of removing evil spirits.

**Societal Attitudes**

There are generally amicable relations between the various religious communities, and spokesmen for these communities often advocate tolerance toward different religions. However, there are sometimes some tensions among some religious groups. Public debate continues over religious worship versus traditional practices and respect for the rights and customs of others in a diverse society.

Unlike in the past, there are no incidents of violence between practitioners of the ethnic Ga tradition and members of some charismatic churches over the Ga traditional leaders' annual ban on drumming and noise-making prior to the Ga's Homowo (harvest) festival. The Gas are the original inhabitants of Accra, and some consider the Ga tradition to be a religion. Ga traditionalists maintain that their beliefs should be respected, while some Christians resent the imposition of bans, which they believe infringes on their right to worship.

Following several incidents of violence, the Government made extensive efforts to mediate between charismatic Christians and ethnic Ga traditionalists. A parliamentary committee examined the ban on drumming and noise-making and recommended that local government authorities establish a monitoring team to enforce existing by-laws regarding noise levels
throughout the year and encourage dialogue between all parties. The Ga Traditional Council and the Forum of Religious Bodies agreed that during the ban, drumming and noise-making by churches should not exceed the decibel level prescribed by existing law. Regional and city authorities formed a monitoring team comprised of the police, the Environmental Protection Agency, and city and traditional authorities to ensure that existing noise regulations were enforced throughout the year and not only during the period of the ban. A public education campaign was also launched to urge charismatic churches to respect existing law.

Conclusion

Diverse ethnic, religious and political mix must serve as a melting pot to wield the nation in unison and not a route to discord, strife and anarchy. The country’s ethnic diversity should be a source of strength not a cause of division. It is only by recognising that all people, regardless of their racial, ethnic, social, religious and other backgrounds mattered and as such must be given the opportunity to thrive that peace could be ensured. The message should be one of hope, unity and peace that transcends racial, religious, generational and political barriers and bring disparate people together to participate in national development.

References


Accessible and affordable housing

International Conventions on Housing Rights

The International Convention on Housing Rights states in its preamble that adequate housing is essential to freedom, dignity, equality and security for everyone. The human right to adequate housing is also recognized in law under various international human rights texts and treaties, including the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Convention on the Rights of the Child and many others.

"The States Parties to ... [the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights] recognise the right of everyone to an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, including ... housing...." "Each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to take steps ... with a view to achieving progressively the full realisation of the rights recognized in the present Covenant by all appropriate means, including particularly the adoption of legislative measures."
The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), adopted and proclaimed by United Nations General Assembly resolution 217A (III) on 10 December 1948, in Article 25(1) states: Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

Article 8: on Affordability states that; Everyone has a right to affordable housing. Steps must be taken by governments to guarantee that personal or household financial costs associated with housing are not allowed to reach a level which in any way threatens the attainment and satisfaction of other basic needs.

Article 9: on Habitability states that; Everyone has a right to safe, healthy and habitable housing, including adequate space, privacy and protection from cold, damp, heat, rain, wind or other threats to health, structural hazards and disease vectors.

History of Housing in Ghana

Since Ghana gained independence 54 years ago, housing issues have been dominated by the government sector. The Nkrumah administration, as part of its 1960-65 National Development Plan, first sought to provide housing for Ghanaians by parodying the mass construction of post-World War II European governments that were recovering from the destruction of enemy bombs. At the same time there was a parallel informal system of production and supply, for people working in the informal sector.

It was during Nkrumah's time that two main state bodies were formed to address housing issues: the State Housing Corporation (SHC) and the Tema Development Corporation (TDC), which was created with the special purpose of creating residential units in the rapidly growing Tema area as part of a major industrialisation drive. TDC dealt largely with the acquisition of Tema land, creating legislation to this effect, for residential construction. While TDC focused on Tema, SHC worked in the regions across Ghana, of which there were nine at the time.

Like so much of Nkrumah's industrialisation drive, the resources allocated to such ambitions ran dry. Funding for these bodies was progressively reduced over the years. The intentions stated in those days were never realised. Instead, a 54-year legacy has developed that has left Ghana with a veritable housing crisis. In the city markets one can see vendors sleeping in their kiosks, children living on the streets, and entire communities living in decrepit shacks with no amenities as the city sprawls ever-wider and the wealthy few who can afford houses enjoy access to the heart of urban comfort.

Housing development has never been considered a critical area in Ghana’s development framework, and that the history of housing in the nation is a series of fragmented policies rather than a holistic, comprehensive vision to deal with the complexities of housing a nation. Much of Ghana’s housing problem is rooted in dependency on the international community: the United Nations and various Breton Woods Institutes, most notably the World Bank, going back to Nkrumah’s ill-fated development plans.

The imported Roof Loan Scheme, which gave government support to individual funding up to the roof, lasted until the 1970s, by which point the massive tide of migration to the cities had begun, especially Accra and Tema. Some of these migrants amassed some wealth, acquired a
little land, built compound housing, and rented out flats while living in the same compound with their tenants. This period is consistent with the tendency of renters to rent from people who had only slightly more money than themselves: rich rent from rich and poor from slightly less poor. This tendency was observed in the UN Human Settlements Programme publication, *Rental Housing: an essential option for the urban poor in developing countries*.

The 1970s, however, brought a period of very poor economic performance for Ghana and much of the developing world, especially oil importers, due largely to the energy crisis, the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and oil shocks. This extended recession brought price controls and sporadic building from worried developers. It was at this point that various individuals built houses around areas like Kaneshie, where they could access markets and amenities. Such individualised, unplanned building collectively created new communities like Kwashieman and Abeka in Accra. The result was disjointed growth and urban sprawl and it was a trend that continued. The financial crisis also escalated the costs of housing: land, labour, technical services (such as design, architecture, and engineering), cost of financing, and materials. This was a time when even wealthy industrialised nations were facing interest rates above 20 percent. Up to 1979 there was a rent policy which capped rent prices in order to create affordable housing, but it had the unintended consequence of dissuading developers from creating rental units, and made rental accommodation more difficult to locate. It was that same year that Old Fadama, a suburb of Accra, was first settled in Accra by people from the north of Ghana, giving birth to a new phenomenon in Ghana: the slum.

The financial crisis peaked in the 1980s, at which point, in 1983, Ghana, like so many other developing nations, signed on to the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP), also known as Austerity Programmes, of the World Bank in order to secure much needed cash flow. The SAPs required Ghana to participate in trade liberalisation initiatives, which opened its market to imported building materials and necessitated the loosening of rent controls. The opening of the market forced Ghanaians to rent accommodation at commercial rental prices on an open market. The prices were so high that some developers came up with a cheaper option: converting closets, toilets and other small spaces into rental units. The imported building materials managed to compromise the markets for local materials despite their higher prices. They were perceived to be of higher quality because they were built by European, not African, labour, the cost of which was considerably higher. In the face of so many market factors driving prices ever-higher, the government of the day implemented numerous housing reforms based on the conception that economic development is driven by cities, so that was where the focus lay. The Accra District Rehabilitation Programme, for example, was committed to upgrading infrastructure in Nima and Maamobi, and building a major highway in 1986.

Under the new market-oriented approach, TDC and SHC were revamped into limited liability corporate entities, as was the Architectural Engineering Services Corporation (AESC). Mortgages that had been state-administered were bought up, under housing finance reform, by the new Home Finance Company, essentially a secondary mortgage generator. Other reforms focused on sporadic slum upgrades, with the introduction of new infrastructure, and land reform that required official registry of all lands.

Toward the end of that decade, the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) expanded on its existing programme to build housing for its staff. In 1988 SSNIT began a significant investment in housing at “social” and not market prices, providing a lower rental option for the general public. Toward the end of that decade, the United Nations Development Programme...
Programme (UNDP) and World Bank supported a new housing sector reform plan, policy, and strategy, subject to further assessment studies that were not approved until 1990. These studies revealed interesting opportunities for the use of local materials, which led to the 1992 use of Micro-Concrete Roofing Tiles (MCRT), which had the potential to usurp foreign inputs and the production of the local concrete monopoly. It was in 1999 that Ghana’s financial crisis hit its peak. That year SSNIT, unable to continue operating its social rental units at a loss and realising that even its reduced rents were higher than most Ghanaians could afford, began the process of divesting many of its real estate assets. By this time there was virtually no housing being produced for local demand.

In 2001 a new party took over the role of governing and made new pronouncements on housing. Like all others before them, they looked internationally for housing funds, but none materialised at that time. Ghana’s participation in the Highly Indebted Poor Country debt relief programme of the World Bank allowed for some funds to be made available for housing. The government received support from a Belgium bank for the development of infrastructure for a new affordable housing project near Amasaman. The cost of housing had soared out of control to the point that even senior government employees had trouble finding an affordable house.

Ghana’s housing history is a bleak one, but the situation is not hopeless. There is the capability to adequately care for the country’s local market. High-priority, innovative, holistic, and integrated policy that accounts for more than just the symptoms of these problems is the key to a new era of affordable, equitable housing.

*The STX-Ghana Affordable Housing Project*

The centerpiece of the government of Ghana’s affordable housing policy is the STX-Government of Ghana (GoG) Public-Private Partnership (PPP) agreement that should lead to the building of 200,000 housing units throughout the country between 2010 and 2015. The $10 billion initiative, if successful, would make a substantial dent in Ghana’s housing deficit, which the government believes stands at 1 million. Going by that figure, then using the average household size typically employed in “standard of living” surveys in Ghana would suggest that 6 million Ghanaians are currently without adequate shelter, where “adequate shelter” is perhaps defined by reference to an authoritative set of criteria such as those endorsed by Habitat for Humanity.

The STX-GoG arrangement, if successful, should make a giant contribution to reducing the housing deficit. Assuming an additional growth in the housing stock correspondent to stable population growth, the project should represent a 10% to 20% reduction in the housing deficit by 2015. The deal is, however, limited to the extent that there are significant questions still remaining to be answered. There appears to have developed a spontaneous conspiracy of some sort between the media, Parliament of Ghana, and GoG to keep the details of this massive undertaking outside public debate. This is a very worrying situation.

The STX-GoG deal is the biggest transformation of affordable housing policy this country has seen since the mid-60s. The recent IFC-MIGA (International Finance Corporation – Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency) initiative to support banks like Fidelity improve upon their mortgage activity; the Netherlands Development Finance Company (FMO) – Ghana Home Loans facility and the 2006 OPIC (Overseas Private Investment Corporation) – sponsored initiative in the same direction all pale to insignificance besides the STX-GoG deal.
Objective 4: Uphold the separation of powers, including the independence of the judiciary and an effective legislature

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana that came into effect on January 7, 1993, provides the basic charter for the country's fourth attempt at republican democratic government since independence in 1957. It declares Ghana to be a unitary republic with sovereignty residing in the Ghanaian people. Drawn up with the intent of preventing future coups, dictatorial government, and one-party state, it is designed to foster tolerance and the concept of power-sharing. The document reflects the lessons drawn from the abrogated constitutions of 1957, 1960, 1969, and 1979, and it incorporates provisions and institutions drawn from British and United States constitutional models.

The 1992 constitution, as the supreme law of the land, provides for the sharing of powers among a President, a Parliament, a Cabinet, a Council of State, and an independent Judiciary. Through its system of checks and balances, it avoids bestowing preponderant power on any specific branch of government. The type of government practised under this school of thought is presidential government. This means that the Cabinet and other government ministers do not sit in Parliament. The main advantage of Presidential government is the absence of coalition with other parties. The President is free to appoint his Cabinet Ministers. Presidential governments are stronger than coalition governments, which are usually fragile.

Separation of powers

Three powers of State can be identified in the Constitution of the Republic of Ghana 1992. These powers are:

The Executive Branch

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana vests the executive authority of the country in the President. It is exercised in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and also extends to the execution and maintenance of the Constitution and all laws made under or continue in force by the Constitution.

The Constitution provides for the following:

(1) There shall be a President of the Republic of Ghana who shall be the Head of State and Head of Government and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of Ghana.

(1) The executive authority of Ghana shall vest in the President and shall be exercised in accordance with the provisions of this Constitution.

(2) The executive authority of Ghana shall extend to the execution and maintenance of this Constitution and all laws made under or continued in force by this Constitution.
(3) Subject to the provisions of this Constitution, the functions conferred on the President by clause (1) of this article may be exercised by him either directly or through officers subordinate to him.

(4) Except as otherwise provided in this Constitution or by a law not inconsistent with this Constitution, all executive acts of Government shall be expressed to be taken in the name of the President.

Executive authority is shared by the president, the twenty-five member Council of State, and numerous advisory bodies, including the National Security Council. The president is head of state, head of government, and commander in chief of the armed forces of Ghana. He also appoints the vice president. The function of the President and the Executive is to enforce the Constitution and the laws made by Parliament.

The Executive has maintained close and cordial working relation with the other arms of government, i.e. the Legislature and the Judiciary to run the affairs of the state. Mutual respect has been maintained in the conduct of business among the arms of government. The Legislature, however, has maintained their watchdog role in order to check any Executive excesses.

The Legislature

The function of Parliament is to make the laws of the State within the framework of the Constitution. Legislative power and functions are therefore vested in the National Parliament, which consists of a unicameral 230 member body plus the president. To become law, legislation must have the assent of the president, who has a qualified veto over all bills except those to which a vote of urgency is attached. Members of parliament are popularly elected by universal adult suffrage for terms of four years, except in war time, when terms may be extended for not more than twelve months at a time beyond the four years.

Well-meaning Ghanaians have, however, had cause to question the independence of the Legislature and wondered whether it is not an appendage to the Executive. Concerns have been raised about the partisanship that has sometimes characterised debates in the House and especially the voting patterns on Bills introduced into the House by the Executive branch of government. It is difficult to find a member of Parliament belonging to the ruling party raising issues about any bill introduced to the House and the situation of having members of the ruling party voting for a bill and members of the opposition voting against it is so predictable.

One wonders whether there could be a time when members would exercise their own personal judgements on issues and cast their votes against bill which they, as a matter of principle or objectivity, think should not go through. Such events in the House tend to undermine the independence of the Legislature and many opine that it may be tied, even if loosely, to the apron string of the Executive branch of government. It should however be quickly added that there has been a lot of consensus building in the House and both divides have had occasions to compromise and build consensus on many issues in order to move Parliamentary work and debate forward.

The Judiciary

Since independence in 1957, the Courts system, headed by the Chief Justice, has demonstrated extraordinary independence and resilience. The structure and jurisdiction of the courts were defined by the Courts Act of 1971, which established the Supreme Court of Ghana (or simply the
Supreme Court), the Court of Appeal (Appellate Court) with two divisions—ordinary bench and full bench, and the High Court of Justice (or simply the High Court), a court with both appellate and original jurisdiction. The Act also established the lower and traditional courts, which, along with the above courts, constituted the Judiciary of Ghana according to the 1960, 1979, and 1992 constitutions. The hierarchy of courts derives largely from British juridical forms. The courts have jurisdiction over all civil and criminal matters.

The judicial power is vested in the Judiciary. The function of the Judiciary is to interpret the Constitution and subsequent laws made by Parliament. The structure and the power of the judiciary are independent of all other branches of government. The Supreme Court has broad powers of judicial review; it rules on the constitutionality of any legislative or executive action at the request of any aggrieved citizen. The hierarchy of courts derives largely from British juridical forms.

The Eleventh Chapter of the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana provides for the independence, composition and mode or exercise of power of the judiciary in the country.

Article 125 (1) of the Constitution states that Justice emanates from the people and shall be administered in the name of the Republic by the Judiciary, which shall be independent and subject only to this Constitution. The judicial power of Ghana shall be vested in the judiciary; accordingly, neither the President nor Parliament nor any organ or agency of the President or Parliament shall have or be given final judicial power.

The independence of the Judiciary is established in Section 127 of the Constitution. In the exercise of the judicial power of Ghana, the Judiciary, in both its judicial and administrative functions, including financial administration, is subject only to the Constitution and shall not be subject to the control or direction of any person or authority. Neither the President nor Parliament nor any person acting under the authority of the President nor any other person whatsoever shall interfere with Judges or Judicial Officers or other persons exercising judicial power in the exercise of their judicial functions; and all organs and agencies of the State shall accord to the courts such assistance as the courts may reasonably require to protect the independence, dignity and effectiveness of the courts, subject to the Constitution.

The mission of the Judicial Service of Ghana is to promote the smooth and efficient administration of justice for the benefit of all manner of persons without fear or favour, affection or ill will and create an enabling environment for good governance. Primarily, the courts interpret the law and adjudicate cases to bring about justice in society. It is worthy of note that the country’s court system is modeled along the lines of the British system and embodies both Common Law and Customary Law. A combination of the adversarial, inquisitorial and jury systems of trial is used. In the adversarial system the court’s actors serve as impartial references between the assured and accusers to arrive at conclusions on the basis of the law.

The Constitution prescribes the rule of law, a legal regime under which no one is above the law, and also ensures the protection of the rights of citizens from arbitrary power as the cornerstone of the governance system in Ghana. Therefore although the President appoints the Chief justice and other members of the bench, based on the recommendations of the Judicial Council, the Judiciary is insulated from any control by the Executive or the Legislature. This beautiful arrangement should be able to inspire the confidence of the people in the independence of the Judiciary.
Ghana’s Judiciary has often come under scathing criticism from the public for corruption and maladministration; criticisms that have often been fueled by the unenviable ranking of the Judiciary in the Corruption Index of Transparency International over the years. There have also been public perceptions in the past that the Judiciary was under the thumb of influential persons in society, particularly the Executive arm of government. The Judiciary, as expected, has been at pains to revamp its image and to assure Ghanaians of the Judiciary’s competence and independence of thoughts and decisions which are based purely on law and no other consideration.

A number of initiatives have been undertaken within the Judicial Service over the years to enhance the delivery on justice in the country. Among them are the following.

- Efforts aimed at expanding and improving infrastructure of the courts.
- Introduction of ADR to improve access to justice in Ghana particularly at the country level through a more user-friendly dispute resolution process.
- Vigorous pursuance of the modernisation of the courts. This agenda concerns the automation of the courts, provision of electronic gadgets to ease recording and retrieval of proceeding to fast-track the processing of documents and the time for adjudicating. With such transformational growth in place, the judiciary is on the path of excellence.
- Improving the knowledge base of judicial personnel
- Institution of a “Justice for All” programme that represents an anchor of hope for the many vulnerable in the society who have very little access to, or even information on how to attain justice. It involves the establishment of special courts to handle the backlog of cases involving remand prisoners in the country’s prisons.

References


Objective 4: Ensure accountable, efficient and effective public office holders and civil servants

The history of the Ghana Civil Service is linked with the establishment of the British Colonial Service in the Gold Coast. Its origin can be traced to 1843 when the Crown, after taking over the administration of the Forts and Settlements from the London Committee of Merchants, started appointing various prominent citizens to public office. The Service was established as the main instrument of the British imperial policy concerned with:-

1. Maintenance of law and order;
2. Imposition and collection of taxes; and
3. Exploitation of the rich mineral deposits and other natural resources of the colony.

The focal point of the administrative machinery was the Secretariat of the Governor. Policy formulation apart, that machinery became the agency for supervising and co-coordinating all governmental activities. The Governor was at the apex. Next followed the Colonial Secretary and within the Secretariat was the nerve-centre of the Administration. Below the Colonial
Secretary and within the Secretariat were the Financial Secretary, the Attorney-General and the Auditor-General.

Directly under the Secretariat were the various Departments, such as Posts and Telegraphs, Education, Health, Agriculture and Customs. These also formed part of the headquarters organization and worked under the overall direction of the Colonial Secretary. Advice to the Governor from the various Heads of Departments was channelled through the Colonial Secretary, and it was through the Colonial Secretary that rulings and directives of the Governor were conveyed to the officers concerned.

The Ghana Civil Service is the successor to the Gold Coast Civil Service. It draws its authority from Article 19 (1) of the 1992 Constitution and is one of the Public Service institutions listed in the 1992 Constitution. It is distinct from the other Public Services in the sense that it comprises the Central and Local Administrative Machinery of Government. The mission of the service is stated as follows:

“We exist to provide dynamic leadership for the efficient management of human resources and the promotion of effective organisational development for the Ghana Civil Service.”

With the emergence of the modern state, the civil service in developing countries evolved not only to formulate policies but also to effectively implement them. In other words, the civil service is often associated with the effective and efficient management of development policies and programmes. In this connection, it is seen as the main, but not the only, instrument by which development activities in developing countries are implemented.

**Administration and Civil Service**

The organisation of the public service is along familiar bureaucratic lines, as one would expect. Appointment and promotion are, on the whole, by merit and seniority. However, appointments at the very top are usually much influenced by political considerations. There are rules and regulations, in the Civil Service Law, for instance, in the Code of Conduct for Public Officers, in the General Orders, which, if implemented rigorously, should make the Public Administration of Ghana relatively corrupt-free, nonpartisan, efficient and effective.

Despite many years of expensive restructuring and public sector reforms, it is admitted by keen observers of the public service scene in Ghana that clear job descriptions for civil servants are only now making slow inroads into the arena; that there is no agency monitoring conflict-of-interest and asset-disclosure regulations; that “moonlighting” is rampant, as regular salaries are grossly inadequate to tide even a single person (not the usual family of four or five in Ghana) over for the full salary cycle of one month.

One unfortunate, thoroughly unhelpful characteristic of the entire public service in Ghana is its addiction to secrecy. The State Secrets Act has provided a cover over the years for corrupt, inefficient and lazy bureaucrats. It is no wonder that the Freedom of Information Act appears to be having such a struggle to emerge out of the inner recesses of government.

Below are a number of Reform Initiatives have been undertaken in the Civil Service over the years to improve upon the quality of service.
Africanisation Policy (Colonial era)

One major reform activity which changed the role and functions of the then colonial Civil Service and led to its modernization was the Africanisation policy and programme introduced by Governor Gordon Guggisberg between 1925 and 1926. This was the first comprehensive plan for the development of an indigenous Civil Service. The Africanisation plan was aimed at:

- increasing the number of Africans holding European appointments,
- reducing the high cost of employing Europeans and
- creating local machinery for accelerated development.

In furtherance of the Africanisation programme, series of initiatives were undertaken. Some of these are:

Lynch Commission (1941)

This Commission carried out a survey of government departments and this led to:

- the establishment of a scholarship programme which ensured the training of both juniors and seniors
- the establishment of an interim Public Services Commission in 1948 to advise the Governor on appointments and promotions in the public service.
- the drawing up of a scheme for the progressive education and training of Africans to take up senior appointments in the Civil Service.

Harragin Commission

This Commission introduced the negotiation of terms and conditions of service of the Civil Services of British West Africa. It introduced the idea of 2 levels of staff consultations, one for the junior service and the other for the senior service.

Lidbury Commission (1950)

This was the first real attempt made to reform the structures of the machinery of government and the public service. It made wide ranging recommendations namely:-

- re-designing of the structure of the machinery of government;
- restructuring of the Civil Service;
- establishment of statutory corporations to assume certain functions of government; and
- new salary structure and conditions of service.

For the restructuring of the Civil Service, the Commission adopted the British system as a model. As a result, the Departments and portfolios in the Colonial Office were converted into Ministries when the Gold Coast gained internal self-government in 1951. Since then, many Ministries and Government Departments have been created, restructured or re-aligned to suit the needs of the times.

Independence Civil Service

The independence of Ghana heralded an era in which emphasis was placed on development and public welfare. Civil servants therefore became the main instruments for executing or implementing this agenda.
Republican Civil Service

In line with the 1960 first Republican Constitution, a New Charter for the Civil Service was published. It defined the functions of the Civil Service, its control and administration in order to ensure that it is efficiently designed and properly equipped to support and to take its full share in the development of the country in line with the vision of the Government and the aspirations of the people.

In addition, the Civil Service Act 1960 (CA5) was passed. The Law provided for:

- The creation of Civil Service posts,
- The setting up of Ministries and Departments,
- The appointment and retirement of Civil Servants, and
- Conditions of service, disciplinary proceedings and other matters relating to the Civil Service.

The Civil Service Act 1960 (Act CA5) was later complemented by the Civil Service (Interim) Regulations, 1960 (L.I.47) which provided for:

- The creation of a Ghana Civil Service Commission,
- The structure of the Ghana Civil Service and
- The filling of vacancies in the Ghana Civil Service among others.

In September, 1965, the Civil Service (Amendment) Act, 1965, (Act 303) was passed. One important feature of this law was the establishment of the Establishment Secretariat and the creation of the position of Head of Civil Service and Secretary to the Cabinet. This Act subsisted until the promulgation of the 1992 Constitution and the Civil Service Law 1993 (PNDCL 327). Both pieces of legislation made the Ghana Civil Service part of the Public Services of Ghana and defined the Service as comprising service in a civil office of Government (central and local government).

Public Services Structure and Salaries Commission (Mills Odoi Commission)

This Commission was established in 1966 by the National Liberation Council (NLC) to review the structure and organisation of the public services so as to gear the machinery of Government to the rapid social and economic development of the country, and recommend new salary structures for the public services in line with the general economic circumstances of the country at that time, among others. Its recommendations were adopted, particularly its reform of the machinery of government, i.e. the policy of decentralisation and salary recommendations.

Commission on the Structure and Procedures of the Ghana Civil Service (Okoh Commission)

This reform initiative was undertaken in 1974 by the National Redemption Council (N.R.C.) Its main terms of reference was to investigate the organisation and structure of the Civil Service and its methods of operation and to make recommendations for reforms with special regard to the need to transform the Civil Service into a dynamic instrument of social change and economic development. Its major recommendations were to the effect that:
1. A new and separate post of Head of Civil Service should be created and appointment made from the regular Civil Service to fill the post, which should remain a career post for Civil Servants.

2. The Head of Civil Service should have direct access at all times to the Head of Government and report to him on Civil Service matters.

3. The Principal Secretary post should no longer be the preserve of members of the Administrative Class. It should be open to all Civil Servants and to persons outside the Civil Service.

4. There should be established a Civil Service Department to provide professional support service required for effective central management of the Civil Service, among others.

**Public Administration Restructuring and Decentralization Implementation Committee (PARDIC)**

The PARDIC was set up by the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) to review the earlier reforms, particularly the Decentralisation programme and to accelerate its implementation. One major recommendation of PARDIC is the introduction of 4 functional areas for Ministries and limiting the Ministries to policy formulation, monitoring and evaluation.

**Objectives of the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP)**

This Overseas Development Agency (ODA) project, which commenced in 1987 and comprised consultancy assistance and UK training awards, supported the wider World Bank Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP). The project's focus was the improvement of the efficiency and effectiveness of Ghana's Civil Service. The immediate objectives of Phase I included strengthening the legislative framework and improving the personnel management of the Civil Service; rationalising and improving salary and grading structures; rationalising the size of the Civil Service and the Ghana Education Service (the teaching staff of the latter were subsequently excluded from the programme at the instigation of the Government of Ghana); and developing the capacity of government to apply Management Services Techniques.

The Redeployment Management Committee (RMC) states the objectives of the civil service redeployment exercises as:

1. To remove all surplus or under-employed labour from the civil service and to keep its size at an economically viable level;
2. To use the savings from staff reductions to enable government to pay improved remuneration to workers who remain in the civil service, thereby improving morale;
3. To relocate redeployed labor rationally within the private informal sectors of the economy; and
4. To afford redeployed workers the opportunity to rediscover their potentials and develop them through retraining.

The first objective, retrenchment of significant numbers of civil servants, was clearly the most contentious, but it was also the most important in terms of rationalising the civil service. The remaining objectives were generally helpful in making the layoffs palatable to civil servants. The second goal, in particular, was arrived at after considerable debate over whether the primary objective of reform should be fiscal stabilisation through a reduction of the wage bill or recovery of the capacity of the civil service through improved remuneration and recruitment of more highly skilled people. Given the overall wage bill was reasonable (usually less than 6 percent of GDP) and that fiscal stabilisation was already a well-established component of the ERP, the latter goal prevailed. In the end, it was good that the government did not count on significant...
fiscal savings from the programme. Because targeted redeployees were predominantly low-paid staff so the anticipated savings from retrenchment itself were modest.

*Design of the Civil Service Reform Programme*

To achieve these goals obviously required retrenchment of civil servants; there were simply too many employees to pay competitive salaries and at the same time maintain the fiscal discipline that had been the hallmark of the ERP. The CSRP included other important policy changes, the most important of which was to strengthen the supervisory capabilities of the Office of the Head of the Civil Service (OHCS). Ghana had never had effective, centralised control over civil service hiring decisions or payroll practices. The first step of the CSRP, then, was to design and install a centralised computer payroll that the authorities could use to control staffing levels and salaries. This was a critical step. Other attempts at civil service retrenchment in Africa have foundered because the government could not make the staff reductions stick: decentralised ministries and agencies hired new workers (or re-hired retrenched civil servants) as quickly as the reform programme laid them off, yielding no net reduction. Thus, a centralised payroll was a necessary prerequisite to the retrenchment programme. An additional benefit of the payroll audit was that it identified many “ghost workers” - i.e., names on the payroll of people who actually did not exist.

Retrenchment and payroll control were the first aspects of the CSRP to be implemented; others have followed more slowly. While salaries were unified in 1991 - i.e., all special allowances for housing, transport, lunch, etc. were incorporated into the basic salary. In particular, while the government had worked out a comprehensive redesign of the pay and grading system, it had not adopted the reforms. Even in Ghana, there had been no net reduction in Education Service staffing levels despite the fact that nonteaching staff were subject to redeployment, probably because the centralised payroll did not extend to that Service. Usually, this "person's" salary was collected by someone else, often another higher ranking civil servant. For some ranking civil servants, this additional income helped to overcome their otherwise low salary.

Job audits were to be another integral part of the CSRP, but they only began in earnest in 1991 and progressed slowly. Such programmes increasingly occurred in the context of structural adjustment together with an extensive reduction of the size of the public sector. The following outlines the context of the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP) in Ghana, review its rationale, and analyse the progress so far made, given the obstacles and constraints.

The analysis is based on five key components of the reform programme; namely,

(i) Control of the size of the civil service;
(ii) Pay and grading;
(iii) Organization and management reform;
(iv) The management of retrenchment; and
(v) Training.

*Public Sector Reform in Ghana*

The Public sector reform in Ghana, taken care of by the Ministry of Public Sector Reform (MPSR) looks into different issues of the economy starting from pay reforms, decentralisation as well as improvement in service delivery. The main aim of bringing about changes in the pay reform is making the payment policies of the public sector in Ghana sustainable. Productivity increases with improved payment methods. Public sector reform in Ghana also comprises
Restructuring in civil services. As part of the public sector reform in Ghana, about 25 Ministries, Departments and Agencies, MDAs have Customer Service Units (CSU) which take care of the customer related issues. The customer care units are monitored by the customer service unit officers.

For the benefit of the public servants, an all-encompassing salary restructuring has been carried out for the overall public sector in Ghana. Fair Wages and Salaries Commission has been established so that the wages as well as the salaries are equally made available to all the workers and there is no anomaly in this regard.

**Single Spine Salary Structure**

In view of the many distortions in salary structure among workers of the same calibre, educational background and experience, the government has embarked on the rationalisation of salaries to remove such distortions and pre-empt the many agitations characterising the labour front. This has been one of the major challenges of the public sector reforms. At the time of putting this report together, in the first quarter of 2011, the labour front has been hit by an industrial action by teachers who were dissatisfied with the levels of their salaries in comparison with other sections of workers in the country. It is hoped that when the rationalisation is successfully implemented, it will help restore calm on the labour front and create the required motivation and the congenial environment for increased productivity.

**International Conventions on Administrative Reforms**

Article 7 of The African Union Convention on Corruption requires all or designated public officials to declare their assets whilst in the public service. The indicators of this article are:

1. Simplification of Government systems and procedures.
2. Establishment of merit based recruitment with adequate remuneration for employees.
3. Establishment of effective revenue collection systems.

The Government of Ghana has embarked on strengthening the capacity of the State to promote better governance and in particular there has been a move to address corruption. In 1997, the Cabinet approved for implementation, the Public Sector Modernization Strategy (PUSERMOS) as the framework for rebuilding government and conducting public sector management reforms. PUSERMOS seeks to transform state institutions, their accountability and performance framework and their relationship with the private sector and civil society. There is also a thrust towards the decentralization in Ghana to promote popular participation and ownership of the machinery of Government by shifting the process of governance from command to consultative. This move includes the devolution of power, competence and resources to the district level. This is an empowerment policy and will benefit the system of Government. The process will also result in the simplification of Government processes, as certain things will be done at the district and provincial levels as opposed to central Government.

There are legislative provisions, which deal with decentralization, and they are derived from the Constitution of Ghana and the Local Government Act 462 of 1993. Other legislative provisions that facilitate the implementation for decentralization include: The Civil Service Law 1993, and the National Development Planning System Law Act 480 of 1994. The strategic measures taken by the Government for the period 2000-2002 include the reform of Government agencies to increase efficiency, quality of service and reduce the drain on public resources. The impact of the strategy is to achieve amongst other things, better public service delivery and more public
resources available for delivery of social services and poverty related programmes, improved management of the public sector, improved delivery of public services at the local level and improved policy formulation and service delivery. Clearly, these strategies are aimed at improving the civil service and the workings of Government. These reforms are in line with the principles set out in the African Union Convention on Corruption:

- Revenue generation and collection.
- Fiscal discipline.
- Upholding good governance.
- The creation of an efficient and dedicated public service.

The Office of Accountability that was established in the President’s office in the previous administration was open to the public to report any act of malpractice and corruption. This office aimed at creating a medium through which any person that had any information could freely report such acts for investigation. The strategy of encouraging openness is aimed at improving public financial management and participation. Revenue collection has been streamlined with the establishment of the Central Revenue Agencies Board.

Although the Government has put in measures to reform the civil service, there are still a number of challenges that have to be overcome. The general weakening of moral due to low salaries evidences the general integrity of the public sector. Furthermore, this has led to generally low ethical standards and appreciation for the ongoing public sector reforms. There are no strong mechanisms in place to detect and to punish offenders. In terms of coordination and supervision of government agencies, it has been reported that there is too much red tape and the valuation procedures are not consistent with international standards.

Adoption of Appropriate Standards and Codes of Good Practice

Article 7(2) of the African Union Convention on Corruption requires State Parties to commit themselves to create an internal committee or similar body mandated to establish a code of conduct to monitor implementation. Codes of conduct are good measures but may fail to achieve effectiveness if the implementation process is not monitored. Codes of Conduct also require strict enforcement, which demands strict adherence to them by all. The indicators include the

1. Adoption of national laws, guidelines and ethical regulations of codes of conduct for public officials, which include rules on conflict of interest, disclosure of assets and gifts.
2. Establishment and enforcement of self-regulating codes of conduct for different professions including the private sector.

Ghana has in place the Public Office Holders (Declaration of Assets and Disqualification) Act 550 of 1998. Section 1 of the Act provides that a person who holds a public office mentioned in section three of the Act should submit to the Auditor General a written declaration of all the properties owned by him and all liabilities owed by him. This is irrespective of whether the assets or liabilities are owned or owed directly or indirectly as the case maybe. The Act further provides a schedule that shows the format with which this declaration is to take. The Act further provides that this declaration is to be made before taking office, at the end of every four years and at the end of the official’s term of office. Section 7 of the Act sets out what is to happen in the event that an official fails to make this declaration without reasonable excuse or knowingly makes a false declaration. Section 8 of the Act provides that an allegation that an official has failed to make the required declaration shall be made to the Commissioner for Human Rights and
Administrative Justice and in the case of the Commissioner for Human Rights and Administrative Justice to the Chief Justice. The measures are to ensure that public officials do not acquire properties or assets that they are unable to explain. This also ensures that whatever property is acquired by a public official, it will be easy to assess the means of that public official and to assess whether or not the assets have been acquired lawfully.

**Challenges in Reforms**

Although the Government has made remarkable progress in addressing issues of corruption, there still remains room for improvement. On the whole, it has been noted that the level of accountability and transparency remain low in national and sub-national administration. There is also the presence of a weak civil society and very little cooperation among them. Some of the problems that have been identified and which hamper progress in anti-corruption initiatives include the following:

- Cynicism and lack of confidence in law enforcement agencies /authorities.
- Authorities are perceived as above the law and are not brought before the courts when they contravene the law.
- The judiciary is weak and ineffective.
- The decentralization of financial resources lacks the necessary capacity of local levels to make it effective.
- There is lack of information and the data that is available is mostly unreliable and disconnected.
- The democratic institutions are weak and ineffective.
- Procurement fraud is rampant.
- There is corruption and inefficiency in service delivery.
- There is a lack of coordinated coalitions in the anti-corruption strategy.

The general integrity of the public sector is evidenced by the general weakening of morale due to low salaries. Furthermore this has led to general low ethical standards and appreciation for the ongoing public sector reforms. There are no strong mechanisms in place to detect corruption and punish offenders.

In terms of coordination and supervision of government agencies, there is too much red tape and the valuation procedures are not consistent with international standards. The internal mechanisms remain weak as the enforcement of code of ethics is weak and the monitoring of officials is not effective.

**Characteristics of an Effective Civil Service**: Keuleers, (2001) identifies the following characteristics of an effective civil service as a pre-requisite for good governance:
• Adjusted to the level of social and economic development in the country;
• Efficient and effective in the delivery of services;
• Highly professional and capable of offering the best technical advice to the democratically elected government;
• Operated according to merit-based principles, combined with culturally sensitive management practices;
• Loyal in the execution of the policies of the acting government, while operating in accordance with the Constitution and the laws;
• Strongly committed to the public interest;
• Disciplined and intolerant of unproductive or unethical behavior;
• Honest and devoted to serving the population in an unbiased and impartial manner;
• Broadly representative of society;
• Upholding fair administrative practices, transparent in its operations and accountable to the citizens and their representatives;
• Willing to hire the best people available at each level, based on a fair and transparent recruitment process and to maintain competitive pay practices that will foster a motivational climate for state employees;
• Strongly in support of proper training and development at all levels;
• Capable and willing to develop partnerships with various groups and organizations in civil society.

Overview of Possible Responsibilities for the Different Institutions Involved in Civil Service Personnel Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Roles and responsibilities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Service Commission or an Inter-ministerial Committee</strong></td>
<td>Make proposals and give advice to the Cabinet on civil service policies, regulations and administration of the civil service system. Interpretation of the Civil Service Act and related regulations and solving problems arising from its enforcement. Give advice to Cabinet concerning the organizational development of government agencies. Guidelines for recruitment, staff appraisal, promotions, career development, etc. Consider manpower planning policies for the civil service. Approval of high-level appointments. Special appeal cases which cannot be decided elsewhere. Recommend personnel management improvements to the legislative &amp; the executive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Central Agency in charge of Civil Service Personnel Management</strong></td>
<td>Assist the Civil Service Training Institution (or equivalent body) with the preparation of policies and regulations, standardized procedures, program formulation and planning, clarification of objectives and strategies, coordination, monitoring and evaluation etc. Overall nationwide manpower planning for the civil service. Recruitment (except for the lower levels) and organizational control of recruitment levels. Pay and grading management and control (accreditation of degrees and other credentials for the purpose of instatement and appointment of civil servants and determination of the appropriate position level and salary steps). Prepare model job descriptions and establish standards for the classification of positions. Data base management (all civil servants) – record keeping (higher levels) and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Roles and responsibilities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>oversight of the maintenance of personnel records in the departments</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Advise and support to departments and agencies with regard to personnel</td>
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<td></td>
<td>planning and delegated management responsibilities.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Controls the implementation of policies and regulations by the departments</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Conducts basis personnel management research</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Distributes information on best practices related to supervision, performance</td>
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<td></td>
<td>management, work environments, in-service training etc.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Coordinate activities related to training and professional development of civil</td>
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<td></td>
<td>servants</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision of government officials studying or training abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Office of the Budget – Pay roll unit</td>
<td>Manpower control and control of the wage bill.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>All financial aspects of personnel management, including pay, pensions,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>manpower control.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Recruitment of staff in the lower levels</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Disciplinary action and complaints</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Record keeping</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Daily personnel management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Assist the different agencies in the department in the preparation of their</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>organization charts, missions and corresponding staffing plans and annual HRDP</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>(human resource development plans)</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Prepare the overall annual HRDP of the department.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Monitor and promote the professional and personal development of civil servants</td>
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<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>in the ministry</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Report regularly to the Public Service Commission regarding personnel</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>administration in the department.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Provide advice and support to managers in the performance of their HRM</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>responsibilities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>Responsible for all liaisons with the Training Institution and other training</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM units in the (larger) departments</td>
<td>institutions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>All line managers</td>
<td>Performance management</td>
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<tr>
<td>All line managers</td>
<td>Identification of the individual training needs of his subordinate staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>All line managers</td>
<td>Monitor the probation of newly recruited employees and certify that this</td>
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<tr>
<td>All line managers</td>
<td>probation period does or does not warrant the employees continuation as a civil</td>
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<tr>
<td>All line managers</td>
<td>servant</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

Civil service reform in developing countries requires continued commitment from the government and the donor community as the process takes time and resources to achieve. Much will depend on the successful development of local capacities for public sector management and policy development. Despite the need for technical expertise, the political, social, economic and cultural dimensions of the reforms should not be underestimated.

Improving public administration and civil service personnel management systems is one of the most difficult challenges in developing countries, because of the complexity of the process and the political, social and economic implications. The conclusion is thus to be cautious when implementing civil service reforms in developing countries and to avoid imitating the human resource management practices of some developed countries. Many of these innovations presuppose a robust personnel system and some even have high inequity and corruption risks that can be particularly high in developing countries.
Accountability systems, required to enhance the integrity of public governance, are still too weak and need to be consolidated. Because all these institutions, systems and processes are still new, it is required to review all policies on a regular basis (e.g. initially every two-three years) to evaluate their effects. Systems, processes and policies should be reviewed on regular basis in order to evaluate their effects and keep the reforms on track.

References


Objective 6: Fight corruption in the political sphere

Corruption has been defined by the World Bank as the abuse of the official position for private gain. Whereas corruption as a whole is often understood as “the abuse of entrusted power for private benefit,” political corruption can more narrowly be defined as the “abuse of political power for private benefit.” It is of major concern in Africa with its limited resources and the costs of corruption to countries on the continent have had far-reaching consequences on the social, political and economic development of the continent as a whole thus ensuring the continuous underdeveloped of the masses of the people. According to the 2008 Transparency International Report, corruption remains one of the most formidable challenges to good governance, development and poverty reduction in Africa.

During the Global Coalition for Africa in 1997, there was unanimous agreement that corruption, though a problem throughout the world, presented a significant threat to the development of African countries and that urgent action was required to address it. Corruption has thus been identified as a serious obstacle to social and economic development as it limits economic growth through the reduction of public resources. Corruption is tied with the issue of governance and
hence, to a certain extent, issues of governance have to be addressed if corruption is to be dealt with effectively. Because corruption has a link with governance, it is imperative that African states embark on political and economic reforms, which promote free and open competition, transparency and accountability.

Declaring corruption as the scourge of Ghanaian society, the military government of the PNDC embarked in 1982 on a crusade against corruption. After eight years of stiff sentences and executing the guilty, the government found that it could not even clean up its own house. Officials fraudulently bought equipment, demanded bribes, and embezzled government funds. A number of politicians and officials in the 18-year Rawlings regime have been tried on corruption-related charges.

The phenomenon of corruption occurs in a variety of forms, in different types of organisations and at different levels within organisations. Corrupt practices range from small amounts paid for frequent transactions (petty corruption) to bribes to escape taxes, regulations or win relatively minor procurement contracts (administrative corruption) to massive and wholesale corruption. It occurs within private corporations (corporate corruption) or, more famously, in the public sector, including political arena, (political corruption). When corruption is prevalent throughout all levels of society, it is seen as systemic, and when it involves senior officials and ministers serving the interests of a narrow group of business people, politicians or criminal elements, it is aptly called grand corruption

International Conventions

The Constitutive Act of the AU has as one of its principles, the adherence to principles of good governance. The AU Convention on Corruption and Related Offences has the following benchmarks:

1. Harmonization of anti-corruption norms and standards.
2. Adoption of appropriate legislative measures and other institutional arrangements to fight corruption.

The benchmark areas identified in the NEPAD agreement in relation to addressing corruption are the following:

1. The development of clear standards of accountability, transparency and participatory governance at national and sub-national levels.
2. Introducing appropriate institutional frameworks to achieve macroeconomic stability.
3. Instituting transparent legal and regulatory frameworks for the private and public sector.

The Primary purpose of the African Peer Review Mechanism is defined as to “foster the adoption of policies, standards and practices that lead to political stability, high economic growth…” This is clearly elaborated in the AU Convention on corruption and article 2 expounds on these principles through its objectives.

Article 2(1) states as one of the objectives of the AU Convention on Corruption as to:
“Promote and strengthen the development in Africa by each State Party, of mechanisms required to prevent, detect, punish and eradicate corruption and related offences in the public and private sectors.”

The benchmarks include:

- Enactment and enforcement of criminal laws, which deal effectively with corruption.
- Adoption of legislative mechanisms and procedures for the public to submit complaints of corruption, including the protection of witnesses and whistleblowers.

An international convention would authorise such action, extending the UN Principles on the Elimination of Corruption by Public Officials.

Governments that fail to ratify such an instrument would risk being seen as corrupt or at least as bed-mates of corrupt officials.

Third World countries can take a cue from the UN International Code of Conduct for Public Officials. Its articles state:

1. Public officials shall ensure that they perform their duties and functions efficiently and effectively, in accordance with laws or administrative policies, and with integrity. They shall at all times seek to ensure that public resources for which they are responsible are administered in the most effective and efficient manner.

2. Public Officials shall not use their official authority for improper advancement of their own or their family’s personal or financial interest. They shall not engage in any transaction, acquire any position or function, or have any financial, commercial or other comparable interest that is incompatible with their office, functions and duties or the discharge thereof.

3. Public officials, to the extent required by the official’s position, shall in accordance with laws or administrative policies, declare business, commercial and financial interests, or activities undertaken for financial gain that may raise a possible conflict of interest. In situations of possible or perceived conflict of interest between the duties and private interests of public officials, they shall comply with the measures established to reduce or eliminate such conflict of interest.

4. Public officials shall at no time improperly use public moneys, property, services or information that is acquired in the performance of, or as a result of, their official duties for activities not related to their official work.

5. Public officials shall, in accord with their position and as permitted or required by law and administrative policies, comply with requirements to declare or to disclose personal assets and liabilities, as well as, if possible, those of their spouses and/or dependants.

6. Public officials shall not solicit or receive directly or indirectly any gift or other favours that may influence the exercise of their functions, performance of their duties or their judgment.

Ghana’s 2010 Corruption Perception Index (CPI)

Ghana recorded its highest performance ever in the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) by scoring 4.1 out of 10 in the latest ratings by Transparency International. The CPI assessed the extent of corruption among public officials and politicians. It reflects views from around the world, including those of experts living and working in the countries evaluated. Data for the 2010 index were collected from expert analysts from organisations, including the African Development Bank, the World Economic Forum, the World Bank, Freedom House and the Asian Development Bank.
The latest report by the international anti-corruption body ranked Ghana as the seventh least corrupt country among 47 African countries and 62nd among 178 countries surveyed this year. This represents an improvement over Ghana’s 2009 ranking of 69 with a score of 3.9. The country scored 3.3 in 1999; 3.7 in 2008 and 3.9 in 2009. In capturing the evolution of the corruption index, it is recalled that Ghana scored 3.3 in 1999 when it was first captured by the index, experienced some improvements but declined to 3.3 in 2003 and 2006. However, since then, it has made some gains, scoring 3.7 in 2007 and 3.9 in both 2008 and 2009.

Focusing on the wider perspective of the African continent, since the inception of the CPI, no African country has scored 6 or above. For 2010, Africa’s best performer, Botswana, scored 5.8 and was ranked 33 globally, while Mauritius the second best performer scored 5.4 with a rank of 39 globally. Cape Verde and Seychelles scored 5.1 and 4.8 respectively, an improvement on their 2009 scores. However, South Africa and Namibia with scores of 4.5 and 4.4 respectively scored lower this year than last year. Nigeria also performed worse than it did in the last two years scoring 2.4 in 2010 as against 2.7 and 2.5 in 2008 and 2009 respectively. Globally Denmark, New Zealand and Singapore tied for first place with scores of 9.3. These countries have always dominated the top for the past four years, while Finland, Sweden, Canada, The Netherlands, Australia, Switzerland and Norway followed in that order.

There is really no cause to celebrate as Ghana has still not caught up with any of the leading countries since the inception of the Corruption Perception Index (CPI). Rather than being complacent, the score should serve as a constant reminder that the country is far from winning the fight against corruption, which in turn also frustrates the nation’s fight against poverty, disease, ignorance, crime and insecurity. Though there are gains, corruption still remains an enormous drain on Ghana’s limited resources which can better be used for education, health and infrastructure.

**Corruption Cases**

High profile cases, such as the Mabey and Johnson and Daimler Chrysler, continue to linger in the minds of Ghanaians. In the Mabey and Johnson case, a number of former ministers and public servants were alleged to have been bribed by a British construction firm in the 1990s. Daimler Chrysler is also said to have bribed some officials for the supply of vehicles. The country, and indeed the world, is watching to see how the government will address these cases. Ghana’s Parliament is yet to summon the Attorney General to brief it on these cases, which allegedly brought losses to the country while benefiting some individuals.

There is also the alleged grabbing of lands by members of all arms of government in both the current and previous regimes, a situation that calls for transparency not only in the sale of government lands but also in the disposal of all government assets. A pressure group, the Committee for Joint Action (CJA), has been asking the government to set up an independent commission of enquiry to investigate the allocation of such state lands and government assets to private individuals. The Committee has accused officials and functionaries of the previous Administration of selfishly grabbing state lands, whiles the current government is allocating lands without recourse to the Constitution.

The Auditor-General's report on the Public Accounts submitted to Parliament and the follow-up public hearings held by the Public Accounts Committee reveal that corruption among public officials was a serious problem. In fact, corruption has become the norm rather than the exception. From the startling revelations at these hearings, there is little doubt that corruption has
sunk deep into the moral fiber of the Ghanaian society and there is clear evidence that leaders think more of themselves than of the people they lead. What is even of much grave concern about the Auditor-General’s reports is that the findings in these reports keep recurring on an annual basis and it is of much wonder why governments in the past and the current one are unable to deal with the individuals and institutions that are involved in these malfeasance and sometimes naked stealing. Public resources that would have gone to the provision of hospitals and drugs, schools and books are allegedly siphoned into private pockets with impunity.

The current debate on corruption in the country has been triggered by an explosive investigative report by an ace journalist that unearthed the massive corrupt deals within the cocoa industry along Ghana’s borders and the rot at the Tema Port involving custom officials which forced the President to storm the Port where he had hard words for the customs officials and clearing agents. These are in addition to media reports on the continued leakage of public resources, either through deliberate stealing and fraud or through failure of persons paid from the public purse to prevent such leakages. It is particularly worrisome that even in cases where there was video coverage of fraudulent acts by public officials and thieving private “businessmen and businesswomen”, the government was unable or failed to get professional and committed public prosecutors to handle these cases. Many Ghanaians, in fact, are left with no choice than to conclude that such inaction is a result of lack of interest and an abiding commitment on the part of past and present administrations to deal decisively with the canker of corruption in the Ghanaian society.

It is apparent that the current administration has up to date not provided a grand presidential strategy to address the terrible corruption canker even though it has had many opportunities to provide an over-arching policy. As a way out, Ghanaians believe that the President should go beyond expressing anger and act on the revelations. Immediate steps should be taken to recover all monies that have been reported missing, misapplied, stolen or paid to ‘ghosts’ as revealed by the Auditor-General’s audit reports. Further, that individuals involved and are arrested, investigated and, if found culpable, prosecuted. It is obvious that transfers of such corrupt public officials, as often has been the case, are not a solution to the problem because these acts do take place countrywide and transfers are just administrative actions that builds organisations.

It is agreed that lack of integrity in public sector organizations is a result of the absence of workable checks and balances which are at the bottom of what is seen as symptoms of corruption - lack of accountability/transparency, bribery, nepotism, abuse and theft of public resources, etc. The nagging questions in the minds of many Ghanaians are: “How many times do institutional heads move out of their offices to visit the harbours and other points of entry in the country? How many of such acts have been uncovered by these heads through their own security mechanisms? How many of these uncovered acts have been sanctioned? How possible was it for a journalist to uncover these corrupt acts while state institutions failed to do so?” It is believed that waste and inefficiencies are common because those who are supposed to supervise fail to do so either because they are irresponsible or because they stand to benefit from the lax system and processes. Skeptics are therefore wont to attribute the inaction of the officials appointed to head these institutions to the fact that they could be beneficiaries of these malpractices.

**Consequences of Corruption**

Corruption and mismanagement hurt social and economic development by denying schools, hospitals and other public services and by the loss of investor confidence, buoyant economic activity, and public morale.
• Where democracy and political accountability are not entrenched, economic crime is rife and politics unstable.

• Billions of dollars of public funds continue to be stashed away by some African leaders – even while roads are crumbling, health systems have failed, school children have neither books nor desks nor teachers, and phones do not work.

**Dealing with Corruption**

Most African countries have now developed systems to address corruption; this has been done through the development of institutions in the civil service, parliament and the judiciary to create the necessary checks and balances. In most cases these institutional reforms have not been sufficient, as they have tended to involve government structures only. In most instances, the incidence for investigation and prosecution for grand corruption cases has not increased, as there is no serious effort to curb high-level corruption. The cases that have been highlighted have only involved petty corruption. There is enough evidence that in most countries there has not been any significant improvement in the levels of corruption despite numerous commitments made by Heads of State and Government to curb corruption through poverty reduction strategies.

A gap in the current anti-corruption framework – one that shows no sign of recovering embezzled funds back into state coffers is particularly worrying. The absence of post-convicted recovery and restriction of stolen money is a cause for concern. There are no measures to ensure that individuals convicted of corruption charges, (racketeering, plundering, extortion etc.) should be prohibited to have access to their accounts – even if in foreign banks.

**Adoption of Anti Corruption measures**

The Government of Ghana has embarked on strengthening the capacity of the State to promote better governance and in particular has moved to address corruption. The Government has embarked on an anti-corruption strategy, which involves coalition building amongst different sectors. A Serious Fraud Office (SFO), currently the Economic and Organised Crime Office (EOCO), the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) and a number of civil society organizations are all part of the institutional framework to deal with corruption.

Ghana has the Serious Fraud Office Act, 1993 whose purpose is the establishment of a Serious Fraud Office to monitor, investigate, and on the authority of the Attorney-General, prosecute any offence involving serious financial or economic loss to the State and to make provision for connected and incidental purposes.

The Economic and Organized Crime Office was set up by Act 804 of 2010 in line with Article 190 (1)(d) of the 1992 constitution as one of the Public Services of Ghana to supplement and augment government's effort in the fight against corruption in the State. The Office was established as a specialized agency of government to monitor investigate and on the authority of the Attorney-General, prosecute any offence involving serious financial and economic loss to the state and to make provision for connected and incidental purposes.

The mandate of the Office is clearly set out by the EOCO Act. The relevant provisions, at Section 3(1) (a), (b), (c), (d) and (2) S. 12, and S. 13 indicate clearly that the mandate to investigate any suspected fraud is inherent in the Office and can be activated by the Executive Director without reference to any other authority or agency of State.
The functions of the Office are:

a. To investigate any suspected offence provided for by law, which appears to the Director on reasonable grounds to involve serious financial or economic loss to the State or to any state organisation or other institution in which the State has financial interest.
b. To monitor such economic activities as the Director considers necessary with a view to detecting crimes likely to cause financial or economic loss to the State; and
c. To cooperate with such international agencies as the Director considers appropriate.

The Director of the Serious Fraud Office is empowered to freeze assets or bank accounts if he/she is of the opinion that to facilitate investigations it is necessary to have the assets frozen. However the Director is required under the Act to write within 7 days to the High Court or Regional Tribunal for a confirmation of the freezing of assets and bank account.

The Public Office Holders (Declaration of Assets and Disqualifications) Act, 1998, Act 550 provides for the declaration of assets and liabilities by public office holders in conformity with Chapter 24 of the Constitution. It also provides for the disqualification from holding specified public offices as a result of adverse findings made or a criminal conviction against an individual.

The Act provides for the declaration of assets and liabilities by public office holders and these public holders are required to submit to the Auditor General a written declaration of all properties and assets owned by him and all liabilities owed by him. The public office holders include the President, the Vice-President and other senior government officials as prescribed under Schedule 1 of the Act. The Act stipulates that the public officer shall make the declaration before taking office, at the end of every four years, and at the end of his office. The Act does not stipulate whether these declarations will be made publicly.

In order for the government of Ghana to fulfill objectives that ensure transparency and accountability, the Government has established certain key institutions to facilitate private investment, to regulate private sector operations and to protect private sector investment.

The Securities Regulatory Commission has been established to ensure discipline and transparency in the financial sector. The Bank of Ghana and the National Insurance Commission have been strengthened to enhance their oversight of the banking and insurance sectors. The Public Utilities Regulatory Commission has been established to regulate utility pricing and to ensure reliable service and provide a forum for both private operators and consumers in order to resolve differences amicably. Revenue collection has also been streamlined with the establishment of the Central Revenue Agencies Board.

The Government of Ghana regards public financial management as an important focal point of economic recovery. Measures taken by the Government aim at improving transparency and accountability. An indicator of this is the establishment of budgetary and financial transparency and strong financial management systems. The Government’s measures taken include the following:

1. The Budget and Public Expenditure Management System (BPEMS)
2. The Ministry of Finance has established a non-tax revenue unit to facilitate the collection, accounting, reporting and monitoring of non-tax revenue.
3. A programme of action to create a Large Taxpayers Unit (LTU)
4. As part of the process to institutionalize the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) process, the Ministry of Finance has established a budget Development Unit. In order to deal with the executive overriding the financial management system through the Ministry of Finance, a Parliamentary Oversight Committee has also been instituted through the Public Accounts Committee. Although the Government has made remarkable progress in addressing issues of corruption, there still remains room for improvement. It has been noted that the level of accountability and transparency remain low in national and sub-national administration. Amongst some of the problems identified and which hamper progress in anti-corruption is procurement fraud.

Initiatives/Recommendations

- The directive that all public officials should declare their assets when they take office should be enforced to the letter.

- The media should name and shame criminals and governments should name and ostracise banks which facilitate these thefts. The citizenry should also learn impeach corrupt leaders.

- Dossiers on corrupt politicians and officials can be used to prosecute offenders and repatriate the monies to the victim country. Universal jurisdiction must be established over such crimes to prevent the recourse to arguments of exclusive national jurisdiction.

- Banks that hold private accounts of Third World politicians or officials should periodically publish details of the accounts. This reduces privacy, but the secrecy of accounts helps people hide stolen wealth. The publication of account details may be made one of the conditions precedent for opening bank accounts under the “Know Your Customer Rule”.

- Third World countries should establish democratic accountability in all sectors, inculcating a culture that nobody is above the law and that all are penalised equally under the law.

- Democratic accountability depends on a vigilant opposition, electorate, press and public to keep politicians and bureaucrats on their toes. The more watchful the people, the more accountable public officials will be.

- A good set of political finance regulations is, of course, of little use if it is not properly enforced. Effective enforcement requires independent oversight agencies endowed with powers to supervise, investigate and, if required, institute legal proceedings in cases of malpractice. Unfortunately, many governments lack the political will to give teeth to supervisory agencies lest it works to their disadvantage once out of office.

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Objective 7: Promote the respect, protection and fulfillment of the rights of women

Article 17 of the 1992 Constitution deals with equality and freedom from discrimination. It
defines discrimination as different treatment to different persons attributable only or mainly to
their respective descriptions by gender, race, place of origin, religion, political opinions, colour,
occupation, religion or creed. The definition here is to a large extent in conformity with the
definition in the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
(CEDAW). Ghana’s definition uses gender instead of sex. Ghana operates a dualist system
where Parliament must pass a law that makes international instruments part of national law.
Examples of laws that have been amended to conform to international standards include the
following: Amendment of the Criminal Code to criminalise female genital mutilation, customary
or ritual enslavement of any kind, harmful traditional widowhood practices and defilement to
cover boys and girls. Others are the Intestate Succession and amendments and Marriage and
Divorce Registration Law.

In furtherance of Articles 24 (Economic Rights) and 27 (Women’s Rights) of the Constitution, a
Labour Act was passed in 2004 which has provisions for granting women the needed period
during childbirth, equal pay for equal work done, among others. In spite of the criminalisation of
the above listed customary practices, few cases have been brought before the courts for
prosecution.
In spite of gender sensitive provisions in the Constitution, it is an undeniable fact that presently
there are still social structures that enable men to dominate women. Despite recent gains in some
areas, gender inequalities continue to constrain women’s ability to participate in and contribute
to the economy. For instance, women’s ability to participate in market-related work is hampered
by time constraints such as child care and home maintenance, which are known to be female work. Research indicates that school enrolment and retention rates in Ghana have increased for both boys and girls in recent years particularly since the introduction of the capitation grant. However, the gender gap in enrolment and retention has persisted and it widens at higher grade levels. At the secondary and tertiary levels, there is implicit "gender stream," or segregation by field of study.

Women do not have the same rights and responsibilities during marriage or at its dissolution. Their access to and control of land, family income and decision making all remain challenges they must deal with. Women are therefore often worse off at the dissolution of the marriage or at the death of a partner. Parliament is yet to pass a law to regulate the property rights of spouses.

**International Conventions**

The government of Ghana has passed a number of legislations and ratified various conventions and treaties that seek to promote the rights of women and children and their development in a coherent manner. Specific programmes have been designed to implement majority of these Conventions and Treaties. Some of them have been adapted into the country’s National Development Policy Frameworks with specific strategies and time-bound measurable targets.

These Treaties and Conventions include the following:

- Adoption of the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights, 2003 (specifically the protocol relating to women’s rights has been approved by Parliament for ratification), March 2007
- The adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as part of Ghana’s Medium to long-term Development Policy Framework (GPRS I & II).
- Adoption of African Union Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment, July 2004.

**Achievements**

Ghana has strived to translate various conventions and Protocols relating to Gender Equality, Women and Children’s Rights and their development into concrete policy actions and outcomes since the 1980s. Major achievements include the following:

- Compliance with International Reporting obligations and submission and defence of Ghana’s 3rd, 4th and 5th CEDAW Reports at the UN in August 2006.
- Passage of the Human Trafficking Law to prevent trafficking in persons especially women and children, and to provide for rehabilitation and reintegration of victims of trafficking.
• Building the capacity of stakeholder institutions to implement the law on trafficking.
• Dissemination and sensitisation of communities on the Human trafficking law.
• Passage of the Domestic Violence Law that seeks to protect victims of domestic violence and improve family cohesion.
• Establishment of MOWAC as a Central Management Agency charged with the responsibility of;
  1. formulating Policies and Strategies to promote Gender Equality,
  2. the Socio-economic Empowerment of women,
  3. the protection, survival and holistic development of the Ghanaian child and
  4. coordination of all policies and programmes for the advancement of Gender Equality and the Protection of the Rights of women and children in Ghana.

Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs

In line with the Government’s commitment to promote and advance the welfare of women and children in Ghana, a Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs (MOWAC) was set up in 2001. It is the entity designated by government to initiate, coordinate and monitor gender responsive issues. It is to ensure equal status for women and promote rights of children.

Aims and Objectives:

• The formulation of gender and child specific development policies, guidelines, advocacy tools strategies and plans for implementation by MDAs, District Assemblies, Private Sector Agencies, NGOs, Civil Society Groups, and other Development Partners.
• Prepare National Development plans and programmes for women and children in which all the desired objectives and functions of the Ministry are programmed for implementation.
• Ensuring that development programmes for women and children are effectively implemented, through continuous monitoring and evaluation of the implementation process, making sure stipulated objectives are fulfilled.

Since its establishment, the Ministry has worked towards achieving the following:

• Abolition of child trafficking.
• Promoting women into decision-making positions
• Acquisition of equipment for small scale rural; enterprises.
• Providing advisory services on countering domestic violence
• Achieving significant improvement in domestic violence legislation and protection of women and others.
• Trained Gender Desk Officers.

Specific Achievements of the National Gender machinery:

• Formulation of Gender and Children’s Policies
• Implementation of MOWAC Strategic Implementation Plan (2005-2008)
• Formulation of the Early Childhood Care and Development Policy (ECCD) for implementation.
• Developed Orphan and Vulnerable Children’s Policy (OVCP).
• Engendered the strategic focus of GPRS I& II.
Facilitated the implementation of the Affirmative Action Policy (AAP) that led to the establishment of Gender Desk Officers (GDOs) in all MDAs and some districts.

Continuous collaboration with MDAs, MMDAs, DAs, NGOs and CBOs to implement Gender, Women and Child related programmes and projects.

Coordination of sector policies for the advancement of gender, women and children at national sector and district levels.

Dissemination of government policies at grassroots levels to enhance participatory approach to development and good governance.

Affirmative action to achieve gender parities in girl-child education.

Carried out sensitization programmes to create health awareness for women (Reproductive Health and Right Issues, Family Planning and Safe motherhood).

Collaborated with relevant government agencies to implement policies on free pre-natal and delivery services for women.

Facilitated the registration of more than 1000 female head porters under the National Health Insurance Scheme.

Extended Micro Credit to women engaged in economic activities with a view to reducing their poverty levels and vulnerability.

Trained over 17,000 women in the informal sector on financial management skills

Micro credit support for Mothers of trafficked children to carry out small skills business to support their families.

Organised women durbars at regional and district levels to disseminate information on government policies and potential impacts on women and to receive feedbacks for possible policy review.

Initiated consultative process towards the passage of Property Right of Spouses Bill.

Organized consultative fora with key stakeholders to deliberate on issues of maternal mortality and strategies to curb the incidence.

Sensitized public especially women and vulnerable groups on HIV/AIDS.

Organized International Expert Forum to deliberate on strategies to increase women’s participation in decision-making positions.

Provided policy inputs on women and children’s concerns for incorporation into national and sector plan include: (i) Energy Sector Policy, (ii) Land Administration Policy, iii) Social Protection Strategy Policy, etc.

Developed an effective Gender M&F Framework to track Progress and Evaluate outcomes and impacts of Gender related programmes and projects.

Challenges:
The Ministry faces both financial and human resource constraints in its Gender Equality promotion, Women’s Empowerment and the Survival, Protection and Development of the Ghana child. Specific challenges include:

- Socio-cultural constraints
- Behavioural and attitudinal changes within our cultural Set-up
- Lack of sex-disaggregated data (gender data) to promote effective Gender planning and evidence-based decision making on Gender, Women and Children issues.
- Enhancing an effective and stronger coalition with all stakeholders to accelerate the Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment agenda.
- Ensuring that National, Sector and District Annual Resource Allocation Frameworks (budgets) adequately address Gender equality and Women Empowerment issues.
Women's participation in public administration

The public sector of the country is undoubtedly a male dominated area. However, the terrain has provided opportunities for distinguished women of the land to contribute their quota to the development efforts of the country. Within the political front, there are women Ministers of State managing the affairs of various ministries. There are others occupying Municipal and District Chief Executive positions in the various Assemblies.

Besides the political positions, the country now boasts of the first ever female Chief Justice of the land whose appointment was touted as the government’s avowed intention to give women their due place in the affairs of the country. The Speaker of Parliament is a woman and the Head of the Commissioner for Human Rights and Administrative Justice was, until recently, also a woman. The import of women’s participation in public administration goes beyond mere glorification of the successes chalked by these illustrious women of the country. It underscores the important role that women can play in the country’s development if given the opportunity. With women representing a greater proportion of the country’s population, they constitute a potential force whose energies could be galvanised to push the development agenda of the country forward. It also emphasises strongly that women are capable of succeeding in areas previously regarded as the preserve of men. There is no doubt that they represent role models for young girls to aspire to their levels of achievement.

Participation of Women in Parliament

There are 25 women Parliamentarians in the 230 seat parliament of the country. This constitutes about 11 percent of the total parliamentarians. Although there is no law in Ghana that prevents women from participating in politics or in areas of Ghana’s economic or social life, women are generally under-represented in politics and in public life. There seems to be no long-term strategic framework in place to address this failure. This failure has been attributed to a lack of political will and a deficient commitment to gender equality among political parties. The table below shows the number of women in the various parliaments over the years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Women’s Representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Republic (1960)</td>
<td>10 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second republic (1969)</td>
<td>2 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third republic (1979)</td>
<td>5 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Parliament of the Fourth Republic (1992)</td>
<td>6 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Parliament of the Fourth Republic (1996)</td>
<td>19 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Parliament of the Fourth Republican (2000)</td>
<td>19 women (181 men)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The introduction in 1988 of District Assemblies as part of a strategy to decentralise governance also provided an opportunity for women to become more involved in politics. Two entry points into the District Assemblies were available. As part of the 70 per cent elected members into the assemblies or as part of the 30 per cent appointed by government. The government policy on the
latter was to ensure that at least half of the government appointees would be women. Since this was a non-partisan systems, any woman ready to serve the district could contest.

Recommendations to increase the active presence of women in the political life of the nation may include the following:

- The Government should implement the Affirmative Action Policy to increase the number of women in politics and decision-making positions.
- The government should urge political parties to agree to the implementation of a quota system as a means of having more women in politics.
- Appointment of Ministers of State should reflect government’s commitment to bridging the gender gap through a 50/50 policy.

The issue of women’s equal participation and representation in governance processes both globally and nationally is no longer debatable owing to the number of global conventions and protocols which acknowledge women as equal partners with men in achieving sustainable development. Despite numerous international agreements and declarations, such as the United Nations Charter on Human Rights, Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and more recently the Beijing Platform for Action, the situation for many of the world’s women have not improved. Women continue to be under-represented in decision making at all levels though modest improvements have been made in some countries such as Rwanda and South Africa.

Equal participation of women and men in decisionmaking provides a balance that reflects the composition of society, something that is needed to strengthen democracy and to promote its proper functioning. Equality in political decision-making is leverage for integration of equality in government policy making. Women involvement in political decision making and in the legislature contribute to redefining political priorities, and placing new items on the political agenda that reflect and address women’s gender-specific concerns, values, experiences and provide new perspectives on mainstream political issues.

It is unfortunate that politics today has strong financial influences; something that negates any efforts those who genuinely want to serve the nation can make, because they do not have the money. For many women, the financial burden involved is a disadvantage. It is for such reasons that special measures ought to be put in place to support women to get into the legislature. Rwandan women contesting through the indirect electoral process developed their own manifestos around which they campaigned for votes. One wonders where the manifestos of Ghanaian women aspiring to become parliamentarians are. The Women Manifesto of 2004 is a tool for all aspiring candidates for reference. It is important that all female aspiring Members of Parliament see the Women’s Manifesto as critical to their campaigns. In relation to this, aspirants should court the relationship of NGOs that are championing that the electorate vote for women.

MOWAC has been involved in the promotion of the economic rights of women by providing them with economic opportunities such as access to micro-credit and small loans, provision of agro-processing equipment, skill training and information sharing to improve their livelihoods. As part of the main goal of the Ministry, it is making sure that women are empowered socio-economically. It is also seeking to reduce poverty among women as well as working towards creating jobs in the Northern region, to help the head potters.
MOWAC has had to face challenges such as low participation of women in decision making position, harmful socio-cultural practices, increasing number of streetism in urban areas and inadequate shelters for women and children in extremely difficult situations, among other things. There have also been a number of initiatives to advance women’s rights and protect women’s legal rights. Some of the activities have included partnering national organisations such as Leadership and Advocacy for Women in Africa-Ghana (LAWA-Ghana), a Ghanaian women's rights NGO and other international organisations in using comparative human rights law to improve the status of women. The focus included:

- domestic violence
- reforming discriminatory marital property, inheritance and land ownership law,
- polygamy
- ending employment discrimination
- political empowerment
- ending trafficking in women

**Recommendations**

- CEDAW should be reduced into domestic legislation to make its provisions legally binding and enforceable in court and also to provide a coordinated and structured means of promoting and protecting women’s rights in Ghana
- Government should pass legislation that criminalizes the customary practice of banishing alleged witches to camps.
- The Women’s Ministry must lead in opening public debate on Article 22 (2), i.e. legislation on property rights between spouses during and at dissolution. It should work with the Attorney General’s Office towards getting Parliament to pass the law on property distribution between spouses during and at dissolution
- Government must play a leading role in changing public perception about the inferior status accorded women.
- Government must ensure that state agencies with mandates to address human rights abuse collect data on specific women’s human rights which should be published annually with a view to supporting the promotion of women’s rights work by both state and non-state agencies. For instance the courts must be able to publish categories of cases that were brought before them.

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Ministry of Women And Children's Affairs http://www.ghana.gov.gh/.
Objective 8: Promote the respect, protection and fulfillment of the rights of children and young persons

WHO lists malaria and measles as the leading causes of premature death in Ghana. Other common diseases according to WHO include cholera, typhoid, pulmonary tuberculosis, anthrax, tetanus, chicken pox, yellow fever, infectious hepatitis, trachoma, and schistosomiasis. Others are guinea worm, various kinds of dysentery, river blindness or onchocerciasis, several kinds of pneumonia, dehydration, venereal diseases, and poliomyelitis. About 75 percent of all preventable diseases are waterborne. In addition, malnutrition and diseases acquired through insect bites continue to be common. Among children under five years of age, 70 percent of deaths are caused by infections compounded by malnutrition. To improve health conditions in Ghana, the Ministry of Health emphasised health services research. In addition, WHO and the government have worked to control schistosomiasis in man-made bodies of water. Efforts have been intensified to improve the nation's sanitation facilities and access to safe water. The percentage of the national population with access to safe water has risen over the years.

Ghana’s Integrated Child Health Campaign

The Challenge
Every year in Ghana, about 80,000 children do not live to celebrate their fifth birthday. Most of these children die from preventable causes. Malaria is hyper-endemic in Ghana and other diseases like acute respiratory infection, diarrhea and malnutrition are the underlying cause of death in half of all under-five deaths. Over the years, national infant mortality and under-five mortality rates in Ghana have not improved – startling evidence that children continue to die needlessly.

Reducing Child Mortality in Ghana
The Government of Ghana has adopted the High Impact Rapid Delivery (HIRD) approach as a national strategy to reduce child mortality. The approach bundles core health and nutrition interventions and delivers many of them in the heart of communities where families tend to lack access to healthcare facilities and lack even the most basic knowledge on how to manage common childhood disease. The HIRD package includes a number of simple, proven and cost-effective health and nutrition interventions aimed at preventing the loss of life among infants and children have been instituted. Among them are the following:

- Bed Nets: The use of insecticide-treated bed nets (ITNs) to reduce all-cause child mortality.
- Vitamin A: Providing children with Vitamin A supplements every 6 months to save young lives.
• Measles vaccine: Immunizing all children against measles to eliminate measles as a cause of death.
• Polio vaccine: Immunizing all children against polio to eradicate polio.
• De-worming: Ensuring that children are dewormed twice a year to reduce cases of anemia and improve cognitive development.
• Exclusive breastfeeding for six months and complementary feeding together to avert child deaths.
• Oral Rehydration Salts used promptly and effectively to treat diarrhea to reduce child mortality.

Initiated by the Ghana Health Service, the Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS) Initiative is a complementary strategy to the HIRD approach. CHPS promotes the idea that communities can be active participants in the provision of their own healthcare. The programme delivers primary health care closer to communities, mainly through CHPS compounds, community-built units housing at least one community nurse.

**International Goals and Targets**
To be achieved by the year 2015:

- All primary health care and family planning facilities offer the widest achievable range of safe and effective family planning methods, essential obstetric care, prevention and management of reproductive tract infections, including sexually transmitted diseases, and barrier methods to prevent infection;
- Deliveries assisted by skilled birth attendant should reach 90% globally and 60% in countries with high maternal death rates;
- Unmet need for contraception should be eliminated;
- All men and women in the high-risk age group 15 to 24 should have access to voluntary HIV/AIDS testing and counseling, and to the information and means (such as male and female condoms) to prevent its transmission.

**UN Millennium Development Targets to Be Achieved By 2015**
- Reduce the maternal mortality ratio by three-quarters;
- Reduce by two-thirds the under-five mortality rate;
- Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.

**Policy and Strategies for Improving the Health of Children Under Five**
In terms of morbidity and mortality, the under fives are a particularly vulnerable age group and contribute to more than half of deaths in all age groups in Ghana. Although programmes targeted at this age group exist and are on-going, the desired impact has not been achieved. There is therefore the need to develop and implement a more comprehensive and integrated approach to child health including policy formulation and development of protocols. The priority interventions to improve child health are:

- Neonatal health care
- Prevention and control of growth and nutritional problems.
- Prevention and control of infectious diseases and injuries.
- Clinical care of the sick and injured child.
- Health related interventions.

Other guidelines and policies that have been produced for children under five include:

- Breastfeeding Promotion Regulation
Institutional Framework for Coordination at National Level

The Ghana Health Service (GHS) is a Public Service body established under Act 525 of 1996 as required by the 1992 constitution. It is an autonomous Executive Agency responsible for implementation of national policies under the control of the Minister of Health through its governing Council, “The Ghana Health Service Council”. The GHS has eight directorates. The Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) Unit is one of five units under the public health directorate. The RCH unit is responsible for coordinating the implementation of reproductive and child health activities at the national level. The unit is headed by a Deputy Director of Public Health in charge of Family Health.

The unit has programme officers for child health, adolescent health, family planning and safe motherhood respectively. The programme officers are assisted by other health personnel. The unit works with the regional health directorates headed by Regional Directors of Health Services. Each regional directorate has a public health unit, which sees to the implementation of reproductive health activities. The district directorates have similar structures as that of the regions. The districts report to the regions and the regions send reports to the national level. At the national level, the RCH unit works with other units under the Public Health Directorate and with other Directorates of the GHS. The RCH Unit also collaborates with other Ministries, Departments, Agencies, Non-Governmental Organisations and the Private sector working in reproductive health area.

The National Population Council (NPC) is to coordinate all population activities. Periodically, the Secretariat of the Council organises meetings of all implementing partners in RH to share information and discuss challenges. The National AIDS Commission co-ordinates the national HIV/AIDS/STI response, monitors and evaluates all on-going HIV/AIDS activities, identifies and mobilises various resources for programmes.

Ongoing Activities

Safe-Motherhood

The Ghana Safe-motherhood Programme was started in 1987 soon after the International Conference on Safe-Motherhood Initiative held in Nairobi, Kenya in the same year. It started with 12 selected districts on operations research basis. It also included training as a back-up to support community maternity care.

Objectives:

- To make childbearing safe for all women;
- To contribute to the improvement of infant health

Strategies:

- Provision of integrated services at all levels of service delivery:
- Training of service providers in life saving skills and the use of the safe motherhood protocols and health education guidelines on safe motherhood.
- Operations research.
- Provision of appropriate equipment and supplies.
Provision of support to partner organisations.

Dissemination and monitoring the use of the National Reproductive Health Service Policy and Standards and Protocols.

Involvement of relevant people, ministries, agencies and organisations on maternal morbidity and mortality issues.

The commitment of Ghana to reproductive health programme activities is seen in the development of policies, laws and guidelines and in the implementation of programme activities. A lot has been achieved in reproductive health - the involvement of high profile political figures in some reproductive health activities has been very encouraging, the implementation of exemption policies for antenatal clients and the provision of funds for free delivery services need commendation. Efforts should be made to address all the obstacles in the implementation of the exemption policies.

A lot more needs to be done in reproductive health. This includes strengthening the reproductive health database and costing of RH activities. The Government and Development Partners need to commit more funds to reproductive health activities to improve access and quality. Increased funds are also needed to facilitate human resource development, provision of adequate equipment and supplies, scaling up of pilot programmes and to conduct research. The Millennium Development targets will not be achieved without additional funding from the government and development partners.

The Information, Education and Communication component of the reproductive health needs particular attention. This is because people need accurate and timely information to make sound choices. This is particularly so for the young people as they embark upon their sexual and reproductive lives. They must be able to protect themselves from disease, abuse and exploitation. The attitudes of health professionals, which adversely affect the provision of quality of services, need to be addressed. Fortunately, the Ghana Health Service has developed the Code of Ethics that defines the general moral principles and rules of behaviour for all health workers in the Service. The Code of Ethics needs to be disseminated widely and health workers should be made to face disciplinary committee when they infringe on the tenets of the Code. In-service training involving upgrading of knowledge and skills of health workers should continue to be used as one of the criteria for promotion in the Service. The implementation of reproductive health cannot be done in a vacuum. It has to be linked up with advancing human rights, social justice and equity for the poor, universal primary education, promoting gender equality and empowering women and ensuring environmental sustainability.

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Education

The Government of Ghana committed itself to the achievement of Universal Primary Education (MDG 2) by ensuring that by 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. The government’s commitment towards achieving the educational goals is reflected in several policy frameworks and reports. In May 2003, the Ministry of Education and Sports came out with the Education Strategy Plan (ESP) for 2003-2015. The ESP was informed by many documents and policy frameworks, especially the Education for All goals, the Millennium Development Goals and the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy. The ESP serves as the framework by which Ghana meets its commitments to achieve the MDGs in education: Gender Parity by 2005 and Universal Primary Completion by 2015. Within the ESP primary education is designated as a sector priority and various measures and decisions have been taken by the Government to accelerate its efforts in achieving MDG 2 by 2015.

Some of the measures taken include the institution of the capitation grant to all public basic schools, inclusion of pre-school education (4 to 5 years old) as part of compulsory basic education, the introduction of a school feeding programme, special programmes to bridge the gender gap in access to education and targeted programmes to improve access in underserved areas. All these efforts have resulted in good progress in the education sector. For example primary school enrolment has increased significantly as a result of the capitation grants and the removal of all remaining fees and levies. Progress has also been made toward achieving gender parity through a significant increase in girls’ enrolment. The central focus is whether these positive trends mean that Ghana will achieve the Millennium Development Goal 2 by 2015 and whether the country is on track to achieve and sustain Universal Access to Quality Primary Education by 2015.

Laws, policy documents and reports, which have helped in meeting the educational needs and aspirations of the people since 1951 are the following:

- Accelerated Development Plan for Education (ADPE) 1951
- The Education Act of 1961
- The Dzobo Report of 1973
- The New Structure and Content of Education 1974
- The Provisional National Defence Council Law 42 of 1983;
- The Education Commission Report of 1986, (which led to the Education Reform Policy of 1987);
- The Education Reform Programme 1987/88
- The FCUBE Policy Document and Programme of Operations, 1996
Ghana has since 1951, and especially after independence in 1957, made significant strides in its education system. The system, as it is now, is the result of major policy initiatives in education adopted by both the present and past governments. Some of the laws, policy documents and reports, like the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (1996) have helped in meeting the educational needs and aspirations of the people. Article 38 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana requires Government to provide access to Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education, and depending on resource availability, to Senior Secondary, Technical and Tertiary education and life-long learning. In recent times, the government’s commitment towards achieving her educational goals has been expressed in the following policy frameworks and reports:

5. Education for All (EFA, UNESCO, Dakar, 2000) – international paper
6. The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) covering 2003-2015

In 2006 Ghana started the implementation of its second Growth Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II). The GPRS II is very much focused on developing Ghana to the status of a middle income country by 2015. Developing its human resources is one of the three main thematic areas of the GPRS II, emphasizing the creation of competent manpower for development of the country whereby education obviously plays an important role. The GPRS II not only aims to meet the MDG 2 goal but also to strengthen the quality in basic education, improve quality and efficiency in the delivery of education service and bridging the gender gap in access to education.

The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) that came out in 2003 and is focusing on the period 2003-2015, is based on the Poverty Reduction Strategy and operationalises within the framework of a sector wide approach (SWAp) for education, which in Ghana is partly situated within the Multi-Donor Budget Support (MDBS) framework. The ESP provides the framework and roadmap for achieving the education related MDG’s. The strategic framework of the Education Strategic Plan 2003-2015 is based around four focus areas: Equitable Access to Education, Quality of Education, Educational Management and Science, Technology and Technical and Vocational Education (TVET). The ESP has ten policy goals like increasing access to and participation in education and training, improving the quality of teaching and learning for enhanced pupil/student achievement, promoting good health and environmental sanitation in schools and institutions and others.

In 2004 the Government of Ghana came out with a White Paper on Education Reform. The White Paper Reform outlines a portfolio of reforms and objectives spanning the entire education sector, which are to be implemented from 2007 and have major targets identified for 2015 and 2020. The key objectives of the White Paper Reform are twofold: First, to build upon the ESP commitments and ensure that all children are provided with the foundation of high-quality free basic education. Secondly to ensure that second cycle education is more inclusive and appropriate to the needs of young people and the demands in the Ghanaian economy.

With the reform, basic education was expanded to include 2 years of Kindergarten as well as the existing 6 years of primary and 3 years of Junior High Schools (JHS). The entire basic cycle is
free and compulsory and receives the highest priority of all sub-sectors. Overall funding for this sector is supported in full by government. The overarching target is 100% completion rates for male and female students at all basic levels by 2015.

Building on the ESP indicators and targets the education reform proposals have identified new areas of focus and targets, which will facilitate the achievement of the education sector goals. As a result of the Government White Paper on Education Reform, some of the Education sector targets in the ESP, which were due to be achieved in Year 2015, are to be achieved earlier 2012. For instance, the Gross Admission Rate for entry into Primary One, which originally in the ESP was to reach 100% by 2010, was to be achieved in 2006/2007. Similarly, Primary 6 Completion rate, which was to reach a level of 100% by 2015, is now to be achieved by 2012. Gross Enrolment for Primary education is now scheduled to reach 107.4% by 2012, in order to achieve Universal Basic Completion by end 2015.

Policy strategies adopted

Capitation Grant (School Fee Abolition)
Determined to get more children into school, the Government of Ghana, in the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme in 1996, included a cost-sharing scheme to cover non-tuition fees, under which parents were expected to bear limited expenses. More importantly, no child is to be turned away for non-payment of fees. But the initiative did not work. Although Ghana’s school enrolment rates are high compared to some other African countries, a persistent 40 per cent of children between 6 and 11 years of age remained out of school as of 2003.

One of the main reasons why these children did not attend school was that their parents could not afford to pay the levies charged by the schools. Despite the policy of fee-free tuition in basic schools, many districts charged levies as a means of raising funds, for example, for school repairs, cultural and sporting activities. This had the effect of deterring many families, particularly the poorest, from sending their children, especially girls, to school. To meet the MDG goals for education and national targets established in the 2003-2015 Education Strategic Plan, the Government has taken a bold step forward by abolishing all fees charged by schools and also providing schools with a small grant for each pupil enrolled. The programme was first piloted (with World Bank support) in Ghana’s 40 most deprived districts in 2004. Overall enrolment rose by an impressive 14.5 per cent; enrolment gains for pre-school were particularly significant (over 36 per cent). This success led to the nationwide adoption of what is known as the ‘Capitation Grant’ system in early 2005. Under this system, every public kindergarten, primary school and junior secondary school receives a grant of about $3.30 (30,000 cedis) per pupil per year. Schools are not permitted to charge any fees to parents.

The decision to replace school fees with capitation grants had a positive impact on many enrolment-related figures. Primary school gross enrolment rose by nearly 10 per cent, bringing total primary enrolment to 92.4 per cent nationwide. Primary Net Enrolment increased from 62 per cent to 69 per cent. Every region in the country experienced a rise in enrolment; Northern Region (where rates were lowest) experienced the largest increase. Overall enrolment in basic school increased by 16.7 per cent in the 2005/06 school year compared to 2004/054. Enrolment of girls increased slightly more than that of boys (18.1 per cent vs. 15.3 percent).

Early Childhood Development
Early Childhood Education (ECD) has increasingly been recognized as the key to preparing children for a successful primary school experience, and will over time improve internal efficiency of the education system as a result of reduced repetitions and drop-out rates and an increase of the number of children starting primary education when they are six years old. It will also result in increased learning outcomes and opportunities for children to continue their education after primary and secondary education and beyond, thus improving the quality of human resources development. ECD also assist in freeing older siblings, especially girls, to go to school instead of looking after younger children. In short, investing in kindergarten (KG) education has a high return on investment and can make an important contribution to achievement of MDGs 2 and 3. In 2004, the Government of Ghana approved a National Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy. In addition to this, the incorporation of two years of kindergarten education into the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy as well as the introduction of the capitation grant has had an immediate and substantial impact on enrolment.

Gender Parity
In order for Ghana to achieve universal access to quality primary education it is equally important for the country to achieve gender parity in education. Considerable strides have been made in the country towards increasing the number of girls attending primary school. In 1997 a Girls’ Education Unit was established as part of the Basic Education Division of the Ghana Education Service to co-ordinate the implementation of activities related to girls’ education. As part of the decentralisation of the Education service delivery in each of the 10 Regions and the District, Regional/District Girls’ Education Officers were appointed to coordinate activities and improve access for girls to the education system.

School feeding programmes supported by the World Food Programme (WFP) and Catholic Relief Services (CRS) that target girls in poor performing areas, like Upper East and Upper West, have narrowed the gap between female and boys gross enrolment figures in these areas. UNICEF also contributed to these results with assistance to the 15 districts with lowest Gender Parity Index to improve enrolment and retention of girls. The female enrolment figures in Upper East and Upper West grew by 31.4% and 26.1% respectively compared to the national average of 12.8%. The abolition of school fees in all basic schools in 2005 also had a direct effect on girls’ enrolment rates. Provisional data shows an improvement of the GPI for Primary Gross Enrolment from 0.93 in 2004/05 to 0.95 in 2005/06. But despite these positive trends the country has not able to meet the MDG target of achieving gender parity by 2005. Several regions of Ghana experience significant gaps between the number of boys and girls in school. Disparities are particularly sharp in the Northern Region. In this region only about 65 per cent of girls are enrolled, compared to 77 per cent of boys. In several districts of the Northern region fewer than half of primary school-age girls are enrolled.

Nutrition and School Feeding
Getting children in school is one thing, but keeping them in school and making sure that they learn is another. School health and nutrition status of children are key in this respect and are interventions that enforces the initial success of the abolition of school fees. Several major interventions are taking place. Ghana has initiated the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP). The pilot phase of the GSFP was launched in 2005 under NEPAD “Home Grown” SFP concept, which aims to contribute not only to the improvement of the education service delivery but also to agricultural development and the reduction of malnutrition among school aged children. Locally produced food will feed school children, school gardens will be established, agriculture and nutrition information and education will be incorporated in the school curricula.
Other measures, like deworming, that have proven to have a direct impact of the health status of children, will also be part of the school feeding programme. Based upon a pilot phase, which so far has included 200 schools covering approximately 60,000 pupils, expansion to 500 schools is foreseen with the intention to cover all public primary schools by the end of 2010.

**Achieving Universal Primary Education by 2015**

Encouraged by the achievements made in enrolment in primary education so far, the Government of Ghana in its White Paper on Education Reform (November 2005), reviewed the target for the achievement of Universal Primary Education (UPC). The target, which was supposed to be due in 2015, is now to be achieved in 2012. To achieve the 2012 target and the MDG 2 by 2015, will require special efforts and strategies such as a Complementary Education Approach, that is particularly targeting children in the most deprived areas and where special measures needs to be put in place to get and retain children in school. In some parts of Ghana economic and socio-cultural factors contribute to low enrolment and attendance rates. For example, as poor families struggle to make a living, often girls play a key role in the survival of the household by either contributing income or taking care of household chores like looking after younger siblings. In these situations girls are less likely to be send to school. Complementary education can contribute to Education For All goals primarily by targeting underserved populations.

**Major challenges to Universal Primary Completion**

In spite of increased enrolments rates, the Government of Ghana itself concedes that “although enrolment is increasing at all levels of education in Ghana, enrolment at primary level have not been increasing sufficiently to meet the goal of Universal Primary Completion by 2015”. There are some parts of the country where access to basic education is lower and in some cases persistently underserved. The Northern region has persistently lower school attendance rates than the national average. Ironically, it is evident that the major challenges confronting the education sector seem to have been compounded as major policy interventions appear to be succeeding. For instance, an impact assessment of the capitation grant policy revealed that even though it helped to increase enrolment in 2005/2006, it also compounded existing problems. Some of the key challenges are:

The increased enrolment of children into primary schools has led to a massive **overcrowding of classrooms**. It is estimated that, to meet the target of Universal Primary Education by 2015 there will be a deficit of 1,048 classrooms to be built every year for the next couple of years in the public basic schools in the country. There has also been a corresponding shortage of furniture and sanitation facilities.

**Shortage of qualified teachers** plays a major part in deepening the inability of the country to provide quality primary education for the growing numbers of the primary school-aged children (6-11 years). Available statistics show that teacher availability and deployment remain problematic, especially in rural and deprived areas and staff to match the ever increasing pupil population. In some cases, a teacher was expected to handle as many as 100 or more pupils. Once again, the deprived districts have been the worse off.

Other key indicators that can affect the achievement of MDG2 are **promotion, repetition and dropout rates**. Across all public primary grades the average rate of promotion, repetition and dropout in 2005/2006 were 90.85, 6.0% and 3.2% respectively. If this trend continues, it means that 3.2% of pupils (possibly higher) will not complete school, thereby affecting the attainment of MDG 2.
Socio-cultural practices can also have an effect on enrollment figures, particularly of girls. These include the prevailing cultural/traditional beliefs, perceptions and practices towards the role of girls in communities and families, including the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. In the Northern Region, for instance, the practice of sending girls to live with their aunts serve to keep many girls out of school as many of these aunts keep the girls at home to help them in their income-generating businesses. Some of these aunts, especially the old ones, may also be too poor to pay for the education of such girls. Often there is a mismatch between school calendar/timetable and household duties (e.g. fetching water, collecting firewood, cooking, caring for younger siblings and sick family members) resulting in some children not being able to go to school.

Also opportunity costs can be a reason for parents or caretakers not to send their children to school. Children are often expected to contribute to be engaged with farming, herding, and other income generating activities in such places as markets and streets. In many cases, when a choice has to be made between schooling for girls and demand for her services at home or in an income generating venture, the girls’ education is sacrificed.

Special Education

There has been steady increase in the enrolment of children with disabilities in special schools of about 40.5%. Female enrolment has also increased by 40.3%. Efforts need to be made to increase enrolment, especially of girls’ as there are a number of children with disability who are not enrolled. Besides, even for those enrolled, there is a problem of a shortage of teaching and learning materials. In particular, there is a lack of Braille teaching materials in the schools for the blind. The reason cited for this is a lack of funding.

From the analysis so far, it can be seen that despite the successes achieved still over one million children are out of school in Ghana and being denied the right to education. The following challenges need to be addressed if MDG2 is to be achieved in Ghana:

- Gross inadequacy of teachers in some places of the country
- Insufficiency of some school infrastructure (classrooms, sanitary facilities, etc) in some places in the country
- Unfavourable socio-economic and cultural factors
- Geographically hard-to-reach areas and hard-to-reach children

The goal of universal access to primary quality education cannot be achieved through the linear expansion of existing public schools system alone. For that reason we examine some alternative policy options to ensure that the last 10% enrol in primary education, and that the UPC is achieved in 2015.

Alternative policy options/the way forward

Analysis of the current trend of enrolment growth rate at the national level in primary schools, points to difficulties ahead in the attainment of Universal Primary Completion (UPC) by 2015, unless a special approach is adopted to reach the unreached. There is, therefore, the need to adopt a programme that is flexible and adaptive and can reach large numbers of children in ‘hard to reach areas' including urban slum areas or children who have to perform other duties besides schooling as well as children living in under-served areas.
Complementary education programmes which are designed specifically to extend the reach of formal public schooling in developing countries to better serve the most disadvantaged and/or remote areas will best serve this need. Successful complementary programmes leverage community interest, resources and management capabilities with the technical, development and administrative capabilities of international, local and governmental partners to create schools that increase the access, completion and learning of local children in underserved areas. This is achieved through its ability to:

- bring schools closer to pupils
- enroll older children who may feel uncomfortable to enroll in grade one and may drop out later due to their age
- utilize local volunteers as teachers
- allow children to be educated while still supporting their parents
- utilize local resources as classrooms, teaching and learning materials, etc
- reduce number of years spent by pupils in school (cost effectiveness)

Evidence from a number of developing countries with some characteristics similar to Ghana’s such as Tanzania and Uganda show that complementary basic education has been used to address a number of problems in education.

Rationale for Recommending Complementary Education programme

- **Areas of low population**: In areas of very low population, it is not economical to establish a school. A complementary education programme can be used to mop up children of school-going age and prepare them to join schools elsewhere. This will be especially necessary where it is difficult for the children to commute to school in the initial stages and also where it does not make economic-sense to use scarce resources like classrooms and teachers.

- **Long distance to school**: Evidence from School Mapping done in nine regions in Ghana show that some children commute long distances to school. In the Afram Plains District of the Eastern Region some children commute seven kilometers each day to school. This makes it difficult for very young children to go to school. It is possible to organise a complementary education programme to prepare them to school later when they are old enough to walk the long distances to school.

- **Over-aged children**: Majority of over-aged out-of-school children, especially girls, find it difficult to enroll because of the number of years they will have to spend in school and also the “embarrassment” of sitting in the same classroom with children much younger than them. A Complementary Education (CE) programme can be used to prepare the older children and place them in upper classes to be with their age mates.

- **Reducing the opportunity cost of education, especially for girls**: One major reason, for children staying out of school is that they are needed to support their families carry out household duties or in commercial ventures. In the BuiLSa district of Upper East Region, most of out-of-school children are involved in cattle herding while in the Pru District of Brong Ahafo Region and Afram Plains district of the Eastern Region, most of the out-of-school children in communities along the Volta Lake are involved in fishing. Their parents/guardians are often very reluctant to release them to spend eight hours a day at school. Besides, most of these boys are over-aged and cannot be made to start grade one. Once again, it is possible to use CE to get them interested in school. The school mapping report on the Afram Plains district indicates that such children claim
they can attend classes during late afternoons for about three hours per day. Their parents also reported that they could release their children for those periods.

**Challenges of the programme as a basic education model for achieving UPE**

- Difficulty to ensure quality of complementary basic education, considering the financial, physical and human resources gaps, especially for children of hard-to-reach communities;
- Weak linkages for co-ordination especially between state and non-state actors
- Ensuring active community participation (in monitoring attendance, ensuring access of the most vulnerable children (including children with disabilities);
- Ensuring that complementary basic education is not treated like a separate programme rather than a complement to the formal system, and the formal primary school is regarded as the ‘real’ school.
- Defining a definite time-line for the programme (as this is a temporary solution to address existing problems) and ensuring that it does not become a permanent programme running parallel to the formal education system.
- Provision of adequate funding for the programme.

**Background of Girls’ Education**

No development strategy is better than one that involves women as central players. It has immediate benefits for nutrition, health, savings and reinvestment at the family, community and, ultimately, country level. In other words, educating girls is a social development policy that works. It is a long-term investment that yields an exceptionally high return.

In 1997, the Ministry of Education established the Girls’ Education Unit (GEU) within the Basic Education Division of GES. GEU was mandated to address issues related to ensuring that girls, who have been lagging behind boys in education at all levels, go to school, remain in school and continue schooling at higher levels. Within the overall context of the FCUBE Programme, the GEU identified a number of targets to be achieved by the year 2005. These included

1. increasing the enrolment rate of girls in Basic Education to equal that of boys;
2. reducing the dropout rate of girls in both Primary and Junior Secondary School;
3. increasing the transition rate of girls from Junior to Senior Secondary School; and
4. exposing as many girls as possible to STME Clinics to encourage them to choose science as an elective at Senior Secondary School.

Since the establishment of GEU, its mandates and targets, the Government of Ghana and development partners have invested increasing resources and energies into advancing girls’ education, with interventions implemented at the national, regional, district and community levels. The appointment of a Minister of State specifically responsible for girls’ education reinforces the government’s commitment to continue this critical component of ongoing educational reforms. Current results are encouraging, but there is still much to do. Furthermore many are concerned that without co-ordination of efforts, the country risks duplication and waste of valuable, limited resources. In addition, unless valuable lessons learnt are shared with others, the country cannot ensure the best possible allocation of resources.
Conclusion

Due to various policy and programme interventions, Ghana has made great strides in enrolment of children in school. Unfortunately, the efforts made so far, have not been able, and do not appear capable, to enroll ALL school-aged children. A complementary education programme appears able to supplement efforts made through the formal school system. For such a system to be adopted, however, will require strong government commitment, backed by a strategic vision and policy framework for the education sector that has the support of other key ministries like Finance, Local Government, and Women and Children’s Affairs. It also calls for the establishment of inclusive, effective partnerships, domestic and international, which will help to build a strong constituency for education. Expansion of complementary education calls for reallocation of existing resources or mobilisation of additional resources. Expanding complementary education in Ghana to rope in hard to reach children will ensure that the achievement of MDG 2 (Universal Primary Completion) will be a reality rather than a dream.

References


Custody and Guardianship

Child Custody is the care, control, and maintenance of a child, which a court may award to one of the parents following a divorce or separation proceeding. Child custody and guardianship are legal terms which are sometimes used to describe the legal and practical relationship between a parent and his or her child, such as the right of the parent to make decisions for the child, and the parent's duty to care for the child. Following ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in most countries, terms such as "custody" and "access" have been superseded by the concepts of "residence" and "contact". Instead of a parent having "custody" of or "access" to a child, a child is now said to "reside" or have "contact" with a parent.

Residence and contact issues typically arise in proceedings involving dissolution of marriage, annulment and other legal proceedings where children may be involved. In most jurisdictions the issue of which parent the child will reside with is determined in accordance with the best interests of the child, but only after the proper fundamental right afforded to biological parent's has been disproven or shown to be inaccurate. In most circumstances, state laws provide that biological parents make all the decisions involved in rearing their child — such as residence, education, health care, religious upbringing, and so forth. Parents are not required to secure the legal right to make these decisions if they are married and are listed on the child's birth certificate. However, if there is disagreement about who has the right to make these decisions, or if government officials believe that a parent is unfit to make the decisions well, then family courts or juvenile courts determine custody.

In a typical divorce involving at least one child, permanent physical custody is awarded to the parent with whom the child will live most of the time. Usually, the custodial parent shares joint legal custody with the noncustodial parent, meaning that the custodial parent must inform and consult with the noncustodial parent about the child's education, health care, and other concerns. In this situation, courts may order visitation, sometimes called temporary custody, between the child and the noncustodial parent. A clear schedule with dates and times may be written into the order, or a court may simply state that visitation should be reasonable. Child support is a common requirement, and is paid by the noncustodial parent to the custodial parent as assistance in raising the child. There are exceptions to this typical arrangement. Some courts have allowed parents to retain joint physical custody, in which the child spends equal time with both parents. Advocates of joint custody say that it lessens the feeling of losing a parent that children may experience after a divorce and is fair to both parents. However, because of the high degree of cooperation it requires, courts resist ordering joint custody if either of the parents does not want it. Split custody is an arrangement in which the parents divide up custody of their children, with each parent being awarded physical custody of one or more children. In general, courts try not to separate siblings when awarding custody.

Most types of custody end when the child is emancipated (considered a legal adult) by becoming self-supporting, by marrying, or by reaching the age of majority as specified by state law. Not until then does family court lose its power to determine custody. Family law proceedings which involve issues of residence and contact often generate the most acrimonious disputes. It is not uncommon for one parent to accuse the other of trying to "turn" the child(ren) against him or her, allege some form of emotional, physical, or even sexual abuse by the other parent, or for the "residence" parent to disrupt the other parent's contact or communication with the child(ren). Cases of parents removing children from the jurisdiction in violation of court orders, so as to frustrate the other parent's contact with the children, are not unusual.
Courts and legal professionals are beginning to use the term parenting schedule instead of custody and visitation. The new terminology eliminates the distinction between custodial and noncustodial parents, and also attempts to build upon the so-called best interests of the children by crafting schedules that meet the developmental needs of the children. For example, smaller children need shorter, more frequent time with parents, whereas older children and teenagers can tolerate and may demand less frequent shifts, but longer blocks of time with the parents.

**Legal Framework for Child Custody in Ghana**

Part Three of the Children’s Act, 1998, of the Parliament of the Republic of Ghana provides guidelines for the parentage custody, access and maintenance of children in the country. Section 43 of the Act provides that a parent, family member or any person who is raising a child may apply to a Family Tribunal for a custody of the child and in terms of access, a parent, family member or any person who is raising a child may apply to a Family Tribunal for custody of the child.

In addressing the consideration for custody or access, section 45 of the Act affirms that a Family Tribunal shall consider the best interest of the child and the importance of a young child being with his mother when making an order for custody or access. The family Tribunal shall also consider the following in giving consideration of custody or access to the child:

1. the age of the child;
2. that it is preferable for a child to be with his parents except if his rights are persistently being abused by his parents;
3. the views of the child if the views have been independently given;
4. that it is desirable to keep siblings together;
5. the need for continuity in the care and control of the child; and
6. any other matter that the Family Tribunal may consider relevant.

Section 46 of the Act makes it unlawful for any person to remove a child from another person who has the lawful custody of the child. Section 47 of the Act which deals with the maintenance of the child stipulates that a parent or any other person who is legally liable to maintain a child or contribute towards the maintenance of the child is under a duty to supply the necessaries of health, life, education and reasonable shelter for the child. The application for maintenance may be made against any person who is liable to maintain the child or contribute towards the maintenance of the child.

Section 49. **Considerations for maintenance orders.** A Family Tribunal shall consider the following when making a maintenance order:

a. (the income and wealth of both parents of the child or of the person legally liable to maintain the child;
b. any impairment of the earning capacity of the person with a duty to maintain the child;
c. the financial responsibility of the person with respect to the maintenance of other children;
d. the cost of living in the area where the child is resident;
e. the rights of the child under this Act

A Family Tribunal may request that a probation officer or social welfare officer prepare a social enquiry report on the issue of maintenance before it for consideration. The Family Tribunal shall
in making any order consider the social enquiry report prepared by the probation officer or social welfare officer. A Family Tribunal may award maintenance to the mother of a child whether married to the father or not where the father has been identified, and the maintenance shall include the following:

1. medical expenses for the duration of her pregnancy, delivery or death of the child;
2. a periodic allowance for the maintenance of the mother during her period of pregnancy and for a further period of nine months after the delivery of the child; and
3. the payment of a reasonable sum to be determined by the Family Tribunal for the continued education of the mother if she is a child herself.

A Family Tribunal may order a periodic payment or lump sum payment for the maintenance of a child and the earnings or property of the person liable may be attached. The attachment order should be applicable in all cases of failure to pay maintenance. When considering an application for maintenance, a Family Tribunal may make a maintenance order which it considers reasonable for any child in the household. A Family Tribunal may make an order for arrears of maintenance against any person liable to pay the maintenance.

Section 52. Persons entitled to maintenance order.

Any person who has custody of a child who is the subject of a maintenance order is entitled to receive and administer the maintenance order of the Family Tribunal. If the parent, guardian or whoever has custody of the child should cease to be a fit person, the Family Tribunal of the area where the child is resident may appoint another person to have custody of the child and administer the maintenance order and that person shall act as if originally appointed by the Family Tribunal.

Section 53. Duration of order.

A maintenance order issued by a Family Tribunal shall expire when the child attains the age of eighteen years or dies before that age. A maintenance order shall lapse before the child attains the age of eighteen years if before that age the child is gainfully employed.

Unlike some African countries which lack the appropriate legislation to protect children, Ghana in this case has almost all the needed policies and institutions to protect the rights of children. However, the stakeholders involved are not committed enough to perform their duties as protectors of children. The government which sees children as future leaders of the country, is very much centered on the protection of the child in society and has brought into law protective legislations, and initiated a number of programmes to make sure that these future leaders obtain a solid background to take care of the nation in future.

However, it is surprising that with the proliferation of a numerous child welfare institutions in the country, the rights and safety of children cannot be guaranteed. The Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs (MoWAC) which is the leading provider of children’s welfare including minor ones like the Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit (DOVVSU), the Social Welfare Department and the family Tribunals, have their policies in place yet children suffer violence, discrimination and disrespect in various parts of our society. It is important to coordinate the efforts of these agencies to work in concert to protect the rights and interests of children.
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Child Slavery and Child Labour
Recent media prominence gained by child slavery and child trafficking can be attributed to their prevalence and the increasing advocacy by various non-governmental and government entities. Reports by prominent international organisations including the United Nations identify Ghana as a transit point for child trafficking. According to the Palermo Protocols, child trafficking is “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion of abduction, fraud and deception.” The definition also includes, “giving, receiving payments or benefits to achieve control over another person for the purpose of exploitation”.

The Trokosi system slavery is prohibited by the laws of the state but it continues to be practised, manifesting itself in various forms with little opposition from law enforcement agencies. In 1998 the government passed a law banning all forms of ritualised forced labour or slavery. However, one such practice that has continued to defy the law is the Trokosi system, often found in the Volta Region of the country, specifically the south-eastern part of the country. Trokosi means slaves of the gods, and is a practice whereby families give their young girls to the village priests to atone for the sins committed by the family. If a girl is not available, boys or adults are sometimes, though rarely, used. The reason for this tradition has to do with providing sexual gratification and other services to those who serve the gods. In addition to being used sexually by the priests in the village shrines, a girl is also required to work long hours on the farms and do other domestic chores without payment and sometimes without food which her family then must provide. They may or may not attend school. A Trokosi generally remains a priest’s property for 3 to 5 years, depending on the gravity of the crime she is atoning for. If she dies during the period, her family is required to replace her. If the priest dies, the girl is passed on to his successor. If the crime she is atoning for is particularly grievous, she may be required to remain with the priest for many years or even her life-time. The Trokosi have no rights of any kind, neither do they have any say in with whom they have sexual intercourse.

Incidence and Nature of Child Labour
The media front is currently replete with reports of children being given away, leased or sold by their parents to work in various sectors. They are reportedly sold into involuntary servitude for either labour or sexual exploitation. Such children are sometimes sold for as low as GH¢ 50 ($35) and there are some markets identified within the capital where such transactions go on. Child Trafficking within the country is more prevalent than transnational trafficking even though the children are reportedly trafficked to neighbouring countries to work on farms or in fishing villages. Both boys and girls are trafficked within Ghana for similar purposes. They are into forced labour in agriculture and the fishing industry, street hawking, forced begging by religious instructors and as porters. Thousands of young school going girls from the northern parts of the
country are serving as porters popularly known as “Kayaye” in almost all the major cities in the
country.

A very severe form of child trafficking and slavery is the one involving children within the
fishing industry especially in fishing communities along Ghana’s Lake Volta. The Lake is one of
the largest man-made lakes in the world, created in 1965 with the construction of the Akosombo
Dam which provides electricity for much of the nation. When the lake was created, the terrain
under it was flooded. Fishermen set nets from primitive, leaky, wooden canoes and the nets
frequently get caught in the trees that still exist under water. The fishermen use the slave
children, typically young boys, some as young as six years old, to bail water out of boats and
dive into the lake to free the nets from the trees. The children work from dawn to dusk, with little
clothing, a single skimpy meal at the end of the day, no schooling and, of course, no family.
Many of them suffer from malnutrition, others drown. All have been sold into slavery.
Trafficked children can also be found on farms, in domestic servitude, mining, stone quarrying,
shop keeping, textile industry, restaurants, cart pushers, hawkers, head porters and sometimes as
beggars. One basic thing associated with human trafficking and child slavery is that the
children’s fundamental human rights are abused through enforced labour, exploitation, sexual
exploitation, forced marriage, illegal adoption and other such ills. Due to the nature of the work
they engage in, the lack of shelter and better conditions of life, some of them become street
children who are easily lured into robbery and child prostitution.

Much of the recruitment of children is done with the consent of parents. In some cases, it is a
relative who comes to take the child from poor parents in fishing areas and rural areas. In other
cases, the children are trafficked by professional recruiters. Sometimes the parents are given
advance payments or promised regular stipends from the recruiter and told the children would
receive food, shelter and often some sort of training or education.

Legal Instruments to Address the Problem
Ghana has enacted two very important legal instruments to address the problems of child slavery
and human trafficking as a response to the concerns raised in the Palermo Protocols on child
trafficking. These are the Children’s Act 1998 and The Human Trafficking Act 2005 Act 694.
The Children’s Act does not give a definition for child trafficking like the Palermo Protocols do
but its provisions offer a more than fair idea as to what child trafficking entails.

Under Part 1, The Rights of the Child, a child is a person below the age of eighteen years. Even
if a child should be considered for employment, according to the provisions of the Act, the
minimum age is fifteen years, in the case of light work, the minimum age is thirteen years. The
Act offers definitions for both light work and hazardous employment and gives examples of such
kinds of work. Light work constitutes work which is not likely to be harmful to the health or
development of the child and does not affect the child’s attendance at school or the capacity of
the child to benefit from school work.

Hazardous work is work that poses a danger to the health, safety and morals of a person. The
minimum age for such work is eighteen years. Hazardous work includes going to sea, mining,
 quarrying and carrying of heavy loads. The Welfare Principle of the Act also states that the best
interest of the child should be paramount in any matter concerning the child. It further states that
the best interest of the child should be the primary consideration by any court, person, institution
or any body concerned with a child. Other provisions include the Right to Grow up with Parents
which emphatically states that “No person shall deny a child the right to live with his parents and
grow up in a caring and peaceful environment. Unless it is proved in court that in living with his
or her parents, the child would be exposed to significant harm; subject to serious abuse or life with his or her parents would not be in the best interest of the child. Considering the children being trafficked, some being as young as four years, it is obvious that they are minors. Concerning the work they do, there is no way going to sea or disentangling nets under water can be described as light work. Moreover, none of the aspects of the work they do can be described as safe and concerning the work environment and conditions under which they work, there is nothing caring and peaceful about them.

The Human Trafficking Act passed in 2005 prescribes a minimum of 5 years imprisonment for all forms of trafficking. However, arrests and prosecution have been quite minimal. Numerous reasons for lack of prosecution have been cited including the need for more national sensitisation of the law and insufficient evidence to convict trafficking suspects.

Dealing with the Problem

Dealing with the problems of child slavery and trafficking has proven to be a daunting one and rough as well. Among the greatest challenges in sustainably dealing with the problems of Slavery and Trafficking are:

- The erroneous impression that children are nothing but economic assets.
- Poverty and exclusion (lack of opportunities) – one often given by parents to the effect that they are forced to send their children into slavery because of poverty and hardship.
- Poor participation of all major stakeholders.
- Poor coordination of Anti-Slavery Intervention.
- Lack of political will to give a bite to legislations enacted to address the problems.
- There is lack of resources by comparison to the needs for child protection in Ghana.

Initiatives

Presently, several local and international organisations and non-governmental organisations are vigorously advocating for increased prevention, protection and prosecution. The United States Government Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons placed Ghana on their Tier 2 Watch List in the 2009 Trafficking in Persons report. It is apparent from this placement that Ghana is making efforts to combat trafficking, but does not fully comply with the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking.

A number of NGOs have been actively involved in addressing the problem. Free The Slaves (FTS) has, over the years, effectively partnered the Association of People for Practical Life Education (APPLE) to rescue the children and arrange their return to parents in home areas. They have also expanded their programme, especially adding dimensions of community sensitization through traditional village leaders, placing coordinators in worst-affected villages to lead the outreach and to help with resettlement and improving the economic situation of parents so that the children will not be trafficked.

Further, the Touch A Life Foundation has been working with Ghanaian advocates to rescue children from the communities around the Volta Lake and care for them at nearby residential facilities with house parents, offering food, shelter and support, as well as the opportunity to go to school. The challenge however, is to address the systemic problem not simply rescuing individual children. In this respect multi-donor support can help greatly by addressing poverty in the region by exploring ways of harvesting the trees under the lake, which still have commercial value despite being waterlogged, and by providing supplies that would keep the canoes from leaking. In addition, the media should also be seen to play a major role in sensitising the public
on the ill effects of child trafficking and slavery on families, the community and the nation as a whole.

Given the challenges faced and based on their experiences, Free the Slaves in partnering with the Association of People for Practical Life Education (APPLE) and the International Cocoa Initiative (ICI) recommend four approaches to be prioritised alongside law enforcement and rescues:

1. Work with the energy and desire for change at community level. It has been consistently found that parents and communities have a strong desire for something better for their children. This is the most powerful and sustainable basis for anti-trafficking efforts. There is a need for open dialogue in the affected communities about the nature and results of different forms of children’s work and of child slavery, and which approaches are perceived as realistic for addressing the problem.

2. Create economic livelihoods in both the source and destination areas for the children. There is the need to help the communities to access economic development. This should be based on assessment available, natural resources, economic demand for products (both for subsistence and cash). The economic development goal demands the engagement of the government and multilateral investment with well-defined goals of economic transition. It also requires political and international will to address the causes of slavery. Economic assistance should, however, not be used as a quid pro quo for handing over enslaved children as such trading micro-enterprise assistance for children’s lives because they can become a bargaining chip, even creating incentives for enslavement.

3. Make schools available, affordable and worthwhile. Parents are much less likely to send their children to work if they are in school and if that education is deemed by parents to be economically useful. Anti-trafficking work needs to have strong emphasis on getting schools working and ensuring that teenagers can access job-related skills.

4. Changes in women’s status and reproductive choice. Economic and educational empowerment must include women and girls equally especially strengthening them to negotiate for and have practical access to family planning. Family size, alongside poverty is a push factor for trafficking. Awareness raising that leads to changes in male attitudes to large families and reproductive responsibility will reduce child slavery.

**Achievement of the Ministry on Child Development and Protection in Ghana**

The Government of Ghana, cognisant that child labour and its worst forms militate against child development, ratified the ILO Convention 182, in 2000, that prohibits Worst Forms of Child Labour. The Ghana Government recognizing that children are vulnerable and require special protection, appropriate to the age, level of maturity and individual needs, ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, and was the first country to do so in February 1990 after the Convention came into force in September 1989.

Ghana, to protect her children against harmful traditional practices, included a whole chapter on the rights of a child in the 1992 Constitution. Before the adoption of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) Ghana had established in 1989 the Ghana National Commission on Children to see to the general welfare and development of children and co-ordinate all essential services for children in the country with the view to promoting the rights of the child.
The first National Programme of Action dubbed, the child cannot wait, was developed with set goals that gave a focus to the work by government and civil society organisations to enable progress for children in their survival, protection, participation and development. The country, since the ratification of the CRC, has developed policies and programmes backed by legislative frameworks that offer strategies for the protection, survival and development of children. Some of the legislations and policies include:

- The 1960 Criminal Code (Act 29)
- 1992 National Constitution Article 28
- Children's Act 1998 Act 560/LI 1705 (Regulations on Children's Act)
- Juvenile Justice Act 2003 (Act 653)
- Education Act 1961/FCUBE
- The Human Trafficking Act 2005 (Act 694)
- Early Childhood Care and Development Policy, 2004
- Draft Street Children in Ghana Policy Framework, 1995
- National Gender and Children Policy, 2004
- Adolescent Reproductive Health Policy, 2000
- Revised National Population Policy, 1994
- National Disability Policy.

The Government of Ghana has ratified the following international conventions:

- ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour (NO. 182)
- African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
- The Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919 (NO. 5)
- Forced Labour Conventions (NOs. 29 and 105)
- Labour Inspection and Convention NO. 81
- Equal remuneration (NO.100)
- African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

The following institutional reforms and structures to effectively deal with child labour and related matters have been put in place:

- Ministry of Employment with Child Labour Unit (CLU), Employment Information Bureau (EIB) and Social Welfare Department as its main focal points for child labour and related matters.
- Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWAC), with Children's and women's Departments, to handle all issues affecting women and children
- Girl-Child Education and Basic Education Divisions in the Ministry of Education, (MoE)
- Ghana Cocoa Board (COCOBOD), a major stakeholder with a Child Labour Desk to handle child labour and related issues
- Creation of child labour desks by other stakeholders, including the Ghana Employers Association (GEA) and the Ghana Trades Union Congress (GTUC) to mainstream child labour issues into their regular activities.
- In addition to the above measures, the Government of Ghana has implemented and continues to implement a number of programmes in collaboration with stakeholders, which directly address children’s issues. Prominent among these is the full
implementation of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy through free attendance at public basic schools to disengage children from child labour.

- Other programmes include: the Skills Training and Employment Placement (STEP) and the Street Children component of the Community-Based Poverty Reduction Projects, Youth and Employment; School Feeding and Early Childhood Development.

The aforementioned programmes and activities are not exhaustive. There are lot of Government Ministries, Departments and Agencies, Non Governmental Organizations, Community Based Organizations, Religious Organizations and many others who are helping to eliminate child labour and poverty in Ghana. The government has included child labour issues in the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy II (GPRS II), to enable marshal resources nationally and internationally.

**Conclusion**

Government of Ghana has adopted multi-sectoral and stakeholders approaches to address its social problems including child labour and worst forms of child labour in the entire country. It continues to use these approaches in a pragmatic manner to ensure full and effective implementation of the national intervention programmes to support children and the vulnerable including child labourers when identified.

Since child trafficking and slavery can easily pass for a modern form of the dastardly act of slave trade in the past. It calls for a concerted effort by the public, labour authorities, the law enforcement authorities including the police and the judiciary to rise up to the challenge of dealing with the problem.

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Child prostitution

Child prostitution appears to be on the increase. The Factbook on Global Sexual Exploitation in Ghana indicates that in Accra, the capital alone, there are about 125 brothels with girl prostitutes who fall within the ages of 12 and 16. A study undertaken in 2006 by the Ghana NGO Coalition on the Rights of the Child (GNCRC) the ECPAT group in the country indicated that Ghana is listed on pedophile websites as a safe destination for child sex. The Commissioner for the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) has said publicly that the rate at which Ghanaian children are being exploited for commercial sex in the country is not only illegal but poses a great threat to the nation. It is also difficult to assess the extent of child prostitution because it is a kind of abuse that takes place behind closed doors and many children feel guilt and shame and are afraid to seek help. In 2008 when an award-winning Ghanaian journalist managed to video incidents of sexual acts involving child prostitutes and adults at a popular spot in Accra where he disguised himself as a cleaner. This incident raised national awareness and the brothel was raided, followed by the arrest of 160 teenage prostitutes. Although
the girls taken into custody were registered into rehabilitation programmes, it is believed that many have returned to prostitution and that the number of such brothels have increased.

The phenomenon of child prostitution in the country takes various forms. The practice of Trokosi slavery is addressed above in the child slavery section. In other cases, children who are petty traders turn to prostitution to supplement their incomes. Boys are also victims of sexual exploitation by tourists, according to a study by the Coalition on the Rights of the Child. This issue is often overlooked due to Ghanaian society’s aversion to homosexuality, and child victims avoid reporting to the authorities due to fear of stigmatization.

An International Labour Organisation (ILO) study also found that girls, some as young as 11, are exploited in Accra brothels as well as on streets, beaches, bars, market areas, restaurants and nightclubs. They sometimes organise themselves into groups and select a “queen mother” who could be as young as 16 to facilitate their prostitution for a commission. Often employees at these establishments also act as agents and receive commission. It is not only Ghanaian children who are found in prostitution, but also girls from all over West Africa.

A study by the West Africa AIDS Foundation (WAAF) on child sex tourism sought to better understand the youth exposure to HIV/AIDS, found that sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are common among sexually active children. These findings raise the need to find practical solutions to protect the health interest of children who are sexually exploited.

Finding Solutions to Child Prostitution

The fight against child prostitution should be a collective responsibility of all stakeholders in the society. Some have proposed legalisation and unionisation as a way to ensure medical care and some level of protection. Other solutions involve education, vocational training and job skills development for children who have escaped exploitation. Importantly, the laws against such practices must be strictly enforced, including the prosecution of adults.

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Child pornography

International Conventions

Ghana ratified the *Convention on the Rights of the Child* in 1990 and signed its *Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (Optional Protocol)* in 2003. At the regional level, Ghana ratified the *African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the African Child* in 2005, and acceded to the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) *Declaration on the Fight against Trafficking in Persons* (2002-2003). Although Ghana has not ratified the *Optional Protocol* or the *Trafficking Protocol*, it has enacted three laws that address, in some part, child prostitution and child trafficking: the *Children’s Act* of 1998; the *Criminal Code (Amendment) Act* of 1998; and the *Human Trafficking Act* of 2005. The *Children’s Act* provides protection for children in accordance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and defines a child as a person less than 18 years of age. However, the Committee on the Rights of the Child assert that strict implementation of these laws is lacking. This is due, in part, to insufficient funding of institutions charged with promoting and enforcing children’s rights.

The Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography in the Convention on the Rights of the Child states that the prostitution of children or child prostitution is the practice whereby a child is used by others for sexual activities in return for remuneration or any other form of consideration (Article 2(b)). The remuneration or other consideration could be provided to the child or to another person. Most generally, the prostitution of children means that a party other than the child benefit from a commercial transaction in which the child is made available for sexual purposes – either an exploiter intermediary who controls or oversees the child’s activities for profit or any other person who negotiates an exchange directly with a child in order to receive sexual gratification.

National Plan of Action (NPA) - Coordination and Cooperation

Local and National Level

Although there have been a number of commendable efforts, coordination against the commercial sexual exploitation of children has been rather unstructured, especially as no institution has been tasked with this specific mandate. The Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs (MOWAC), created in 2001 is responsible for implementing and coordinating activities related to the implementation of the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Through its department, the Ghana National Commission on Children (GNCC), MOWAC works with national and international agencies on child rights issues. The GNCC has 10 regional offices that promote child rights and monitor how the Convention’s principles are being executed.

However, coordination of child rights activities remains ineffective and is limited by MOWAC’s lack of resources and the District Assemblies’ lack of capacity. There is also a lack of coordination with the civil society, especially with NGOs, which are not adequately involved in efforts to promote children’s rights. Neither MOWAC nor GNCC have conducted specific interventions on the Convention on the Sexual Exploitation of Children (CSEC). Additionally, the Ghana National Child Protection Committee has conducted some child rights awareness raising programmes, although these have not focused on CSEC. At the district level, District Assemblies are tasked with protecting and promoting child welfare, and all the districts have a Department of Social Welfare and Community.
Child Protection Units
Since 1998, Women and Juvenile Units have been created within the Ghana Police Department to assist woman and child victims of violent crimes. These units operate with assistance from psychologists, legal advisers, counselors and social workers, and have been very effective since their creation, especially as they introduced several interventions related to domestic violence and domestic sexual abuse of children. However, their work has not focused much on CSEC, and has been hampered by a lack of resources (they have been supported mainly by UNICEF). The Children’s Act has also established Family Tribunals and Child Panels, which are non-judicial and designed to mediate in civil and criminal matters involving children.

Family Tribunals hear matters related to custody, maintenance and parentage, and are procedurally less formal and adversarial than regular court proceedings. However, most judges in the Family Tribunals are not yet sensitive to CSEC issues, and collaboration between the Ghana NGO Coalition on the Rights of the Child and the Judiciary has been initiated with a view to developing manuals and conducting trainings in this regard. Several issues, including large amounts of backlog slow down the judicial process and create frequent adjournments of hearings. These, coupled with long waiting periods and daunting formal structures, tend to deter people from lodging complaints.

The Commission on Human Rights and Administration of Justice offers educational workshops, seminars and publications on child rights issues, as well as provides a forum for complaints and dispute resolution. The Commission also provides counseling to victims and perpetrators and makes referrals to law enforcement agencies for appropriate action to be taken.

Support Services for Children
There are very few capacity building programmes for personnel in charge of child victims of CSEC. A lack of accountability of organisations assisting children in need of care and protection was flagged in the Alternative Report to the Commission on the Rights of the Child, more specifically that there may be little follow-up once children have been referred to these organisations and there are no complaint [grievance] mechanisms in place for children who may be subject to abuse once in the care of these organisations. The Ghana NGO Coalition on the Rights of the Child has lobbied the government to establish shelters for CSEC victims in each of the 10 administrative regions.

Minimum standards of care for institutionalised children are currently being developed by a number of relevant actors. The Government reports that there is an operation in place to bring trafficked children back to Ghana, and services such as shelters, counseling, rehabilitation and reintegration of exploited children are being provided through collaborations between governmental and non-governmental organisations.

Training Law Enforcement Personnel
The Government notes that police officials, lawyers and judges have received training on some aspects of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, but this does not include issues related to commercial sexual exploitation of children. In the light of the generally limited training provided on child rights issues, the Committee on the Rights of the Child recommends “adequate and systematic training” on the Convention on the Rights of the Child for law enforcement officials. Such lack of training was also confirmed by an ILO study, which found that the police are unable to enforce child rights, and must work more closely with civil society organisations and the Judiciary to better protect and assist children. In addition, MOWAC has trained law enforcement and judicial institutions. Capacity building on child trafficking targeting immigration officials
and the Judiciary has been provided by the ILO, in partnership with the Government. IOM plans to provide anti-human trafficking training for law enforcement and border guards.

**Priority Actions Required**

- Ghana must urgently develop and adopt a National Plan of Action to eliminate child prostitution, child pornography and trafficking in children for sexual purposes - a basic requirement of the *Stockholm Agenda for Action*, which Ghana adopted.

- The draft *National Child Trafficking Plan of Action* should include provisions to specifically tackle trafficking in children for sexual purposes.

- Conducting research to determine the scope and nature of commercial sexual exploitation of children in Ghana is crucial to devise appropriate strategies and interventions.

- An independent commission should be established to act as a national focal point on CSEC, with representatives from relevant governmental agencies such as the Department of Social Affairs, the National Commission on AIDS, the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Education, as well as NGOs. Resources must be allocated for its effective functioning.

- Both the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs, the District Assemblies and the Departments of Social Welfare and Community Development present in all Ghanaian districts have great potential to successfully intervene against the commercial sexual exploitation of children: they should be provided with adequate financial resources for this purpose as well as with training and information on how to tackle CSEC.

- It is essential that stakeholders in the tourism industry adopt and implement the *Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children from Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism* and actively engage in implementing it to curb the alarming rates of child sex tourism in the country. Strong networking should also be fostered between security agencies (police and immigration services) and the hospitality industry to enable the tracking of offenders and visitors with unlawful intentions.

- The Government’s plans to foster the tourism industry throughout the country is bound to severely impact child sex tourism, and should involve an assessment and improvement of child protection mechanisms in the selected areas, including campaigns on the implications of child sex tourism. The role to be played by the Ministry of Tourism and Modernisation of the Capital City will be key in this regard.

- Besides fostering access to quality education, the Ministry of Education must ensure that children leaving primary school can immediately enter secondary school, so that they do not become involved in situations or take up employment that may make them vulnerable to commercial sexual exploitation. Efforts to better structure the insertion of children in the informal sector, where they could develop useful skills and be led to safe employment, are also recommended.
Ghana’s failure to ratify the *Optional Protocol* and the *Trafficking Protocol* is a serious gap that offers little protection for children against commercial sexual exploitation: these must be ratified as a matter of urgency.

Ghanaian laws on child prostitution must be revised to specifically define and prohibit all acts involving the use of a child in a sexual act for remuneration. Existing provisions must apply to all children under 18 years of age, not only to those under 16. Violations of existing laws must also carry heavier penalties instead of being considered misdemeanors. Finally, prosecutions must be facilitated by eliminating the requirement to have more than one witness to permit a conviction, and doing away with allowing an offender to defend himself with a reasonable belief that a child was 16 years of age or older.

Ghana should enact legislation that specifically bans all activities related to creating, possessing and disseminating child pornographic material, according to the standards set forth in the *Optional Protocol*.

A significant and continuous education campaign on sexual exploitation of children (both commercial and non-commercial) is a high priority, as research has indicated a very low level of awareness of related issues in the country. Information and support must be made available in communities, especially targeting parents and teachers.

The Women and Juvenile Units require capacity building on how to tackle CSEC, as well as adequate financial resources. They should also be established more widely around the country.

Fast tracking of cases of commercial sexual exploitation of children in the Family Tribunals is a high priority.

Financial resources must be allocated so that Child Panels are operationalised as soon as possible in each district, as they have the potential to supplement the work of the police and the Family Tribunals. The Child Panels also require training on child rights and child-friendly procedures.

The establishment of a comprehensive programme for rehabilitation and reintegration of CSEC victims is required, through coordination between the government and NGOs. This should include shelters for CSEC victims in the 10 administrative regions.

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Objective 9: Promote and protect the rights of vulnerable groups, including internally displaced persons and refugees

According to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, a refugee is a person who “owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.”

The definition of internally displaced persons (IDPs) is not a legal definition but simply a descriptive one. It does not confer a legal status in the same sense that recognition as a “refugee” does. This is not necessary because, unlike refugees who have lost the protection of their own country and therefore need substitute international protection and require a special status to access this protection, the rights and guarantees to which internally displaced persons are entitled stem from the fact that they are human beings and citizens or habitual residents of a particular State. Africa hosts at least 11 million of the world’s estimated 25 million IDPs.

The following are some key facts on the refugee situation.

- An estimated 200 million people live outside the country in which they were born – about 3% of the global population of 6.5 billion
- There are an estimated 14.2 million refugees in the world, roughly 0.21% of the world’s population
- The numbers of internally displaced persons are currently estimated to be around 24.5 million – 0.4% of the world’s population
- The majority of refugees and IDPs are in Asia and Africa, which between them host a total of 9.2 million refugees and 18.1 million IDPs

The causes of displacement vary but are largely home grown and exacerbated by extreme poverty, underdevelopment and lack of opportunities. Specific reasons may include the following:

- People caught in war persecution areas of conflict and under threat of armed attack or physical assault.
- Refugees leave their country because they have no other choice and fear for their own life or safety or that of their family.
- Refugees also flee from their country when their governments will not or cannot protect them from serious human rights abuses.
- Displacement caused by environmental disasters, forced evictions or development projects.

Primary responsibility for assisting and protecting internally displaced persons rests with their own governments. Should governments prove unable or unwilling to discharge this responsibility, however, governments are expected to invite or at least accept international assistance for ensuring the welfare and security of internally displaced persons. The common overriding objective of international assistance should be to assist governments in meeting their obligations toward their own internally displaced populations. The nature of international
engagement with the internally displaced and the specific agencies involved may vary from situation to situation.

**Refugees**

Ghana is a party to the UN Refugee Convention. At the start of the Liberian War in 1989 and 1990, Ghana was one of the few West African nations to agree to receive refugees. With guidance from UNHCR, the Ghanaian government reconstituted the Ghana Refugee Board in November (2002). The country hosted more than 40,000 refugees at the end of 2002, including some 35,000 from Liberia. Most Liberian refugees and asylum seekers lived in Buduburam camp, 25 miles (40 km) west of Accra, the capital. Most Liberians living outside of camps reside in Accra.

**Internally displaced persons (IDPs)**

At a meeting in Kampala in October 2009, 46 African countries adopted the landmark African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa. The objectives of the IDP Convention are to:

- Promote and strengthen regional and national measures to prevent or mitigate, prohibit and eliminate root causes of internal displacement as well as provide for durable solutions;
- Establish a legal framework for preventing internal displacement, where possible, and protecting and assisting internally displaced persons in Africa;
- Establish a legal framework for solidarity, cooperation, promotion of durable solutions and mutual support between the state parties to combat displacement and address its consequences.

The conflict in Bawku in the Upper East Region of the country, between the Kusasis and the Mamprusis, the two dominant tribes in the area, has led to loss of lives and the displacement of people from communities caught up in the conflicts. Rather than residing in camps, IDPs take refuge in surrounding towns and villages in hopes of finding relatives who are willing to provide accommodation and some form of security. Another cause of displacement in Ghana has been natural disasters such as excessive rainfall.

**References**


African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention).


Rights of Refugees and Displaced Persons http://www.hrea.org/.
II. ECONOMIC GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT

By Peter Quartey (Ph.D)

Compliance with the National Economic Management and Governance Normative Framework

The objective is to assess the extent to which Ghana has (a) has signed (b) ratified (c) complied with the following codes and standards.

- Code of Good Practices on Fiscal Transparency
- Guidelines for Public Debt Management
- Internal Standards in Auditing
- International Accounting Standards
- Code of Good Practices in Transparency in Monetary and Financial Affairs
- Principles of Systems
- Core Principles for Security and Insurance Supervision and Regulations
- Core Principles of Effective Banking Supervision
- African Union Conventions on Preventing and Combating Corruption
- Best Practices for Budget Transparency
- Principles of Corporate Governance (international and national)
- Relevant Treaties, Conventions and Protocols of Regional Economic Communities

Objective 1: Promote macroeconomic policies that support sustainable development

GDP Growth and Poverty

The economy of Ghana is predominantly agricultural based with primary products as the main export commodities. Ghana’s GDP growth rate of 2009 represented a decrease in real per capita GDP growth rate of 4.7% down from 7.3% in 2008. However, between 2002 and 2009, the economy experienced real GDP growth of 5.4%. With the introduction of the price stability monetary policy, inflation had declined from 40.5% in 2000 to 21.3% and 15.2% in 2001 and 2002 respectively. However, petroleum price increases of about 100% in the first quarter of 2003 led to increased demand for higher wages which led to an increase in end of period inflation to 23.6% in 2003 but thereafter, it fell to 11.8% in 2004. Although in September 2005, inflation had increased to 13.5%, by June 2007, inflation had declined to 10.7%. From 2008 to 2009 inflation decreased from 18.13% to 15.70% but by September 2010, inflation has declined to a single digit.

The rate of depreciation in the exchange rate was also relatively stable compared to the period preceding the price stability policy. The local currency (¢) depreciated by 49.8% against the US dollar in 2000 but again, due to the policy of price stability, the rate of depreciation in the local currency against the US dollar declined to 8.3% and 9.3% in 2002 and 2003 respectively. The Cedi depreciated by 2.3%, 0.4% and 0.2% against the US dollar\textsuperscript{3} in 2004, 2005, and 2006 respectively. The Cedi also depreciated by 23% against the Euro in 2002 but the rate of depreciation declined subsequently and by end 2006 it had depreciated by 14.4% against the Euro. A similar declining trend was observed for the British pound (Bank of Ghana, 2007). In 2009, as a result of the relatively unstable macroeconomic environment, the cedi depreciated significantly against the three major currencies, namely, (US dollar (17.7%), the Euro (27.4%) and the British Pound (19.0%) respectively. The rate of depreciation of the British Pound was much higher in 2009 than in the preceding year and the major depreciation in the pound occurred during the second quarter of 2009.

One major area of concern is whether the growth rates and recorded have translated into poverty reduction and improvements in the human development indicators. Evidence obtained from the 5th Ghana Living Standards Survey, (GLSS 5, 2005/06) indicates that upper poverty levels have declined from 1998/99 level of about 39.5% to about 28.5%. Extreme poverty also declined from 26.8% in 1998/99 to 18.2% in 2005/06.

However, the same cannot be said of the ten regions of Ghana; whereas the level of deprivation in Accra increased, that of the nine regions declined (Ghana Human Development Report, 2004). This is further supported by the GLSS 5, which saw extreme poverty increasing to 6.2% in Accra. The central and eastern regions experienced the largest decline in poverty during the period and this may be attributed to the concentration of programmes implemented under the President’s Special Initiatives on cassava, pineapples and oil Palm (central region) and increased export of pineapples and cocoa in the eastern region. With the exception of the Accra and Upper West, poverty declined in all the regions of the country.

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<td>27.3</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
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<td>11.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>31.4</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>15.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ashanti</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>16.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>29.5</td>
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<td>52.3</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper East</td>
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<td>70.4</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>60.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>87.9</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
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\textsuperscript{3} The dollar was weak against the major international currencies during this period.
The extent to which this can be sustained can be explained by development in the key sectors of the economy. The economy can be divided into three broad sectors known as the agricultural, the industrial and the service sectors with the agricultural sector being the largest sector of the economy. Notwithstanding, its contribution fell from 38.0% in 2007 to 33.6% in 2008. The sector also contributed 37.9% of Ghana’s foreign exchange earnings in 2008. Since 2001, cocoa contributed significantly to the productivity gains although cocoa farmers are not among the poorest group in society and therefore goes to question the pro-poor nature of the growth rates recorded. It is also important to highlight that Ghana’s agricultural sector continued to be dependent on rainfall. A major component of production cost is the cost of inputs which are very high, making it difficult for smallholders who dominate the sector to afford them.

The industrial sector contributed 25.9% of GDP in 2008 but declined to 24.9% in 2009. However, between 2004 and 2008, the sector contributed 27.5% of GDP. The sector’s growth rate increased from 7.4% in 2007 to 8.1% in 2008 but declined to 1.6% in 2009. This appears to have affected growth of the economy in 2009. The decline in construction in 2009 explains to a large extent the abysmal performance of the industrial sector. The performance of the manufacturing subsector clearly underlies the strong performance of the sector; from 2007, the subsector grew from -2.3% to 4.5% in 2008. The service sector facilitates the functioning of the agricultural and industrial sectors by providing an enabling environment for products and factor markets to function more efficiently. The service sector contributed 31.8% of GDP in 2008. From 2004 to 2008, the average contribution was 32.6%. The average growth for the sector between 2003 and 2008 was 6.1%. Between 2007 and 2008, it grew from 8.2% to 9.3%. The graph indicates that in 2008 the services sector grew by 9.3% compared with growth rate of 8.1% for industry and 5.1% for agriculture. Agriculture continues to have the largest share of national output at 33.6% in 2008 to 34.9% in 2009 despite being the slowest growing sector.

Figure 1: Sectoral Growth Performance (2000-2008)
It is important to note that the performance of agriculture has usually been driven by cocoa subsector. Growth in the cocoa production and marketing subsector dropped from 6.5% in 2007 to 5% in 2008. Structural transformation would generally require a greater share of national output coming from the productive sectors. However, there is no sign of that happening despite the faster growth in industry and services.
**Trends in Exports and Imports**

In recent past, imports have tended to grow faster than exports. While the total import bill for 2008 rose by about 27% from US$8066.11 million in 2007 to US$10260.97 million, total exports receipts rose by about 26% from US$4194.71 million in 2007 to US$5275.33 million in 2008.

**Figure 4: Trends in Exports and Imports, 1980-2008**

The total export value of cocoa rose from US$1103.2 million in 2007, to US$1519.5 million in 2009; representing an increase of 38% over the period. Gold continue to dominate the mineral subsector in 2008, earning US$ 2257.0 million and taking 96.3% of total earnings from minerals. While Manganese experienced increased earnings in 2008, both diamond and bauxite had a drop in 2008. The table below shows mineral exports from 2004 to 2008 in million US dollars.

**Objective 2: Implement sound, transparent and predictable government economic policies**

**Probe 1: Actions by your country to make the public administration, legislative system and fiscal authorities work effectively and in a transparent manner**

With regards to improving public administration in a transparent manner, GoG in 2010 implemented a new pay policy known as the Single Spine Pay Policy (SSPP) for the public service which aims at addressing disparities, and restoring equity in the pay structure. Features of the SSPP intended to drive the Public Service Pay Administration System amongst others include extensive stakeholder consultation and participation from the design through to its finalization. The provision of legal backing for Pay Administration i.e. the Fair Wages and Salaries Commission Act, 2007 (Act 737); and the design of a grading structure for public service jobs, based on the result s of the Job Evaluation exercise.

The adoption of a participatory approach to the formulation of economic policies by GoG generates solutions and ideas which are locally inclined ensuring ownership and control of policies. This is seen in the case of the national budget allowing for public inputs. According to the 2009 APRM Annual Progress Report, CSOs e.g. ISODEC and Send Foundation, Private sector institutions e.g PEF, CEPA and ISSER as well as TUC undertake post-budget analyses with constituents. With regards to the tax administration system, GoG put in place means of
increasing tax revenue by implementing changes to the structure of taxation and reforms in the system. It appears that in Ghana far more emphasis is being placed on expanding the tax base or changes to the structure of taxation to the neglect of reforming of the tax administration system. IRS amongst its other duties is to ensure more efficient tax collection system without necessary adding further burdens upon the taxpayer, ensure all eligible taxpayers file tax returns, have tax revenue programs and administer them fairly and efficiently and manage the associated risk, reduce corruption and the incidence of revenue intended for government going to line the pockets of officials and examine the tax laws and where necessary prepare advise Government on possible amendments.

In the case of transparency, some MDAs allow some consultations with CSOs and the private sector. For instance MDBS engages CSOs and other non-state actors for inputs budgetary issues. However the degree of transparency is low in that there is an exclusion of these actors and interest groups at most final stages of agreements. To improve transparency of the budgeting process for instance MoFEP meets with MMDAs, RCCs and revenue agencies for information dissemination and sharing (APRM, 2009). It also ensures the strengthening of these institutions involved in public service delivery to function better.

**Main Challenges & Constraints towards Transparency & Effectiveness**

Much is expected of GoG's financial accountability systems (budgeting, control, accounting and auditing). Ineffectiveness and lack of transparency in these systems will invite poor allocation of resources and gaps in control systems. Proper socio-political, legislative and economic settings need to be put in place to ensure better functioning of public institutions. GoG therefore requires the safeguards to ensure that public resources are being used well.

In the area of the usage of scientific knowledge by the state, GoG has acquired several research institutes many of which are making meaningful contribution to economic development. One of these was the Industrial Research Institute (IRI), established originally in 1964 as the Institute of Standards and Industrial Research. Now, as then, it has the function of providing solutions to problems encountered by local industry some of which include projects such as - the development of a local biogas process, the adaptation of a Gari processing machine and a stove adapted to use liquid petroleum gas. In addition, IRI is involved in collaborating research with the Botany Department of the University of Ghana (involving classification of oil bearing plants and seeds), with the Geological Survey Department (involving the collection of samples of local raw materials with a potential use as glazes in ceramics) and with the Food Research Institute and Crops Research Institute (on the processing of cassava).

The Food Research Institute (FRI) is another research institute which conducts investigations into food processing, preservation, storage, marketing and distribution. The Institute is engaged in R&D particularly in areas such as solar crop drying, quality evaluation and grading of grains, fisheries and fish technology, meat and fish processing technology and the growing of horticultural crops for export. The FRI also accumulates knowledge on the quality and

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5 This was taken from: http://archive.unu.edu/unupress/unupbooks/uu33pe/uu33pe09.htm
characteristics of local food crops such as maize, cowpeas, mango, cassava, and fishes. It has also collaborated with the Cocoa Research Institute on standards and specifications for cocoa processing facilities.

Another research institute known as the Scientific Instrumentation Centre (SIC) was established by government as a joint undertaking of the Ghanaian government and UNDP with the main aim of developing facilities and skills in instrumentation and measurement suited to the educational, industrial and technological development of the country. The Technology Transfer Centre (TTC), another major public research institute with the aim of promoting Ghana's capacity for the transfer, utilization and development of foreign technology. Within this general rubric, the Technology Transfer Centre attempts to identify the technological needs of the national economy, to obtain information on the alternative sources of technology to meet these needs, to gain knowledge as to how best to acquire the preferred technologies, to learn how to 'unpack' imported technology, to assist in negotiating the best possible terms and conditions for the acquisition of foreign technology, and finally, to disseminate to potential users information about foreign technologies which would be appropriate for Ghanaian conditions.

The Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana (CRIG) at Tafo, in one of the cocoa growing regions is a public research centre particularly built to address the problems threatening the cocoa industry in Ghana mainly by reducing the depredations of pests and diseases upon the cocoa tree. By 1944, the new research station was functioning well enough to be selected as the headquarters for the West African Cocoa Research Institute, covering British colonies in the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. The objective is much the same today, although the scope of the institute has been expanded so as to include other indigenous products that yield vegetable oil. The main accomplishments of the Institute have been the development of new varieties of cocoa which are resistant to the two main diseases afflicting cocoa, swollen shoot virus and black pod infection. Studies have also led to recommendations on the conditions under which different varieties of cocoa will flourish and the amounts and extent to which fertilizers should be used.

The cocoa tree also yields by-products, cocoa pod husks, which can be used for animal feeds, pectin which can be used in the production of alcohol, and fats from cocoa bean waste which can be used in the manufacture of soap. CRIG has three research substations, two in the Eastern Region, and one in the Northern Region. In the other four cocoa growing regions of Ghana, CRIG cooperates with the Cocoa Services Division of the Cocoa Board in joint field trials. A small amount of coffee is produced in Ghana and its improvement also falls under the support of the Cocoa Research Institute.

The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) supervises these research institutes already mentioned above and is known to be the overseer of science and technology in Ghana. CSIR was formerly responsible to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, but was transferred to the new Ministry of Industries, Science and Technology in September 1979 the CSIR when the ministry was created. Essentially the CSIR is. These research centres perform various functions including organizing and coordinating scientific, industrial and agricultural research in all its aspects. It also undertakes the collection, publication and dissemination of results of the research and of statistics measuring its performance. CSIR occupied a minor role in Ghana's programmes to advance science and technology, but with the attempts to plan, execute and monitor the national efforts, the research institute has taken on a larger role. The first attempt to draw up a National Science and Technology Plan was made at the time of the formulation of the National Socio Economic Development Plan of 1981/5. A second attempt is being made currently, in the context of the functioning of Sectoral Technical Committees, which are considering programmes of a scientific and technological nature.
There are other research institutes outside the purview of the CSIR, but still within the realm of government. One of these is the Ghana Atomic Energy Commission, which reports directly to the President of the country and which administers the National Nuclear Research Institute. The focus of the Institute is on the application of those techniques which have been developed in atomic and nuclear establishments in the developed countries to the resolution of agricultural and industrial problems in Ghana. The three main research projects involve training in nuclear instrumentation (primarily the maintenance and repair of advanced electronic equipment) research into nutrition and reproduction of sheep and cattle, so as to improve animal husbandry, and the breeding of sterile insects, particularly tsetse flies, in order to reduce the ravages on herds of ruminants.

All the above mention research institutes extensively supports the growth and development of Ghana’s economy in general through food product development, quality control services, food safety assurance and value addition, in collaboration with international institutions, the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Trade and Industry. There have been where experts Research Scientists from the various institutes have used their expertise to solve serious national problems in nutrition and post harvest losses in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and the Ministry Agriculture, which helped to sustain the food safety and security in Ghana.

Several small and medium scale food processing industries in Ghana today owe their existence to technologies developed and transferred by these research centres. Finally, these research institutes through R&D contributes significantly to local and international Science and Technology Education that leads to the improvement of food security, health, foreign exchange earnings and employment opportunities. These results are transferred to the tertiary institutions in collaboration with the Ministries, Departments and Agencies.

**Probe 2: Measures that Ghana has taken to make economic policies predictable**

Following the application to the Enhanced Highly Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) facility in 2001, the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I) was formulated and implemented over the period 2003-2005 with the prime objective to enhance implementation of sectoral policies and to promote sustainable economic growth thereby reducing the high incidence of poverty in the country. The focus of GPRS I on human development saw measures designed to improve access to basic needs and services such as basic education, safe water and improved health and environmental sanitation. The adoption of the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP), by GoG provided a coherent framework for interventions to safeguard the environment and to promote environmentally sustainable programmes and practices.

**Processes Involved in Economic Policy Formulation and Monitoring**

The National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) in Ghana is the institution mandated by Ghana’s Constitution to guide the formulation of Development Plans as well as undertake the monitoring and evaluation of the country’s development effort. Results-based M&E system and results-based budgeting were initiatives adopted by NDPC for the purposes of reforming policies. The commission also liaises with institutions like the Ghana Statistical Service to work with MDAs to generate reliable information for the purposes of tracking progress. The establishment of an M&E Technical Committee made up of key stakeholders including: NDPC, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MoFEP), Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Environment (MLGRDE), Parliament, Civil Society Organizations, Development Partners and the Private Sector Organizations was to
promote greater coordination and harmonization of M&E activities among Central Management Agencies and to improve communication at all levels.6

All ministries in Ghana have adopted formal monitoring and evaluation units. The Policy Coordination, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit (PCMEU) of the Office of the President, ensures that the President and the Chief of Staff have access to information to hold Ministries to account for their performance. In addition, there is also a growing M&E capacity among certain civil society organizations and nongovernmental organizations.7

Table 2. Measures towards awareness of national economic policies in Ghana, Implementation and progress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Economic Policies</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
<th>Progress Made</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Poverty and Economic Structures</td>
<td>Introduction of innovative income generating activities LEAP and MASLOC financial schemes</td>
<td>A government directive that 20% of the district assembly common fund be directed towards poverty targeting women Economic opportunities created for women through the institution of micro-credit/financial schemes Establishment of Women’s Development Fund being coordinated by the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs (MOWAC) to give micro-credit to women Establishment of Women in Agriculture and Development (WAID) Unit within the Ministry of Food and Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Health and Environment</td>
<td>Introduction of National Health Insurance Scheme. Reproductive Health Policy Revised Institution of Community-Based Health Planning Services adopted by the health sector as the mechanisms for meeting the health needs of the local community and it focuses on women’s health. Free Family planning services are also widely available. Much education has gone down to many parts of Ghana, including the rural areas.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. GPRS (I &amp; II)</td>
<td>Tax revenue programmes administered</td>
<td>Tax Reform: The establishment of a new revenue agency, the Revenue Agencies Governing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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7 Ibid.
Board (RAGB),
Increased the capacity for revenue mobilisation
Domestic revenue mobilization intensified
**Good Governance:**
Transparency and accountability in resource generation, allocation and management intensified

| 4. Monetary Policy and Inflation | The use of price stabilization measures | A steady fall in inflation from 19.3% in December 2009 to about 9% in December 2010.
Growth in money supply by 26.94% from 2008 to 2009.
Prime rate increased from 17% in 2008 to 18% in 2009. |

Sources: GTZ 2003; NETRIGHT 2004; ISSER 2010

**Probe 3: Main challenges faced by Ghana with respect to coordinating the efforts of various departments in implementing sound, transparent and predictable economic policies**

Ghana is one of the countries that qualifies for scaling up donor financial support to accelerate growth and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). (This is as a result of improved policies and institutional capacity.) However, such scaling-up of resources calls for a continued improvements in policies in the public sector. Although Ghana shows progress in economic growth for the past decade, some key challenges affecting the implementation of sound and transparent economic policies include environmental degradation, drought and flooding, chieftaincy disputes, corruption and economic mismanagement in some sections of the economy, drug menace energy and water crisis, low agric productivity and food shortage, high youth unemployment, low salaries in the public sector, dwindling formal employment and growing informal sector and lack of housing for the poor.

Although there exist relationships and links between local authorities and central government, ministries, departments and agencies, sectoral units, development projects and programme, there is the need to define the scope of responsibilities and clearly outline the reporting mechanisms. Provisions for collaboration between MDAs and sub-national authorities is seen in the areas of the formation of district level committees particularly related to service delivery and development programmes and projects and District Assemblies assuming legislating, executing, budgeting and planning through relevant legislation, model guidelines and policy frameworks. To ensure accountability of Chief Executives, there are links and relationships between the various actors such as Presiding Members, Members of Parliament and District Coordinating Directors. In terms of accountability the Ministry of Health appears to be one of the most advanced among the GoG’s ministries and has for long elaborated a comprehensive sector policy which justifies the provision of assistance through participation in a SWAp (and then through budget support) (Egeval, 2005).
In tackling socially-related problems, GoG has adopted multi-sectoral and stakeholders approaches. MOWAC is liaising with GES for progress of the school feeding programme. The Women's Micro-Finance Scheme is also being facilitated by collaboration between MOWAC and MoFEP. To achieve equal enrolment and retention of the girl-child in schools, the government ensures the implementation of strategies and targets, including affirmative action policies at all levels and also publicise and fully implement a comprehensive National Gender Policy. The policy indicates ways in which NGOs and CSOs collaborate with MOWAC on women’s issues.

**Objective 3: Promote sound public finance management**

**Probe 1: Steps and actions undertaken by your country to promote sound public finance management**

*PFM Policy/Programme Measures in Ghana*

The growing focus on ensuring financial stability is demonstrated by the proliferation in recent years of initiatives aimed at directly and indirectly promoting and enforcing transparency practices for sound public finance management in Ghana. These include the establishment of the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA), an integrated revenue administration ensuring productive service delivery and lower administrative cost, the National Expenditure Tracking System (NETS) and the Budget Management System (BMS). Other initiatives include the upgrade of the Budget and Public Expenditure Management System (BPEMS), an integrated system with a focus on software and hardware (APRM, 2009). Further reform processes initiated in Ghana includes the introduction of integrated Financial Management Information System and Programme Based Budgeting. Although some improvements have been noted in these systems, concerns are being raised to increase the capacities across MDAs.

A number of institutions set up to promote PFM include the National Constitutional Reform Coalition (NCRC). NCRC was set up to look into what the constitution should consider in order to improve and promote the ability and capacity of parliament to offer meaningful input into the budget process and also improve the independence of the Auditor-General’s Department. In monitoring project/programme implementation and tracking disbursement and the utilization of donor resources to the country, MoFEP developed an External Resource Mobilization Division. To improve revenue mobilization, IRS in 2009 developed a number of initiatives including the development of software to identify new tax payers and a Rent Tax Unit for rent tax collection. GCMS 11, web-based user friendly software was also a development towards the expansion of CEPS Valuation Unit. This unit was among others to improve the ability of other state agencies and civil society to conduct budget oversight and also improve public financial management generally.

With regards to strengthening financial accountability systems a number of initiatives by GoG since 2002 were the Financial Administration Act; Financial Administration Regulations, Procurement Act; Internal Audit Agency Act, and the Audit Service Act. Most major PFM systems are in the process of reform and upgrading. The Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) is now the government's budget preparation system; budget expenditures are classified based on administrative and economic functions and on GFS (Government Financial Statistics); poverty-reducing expenditures are identified and reported; control over commitments, arrears,
and cash flow has improved; internal audit arrangements are to be strengthened with the establishment of an independent Internal Audit Agency; bank reconciliations have improved; year-end closure of accounts and submission of annual financial statements for the Consolidated Fund now meet statutory time frames; and the core government accounting system is to be replaced by a new integrated computer system (the Budget and Expenditure Management System), and the payroll system by the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Data System (CFAA, 2004).

**Budgeting Processes/Forms/Methods**

Some key components of the budgeting process in Ghana is outlined as follows:

- **Legal framework and enforcement mechanisms:** The Audit Service and parliament of Ghana ensures the judicious use of public funds in line with the sectoral budgets and developmental goals. District Assemblies also have a role in the budgetary processes through parliamentary debates and media engagement.

- **Citizen participation:** CSOs, CBOs and other public institutions engage in decisions regarding budget allocation, spending patterns and public service delivery. They are also given the right to know and determine how public revenues are collected and spent. In increasing government transparency, training of CSOs, CBOs and NGOs through workshops and seminars on budgetary allocation are some of the activities pursued to make information accessible and understandable to the electorate. The Open Budget Index (OBI) awarded Ghana a score of 49%, signifying that Ghana provides "some information to the public in its budget documents during the year," but noted that the failure to publish mid-year, year-end, and auditor's reports significantly compromises budget transparency and forecloses the public's opportunity to assess budget performance.

- **Media Involvement:** Media involvement in covering national budgeting processes provides access to information and spark debates among the general public and feedback from the government.

**Current Status of PFM in Ghana**

The 2008 IMF Article IV Consultation report acknowledged that Ghana continues to make progress in improving its fiscal policy transparency, noting that it was working with the Fund to draft new fiscal responsibility legislation, but reiterated earlier assertions that much more work needs to be done. However, important shortcomings remained in the area of budget documentation, consolidation of budget spending, and internal and external audits. According to ISSER (2010), GoG’s fiscal objective for the year 2009 and for the medium term according to the 2009 budget statement was to correct what was described as the large fiscal imbalances which have prevailed for sometime by focusing first on more rigorous domestic revenue mobilization and later rationalizing subsidies to SOEs, public sector wages and other expenditures.

Some challenges encountered in the adoption and implementation of a medium-term fiscal framework touched on the problem of individualised legislative tax waivers, problems relating to the independence and security of tenure of the Auditor-General, routine spending by government in excess of appropriate amounts, short timeframe for parliamentary review of government proposed budget, among others (ISD, 2010). Seemingly, GoG’s financial accountability systems

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have improved in a steady manner, but that concerns are however being raised on a lot more remains to be done by Ghana on adopting more of transparency principles.

**Probe 2: Measures taken by your country to develop an effective system of fiscal decentralization**

The 1992 Constitution of Ghana allocates to parliament the right to approve taxes and government loans, including borrowing from external sources and any government withdrawals from the Consolidated Fund, which holds the income received from all revenue sources. The Constitution also requires that the president prepare an annual draft budget for submission to parliament no later than one month prior to the end of the fiscal year. The Constitution also defines the functions of the government, at both the central and local levels, within the fiscal process. At the local level, it establishes the District Assemblies Common Fund, which is allocated at least 5% of overall government revenues. In addition, the Local Government Act of 1993 establishes the Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs), which conduct local-level fiscal policy and are authorized to levy fees and other charges to raise funds.

The Financial Administration Act (FAA) clarifies the budgetary role of the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, the tax agencies, and the customs and excise services. It also establishes accountability for the collection and use of public revenues. The Civil Service Law of 1993 addresses corruption assigns responsibilities and rights of members of the civil service sector, and sets forth hiring, promotion, and firing policies.

Ghana has made significant progress in improving fiscal transparency and met the IMF's Code in several areas. A Country Financial Accountability Assessment conducted by the World Bank in 2008 noted recent improvements, but added that Ghana fell short in the areas of implementation and compliance. According to the World Bank report, some of the problems could be attributed to insufficient resources and management practices to implement a complex system of reforms. Fiscal roles and responsibilities of the various branches of Ghana's government are well defined and supported by a solid legal and administrative foundation covering the preparation and execution of the budget, however more efforts are required by GoG to anchor and enhance fiscal discipline. Further efforts are ongoing to improve fiscal data quality and timeliness to avoid discrepancies and to make reports reliable.

**Objective 4: Fight corruption and money laundering**

**Probe 1: Prevalence of Corruption in the public administration in Ghana and measures that have been taken in this regard**

According to TI's Corruption Perception Index 2004, Ghana (with a score of 3.6) is rated as the 7th least corrupt country out of 36 countries surveyed in Africa. In global terms, Ghana ranked as 64th out of the 145 surveyed countries. The Center for Public Integrity, an international think-tank, gives Ghana a 'moderate' rating in its public integrity index which tracks corruption, openness and accountability in 25 countries. It is however difficult to predict with precision the magnitude of corruption in Ghana. Despite attempts by government to strengthen legal and institutional frameworks for fighting corruption with the enactment of the Whistleblowers Act,
the Public Procurement Act, the Financial Administration Act (FAA), corruption is still widespread in Ghana and especially in the public sector (NAPRM, 2006).

The top three most corrupt public institutions in Ghana are perceived to be the Ghana Police Service, Ministry of Education and CEPS. Other institutions for PFM believed to be corrupt include IRS and the Audit and VAT Services. The Ghana Police Service was ranked as the most corrupt public institution followed by the Customs Exercise and Preventive Services (CEPS) (APRM, 2007). Many causes have been given for the ever increasing problem of corruption. Lack of transparency in the public sector, high cost of living, and low salaries of public servants has been found as strong reasons fueling the level of corruption in the public sector.

Since the year 2000 governments have made bold declarations of fighting corruption in the public sector. The criminal code of 1960 contains inadequate provisions on corruption and as a result before 2006 anti-corruption laws in Ghana were scattered in various documents. Some notable progress that has been made since 2000 is the National Procurement Act, the Whistleblowers Act (Act, 720) and Credit Reporting Act, 2007 (Act 726). The procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663) was enacted to ensure transparency in the procurement process. Guidelines have been provided on ethical tendering so as to promote professionalism in the tendering process. There is also a seven member appeal and complaint committee set up by the procurement authority to receive, investigate and advice the procurement Authority on complaints from individuals and institutions concerning public procurement. Other measures include reforms made in the public procurement system, the Public Account Committee (PAC), CSOs advocacy on anti-corruption, the strengthening of the public procurement and auditing systems.

The public office holders Act, 1998 (Act 550) is the legal framework within which public servants are supposed to declare their assets. The asset declaration regulations have not been reviewed since it was passed in 1998. A number of cases on corruption has been taken up by some public authorities. In relation to CHRAJ and BNI’s investigation of some officials of the MDAs, a former Minister was in 2009, accused of financial impropriety within his ministry for taking unauthorised travelling allowances and incurring unauthorised expenditure of which he was asked by the president to resign though he was not prosecuted. Another case is seen in the implication of a number of former government officials in a bribery scandal involving a British construction company. GoG took action on the matter by directing CHRAJ to investigate into the matter. Recently, a video footage of some corrupt activities involving CEPS officials led to their dismissal from service.

Ghana is one of the very few countries in Africa where the fight against corruption is being tackled institutionally. Ghana has made considerable provisions on how to deal with corrupt practices in public offices and more by making number of laws and acts thereby promoting transparency and accountability.

The Constitution of Ghana and other laws make provision for the State and all citizens to fight corruption of all kinds. Some of these laws include the Assets Declaration Act, Criminal Code (Act 29), Internal Audit Agency Act (Act 658), Financial Administration Act (Act 654), Public Procurement Act (Act 663). These laws and their Regulations, provide a firm foundation and framework with which the fight against corruption should be won. In Article 35 (8) of the 1992 Constitution, for example, the State is mandated to take steps to eradicate corrupt practices and the abuse of power, while Article 41 (f) enjoins all citizens to protect and preserve public property and expose and combat misuse and waste of public funds and property (GII/APNAC, 2006). The GII/APNAC further states that Section 239 of the same Criminal Procedure Code.
(Amendment) Act 1965 (Act 261) provides corruption penalties indicating how corruption has always been frowned upon in Ghana.

The Public Procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663), the Internal Audit Agency Act, 2003 (Act 658) amongst others are recent laws of significance for combating corrupt practices with the main object of coordinating, facilitating, monitoring and supervising internal audit activities within the Ministries, Departments and Agencies of the State including the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies. Key state anti-corruption institutions set up by law to specifically deal with corruption include the Serious Fraud Office (SFO), the Commission of Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) and the Economic and Organized Crime Office (EOCO). These institutions among others were formed to track progress towards the attainment of a corruption-free state and thereby have the power to investigate suspected offences that involve serious financial or economic loss to the State; and to monitor economic activities to detect crimes that could cause economic or financial loss to the State, among other tasks.

Progress has been recorded as far as the tackling of corruption is concerned in Ghana. Firstly, the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among public office holders declined from 3.9 (on the scale of 1-10) in 2009 to 4.1 (on the scale of 1-10) in 2010. This puts Ghana at the rank of 62 out of 178 countries in the World, and among the 6 leading corruption-free African countries, though the 4.1 score is below the average global score of 5 for almost three quarters of the 178 countries. The key national anti-corruption institutions continued to perform their statutory functions in 2010. The total number of corruption cases received and investigated by CHRAJ decreased from 124 in 2009 to 39 in 2010.

**Key Challenges in the Fight**

It is evident that Ghana does have the laws and institutions to fight corruption although there exist shortcomings in the implementation of these laws. According to APRM (2007), even though efforts have been put into fighting corruption not much has been achieved in reducing corruption. There is a strong issue of government lacking the political will to take up cases of corruption. For instance, even though the Minister in the corruption scandal in 2009 was accused of financial impropriety he was not prosecuted. Also, though some of the legislation mechanism has been put in place to fight corruption, some of them are silent on how to enforce compliance. For instance Act, 462 required that members of District Tender Board declare their assets within three months of assuming office but the current law is silent on it and there is no legislation to enforce compliance. For these shortcomings to be dealt with, national anti-corruption institutions could be expanded by way of logistics and other resources to avoid operational and financial dependence on the part of Parliament and the Judiciary; clear lines of responsibilities as well as synergies must be forged among them to prevent possible executive/presidential dominance over those institutions; and all the institutions and agencies must be streamlined and where necessary appropriate amendments proposed and effected (GII/APNAC, 2006; Watt and William, 2005). There is also the challenge of lack of awareness on the part of Ghanaians of the laws available to them. As at 2008, only five cases had been recorded under the Whistleblowers Act.

**Efforts to Address Challenges**

Till date there is no developed strategic guideline to promote networking between the various anti-corruption agencies. This issue of coordination has become even more complicated since the passage of the Whistleblowers Act because of the number of institutions required to implement it. There must be a commitment to fighting corruption and mismanagement through strong
resolution from the leadership and society at large for fiscal transparency in all sectors of the economy.

Some of the efforts that have been put in place to address the challenges facing the country in the fight against corruption include the establishment of government-led oversight bodies relevant to corruption in PFM systems namely the Office of the Accountability and the Serious Fraud Office in 2003. Other efforts by GoG were targeted towards reforms made in the public procurement system, increased accountability roles played by parliamentarians through the public account committee, CSOs advocacy on anti-corruption, the strengthening of the public procurement and auditing systems, the passage of the economic and organised crime bill and the oversight role of parliament. Further measures include the increasing desire from CSOs coordinated by the Ghana Anti-Corruption Coalition (GACC) and the general public to expose corruption and tracking by NGOs and a committee of parliament. The passage of the Right to Information Law also means that official documents is opened to the public to properly analyse and criticize.

**Prevalence Of Money Laundering In Ghana**

In February, 2007 Ghana signed an agreement with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime to combat money laundering and terrorist financing. In January of 2008 Ghana passed its Anti-Money Laundering Act, which calls for the establishment of a Financial Intelligence Unit (FIU), which will be called the Financial Intelligence Centre, and overseen by the National Security Council. The FIU will have the authority to obtain information from other government regulatory authorities and from private sector financial institutions. The FIC is supposed to be the heart of anti-money laundering, by identifying tainted funds, provide and exchange information with relevant institutions about money laundering.


**Challenges**

Ghana was found wanting in areas of enforcing money transfer rules, confiscation and provisional measures, customer due diligence, politically exposed persons, correspondence banking and unusual transactions by Director of Legislative Drafting Division at the Attorney-General’s Department of the Ministry of Justice. Mechanisms for tracking capital inflows into the country are so weak that people bring large sums of dubious foreign currency into the country without being questioned about the sources of these monies. Money launderers look for countries where there are flexible securities rules, ineffective monitoring, thriving black market, exchange control weakness, limited asset seizure or confiscation authority and established non-bank financial institutions among others.

The FIC, which is supposed to be the heart of anti-money laundering to identify tainted funds, is lacking a proper set up, therefore its capacity in fighting corruption effectively is challenging.
Objective 5: Accelerate regional integration by participating in the harmonization of monetary, trade and investment policies

Probe 1: Your country’s membership to any regional economic integration arrangement and the benefits and challenges resulting from such membership

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) is a commission set up in 1975 and currently has 15 states as members. Ghana joined ECOWAS in 1975 and has since seen some benefits as a result of its membership. Its mission is to promote economic integration in all fields of economic activity, particularly industry, transport, telecommunications, energy, agriculture, natural resources, commerce, monetary and financial questions and social and cultural matters. One of the aims of ECOWAS is to provide access to a larger market, thereby promoting investment and industrialization to enable products of member states to compete freely in the regional market and promote exports. Increased regional competition turns to reduce prices for a greater range of both imports and local products to the benefit of consumers and producers.

Another regional integration in Africa is the African Union (AU) formerly known as the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) was established in 1963 and revived to AU in the 1990s. NEPAD, an economic development programme of the union aims to provide a vision and policy framework for accelerating economic co-operation and integration among African countries through the attraction of increased investment, capital flows and funding, providing an African-owned framework for development as the foundation for partnership at regional and international levels.

Benefits of the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD)

Trade gains
Through favourable trade policies and trade instruments such as creating a fair and transparent import-export regime, enhancing production capacity for domestic and export markets, domestic trade and distribution, consumer protection and fair trade, Ghana has enhanced market access for its goods and services. Benefits in the area of promoting increased competitiveness of local producers in domestic and international markets based on fair and equal competition and secondly, by introducing an import and domestic trade regime which promotes and protects consumer interests are essential to enhance industrial and agricultural production with increased employment and wealth for all Ghanaians and provide fair priced, better quality and a broader range of products for all Ghanaian consumers.

Commitments towards progressive reduction in tariffs of all member countries and the setting up of a framework within which all member countries must trade are made by all members including Ghana. Ghana’s support of the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) process was negotiated through ECOWAS with the aim of ensuring that Ghana maintains and improves market access whilst protecting sensitive industries until such time as they are able to compete with EU producers. The majority of developed countries provide Ghana and other developing countries with preferential market access under schemes such as the Generalised System of Preferences (GSP) and African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA).
**Investment**

Ghana through ECOWAS negotiations is encouraging technology improvement through fiscal incentives and other forms of direct and indirect support for capital investments in technology upgrades and research and development expenditure. A Trans-ECOWAS project, established in 2007, plans to upgrade railways in some member states including Ghana. With the assistance of some ECOWAS related policies, Ghana is facilitating the provision of long term concessionary investment finance facilities to groups currently excluded from, or with limited access to, credit. This includes Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), exporters, women and rural entrepreneurs and will ensure that the benefits of trade are not only enjoyed by the established and urban segments, but all segments of Ghanaian society.

**Security**

Ghana, due to her geographical location finds itself in a sub region that has been in turmoil for close to two decades. In recent years its immediate neighbors to the east and west have been experiencing political turmoil which has spilt over to Ghana. This poses challenges to Ghana, and especially frontline organizations, such as the Ghana Immigration Service tasked with the primary jurisdiction over laws that govern entry and exit to and from Ghana. The Ghana Immigration Service has since the ratification of the ECOWAS protocol on free movements of persons, goods and services given full effects to the provisions. In addition to these efforts, CEPS since 2007 have been monitoring electronically transit goods in concert with the ECOWAS Convention on Interstate Transit of Goods (NAPRM-GC, 2007). Member citizens of the sub region who do not meet the minimum foreign capital requirements are provided easier forms of acquiring residence permit.

**Challenges**

Suggestions from the general public and policy makers on recent events have outlined how unsafe and unprotected our commitment to some of these trade negotiations are. Though some of these commitments may fail to acknowledge the immense challenges being faced in the phase of implementation, facilitation and control, it leaves much room for improvement despite considerable gains. A few of these challenges Ghana faces as a result of her membership are as follows:

- agricultural subsidies as well as high tariffs and non-tariff barriers in other countries limit the potential for Ghana to produce and trade in products of interest to Ghana.
- increase in the movement of persons across Ghana’s borders has brought about an increase in cross border crimes.
- lack of awareness of ECOWAS citizens about the protocols and their rights and responsibilities
- State of insecurity for Ghana in relation to certain commitments/agreements made. The EPA interim trade deal with the EU is one of such commitments.
- The current investment laws in Ghana which are essentially tied to foreign capital for employment of foreigners in Ghana do not provide any special concessions for ECOWAS citizens and this may go against citizens of Ghana in other ECOWAS member states.

**Recommendations**

The review of economic management and governance presented interesting findings. First, although growth has imparted positively on poverty in Ghana, inequality remains a widespread regionally and individually. Measures required for reducing the inequality gap are increasing
employment, revamping the agricultural sector through export diversification, agric mechanization and agro-processing which are crucial since it employs a higher proportion of the population among others.

Secondly, fiscal deficit remains high suggesting that Ghana has an overall poor quality of spending. Regardless of the increase in government revenue, The problem however remains with public expenditures remaining high. Monetary policy will remain broadly accommodative owing to the significant slowdown of inflation. Policy rate on the other hand has declined but lending rates are very high and therefore unable to stimulate the private sector to provide jobs. Although lending rates may adjust to the policy rate to reflect improving macro conditions, there is the need for structural improvements which would improve the overall costs of banking.

Ghana’s economy is also characterized by low savings, low worker productivity and insignificant change in trade structure although trade destinations are gradually changing. With these trade shocks notwithstanding, the economy has been growing remarkably during the last two decades in spite of the weaknesses in the nation’s physical and economic infrastructure.

Consequently, there is the need to invest the oil revenue into productive sectors of the economy given that oil revenue accounts for half of budget deficit. With the productive sectors in the economy not well developed, the neglect of these sectors may suffer collapse and therefore the need to provide credit at reasonable interest rates to spur private sector initiatives and to provide the needed jobs.

Finally, the NEPAD Initiative and other regional bodies should be strengthened to continue to promote home-grown ideas and programmes. Such initiatives should strive to promote intra-African trade and easy movement of resources.
### Appendix. Economic Governance: Normative Framework and Baseline Data

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<tr>
<th>PROBE</th>
<th>ISSUES</th>
<th>INDICATORS</th>
<th>INDICATOR VALUE</th>
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</table>
| 1. Promote macroeconomic policies that support sustainable development | 1. Macroeconomic indicators | 1. Average Inflation trend over the past five years (average year on year %) | 2009 - 15.78*  
2008 - 16.46*  
2007 - 10.73*  
2006 - 14.48**  
2005 - 16.50**  
*Ghana Statistical Service News letter, April 2010  
|  |  | 2. Real GDP Growth per capita over the past five years (%) | 2009 - 4.1  
2008 - 7.2  
2007 - 6.3  
2006 - 6.2  
2005 - 5.8  
Source: State of the Ghanaian Economy 2009, ISSER |
|  |  | 3. Tax revenues in percentage of GDP | 2009 - 23.35  
2008 - 24.98  
2007 - 23.70  
2006 - 20.25  
2005 - 20.76  
State of the Ghanaian Economy, 2009, ISSER page 34 |
|  |  | 4. Total public sector Revenue in percentage of GDP | 2009 - 27.73  
2008 - 27.90  
2007 - 26.12  
2006 - 22.25  
2005 - 23.87  
State of the Ghanaian Economy, 2009, ISSER page 34 |
|  |  | 5. Share of general government expenditure to GDP | 2009 - 40.03  
2008 - 55.42  
2007 - 43.51  
2006 - 37.70  
2005 - 36.77  
State of the Ghanaian Economy, 2009, ISSER page 41 |
|  |  | 6. Share of total Budget allocated social sectors |  |
|  |  | 7. Fiscal deficit to GDP (Overall Budget Balance including divestitures %) | 2009 - -10.2  
2008 - -11.5  
2007 - -8.1  
2006 - -7.8  
2005 - -2.0  
State of the Ghanaian Economy, 2009, page 30 |
|  |  | 8. Share of fiscal deficit financed by the Central Bank over the past five years |  |
|  |  | 9. Debt servicing to Domestic revenue ratio % | 2009 - 27  
2008 - 25  
2007 - 19  
2006 - 27  
2005 - 27  
State of the Ghanaian Economy |
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<td>Share of domestic debt to total debt</td>
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<td>State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2009, p. 54</td>
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<td>10. Total debt to exports %</td>
<td>2009 - 205.1</td>
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<td>2008 - 162.1</td>
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<td>2007 - 174.9</td>
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<td>2005 - 287.0</td>
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<td>Source: Computation using data from State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2009</td>
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<td>Total debt to GDP %</td>
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<td>State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2009, p. 54</td>
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<td>11. Credit to both public and private sectors over the past five years % GDP</td>
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<td>2009 - 0.34</td>
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<td>12. International foreign assistance in percentage of total sector revenues</td>
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<td>2. Basis on which the Government does formulate macroeconomic projections</td>
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<td>ii. Evidence of the effectiveness of these processes</td>
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<td>- Variance in GDP growth projections (actual – target)</td>
<td>2009 5.9 4.1 -1.8</td>
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<td>- Variance in average yearly inflation projections</td>
<td>2008 7 7.2 0.2</td>
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<td>4. Initiatives taken by the Country to Increase domestic resource mobilization</td>
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<td>Source: State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2009 page 81</td>
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III. CORPORATE GOVERNANCE

By Peter Quartey, Ph.D

Compliance with the National Corporate Governance Normative Framework

Introduction

Corporate Governance is a system by which corporations are directed, controlled and held to account. It embraces all forms of enterprise in the private and public sector. Good Corporate Governance has seven distinguishing characteristics: discipline, transparency, independence, accountability, responsibility, fairness and social responsibility. These traits are important because they increase investor confidence, making it easier for corporations to raise equity capital and finance investment. The concepts of corporate citizenship and corporate social responsibility have to be complied with to ensure that corporations manage the environment sustainably and impact positively on the communities within which they operate. Good corporate governance provides a level of disclosure and transparency regarding the conduct of corporations, their boards and directors that enables the supervision of their accountability while ensuring that: they comply with their legal obligations and remissions; are accountable to shareholders and responsible to stakeholders including employees, suppliers, creditors, customers and communities; and act responsibly regarding the environment. In an effort to enhance the quality of good corporate governance in corporations in Africa, Heads of State and Government of the participating states adopted the following five broad objectives and a number of codes and standards to guide Corporate Governance reform in Africa:

1. Promoting an Enabling Environment and Effective Regulatory Framework for Economic Activities
2. Ensuring that Corporations Act as Good Corporate Citizens with regard to Human Rights, Social Responsibility and Environment Sustainability
3. Promoting adoption of Codes of Good Business Ethics in Achieving the Objectives of the Corporation
4. Ensuring that Corporations treat all their Stakeholders including Shareholders, Employees, Communities and Suppliers fairly
5. Providing for Accountability of Corporations, Directors and Officers
THE NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK: Standards and Codes


Ghana has acceded to the NEPAD Framework Document and the key thematic issue is the African Peer Review Mechanism

Principles of Corporate Governance (OECD and Commonwealth)

Corporate Governance guidelines are scattered in a number of documents in Ghana. Corporate governance exists within the framework of laws, regulations, rules, guidelines, and voluntary codes. The following are examples of the frameworks:

- Companies Code, 1963 (Act 179)
- Corporate Governance Manual of the Securities and Exchange Commission
- Environmental Protection Agency Act, 1994 (Act 490)
- Banking Act of 2004 (Act 673)
- Labour, 2003 (Act 651)
- Mining Act of 2006 (Act 703)
- Procurement Act 2003 (Act 663)
- Internal Audit Agency Act 2003 (Act 658)
- Environmental Assessment Regulations, 1999 (L.I. 1652)
- Multinational corporations have Corporate Governance Guidelines of their parent company
- Ghana Business Code
- Institute of Directors (IoD) Code of Ethics for Directors

Stakeholders have expressed the need to harmonize the various voluntary and mandatory codes into a unified document.

International Accounting and Audit Standards

The Government of Ghana through the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning and the Institute of Chartered Accountants (ICA) in 2007 organized workshop on International Accounting and Audit Standards. It has been advocated that an implementation committee like the International Accounting Standards Committee in the U.K. be established to interpret the IFRS. In view of the complex nature of the IFRS, it is recommended that ICA be tasked with the responsibilities of implementing and monitoring the standard.

The Security and Exchange Commission (SEC) enforces the use of International Standards in Financial Reporting. Also, banks, insurance and securities companies are obliged to use the IFRS in all their financial reporting. However, Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are challenged in the adoption and use of IFRS because of the huge financial and other related cost. To address this challenge, SMEs are encouraged to use a simplified version of the standards - IFRS for Small Scale Enterprises.

Core Principles of Effective Banking Supervision

Banking Act of 2004 (Act 673) which imposes additional corporate governance obligations on banks. The Bank of Ghana Act (2007) ensures that the Central Bank has independence to perform oversight responsibilities over the financial system in the country.
Core Principles of for Securities and Insurance Supervision and Regulations

The Securities Industry Act, 1993 (PNDCL 333) as amended, the SEC’s Code on Mergers and Takeovers, and the Ghana Stock Exchange’s Listing Regulations which prescribe corporate governance standards for publicly-traded companies. Publicly-traded companies are also required to abide by the Securities & Exchange Commission’s voluntary Code of Best Practices on Corporate Governance, which is based on principles adopted by the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the Commonwealth Association for Corporate Governance (CACG). It also requires companies to explain reasons for non-compliance.

The Insurance Bill was promulgated into an Act of Parliament (Act 724) in 2006 and was granted Presidential Accent on 31st December, 2006.

African Charter on Human and People’s Rights

The Ghana Business Code, which was published in 2006, is based on the principles of the United Nations Compact’s ten principles, relating to human rights, labour standards, the environment and anti-corruption.

Labor Codes of the International Labor Organization (ILO)

Ghana is a signatory to ILO Convention No 138 but has not ratified the convention. Commentators hold the view that ratification does not mean implementation, but rather will ensure that policies are in place to enforce its implementation. Ghana passed the Children’s Act in 1998. To give full meaning of the Act, stakeholders are putting pressure on Government to ratify.

Codes on Industrial and Environment Safety and Hygiene of the World Health Organization

The ILO Convention No. 184 has not been ratified. The convention deals with health and safety in the agriculture sector. In addition, Ghana does not have a policy to deal with agriculture health and safety. The absence of the above convention and related policies is affecting farmers and communities negatively. This is because; some farmers haphazardly use agro-chemicals endangering the lives of the farmers as well as the environmental. It should however be noted that, various departments within the Ministry of Food and Agriculture incorporate good safety and health practices in their policies.

Note: The actual governance practices are clustered by objectives in the subsequent pages.

Objective 1: Promoting an enabling environment and effective regulatory framework for economic activities

Probe 1: Main categories of commercial activities and the role they play in the economy

There is currently no information on the ownership structure of enterprises in Ghana. However, economic activities in Ghana are dominated by the informal sector, which employs about 80% of the workforce. Small and medium-scaled enterprises (SMEs) have become an important sector in the economy largely because large scale enterprises have not been able to drive the economy in terms of income, employment generation among others. SMEs have therefore been one of the major areas of concern to policy makers in an attempt to accelerate the rate of growth. They are potential sources of employment and income in the country. Due to their flexible nature, SMEs
are able to withstand adverse economic conditions. Small scale enterprises for example, perform useful roles in ensuring income stability, growth and employment.

Since SMEs are labour intensive, they are more likely to succeed in smaller urban centres and rural areas, where they can contribute to the more even distribution of economic activity in a region and can help to slow the flow of migration to large cities. Because of their regional dispersion and their labour intensity, it is believed that small scale production units can promote a more equitable distribution of income than large firms. They also improve the efficiency of domestic markets and make productive use of scarce resources, thus, facilitating long term economic growth.

Ghanaian private sector business associations have been in existence since the colonial days. The Ghana National Chamber of Commerce has been known for a long time representing the interest of entrepreneurs with interest in wholesale and retail trade. History tells us that local manufacturers were part of the Chamber but left to form the Federation of Ghanaian Industries which later became known as the Association of Ghana Industries probably because they felt much attention was being paid to commerce to the detriment of industry. The Ghana Employers Association also emerged as a private sector organisation to interact with the labour unions to amicably solve contentious issues particularly those relating to wage negotiations and conditions of service. Since the rise of these associations, many other associations have been formed to represent the interest of their respective members.

In 1994, at the initiative of the four major business associations in the country; the Association of Ghana Industries (AGI), Ghana National Chamber of Commerce and Industry (GNCCI), Federation of Associations of Ghanaian Exporters (FAGE), and the Ghana Employers Association (GEA), the Private Enterprise Foundation (PEF) was formed. The Foundation was to be the lead organisation in influencing government policies and programmes so as to create an enabling environment for private sector growth.

The Business Sector Advocacy Challenge (BUSAC) Fund estimates that there are 1,850 registered business associations in the country. With the launch of BUSAC Fund in Ghana in 2004, there has been a remarkable increase in advocacy actions by many business associations. It is on record that more than a 1000 advocacy actions have been initiated by 360 organisations and the result has been a great number of reforms undertaken by the government to create a conducive investment environment. As stated above, Ghana was for two consecutive years ranked in the top 10 of the World Bank’s Doing Business Report.

**Probe 2: The regulatory framework for economic activities and the extent to which it does facilitate commercial enterprise in the country**

The Companies Act, 1963 (Act 179) is the legal and regulatory framework that governs business enterprises in the country. It is intended for use by licensees of SEC, investors, businessmen and women, professionals, policy makers and students. The code identifies the legal regulatory obligations and procedures required to be complied with.

The Registrar General’s Department (RGD) is responsible for registering businesses in the country. It currently has opened its ultra-modern front office in March 2008 at its head office. It has an on-site bank to facilitate payments. The office is to enable the department provide customer friendly services while preventing leakages. The department is also redesigning all
registration documents and plans to embark on public education and sensitization programmes through radio and television.

The available of the business registration software at RGD allows the department to create a database to electronically store information on all categories of business registrations. The RGD has also invited tenders for the purchase of scanners and appropriate software for capturing data directly from forms into the registration database. The Department has also started a process of decentralizing its operation by opening offices in Kumasi, Takoradi and Tamale (the Takoradi and Kumasi offices are operational). The registration process is done in Accra and documents returned to the offices for distribution. The Northern Regional Administration has given a block of four (4) offices to RGD which is currently undergoing rehabilitation.

The RGD is also using the services of post offices nationwide to deliver business registration services. Registration forms can be purchased, filled and submitted to the post offices to be forwarded to the RGD where they are processed. The RGD would then send the certificates to the post offices for distribution. It is also in the process of providing a Wide Area Network facility to link the branches to the Head Office in Accra. This would enable the offices to undertake the full processes in the registration of businesses.

The Bodies Corporate Act, 1963 (Act 180) also known as the Bankruptcy Bill is being reviewed. Many private sector actors have called for Act 180, 1963 to be reviewed along with the reform of the institutional framework for insolvency proceedings in Ghana. These actors believe that liquidation procedures as currently stated in the Act are cumbersome and also the Law does not provide the opportunity for viable but distressed business to restructure and pay off their debts. Procedures for calling strikes are never restrictive. Aggrieved local workers union before calling a strike goes through a process of negotiation in the presence of the NLC, management of the firm and the Trades Union Congress (TUC). If the negotiations fail, an arbitration process is embarked upon. Should the arbitration process fail, the local union workers have the right to serve a notice for a strike action to management of the firm, the NLC and the TUC. The procedure is to enable amicable settlement of disputes through all means available.

Under the Judicial Sector Reform Programme (JSRP), the Commercial Court was set up to handle disputes among businesses. The Commercial Court was established on March 4th, 2005 with the aim of offering speedy, efficient and effective delivery of justice in commercial disputes. The Commercial Court since its inception has been able to minimize the time and costs of commercial disputes. The Judicial Service has completed a Court of Appeals in Kumasi and will use one of the courts as a Commercial Court. This means there will be two (2) Commercial Courts in the country.

Through the Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanism available at the Commercial Court, MSMEs have a procedure to solve disputes cost effectively. ADR mechanisms that are used in the country include negotiations, mediations and arbitrations. Negotiations procedures usually involve offers and counter-offers being exchanged by the parties involved in the dispute until the proposals are acceptable to both parties. Advocates of contemporary negotiations in the country call for “Good Faith Negotiations” where the parties consider the interest of the other parties and assist in resolving the disputes. The Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) advocates this method of negotiation. In mediation procedures, the parties voluntarily select and invite a neutral third party, to help them in exploring viable options to conclusively resolve disputes amicably. The ADR mechanism at the Commercial Court is free of charge, however if the parties want an independent mediator, the court will recommend one but at a cost.
The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) would like to have more resources in order to do their job more effectively. The BoG for its part has put in place training programs for its staff about jurisdiction overlaps and works with both the SEC and National Insurance Commission (NIC) when it comes to matters relating to securities market developments and insurance activities.

An electronic market surveillance system is being developed by SEC and it is expected to be built on GSE automation. The BoG has e-FASS (Electronic Financial Analysis and Surveillance System) to address electronic market surveillance issues and the introduction of off-shore banking and anti-money laundry Act has helped in monitoring the market. Most rural banks are poorly networked and this makes it difficult to monitor them electronically. However, the BoG has connected some rural banks to the e-FASS and is conducting seminars and training programmes for them. Some of the rural banks have begun submitting returns by e-FASS and the BoG expects majority of the rural banks to be connected by the end of 2009.

Probe 3: Internal and external factors that impact on business activity

Despite the potential role businesses play to accelerated growth and job creation in developing countries, a number of bottlenecks affect their ability to realize their full potential. Business activities are hampered by a number of factors, including finance, lack of managerial skills, equipment and technology, regulatory issues, and access to international markets. The lack of managerial know-how places significant constraints on enterprise development. Even though small and medium enterprises attract motivated managers, they can hardly compete with larger firms. The scarcity of management talent, prevalent in the country, has a magnified impact on SMEs. The lack of support services or their relatively higher unit cost can hamper SMEs’ efforts to improve their management, because consulting firms are often not equipped with appropriate cost-effective management solutions for SMEs. Besides, despite the numerous institutions providing training and advisory services, there is still a skills gap in the SME sector as a whole. This is because entrepreneurs cannot afford the high cost of training and advisory services while others do not see the need to upgrade their skills due to complacency. In terms of technology, businesses in Ghana often have difficulties in gaining access to appropriate technologies and information on available techniques. In most cases, businesses utilise foreign technology with a scarce percentage of shared ownership or leasing. They usually acquire foreign licenses, because local patents are difficult to obtain.

Regulatory constraints also pose serious challenges to businesses in Ghana and although wide-ranging structural reforms have led to some improvements, prospects for enterprise development remain to be addressed at the firm level. The high start-up costs for firms, including licensing and registration requirements, can impose excessive and unnecessary burdens on firms. The high cost of settling legal claims, and excessive delays in court proceedings adversely affect business operations. In Ghana, the cumbersome procedure for registering and commencing businesses are key issues often cited. The World Bank Doing Business Report (2006) indicated that it takes 127 days to deal with licensing issues and there are 16 procedures involved in licensing a business in Ghana. It takes longer (176 days) in South Africa and there were 18 procedures involved in dealing with licensing issues. Meanwhile, the absence of antitrust legislation favours larger firms, while the lack of protection for property rights firms’ access to foreign technologies. Previously insulated from international competition, many SMEs are now faced with greater external competition and the need to expand market share. However, their limited international marketing experience, poor quality control and product standardisation, and little access to
international partners, continue to impede SMEs’ expansion into international markets. They also lack the necessary information about foreign markets.

One important problem that businesses face access to capital; the lack of adequate financial resources places significant constraints on business development. A large portion of the SME sector does not have access to adequate and appropriate forms of credit and equity, or indeed to financial services more generally (Parker et al., 1995). In competing for the corporate market, formal financial institutions have structured their products to serve the needs of large corporations.

*Ghana’s Performance on the promotion of an enabling environment and effective regulatory framework for economic activities*

The World Bank’s *Doing Business* measures and compares the quality of business regulations worldwide by investigating regulations and presenting quantitative “indicators” that measure the total number of days, procedures and costs involved in various stages of the life of a business. The ten regulatory areas of the scale are represented by ten indicators: Starting a Business, Dealing with Construction Permits, Employing Workers, Registering Property, Getting Credit, Protecting Investors, Paying Taxes, Trading across Borders, Enforcing Contracts and Closing a Business (IFC, WB 2007).

Ghana has featured prominently, partly because of its consistently good performance in regulatory reform and partly because of the central, yet unacknowledged, role played by Ghanaian women with their contribution to national output (IFC, 2007). According to Hampel-Milagrosa (2011), Ghana belonged to the top reformers’ club for two years running, being ranked 94th of 175 in *Doing Business* 2007 as a result of reforms that made it easier to register property, pay taxes and trade across borders. In *Doing Business* 2008, Ghana ranked 87th of 178 economies, having made the most progress in reducing the number of days required for the issue of a land registration number. This resulted in a huge jump from 113th in this indicator in 2007 to 26th in the 2008 report. While Ghana did not join the top reformers in the 2009 and 2010 *Doing Business* reports, it still came 87th of 181 economies and 92nd of 183 economies, respectively. The following table shows Ghana’s standing in each of the ten indicators in the past four years. Table 1 shows Ghana’s performance in Doing Business for the period 2007-2010.

**Table 1: Ghana’s performance in Doing Business 2007–2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Ease of...</th>
<th>2007 rank</th>
<th>2008 rank</th>
<th>2009 rank</th>
<th>2010 rank</th>
<th>2011 rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Doing Business (Overall Ranking)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Starting a Business</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Dealing with Construction Permits</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Registering Property</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Getting Credit</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Protecting Investors</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Paying Taxes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Trading Across Borders</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Enforcing Contracts</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Closing a Business</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ghana continued to seriously commit to reforms to enhance its competitiveness and as such was singled out by *Doing Business* 2010 as a “systematic reformer” – successfully changing laws in at least five areas covered by the *Doing Business* project over the previous five years (ibid.).

**Objective 2: Ensure that corporations act as good corporate citizens with regard to human rights, social responsibility and environmental sustainability**

**Probe 1: Legal and administrative measures in place in the country to meet human rights including adherence to labour obligations, social responsibility, and matters relating to the environment**

In Ghana, the 1992 Constitution guarantees the formation and protection of trade unions. Article 21(1)e provides that … all persons shall have the right to freedom of association, which shall include the freedom to form or join trade unions or other associations, national and international, for the protection of their interest. Article 24(1)3 provides that every worker has a right to form or join a trade union of his/her own choice for the promotion and protection of his/her economic and social interest.

The National Labour Commission is essentially a regulatory body. It was established by the Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651), which gives the Commission powers to receive complaints from workers, trade unions, employers and employers’ organizations on industrial disagreements, and allegations of infringement of any requirements of the Labour Act and its Regulations. The Commissions’ main functions are to facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes, settle industrial disputes, and investigate labour related complaints, in particular unfair labour practices, and take measures as it considers necessary to prevent labour disputes.

The Ghana Universal Salary Structure (GUSS) was introduced in 1997 and it was to be implemented in phases to cover employees in public sector. The aim of the GUSS was to gradually eliminate disparities and distortions in the salary structure. It is against this background that the Fair Wages and Salaries Commission Act, 2007 (ACT 737) was enacted to establish the Fair Wages and Salaries Commission.

The Commission ensures that fair, transparent and systematic implementation of public service pay policy, proper management and co-ordinate decisions related to salaries, wages grading, classification and job analysis, among other related issues. The Commission is responsible for managing the new Single Spine Pay Policy (SSPP) which has been put forward to restore equity and transparency in public service pay administration.

There are two recognized trades union in the country: the Ghana Trades Union Congress (TUC) and the Ghana Federation of Labour. The Industrial Relations Act of 1958 recognized the TUC as the sole national trade union center representing workers. Amendments to the Act in the coming years led to the Industrial Relations Act, 1965 (Act 229) which become the main framework for industrial relations in the country and also recognized TUC as the representatives of workers but left room for the emergence of other unions. Today, the TUC has 17 unions with the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and Civil Servants Association (CSA) existing outside it. The Ghana Federation of Labour was established in 1999 as an umbrella organization for several independent trade unions. It is estimated that there are about 350,000 members of the workforce belonging to the trade unions.
**Probe 2: Extent to which corporations are responsive to the concerns of the communities in which they operate**

Many companies especially the Mining and Telecommunication companies have been involved in projects concerning health care in some communities in Ghana. Telecommunication companies have helped in projects including building and renovating schools, provisions of health and sanitation facilities, and even sponsored some students to further their education. Zain Ghana for instance has equipped clinics and schools in Bonsaaso Millennium Village Cluster, in “the Amansie-West district of the Ashanti region with fixed wireless terminals and toll-free numbers for the emergency services and healthcare workers – allowing for a quicker and more efficient delivery of such services. Zain is also providing SIM cards with a closed user group facility, allowing the healthcare workers to consult each other free of charge with Sony Ericsson also donating the mobile handsets to the community health workers and emergency services. Ericsson has also provided solar powered chargers for the mobile phones – ensuring that these healthcare lifelines are available at all times”\(^{11}\).

There are several corporate social responsibility projects initiated by companies to help residents in communities in which they operate. Examples abound of various companies that have set up foundations to help students, families, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and communities among others. Most of the telecommunications companies have foundations that aim to make a difference in the lives of people and the communities they operate it. MTN Ghana has the MTN Ghana Foundation, Vodafone recently launched its Vodafone Ghana Foundation, Millicom Ghana Limited has its Fraternity for Humanity initiative.

**Probe 3: Measures put in place to ensure sustainable environmental management on the part of the corporation**

There are numerous environmental problems in Ghana. Prominent among them are inadequate sanitary infrastructure, discharge of domestic wastewater into drains, inefficient drainage systems and poor management of sewage treatment infrastructure, discharge of untreated and poorly treated industrial waste into surface water bodies or drains, improper citing of some industries, operation of obsolete industrial plants and equipment and the concentration of industries in coastal districts, particularly Accra and Tema (GSS 2000; Soeftestad 1996).

Ghana, in June 2007 officially announced oil and gas discovery in the western part of the country. The exploration of these natural reserves is likely to cause environmental hazards in the exploration area and will require well planned environmental management and control, to mitigate the effect on the people and the ecology. The exploration makes the issue more alarming because it is an offshore activity and practically a new economic activity in Ghana. With Ghana’s experience with environmental pollution caused by the metal mining industry, Ghana’s record in the management of environmental issues can be determined from the mining. The cyanide spillage caused by the Goldfields Ghana Limited (GGL) in 2001 is a classic example of poor environmental management in Ghana. However, there is evidence showing improved environmental performance in the mining industry due to the introduction of new technologies, through Foreign Direct Investment (Marful-Sau, 2009)\(^{12}\).


\(^{12}\) Marful-Sau, Samuel (2009). Is Ghana Prepared to Manage the Potential Environmental Challenges of an Oil and
On the part of the State, efficient and effective institutions to implement and enforce environmental laws and regulations have been established in addition to reforming the existing institutional and legal frameworks mandated to protect the environment. The primary institution established to ensure environmental protection in Ghana is the Environmental Protection Agency, (EPA), created under the Environmental Protection Agency Act, Act 490 of 1994. The policy direction of the Agency is contained in the Environmental Assessment Regulations, LI 1652. These two legislations empower the Agency to manage, control and monitor compliance of environmental regulations by specific industries. In the petroleum industry, the Ghana National Petroleum Corporation, (GNPC), is also mandated to ensure sound environmental practices in the country. Section 2 (1) (e) of the Ghana National Petroleum Corporation Law, 1983 (PNDC Law 64), mandates the GNPC to ensure that petroleum operations are conducted in such a manner as to prevent adverse effects on the environment. In Ghana therefore, the Petroleum Law, the Environmental Protection Agency Act, Act 490 of 1994, the Environmental Assessment Regulation, LI 1652, and Ghana National Petroleum Corporation Law are the legal framework for the management and control of the adverse impact on the environment, in the petroleum industry.

For Ghana to achieve sustainable environmental management, government must strengthen regulatory framework for enforcing corporate environmental performance. In Ghana, small and medium scale enterprises usually have poor environmental performance standards firstly because they lack strong governance structures that could be held accountable for environmental impacts and also because their environmental paths are small and localised and therefore easily goes unnoticed.

**Objective 3: Promoting the adoption of codes of good business ethics in achieving the objectives of the corporation**

**Probe 1: Assessment of corporate integrity in the country**

The Ministry of Trade and Industry (MOTI) has tasked the Consumers’ Association of Ghana (CAG) and PricewaterhouseCoopers to develop a consumer protection policy. This drafted policy has been passed on to the Ministry and based on the policy a consumer protection law will be enacted. As the drafted policy has not been approved, there is no Consumer Protection Law in Ghana.

The Serious Fraud Office (SFO), Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ), Public Accounts Committee (PAC) and Auditor-General all have their own set of activities that ensure the effective implementation of corruption related laws. SFO has a set of policies that seek to minimize economic loss to the state by individuals using state assets and also conducts seminars to educate people on economic loss or misuse of government funds.
CHRAJ has developed conflict of interest guidelines which parliament wants the commission to send to the floor. The Commission’s anti-corruption unit is now a full department. The PAC works with the Auditor-General to provide independent assurance to parliament and other stakeholders that public funds are not only fully received and accounted for but are used wisely towards the attainment of development goals that are planned for and approved in the budgets of the various institutions.

However, there are still issues in effectively implementing corruption related laws, for example, there are currently no special courts that tackle economic crime cases and the traditional courts are few and have many cases to handle.

**Probe 2: Entities actively engaged in promoting adoption of codes of good business ethics in the country**

The Institute of Directors (IoD) focuses on educating the business community on good corporate governance practices. The IoD runs customized training programmes three (3) times a year for directors of companies. Organisations that have benefitted from such training include Student Loan Trust, Quality Assurance Company, and Apex Rural Banks among others. After the training programmes, the IoD supports these organisations by calling on them from time to time to monitor progress.

The Institute of Directors (IoD) is a centre for educating the business community on good corporate governance practices. The Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) also organizes courses for the business community and the general public on corporate governance principles. The IoD runs customized training programmes three (3) times a year for directors of companies.

The Ghana Shareholders’ Association has been formed and registered but the details of its regulation and functions are not finalised, a committee is working to ensure that the Association is fully functional. It is hoped that this association can bring all shareholders together.

Three key business associations in Ghana; Association of Ghana Industries (AGI), Ghana National Chamber of Commerce and Industry (GNCCI) and Ghana Employers Association (GEA) with support from the Improving Business Practice (IBP) sub-component of the DANIDA-funded Business Sector Programme Support (BSPS) have introduced the Ghana Business Code, which is aligned to the UN Global Compact.

Although the Code is not binding it uses a 10-point format which addresses issues of human rights, labour standards, issues of the environment, anti-corruption and ethical business practices to ensure fair treatment of all business stakeholders. The Ghana Investment Promotion Centre (GIPC) in launching the 2009 Ghana Club 100 Awards used an evaluation criterion for CSR as spelt out in the Ghana Business Code. Increasingly, companies in Ghana are getting more involved in CSR activities and are all making efforts to improve the development of local communities.

**Probe 3: Access to information on corporations in the private and public sectors**

The Institute of Financial and Economic Journalists (IFEJ) is an independent private sector led institution which receives funding support from donor agencies such as Friedrich Ebert Foundation, the International Finance Corporation (IFC)/Good Morning Africa and corporate bodies such as Barclays Bank and Unilever Ghana limited. IFEJ notes that there is not a single educational institution primarily setup to train students in financial and economic journalism and
also serve as the hub of financial research; as IFEJ itself lacks the resources to undertake the training.

Other institutions such as the Ghana Stock Exchange, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Ghana Export Promotion Council, the Association of Ghana Industries, Private Enterprise Foundation, Africa Asia Business Association to mention but a few all provide information on corporations in the private and public sectors of Ghana.

**Probe 4: Existence of capacity and appropriate skills for regulatory oversight**

Ghana is one of the best performers in Sub-Saharan Africa when it comes to the business environment. And currently ranks as number 5 in Africa on the ease of doing business and number 67 worldwide (World Bank Discussion Paper, 2011). Ghana has also steadily improved its ranking on the Transparency International’s CPI scale and currently ranks number 62 out of 180 countries (ibid).

The public procurement system established in 1996 is an integral part of a wider Public Financial Management Reform Programme (PFMRP). Based on identified shortcomings and organizational weaknesses inherent in the country’s procurement system and Country Procurement Assessment Reports, the Public Procurement Act (Act 663) was drafted and implemented. As part of a broader assessment of the Ghana public financial management system, the Government and development partners carried out an assessment of the Ghana public procurement system and Ghana was seen as among the first countries to apply the OECD-DAC Assessment Methodology. The assessment findings confirmed that substantial progress had been achieved since 2003 (ibid).

The Oil and Gas Capacity Building Project has been prepared in response to challenges and to support Government’s desire to rapidly fix them as stated by Sunil Mathrani, World Bank Task Team Leader for the Project. The Project will provide institutional support to the Ministry of Energy and the petroleum regulatory bodies to enable them play their oversight, coordination, policy planning, and implementation, monitoring and evaluation roles effectively. Upgrading of institutions such as the Ghana National Petroleum Corporation as petroleum data repository; and the Environmental Protection Agency to enhance its ability to manage and monitor environmental issues in the oil and gas sector. Educational institutions targeted will provide support to the human capital development to improve the provision of technical skills development.

**Objective 4: Ensuring that corporations treat all their stakeholders including shareholders, employees, communities and suppliers fairly**

**Probe 1: Corporate Governance concepts of accountability to shareholders and responsibility to stakeholders including legal and administrative measures in place in the country to meet human rights**

*Respect for labour obligations*

Government of Ghana’s respect for labour organizations is seen through government’s efforts towards the establishment of labour standards, the enactment of laws and an elaborate legal
framework that regulates employment, working conditions and labour relations. According to the National Employment Policy report, various institutions and structures have been created at the national and enterprise levels to coordinate and discuss labour matters, promote social dialogue and prevent disputes in corporations. The Labour Act spells out the rights and responsibility of workers and employers thereby avoiding conflicts and promoting social partnerships (ibid).

**Probe 2: Evidence of existence, compliance and enforcement of legislation or codes of conduct governing the direct relationship between stakeholders and corporations**

The Bodies Corporate Act, 1963 (Act 180) also known as the Bankruptcy Bill is being reviewed. Many private sector actors have called for Act 180, 1963 to be reviewed along with the reform of the institutional framework for insolvency proceedings in Ghana. These actors believe that liquidation procedures as currently stated in the Act are cumbersome and also the Law does not provide the opportunity for viable but distressed business to restructure and pay off their debts.

The Personal Insolvency Bill was passed into law, Personal Insolvency Act, 2006 (Act 708). It was granted Presidential Accent on April 21, 2006.

**Probe 3: Shareholders rights**

Three (3) Acts are to be promulgated, namely: the Rights to Information Act, Data Protection Act and the Law for the Acceptability of Electronic-based Documents and Forms (on-line registration). These are to give legal backing to electronic display of company information but are currently at the drafting stage at the Ministry of Justice and Attorney-General’s Department.

**Probe 4: Access to information and participation rights in relevant fora ensured for corporations’ stakeholders**

Information flow is essential for a corporation’s stakeholders as it helps the different stakeholders in the corporation perform efficiently and effectively. As they appear in different forms, information is used by a range of stakeholders, such as communities, investors, employees, suppliers, and customers, often through reporting procedures mostly based on defined indicators. Within corporations, information is used by management to monitor performance efficiency and the impacts of operations whilst for stakeholders it establishes, understands, and question policies, practices, and regulations of a corporation.

Information is needed to exercise the right of corporation’s stakeholders and to contribute safely and productively to the progress of corporations. Enterprises need information to educate employees, management and stakeholders about changing trends, constraints and opportunities and many other areas of interest. Failure to address stakeholder concerns has been costly to corporations, and individual companies have suffered significantly from stakeholder reaction to errant and ill-received operational and business practices (MMSD Report, 2002). For corporations, issues centre on obtaining information to enable effective economic and financial management of the business, including compliance with regulatory requirements.

The government of Ghana by way of ensuring access to information and participation rights continues to be responsible for setting norms and standards and for regulating corporation’s
adherence to them. Regarding information, GoG has created and put into practice legal and regulatory provisions permitting corporations and their stakeholder’s free access to any information in government possession, for which there is not a valid and publicly stated reason for nondisclosure. This can be seen in the creation of the Companies Act, 1963 (Act 179), the legal and regulatory framework that governs business enterprises in the country and is intended for use by licensees of stakeholders namely SEC, investors, businessmen and women, professionals, policy makers and students. Again, GoG creates mechanisms and has established contact points for the regular exchange of information with civil society, an example being public information repositories in MDAs and communities.

In ensuring access to information on projects, Government further develops an information and communication strategy for the various phases of the project which extends to monitoring, auditing, and reporting. Public comments are solicited and considered implying that Government and civil society organizations do work together to expand the availability of information to grassroots corporations and communities and ensure that information arrives in the form appropriate to the intended recipients, at the appropriate time, and that it reaches all key intended recipients.

Development of codes and regulations for corporations in Ghana is increasingly ensuring that benchmarks for public reporting practice based on verifiable criteria related to the degree to which information is effectively made available at the community level are establish. This is displayed by the role that some public and private institutions such as the Ghana Stock Exchange, Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, Ghana Export Promotion Council, the Association of Ghana Industries, Private Enterprise Foundation, play in the provision of information on corporations in the private and public sectors of Ghana.

**Objective 5: Providing for accountability of corporations, directors and officers**

The Companies Code requires companies to submit timely and accurate disclosure of corporate information. Companies hardly comply with the directive. The Registrar-General’s Department is not resourced enough to ensure compliance of the directive. The Companies Code is not specific on the appointment of independent directors. It is also silent on the executive chairmanship. The Security Exchange Commission requires public companies to show evidence of an audit subcommittee and the composition of the sub-committee. In addition, the SEC voluntary guidelines require a non-executive chairperson of the Audit Committee.

Preparation and presentation of Financial Statements is done in accordance with the Ghana National Accounting Standards and other accounting standards and principles issued by the Institute of Chartered Accountants (ICA) Ghana. Companies are required to disclose deviations from ICA standards. An independent audit reports expressing opinion on the financial statements accompanies the financial reports. Companies especially those listed on the exchange and banks are required to circulate published financial reports (both interim and annual) to its shareholders and regulators within the time frames specified by law and regulation.

The Bank of Ghana, which regulates the activities of commercial and non-bank financial institutions, meets and discuss with external auditors specific items in the published statement of accounts and may require full disclosure. This internal exercise is supervised by the Audit Committee of the Board of the Banks.
Recommendations

Corporate governance in Ghana has really come a long way and this is reflected in the Doing Business Report of the World Bank. However, the following recommendations are made to strengthen corporate governance practices in the country. First, there is the need to integrate the informal sector into the formal sector by making the cost and procedures for registration easier and less cumbersome. Secondly, some standards and codes on corporate governance remain to be ratified. For instance, there is no law dealing with health and safety standards in agriculture and therefore the need to expedite the drafting and passing of a bill. Last but not the least, the bankruptcy bill needs to be reviewed and passed since the legislative process for filling bankruptcy in the country is still too cumbersome. Finally, for Ghana to achieve sustainable environmental management, government must strengthen regulatory framework for enforcing corporate environmental performance.
IV. SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND GOVERNANCE

By Adwoa Bame

Overview

The country’s current national socio-economic development framework is known as the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA 2010-2013). It is the successor to the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS-II 2006-2009). Together, these medium-term policy documents have provided the platform for the incorporation of relevant international development declarations and agreements such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the NEPAD Declaration, the World Summit on Sustainable Development, CEDAW, etc., into the national development agenda.

Apart from the policy frameworks’ Annual Progress Reports (APRs) which are prepared by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC), with the active involvement of national inter-agency poverty monitoring groups. Other evaluation studies have been done by organizations such as the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) Panel of Eminent Persons, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), UNICEF, the World Bank, the IMF and various civil society groups.

In the GPRS-II, as in GPRS-I, the macroeconomic goals were economic stabilization and economic growth. According to local and external economic experts, the primary reason for the deteriorating fiscal performance over the last four years is the rapid growth of expenditure. This is often accounted for by wage or salary outlays and other expenditure by government.

Despite the inconsistent macro-economic performance, the various sectors identified in the GPRS-I and II have done fairly well over the period. Agricultural performance since 2004, for example, has generally been in line with GPRS projections and outlined interventions in policy documents. This has been accompanied by improved household incomes and food security (APR 2008).

Policy interventions carried out towards the attainment of universal primary education have led to considerable growth in enrolment in public basic schools nationwide but this has also resulted in an increase in the pupil-teacher ratio, particularly in deprived schools.

On the health front, progress has been made in bridging the equity gap in access to health, improving hospital attendance, immunization and antenatal care (ANC) coverage and supervised delivery. There has also been significant reduction in the incidence of malaria, HIV and the Guinea Worm disease. The most significant pro-poor intervention in the health sector has been the establishment of the National Health Insurance System (NHIS) in 2000. It enables Ghanaians to access essential health services at modest cost. The total number of NHIS cardholders in 2008 was 12,468,558, representing 54% of Ghana’s population.
Unemployment is a major problem but figures are hard to come by. The introduction of a national youth employment programme, NYEP, a nationally organized apprenticeship scheme designed to impart employable skills to the unemployed youth as well as facilitate their entrance into working life, has been the most extensive programme designed to deal with the problem during the period under review.

Progress has also been made in terms of increasing access to safe water and better sanitation. However, these achievements have been significantly below targets set in the GPRS documents. Measures at ensuring environmental sustainability have also been assessed to be inadequate. Also, not all programmes are tracked by the Annual Progress Reports. In general though, remarkable progress have been made in achieving most of the MDGs.

It has been observed that while the financial commitment to social programmes has been increasing over the years, external support has often been pivotal, making the risk of disruption a real possibility if external funding were to decrease.

**Overarching Recommendations**

To ensure improved and more sustainable outcomes, reviewers have recommended, among other things, the need to balance sound macroeconomic policies with policies to reduce poverty and inequities in the economy; as well as the need for improvement in the way the consultative and participatory processes are carried out to ensure better citizen ownership as large sections of the society still remain ignorant of the country’s development frameworks. They also recommend transparency and integrity in governance to encourage citizens believe that their sacrifices would be worth the effort.

Other important recommendations include improving expenditure management, effective management of public debt, and improving fiscal resource mobilization and agriculture productivity closer to its actual potential. As well, they recommend diversifying the economy and maintain GDP rates above 6 percent to ensure significant improvement in the standard of living of most of the population. All of these are recognized in the country’s policy development frameworks but results have either fallen short or been uneven. (More specific recommendations appear in part 4.3 of this section.)

**About this Section**

Socio-economic development in the light of the NEPAD declaration implies the continuous improvement in the well being and in the standard of living of the African peoples. This section highlights efforts and progress made in designing appropriate policies and delivery mechanisms in key social development areas. It constitutes the formation of a normative framework to be used in future governance monitoring efforts. It consists of: an enumeration standards and codes, including the relevant global, continental and regional treaties that Ghana is party to; a general analysis of socio-economic policies; a report on the six socio-economic objectives laid out in the NEPAD Declaration of Democracy, Political and Economic Governance. They include:

- Promote self reliance and build capacity for self sustaining development
- Accelerate socio-economic objectives to achieve sustainable development and poverty eradication
• Strengthen policies, delivery mechanisms and outputs in key social development areas including education for all, combating HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases
• Ensuring affordable access to water, energy, finance (including microfinance), markets and ICT to all citizens, especially the rural poor
• Progress towards gender equality, particularly equal access to education for girls at all levels
• Encourage broad based participation in development by all stakeholders at all levels

In the appendices, which appear after the section’s conclusion and references, are two tools to aid in future governance monitoring efforts: a socio-economic development indicators matrix and a summary table of baseline data that can be updated on an ongoing basis.

**Analysis of National Socio-economic Development Practices and Findings**

**Implementation of Standards and Codes**

Ghana is a founding member of African Union (formerly the OAU), and since the formation of the AU, Ghana has made remarkable progress in ratifying the codes and standards enumerated in the socio-economic development objectives of the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) as well as several international treaties (APRM, 2005).

Since the restoration of civilian rule in 1992, Ghana has taken steps to implement most of the AU Protocols, Conventions, Decisions and Best Practice Standards with the principal aim of promoting and enhancing governance, socio-economic development, human welfare and sustainable environment. These include:


In 2003, Ghana acceded to the NEPAD Framework Document and was the first African country to open itself to the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), a system introduced by the AU and its development program, the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD), to help countries in Africa improve their governance.


Ghana ratified the Charter on Humans and Peoples’ Rights (1981) on 03/07/2004 having signed and deposited on 24/01/1989 and 01/03/1989 respectively. Since the restoration of civilian rule in 1993, Ghana has taken steps to respect human rights and promote governance. Fundamental Human Rights are guaranteed in the 1992 Constitution. Article 12 (2) of Chapter 5 of the Constitution states that, “every person in Ghana, whatever his race, place of origin, political opinion, colour, religion, creed or gender shall be entitled to fundamental human rights and freedoms but subject to the respect for the rights and freedoms of others and for public interest”. The Directive Principles of State Policy contained in Chapter 6 of the Constitution provides the guidelines for ensuring peoples right to development.


**Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)**

Ghana, having signed the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) on 18/12/1979 and ratified it on 02/01/1986, took steps to domestic it by enacting the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732).

The process of translating standards and codes into local laws is being pursued in a number of cases. Others, some of which Ghana is a signatory to, others are yet to be ratified, partly as a result of financial constraints and lengthy bureaucratic procedures. There is a general lack of awareness of such standards, and the ratification status of some cannot be ascertained from implementing institutions (APRM, 2005). These include:

- African Charter for Popular Participation in Development (1990)
- United Nations Declaration on the Right to Development
- The World Summit on Social Development Plan of Action (1995)

The main reason given for non-ratification is that government does not want to commit itself to treaties that it does not have the capacity to enforce because non-compliance also means penalties. According to Dr. Tony Aidoo, Senior Government Officer, Project Monitoring and Evaluation Unit of NDC Government, “Non-ratification of the conventions by government is sometimes attributed to the fear of non-performance and sanctions that come with it. But, he added, non-ratification does not necessarily mean that Ghana has not signed some of the above protocols. One difficulty in Ghana is that there is no up-to-date list of the international treaty obligations that Ghana has ratified or not ratified, signed or not signed, in part because there is no government ministry or agency charged with the task of compiling these data. It is also difficult to ascertain the concise reasons behind non-ratification.

**Context of Socio-economic Development in Ghana**

During the colonial era, churches in Ghana were in the lead in providing formal education and health services to the ordinary people. However, after independence, these efforts were found to be inadequate to meet the needs of the growing mass of people who were leaving agricultural households to seek urban industrial jobs (Aryeetey and Goldstein, 1999).

The first post-independence government of Ghana emphasized industrialization for addressing poverty and deprivation. It drew up the country’s first long term development plan, a 7-year plan (1963–70) which laid the foundation for industrial activity, providing the context for Ghana’s economic-development strategy.

Alongside this strategy, public interventions and expenditure patterns exhibited a high level of social orientation. The social sector’s share of government spending between 1960 and 1965 followed a sustained upward trend; access to education and health rapidly expanded as charges for accessing these services were removed and there was rapid construction of schools and health
facilities. Formal employment also went up with the setting up of factories and investment in infrastructural development.

Rising incomes from wage labour were expected to stimulate competition that would in turn lead to higher agricultural incomes and improved levels of social well-being. Budgetary allocations to primary, secondary and tertiary education were increased. The policy of tuition-free education was introduced with the 1961 Education Act.

Efforts were made to render health care more accessible and meet the housing needs of the rapidly growing urban population as the plan recognized housing for the urban population as the most pressing need at the time. These developments contributed to Ghana experiencing rapid economic growth in the early 1960s, pushing it into high per capita income bracket. However, a dramatic fall in the price of the country’s major export commodity, cocoa, in 1965, put severe strain on the economy. Political instability as well as flawed economic policies took a heavy toll on the country’s economy, resulting in sharp decline in standards of living in the mid-1970s. As Aryeetey and Goldstein describe it:

By the end of the 1970s, no clear pattern had emerged in Ghana’s social policy. Public expenditure on social services had grown in the 1970s (rising to 46% of the total budget in fiscal year 1976/77) but by the end of the decade, it had returned to more modest levels. In 1981, expenditures on social sectors constituted only 33% of total spending (ISSER 1996).

Towards the end of the 1970s, large fiscal deficits, financed primarily by borrowing from the domestic banks, in turn, gave rise to high rates of inflation and an overvalued currency. The severe shortage of foreign exchange and imported goods led to a deterioration of services and a decline in capital investments.

As domestic resources shrank, the demand for foreign assistance grew significantly. These problems were exacerbated by sluggish export performance, worsening social conditions, as a result of food insecurity; inadequate housing; and rising unemployment.

As the economy continued its downward slope, Ghana came under increasing pressure to undertake economic reform and ensure more effective and efficient resource allocation.

By 1983, when the country adopted an Economic Recovery Programme (ERP), which was based on the principles of structural adjustment, the economy was in a very precarious state; shortages of food and fuel had become characteristic of national life, alongside very high rates of inflation and deteriorating infrastructure (ISSER 1994).

The ERP, backed with loans from the World Bank and the IMF, managed to turn back years of negative growth. The program focused on reducing government expenditure by carrying out massive retrenchment in the public service, removing subsidies, liberalizing prices and ensuring cost recovery in the delivery of social services, among others.

While the reform program helped in reining in inflation and reducing pressure on the state treasury, it had the effect of causing the number of unemployed to swell through the retrenchment programs. The program also resulted in increased the costs of accessing social services such as health, education, electricity, water and sanitation.
In terms of expenditure, according to Aryeetey and Goldstein:

[S]ocial spending as a share of total government spending actually increased from a low level of 31% in 1983 to a high of 46% in 1990. Much of this increase was sustained by significant increases in donor inflows. By 1991, donor contributions to social spending reached 34.6% of the total. After 1990, this trend was reversed, and as Aid declined the government’s spending on social sectors fell sharply.

Another reason for the decline in spending on social services was the cost of servicing the country’s debts. The share of interest payments doubled between 1990 and 1994, from 10% to 20% of the total.

In recognition of the high cost of the reforms on the poor and vulnerable in society, the government rolled out a Programme of Action to Mitigate the Cost of Structural Adjustment (PAMSCAD) described here by Aryeetey and Goldstein:

In February 1988, donors pledged a total of 85.7 million USD to fund 23 projects under the PAMSCAD umbrella. Entailing collaboration between donors, district governments, and communities, PAMSCAD comprised many projects, including a range of community initiatives; education, employment, and income-generation projects; and specific assistance for retrenched public sector workers.

PAMSCAD was however plagued by problems from the start. Mid-term and final reviews of the program cited a variety of obstacles to its success, ranging from the slow disbursement of funds by donors to PAMSCAD’s overreliance on existing institutions, which in many cases possessed inadequate capacity to meet the demands of the initiative (Kwadzo and Kumekpor, 1994).

As one review of PAMSCAD explained, “there was a clear mismatch between expected project outputs and the ability of implementing agencies in terms of manpower available (both skills and number) and other inputs” (Kwadzo and Kumekpor 1994, p. 4).

In the end, PAMSCAD, in both its design and implementation, failed to adequately address the social costs of the ERP.

In the 1990s, it had become evident that extreme poverty persisted in a number of African countries despite a decade of structural adjustment policies. With some prodding from donor institutions, a number of African countries including Ghana, began to draw up the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers. In contrast to PAMSCAD, the PRSPs were more comprehensive, better targeted and promoted the concepts of civil society participation.

In Ghana, policy intentions to introduce free and compulsory education were announced, as were declarations to reduce cost of health to pregnant women and indigents. However, rhetoric and practice did not always go together. Up to the year 2003 for instance, the practice of detaining pregnant women in hospitals because they could not pay the cost of health services had became embarrassingly common.

The status of policy documents drawn up by the NDPC and other agencies is not clear. The documents were sometimes cited by government officials as expressions of government intentions, but there is no effective system for demanding compliance with these documents or
monitoring compliance. As in the previous decade, it was observed that social interventions, in particular, were mostly supported by donor agencies (Aryeetey and Goldstein, 1999).

**Compliance with the National Socio-economic Development Normative Framework**

The launch of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS-I) marked a significant change in policymaking. The process of drawing up of GPRS-I was more participatory than with previous national policy papers. (These were Making People Matter: A Human Development Strategy for Ghana (1991), followed by the National Development Policy Framework (1994), later renamed Vision 2020, and the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper in 2000.) GPRS-I contained clearer targets and identified ministries and agencies responsible for specific activities and included a mechanism for monitoring compliance with measures and goals set in the document.

Formulated to enable Ghana to benefit from a significant measure of debt relief under the global HIPC initiative, it aimed to position the country in an improved macroeconomic environment in order to address critical issues of poverty on an emergency basis (GPRS II p. 4). Other goals of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) paper were to “ensure sustainable and equitable growth and the protection of the vulnerable and excluded within a decentralized, democratic environment” over a three-year period, 2002-2005. It focused on the following areas: Production and gainful employment; human resource development and basic services; and special programs for the poor and vulnerable; governance. Building on the achievements of GPRS-I, GPRS-II focused on similar thematic areas and sought to “accelerate the growth of the economy so that Ghana can achieve middle-income status within a measurable planning period (GPRS-II, 2006).

(A) Economic Growth

According to the Annual Progress Reports, (APR 2007, 2008), macroeconomic indicators under GPRS-II posted mixed results. It was projected that the economy would grow at an annual rate 6 to 8 percent, a goal which was generally achieved, as noted by the APR (2008): “the real GDP growth rate continued its upward trend since 2001 to the peak of 7.3% in 2008.”

The growth in agriculture and infrastructure development has been attributed to the measures outlined in the earlier poverty reduction papers as well as GPRS I and II (APR 2004-2008).

In terms of results, the country’s inflation rate came down significantly from 40.5 percent in December 2000 to 11.8 percent by December 2004 but rose from 12.8% in January 2008 to 18.1% in December 2008.

The 2008 fiscal performance was the worst recorded since 2001. The government budget recorded a negative balance during the year equivalent to about 11.25% (compared to 8.06% in 2007 and a budget target of 4% for the year. This relatively high budget deficit has been attributed to higher than anticipated increases in discretionary expenditure, especially, in government wage bill and domestic investment, which increased by over 40% and 96% respectively during the year. (APR 2008).

The Centre for Policy Analysis (CEPA) in its report on the Current State of the Macro Economy of Ghana, 2000-2009, attributed the primary reason for the deteriorating fiscal performance over the last four years to rapid growth of expenditure:
In each of these years, expenditure has risen faster than national income and overshot the budgetary provision by considerable margins. Thus, from a share of 26 percent of national income in 2005, the share of domestic expenditure rose to 30.1 percent in 2006 and then to an estimated 30.7 percent in 2007 and 2008 points to a share of at least 38 percent of national income.

(B) Agriculture

One very important area under the various medium term programs has been agriculture. It is the highest sector employer and is seen as capable of helping the country achieve a number of socio economic goals; including high economic growth, food sufficiency and security, reduction in the number of the unemployed, increased exports and cutting down of imports.

GPRS II projects that in order to achieve accelerated growth in Ghana’s agriculture; a number of key interventions would be initiated to improve agricultural productivity. These include strategic research and development activities, appropriate financing for the sector, value addition and improved marketing, efficient organization of production, and enhanced capacity of producers.

Ghana’s action plan on agriculture to a great extent is integrated to existing national policies, programs and partnerships such as the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The National Action Plan (NAP) to Combat Desertification and the Economic Community of West African States Agricultural Programme (ECOWAAP). The policies aim at modernizing Ghana agriculture and contribute towards the attainment of middle-income status country by 2015.

As a long term policy, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture has developed interventions which address strategies outlined in the New Partnership for African Development policy pillars (CAADP), especially those on sustainable land management and water control structures, enhancement of food supply and reduction of hunger, development of agriculture research, dissemination and adoption.

These policies include Agricultural Sustainable Land Management Strategy and Action Plan (SLM), 2009-2015 and Medium Term Agriculture Sector Investment Plan (METASIP), 2009-2015 which are derived from the overarching policy framework of Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP I and II). Programme objectives include increased food production and income generation, increased inter-country trade, strengthened producers’ organization and greater involvement of women in socio-economic decisions that affect household livelihoods opportunities including agriculture modernization.

The broad policy interventions to address the CAADP which are also integrated into national policies and budgetary allocation with the view to achieve sustainable agricultural development are:

- Food security and emergency preparedness
- Increased growth in incomes
- Increased competitiveness and enhanced integration into domestic and international markets
- Sustainable management and environment
Science and technology in food agriculture development
Improved institutional coordination including agriculture sub-sector polices.
Youth in Agriculture and gender mainstreaming, and
Improved financing services

The objectives of these policies and action plans are expected to contribute to the overall achievement of food production and security, and income generation and agriculture modernization in Ghana. The policies also seek to address issues concerning land reforms and land acquisition, property rights, accelerating provision of irrigation infrastructure, enhancing access to credit and inputs for agriculture, promoting selective crop development, improving access to mechanized agriculture, increasing access to extension services, provision of infrastructure for aquaculture, and restoration of degraded environment, desertification and climate change (particularly the northern savannah zones of the country) and sustainable land and water management. From the foregoing discussion, CAADP has provided a broad framework for Ghana agricultural development.

In terms of actual performance, agriculture performance has generally been in line with GPRS projections. Agriculture has been registering impressive output since 2003, accompanied by improved household incomes and food security. It has recorded very impressive growth rates on account of increased crops and livestock production, as well as cocoa production and marketing (APR 2008).

Increases in agricultural output resulted from both land intensification and expansion, measures outlined in GPRS II. The appropriate mix of interventions “have resulted in this level of output, including supply of improved seeds and subsidized agrochemicals, increased extension and technology dissemination coverage, and mechanized services for land preparation” (APR 2008). In other words, measures identified in the GPRS I and II to improve agriculture appear to be finally yielding results.

However, the growth rates experienced so far falls short of the target set in the New Economic Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD)’s Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). According to an evaluation by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, “although positive, the growth rate for agriculture is significantly less than the 6% targeted under CAADP. The projected performance is, however, sufficient for Ghana to achieve the MDG1 of halving its 1990s national poverty rate by 2008” (MOFA 2007).

However, not all the measures specified in GPRS II are tracked by the Annual Progress Reports. For example even though it is stated that measures would be put in place to ensure women’s access to and control over land and agricultural inputs, including extension services and the needed impetus given to women to improve their livelihood and to benefit from the potential positive effects of linkages between agriculture, industry and exports, there is no word in the progress reports of what was done or not done in this regard. Similar issues are however taken up by the current medium term national development plan as issues still to be tackled under the plan.

Again, while fishing has been identified as one of the important agricultural subsectors to be supported under the medium term policy frameworks, outcomes from these areas have not been encouraging, thus raising questions about how much of the measures identified to address shortcoming in the sector were implemented.
As noted, improvement in agriculture is needed to ensure food security, increase exports and expand employment opportunities. With regard to food security, it has been observed by various evaluation reports (APR 2008, MoFA 2007, APRM 2005) that the country has made significant progress. The country’s major foreign exchange earner cocoa has also been recording some increase in export quantities and earnings. The effect of the increased agriculture output on employment is however not clear. Part of the difficulty in attempting to assess this has to do with recurring problems with data collection.

(C) Education

A major policy initiative in this sector has been the ten-year (1995-2005) Strategic Plan for Education, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) (1996), programme in consonance with Article 38 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, which requires the government to provide access to Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education.

The objective was to enroll and provide all school-age children with quality primary and junior secondary education by 2005 and lay a firm foundation for reorienting the entire educational system towards the promotion of creativity, science and the acquisition of more flexible skills by students at all levels. It is also geared to improve the quality of teaching and learning and, in particular, to enhance educational access and opportunity for females and other disadvantaged groups.

Educational policies as expressed in GPRS I & II, were guided among others by the following policy frameworks and reports:

- Education for All (EFA, UNESCO, Dakar, 2000)
- The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) covering 2003-2015
- Millennium Development Goal 2

Developing Ghana’s human resources was one of the three main thematic areas of the GPRS II. The goal is to create competent manpower for the development of the country. The GPRS II not only aims to meet the MDG 2 goal but also to strengthen the quality in basic education, improve quality and efficiency in the delivery of education service and bridge the gender gap in access to education. Policy interventions in the education sector, across GPRS I, GPRS II and the current medium-term national policy framework, have been focused on achieving three objectives:

- Increasing access to, and participation in education and training, with greater emphasis on gender and geographical equity
- Improving the quality of education
- Enhancing delivery of education services.

Outcomes:

1) Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) increased at all levels of basic schools between 1991 and 2008. At the kindergarten (KG) level, it increased from 55.6% to 89.9%, exceeding the 2015 target by 24.9%, a direct consequence of a government policy to integrate kindergarten education into basic schools throughout the country. GER increased from 74% to 95.20% at the primary level and from 70.2% to 78.80% at the Junior High School level so Ghana may achieve the MDG 200
target for universal primary education (MDG) ahead of the 2015 deadline if current efforts are sustained (UNDP 2008).

2) The Survival Rate, which measures the proportion of pupils/students who stay and complete school after enrolment, recorded a downward trend from 83.2% in 2003/04 to 75.6% in 2005/06 at the primary level but recovered to 88.0% in 2007/08 slightly below the 2015 target of 100% (Table 1). At the Junior High School (JHS) level, survival rate declined from 86% in 2003/04 to 64.9% in 2006/07 but increased to 67.7% in 2007/08.

Survival rate among female pupils has been lower than male pupils at both the primary and JHS levels. While the survival rate increased by 3.8% between 2003/04 and 2007/08 among male pupils at the primary school level, it increased by only 1.3 81.1% to 82.4% among female pupils over the same period.

On the other hand, at the JHS level, while survival rate among male pupils declined by 15.6% between 2003/04 to 2007/08, it declined by 20.8% among the female pupils over same period.

Table 1: Trends in Survival Rates (SRs) in Basic Schools by Gender, 2003/04 – 2007/08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SRs</th>
<th>2003/4</th>
<th>2004/5</th>
<th>2005/6</th>
<th>2006/7</th>
<th>2007/8</th>
<th>Target 2015</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>82.2%</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
<td>85.4%</td>
<td>88.0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Good progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>85.1%</td>
<td>84.7%</td>
<td>78.4%</td>
<td>91.2%</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>80.3%</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
<td>79.6%</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>86.0%</td>
<td>85.5%</td>
<td>86.6%</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>67.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Unlikely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>88.0%</td>
<td>88.5%</td>
<td>87.4%</td>
<td>69.6%</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>82.9%</td>
<td>85.6%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>62.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Policy interventions carried out to reinforce the attainment of universal primary education include the construction/rehabilitation of classrooms, strengthening the capitation grant initiative and expanding coverage of the school feeding program. The Capitation Grant Policy introduced in the 2005/2006 academic year to abolish the payment of school fees at public primary schools has been credited with considerable growth in enrolment in public basic schools nationwide. The increase however, has resulted in an increase in the pupil-teacher ratio, particularly in deprived schools.

3) School Feeding Programme: Inspired by Pillar 3 (Food supply and hunger) of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development (CAADP) and building on the UN report ‘Halving hunger: It can be done’ (UN Millennium Project, 2005), the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) was started in 2005 to reduce hunger, get children into school and stimulate local production. The programme has been credited with boosting school attendance in particularly poor districts in the country; it is estimated to have increased primary school enrolment by 40% since the introduction of the programme.

However, as in the case of the Capitation Grant, the increased enrolment has negatively affected the pupil teacher ratio. Other problems associated with the GSFP have included inadequate systems of accountability, underfunding and lack of cooking facilities in some schools.
(D) Health

The ultimate goal of the health sector under the GPRS II is to ensure a healthy and productive population capable of contributing to socio-economic development and wealth creation in the country. To achieve this goal, the health sector policy objectives continued to be focused on:

- Bridging the equity gap in access to quality healthcare and nutrition services
- Ensuring sustainable financial arrangements that protect the poor
- Strengthening efficiency in health service delivery

To achieve the objective of increasing access to quality health care and nutritional services, the Ministry of Health and the Ghana Health Service has been implementing a wide range of cost effective interventions.

Progress made in improving access to quality health care and nutritional services are examined in the APR (2008) by assessing the performances of the following indicators: (i) Outpatient (OPD) attendance; (ii) immunization coverage; (iii) antenatal care coverage; (iv) supervised deliveries; (v) number of guinea worm cases; (vi) child mortality rate; (vii) children under five years who are malnourished (underweight); and (viii) maternal mortality ratio

OPD Attendance: The utilization of outpatient services by the Ghanaian population has been increasing over time, mainly due to treatment of more patients with health insurance as the growth seems to coincide with growth in membership of NHIS. Overall trend in OPD visits has been positive since 2006 with OPD attendance per capita increasing from 0.55 in 2006 to 0.77 in 2008.

Immunization Coverage: Immunization is a key intervention for improving child survival rates. The Expanded Programme of Immunization (EPI) in Ghana has achieved significant results in coverage. EPI coverage has remained at a high 86.6% for some years.

Antenatal Care (ANC) Coverage: Antenatal care improves maternal health and child survival. ANC coverage has been high over the years. 97.4% of mothers in 2008 as against 89.5% of mothers in 2007 received antenatal care from health professionals at least once during pregnancy. This increase is attributed to introduction of free maternal health scheme for pregnant women in 2008 (MOH, 2008).

Supervised Delivery: Supervised delivery by skilled health professionals in hygienic conditions is one of two key indicators used to assess progress towards reducing maternal deaths (MDG 5). The proportion of supervised deliveries has been low but steadily improving. Against the target of 60% supervised deliveries in 2008, the proportion of supervised deliveries in 2008 was 39.5% (up from 35.1% in 2007).

Guinea Worm Cases: Significant achievements have been made in the past four years to eradicate the guinea worm disease in Ghana. The disease is now a focal problem limited to the Northern Region, which has 96% of all reported cases. To strengthen the management of guinea worm cases, 10 case management centers were constructed at Kintampo, Tamale, West Mamprussi, Savelegu, and East Gonja in 2008. As a result of these and other interventions, the number of guinea worm cases is reported to have dropped dramatically from 3,021 in June 2007 to 501 at the end of 2008 (APR 2008).
Ensure Financial Arrangements that Protect the Poor
The National Health Insurance System (NHIS) was established in 2003 with the objective of removing the financial barrier to access to health care and nutritional services, particularly for the poor and vulnerable in society. The NHIS is recognised in GPRS I & II as a major tool designed to bridge equity gaps in access to quality health care and ensure sustainable financial arrangement that protect the poor.

Coverage and Equity: The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) is mandated to ensure equity in access to health services by providing universal coverage. Membership has been increasing since the introduction of scheme. The total number of NHIS cardholders in 2008 was 12,468,558, representing 54% of Ghana’s population. The majority of registered members were in the exempt category (under 18 years, the aged and pregnant women).

Strengthening Efficiency in Health Service Delivery
Inadequate human resources and mal-distribution of the available health personnel are key challenges to efficient health service delivery in Ghana. These challenges result from continued migration of key health professionals outside the country and from rural to urban areas. Efforts to enhance service delivery have been directed at recruitment and retention of staff in hard-to-reach districts; provision of staff accommodation in deprived districts; and improving productivity of the health workforce.

Inadequate human resources: In an effort to improve the efficiency in service delivery, the government established five new health assistants training institutions at Tepa, Asangragua, Nalerugu, and Dunkwa-on-Offin to increase the number of public sector training institutions to 64. In addition, the accreditation of two Midwifery training schools started at Tarkwa and Tamale.

Mal-Distribution of Health Workers: There are still significant equity gaps in the distribution of health workers across the country. In the past few year, the number of measures implemented to address this issue, have included the establishment of an inter-agency posting committee, which agrees on allocation of new staff to different health agencies; the setting up of regional quotas; and the enforcement of postings to rural areas (by removal from payroll).

Two indicators are used to track progress in addressing the mal-distribution of human resources in the health sector. These are nurse-to-population ratio and doctor-to-population ratio.

Nurse-to-Population Ratio: The nurse-to-population ratio significantly improved from 1:1,454 in 2007 to 1:1,109 in 2008. There is marked regional differentials in the distribution of nurses across the country. The lowest density of nurses is in the Northern region with 1 nurse to 1,577 people and the highest density is in the Upper West Region with 1 nurse to 885 people.

Doctor-to-Population Ratio: The doctor-to-population ratio improved from 1:13,683 in 2007 to 1:13,074 in 2008. On a regional basis the number of individuals per doctor varies from 5,177 in Greater Accra to 70,744 in the Northern Regions.

Reducing Child Mortality Rate (MDG Target 4: Reduce by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015 Under-five Mortality Rate): Significant progress continues to be made under this target, with infant and under-five mortality showing signs of improvement. The under-five mortality rate, which had shown worrying trends since 1998, began to register improvements. After declining successively from 122 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 98 deaths per 1,000 live births in
1998, the under-5 mortality rate appears to have stagnated at 111 deaths per 1,000 live births during the period of 2003 and 2006. There was an appreciable decline in under-five mortality rate to 80 per 1,000 live births, representing about 28 percent decline. Some regions, Upper East, Western, Brong Ahafo and Volta Regions are on track to achieving the MDG on under-five mortality, while the rest are off-track (GDHS 2008).

Infant mortality rate (IMR) which increased from 57 per 1000 live births between 1994 and 1998 to 64 from between 1998 and 2003, has also declined to 50 per 1000 live births by 2008. Immunization of under 1 year old against measles improved from a low of 61% in 1998 to 90.2 percent in 2008.

Child malnutrition: Malnutrition increases the risk of morbidity and mortality among children. The proportion of children of less than five years old who are suffering from this condition has consistently been coming down. However, it is noteworthy that about fourteen percent of Ghanaian children were classified as underweight in the 2008 (GDHS 2008).

Maternal mortality: Maternal mortality ratio in Ghana is unacceptably high. In 2007, the Ghana Maternal Health Survey (GMHS) estimated maternal mortality from household deaths to be still high at 580 per 100,000 live births, which is close to the WHO/UNFPA estimate of 560 for 2005. The most prevalent causes of maternal mortality that need to be addressed have been identified as severe bleeding, hypertensive diseases, infections and abortion.

**HIV/AIDS Prevention:** GPRS-II identified the prevention of new HIV infections as critical in the management of the epidemic. Strategies to reduce new infections involve transforming the high HIV/AIDS awareness among the populace into attitudinal and behavioral change that will lead to the adoption of positive life style to reduce the risk of HIV/STD infection.

The HIV prevalence rate fell from 3.2% in 2006 to 2.2% in 2008 but increased to 2.9% in 2009. Given this trend, Ghana has to sustain the efforts in order to meet the target of halting and reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS by 2015. Available data show that the national prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS has slowed down after peaking at 3.6% in 2003 and gradually declining to 3.2% in 2006. Although the prevalence rate fell further to an all-time low of 2.2% in 2008, it later increased to 2.9 in 2009 (Ghana AIDS Commission; NACP Reports, 2008).

Reducing the impact of HIV/AIDS related vulnerability, morbidity and mortality: The following are some of the activities carried out in the period under GPRS II to strengthen treatment care and support for people living with HIV (PLWH):

- Training of health care workers from district level facilities in the management of HIV and AIDS
- Monitoring, supervision and supporting sites providing ART services and assessing potential sites for ART accreditation
- Providing nutritional support for PLWH
- Strengthening referrals and collaboration between facilities and communities to increase ART uptake and adherence.

There were 110 ART sites in 79 districts across the country in 2008. ART clients increased from 13,249 in 2007 to 23,614 in that year, representing about 80% increase.
Malaria Control: Malaria is the leading cause of mortality and morbidity in Ghana, especially among children under five years and pregnant women. According to Ghana Health Service, the disease accounts for about 45% of outpatient attendance and 40% of all admissions to health facilities.

Measures aimed at reducing malaria: The campaign on the use of ITNs, which was geared to reducing mortality and morbidity, has received appreciable attention over the years especially for children less than five years. ITN use among pregnant women had been encouraging until 2008 where it declined drastically to 30.2% from a peak of 52.5% in the 2007. The following are some of the interventions implemented by the National Malaria Control Programme of Ghana Health Service to manage the disease:

- improving malaria case management in all health facilities
- promoting home-based care with emphasis on symptoms detection and early treatment
- promoting the utilization of Insecticide Treated Nets (ITN)/Materials, particularly among pregnant women and children under five years
- scaling up the implementation of the Intermittent Preventive Treatment (IPT) nationwide (IPT provides chemoprophylaxis for women during pregnancy)
- intensifying public education to promote malaria intervention using the mass media.

Efforts at controlling malaria and ensuring progress towards the achievement of MDG target 6 continue to be pursued. Under-five malaria case fatality reduced considerably during the year from 2.4 in 2007 to 1.9 in 2008. There is evidence that access to ITN is constrained by availability and cost in some communities (Ghana Civil Society Monitoring Campaign, 2008).

(E) Employment

The Ghana Statistical Service estimated the unemployment rate in Ghana in 2000 at 11 percent. A very high proportion of working population (80 percent) is however in the private informal sector, a sector characterized by a high number of underemployment and uncertain incomes. Under GPRS II, the overall objective of the employment sector strategy was to pursue cross-sectoral development interventions that ensure that employment expands along with production. Available data indicated that most of new jobs generated in the course of GPRS I and II were in Agriculture, Services and Industry. (APR 2006-2008).

Youth Employment: A National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) was instituted in 2006 to address the persistent youth unemployment. By the end of 2008, it was reported that 108,435 jobs had been created under the program in agriculture, health extension, education and waste and sanitation. However, the long-term purpose and sustainability of the program came under question in 2009 as those who had completed their contract under the program found it difficult to transfer to permanent jobs and wanted to stay on the program. Funding for the program also became an issue, often manifested in delays in payment of allowances and difficulty in expanding the program.

(F) Safe Water and Sanitation

GPRS II emphasizes improved access to safe drinking water and provision of adequate environmental sanitation as strategic policy areas in human resource development and poverty reduction. Some progress was made in these two policy areas.
**Provision of Safe Water in Rural and Urban Communities**
Access to safe drinking water in rural communities increased significantly from 54.86% in 2007 to 57.14% in 2008. However, investments in the urban sector seemed not to have yielded the expected results, as the urban indicator for access to safe water declined by three percentage points from 58% in 2007 to 55% in 2008.

Wide regional differences in population with access to safe drinking water also persist. In rural water coverage, access ranges from a high of 76.76% in the Upper West Region to a low of 41.27% in Western Region. In the case of urban water, the Northern Region and Upper West Region are the outliers with the 89% access in the Northern and 15% access in the Upper West Region.

**Provision of Adequate Sanitation in Rural and Urban Communities**
Inadequate access to sanitation is associated with poor health outcomes through the facilitation of the transmission of communicable diseases such as cholera, diarrhoea, dysentery, typhoid and polio. Reporting on progress towards the implementation of policy in the sector continued to be constrained by lack of annual data on household and environmental sanitation.

Data from the 2006 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) is used to provide an indication of the proportion of household population with access to improved sanitary facilities.

Improved sanitary facilities are defined to include flush toilets connected to sewage system of septic tanks, ventilated improved pit latrines and pit latrines with slabs. The survey suggests that 61% of all households surveyed had access to improved sanitation facilities. Access to improved sanitation was more prevalent in urban areas than rural areas. There were also significant regional differences in access, with the three Northern Regions having the lowest proportions of households with access to improved sanitary facilities.

**(G) Sustainable Development**

Environmental sustainability is a problem area as far as the MDGs are concerned. Despite the country’s ratification of the various international agreements in this regard and clear targets set in the two GPRS, replanting exercises have not gone as planned. It appears that the interventions projected in the development plans were not followed through. The situation is serious as the country has already lost vast areas of forest to logging and mining activities. If this is not reversed there is a strong possibility of the situation affecting the achievements in other areas such as food security, availability and water and mitigation of natural disasters such as flooding.

The programme seeks to integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse loss of environmental resources by 2015. The proportion of land area covered by forest: Ghana’s forest remains an important asset for ensuring sustainable development especially in poor communities where farming and other activities that require intensive use of land dominates. Although current data is unavailable, it has been estimated that Ghana’s forest cover has declined from 32.7% to 24.2% between 1990 and 2005. In 1990, the forest cover was estimated at 7,448,000 hectares, and this has declined at an average rate of 1.8% per annum to 5,517,000 hectares in 2005. The rate of decline of Ghana’s forests is alarming. Ghana is not on course to achieve MDG 7 in full partly because the forest cover is continuously depleting.
(H) Reducing Poverty

According to the Ghana Joint Assistance Strategy (2007):

The latest comprehensive estimates show that the poverty headcount declined from 52 percent in 1991, with 36 percent living in extreme poverty, to 40 percent in 1999 and 15 percent of Ghanaians in extreme poverty. The most recent Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ), which uses an asset rather than an income-based poverty measure, indicates that there has been a 7 percentage point reduction from 42 percent in 1997 to 35 percent in 2003. The two trends are indicative of general progress. A number of sources assert that current growth rates put Ghana on track to meet the MDG on halving poverty levels by 2015.

Although overall poverty levels are declining, socio-economic and regional disparities remain, and are linked to the lack of structural change in the economy. Weaknesses in human and social development (in terms of investment in children and young people’s health and education) are reflected in the gap between Ghana’s Human Development Index (HDI) rank (138 in 2003) and its gradually increasing GDP per capita rank (121 in the same year). There is a strong urban-rural differential in poverty indicators, with deprivation levels substantially higher in some rural areas. The severity and depth of poverty is highest in three northern regions (Northern, Upper West and Upper East) and parts of the rural coastal zones.

Analysis of Actual Governance Practices by Objective

Below is an analysis of Ghana’s governance practices organized by the six objectives elaborated in the NEPAD Declaration of Democracy, Political and Economic Governance. They include:

- Promote self-reliance and build capacity for self-sustaining development
- Accelerate socio-economic objectives to achieve sustainable development and poverty eradication
- Strengthen policies, delivery mechanisms and outputs in key social development areas including education for all, combating HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases
- Ensuring affordable access to water, energy, finance (including microfinance), markets and ICT to all citizens, especially the rural poor
- Progress towards gender equality, particularly equal access to education for girls at all levels
- Encourage broad based participation in development by all stakeholders at all levels

Objective 1: Promote self-reliance in development and build capacity for self-sustaining development

The GPRS-I & II have provided the overarching policy context for the country’s development policies and strategies since 2003. The expected outcomes from implementation these policies were wealth creation and poverty reduction.
These outcomes were to be achieved through the transformation of the economy, accelerated poverty reduction and the protection of the vulnerable and excluded within a decentralized, democratic environment.

The preparation processes to making the two GPRS papers involved more Ghanaian stakeholder involvement than was the case with earlier development plans. However, a number of civil society actors who took part in the preparation complained about the nature of the consultation and lack of clarity about the extent to which their inputs are taken into account.

GPRS-I concluded on a note of optimism. The debt overhang on the country had been dramatically reduced as a result of the country’s accession to the Highly Indebted Poor Country Initiative (HIPC). The adoption of certain fiscal measures, such as removal of petroleum subsidies appeared to have helped bring down inflation significantly, and contributed to high growth rates in important sectors of economy such as agriculture and services.

However, GPRS II did not fare so well. While the economy posted even higher growth rates compared to GPRS I, the macroeconomic environment became very unstable as a result of increases in the price of essential imports such as oil and rice as well as increases in government expenditure.

Not surprisingly, government borrowing especially from commercial sources increased country’s debt liability significantly, as external aid continued to play an important role in Ghana’s economy, accounting for 30 percent of the country’s annual budget.

**Strengths**

- The medium term plans have progressively contributed to guiding the allocation of resources, especially under the national budget and have helped the country to focus attention on addressing specific economic and social concerns (APR 2008, APRM Panel of Eminent Persons 2005)

- The preparation processes to making the two GPRS papers involved more Ghanaian representatives from the government, private sector and civil society groups than was the case with earlier development plans.

- The agriculture sector, the highest sector employer, has been registering impressive growth rates since 2003, accompanied by improved household incomes and food security. While growth rate of the sector has been uneven, it has recorded very impressive growth rates from 2.5% in 2007 to 5.1% in 2008 on account of increased crops and livestock production, as well as cocoa production and marketing.

**Potential Risks**

The main risk to developing capacity for self-sustaining development is widening gap between government revenue and expenditure. Increasing expenditure without adequate revenue to back it forces the government to borrow. Interest payments on the loans only go to add government expenditure and widen the fiscal deficit even further. This was the situation of Ghana before it accessed the HIPC Initiative. The risk of going back to that situation is still high especially in view of the country’s macroeconomic performance in 2007 and 2008.
Even though government’s financial commitment to social programs, especially in the Education and Health Sector, have been increasing over the years, external support for these programs has been significant with the consequent risk of disruption in service delivery as was experienced under the Ghana School Feeding Programme when the Dutch government’s suspended its support for the program in 2007.

**Recommendations**

- Balance sound macroeconomic policies (to increase economic growth, reduce inflation and ensure the stability of the cedi), with other policies (to reduce poverty, increase access to basic services and public facilities, and reduce inequities in the economy). This was a recommendation made by the Panel of Eminent Persons in their review of the country’s socio-economic conditions in 2005. The recommendation takes even more urgency in view of subsequent developments on the socio-economic front in 2007 and 2008.

- As noted by the review group there is a need for improvement in the way the consultative and participatory processes are carried out to ensure that the underlying objectives of self-reliance, ownership and sustainability are achieved. While the processes of drawing up the national development frameworks have been more consultative since 2003, it has been observed that large sections of the society still remain ignorant of these frameworks. This makes it difficult to rally support for decisions involving sacrifices such as the need to moderate demands for salary increases or to pay economic rates for certain social services such as electricity and water.

- The review group again noted that transparency and integrity in governance would help make Ghanaians believe that their sacrifices would be worth the effort. They observed that trends in sectoral shares of GDP showed that the structure of the economy has remained largely unchanged since independence. Agriculture remains the dominant sector, but even this sector is performing way below its potential. A number of review papers have recommended that more could be done to diversify the sector. A number of experts have advocated for a long-term strategy based on an effective marketing and value addition system (APR 2008).

- For the services and industrial sectors, more deliberate efforts to grow these sectors are likely to yield beneficial results. The services’ sector’s share of the country’s GDP has been growing over the years but there has been very little direct support to actors in sub sectors such as banking, hospitality and entertainment.

**Objective 2: Accelerate socio-economic development to achieve sustainable development and poverty reduction**

While the GPRS I focused on poverty reduction programs and projects, GPRS II focused on the implementation of growth-inducing policies and programs with the potential to support wealth creation and sustainable poverty reduction.

Priorities of GPRS II thus included:
- Continued macroeconomic stability
- Accelerated private sector-led growth
Vigorous human resource development
Good governance and civic responsibility

To attain a middle-income status by 2015, economists have projected that Ghana should have been posting an annual growth rate of 8-10% in per capita income from 1992. Growth rates in the 1990s averaged around 4-5% per annum went up in 2003 when they averaged above 6 percent till 2008 but fell to 4.7 percent in 2009.

Ghana’s budget progressively recorded relatively high budget deficits due to higher than anticipated increases in discretionary expenditure, especially, in government wage bill and domestic investment (APR 2008).

Strengths

- The agriculture sector has been registering impressive growth rates since 2003, accompanied by improved household incomes and food security. While growth rate of the sector has been uneven, it has recorded very impressive growth rates from 2.5% in 2007 to 5.1% in 2008 on account of increased crops and livestock production, as well as cocoa production and marketing.
- Ghana has made remarkable progress in achieving the MDGs.

Weaknesses

- Ghana’s economy is still vulnerable to external shocks.
- The industrial sub-sector which has the potential for creating large scale employment has fared badly.
- Monitoring of the progress made on various socio-economic indicators faces major shortcomings. Some of the projected activities in the GRSP I & II are not taken up at all in the Annual Progress Reports, and no explanation is given as to why progress on those activities are not mentioned.
- Poverty is still acutely prevalent in parts of the country especially the northern parts.
- The country’s high fertility rate (4.5) poses a challenge to prospects of attaining a middle income status.
- Economic growth that has been achieved is masked with regional disparities and rural/urban imbalances in respect of its distribution.

Recommendations

- There is the need for more direct support to income generating activities, especially those that show the potential to grow.
- District assemblies have found it difficult to achieve their targeted annual Internally Generated Fund (IGF). They should be encouraged to move towards financial autonomy by investing some of their resources into raising the values of their properties such as markets and going into commercially profitable ventures.
- The rate of savings in the country is rather low. Innovative efforts such as cooperative banking and traditional saving schemes such as Susu, can be assisted to expand their reach. Keeping the inflation rate steadily down will also help the banks to mobilise more
savings. The private sector is already playing an important role in education and health but it can do more direct support. This can potentially help the government to keep its expenditure down. Progress towards meeting the MDGs should be maintained while more is done in areas where the country appears to be off target.

- Tracking performance in many areas of socio-economic governance and development should aim to identify factors for successes or failures so that the reports can be used to scale up practices as well as address challenges.

Objective 3: Strengthen policies, delivery mechanisms and outcomes in key social areas

Social sector policies and programs in the GPRS I and GPRS II seek improved access to education, health, potable drinking water and sanitation services. There are also policies for reducing poverty, and for effecting greater equity in gender and between the different regions of the country.

Challenges in achieving the MDGs in health and education have been difficult to pinpoint. Some reviews have suggested more investigations to understand why achievements recorded in these sectors have remained stagnant despite continued interventions.

In the area of health, the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) remains the main instrument for improving access to medical care to the generality of the population with particular emphasis on the poor and the vulnerable. About half of the population is already registered with the scheme and the numbers keep going up but the scheme’s sustainability has come under question in recent times.

There is general agreement on the erosion of the quality of primary and secondary education especially in the less endowed schools A number of factors, such as teacher-learner ratios and the quality of instruction have been suggested as possible contributing causes (APR 2008, APRM 2005).

Recommendations

- Provide incentives for teachers and health professionals to encourage them to work in the rural areas and the North
- Transparency in decision-making, particularly in the contribution of groups and individuals at the unit and district levels to the final decision
- Regular information and monitoring on the implementation of development projects.

Objective 4: Ensure affordable access to water, sanitation, energy, finance, markets, information and communications technology, shelter and land for all citizens, especially the poor
Water

Access to water remains a major problem in Ghana. Access to pipe-borne water is estimated at about 71.2% and 16.1% for the urban and rural populations respectively. The Ghana Water Company Limited, which supplies the urban areas, is under resourced.

The Community Water and Sanitation Agency, which is responsible for supplying the rural areas, has enabled that fraction of the population with access to safe drinking water to expand from 41 to 46.4% between 2000 and 2003, by providing boreholes and hand-dug wells. Due to the increase in the incidence of guinea worm infections between 1998 and 2003, the government initiated a process of providing funds to assist rural communities in the installation of water and sanitation facilities.

Electricity

Electricity is largely available in urban Ghana. Issues of concern have centred on costs, especially to industries and low-income groups, as well as quality and frequency of supply. Access to electricity in the rural areas is low, relative to the urban areas. Access in rural areas is being promoted through the Self-Help Electrification Programme, which is partly financed through a levy on electricity consumption and loans and grants from aid donors.

Financial services

Many small businesses find it difficult to access financial services. The formal source of funding for rural inhabitants is the rural banking system. These banks have been important sources of credit for small farmers and industries, and rural women have been the objects of special credit schemes. Other sources of rural credit include Susu organizations, credit unions, savings, loans and NGOs.

Markets

Markets play very important roles in Ghanaian social life, with women as the main actors. Therefore, the lack of inadequate sanitary facilities is an issue deserving more attention than it has been given so far. This has implications for the conditions of food items traded in the markets. A number of markets in the country are small and undeveloped, without paved floors or well constructed stalls, or even organized warehousing facilities with offices for revenue collectors. The lack of fire-fighting equipment in most markets is matter of serious concern as fire outbreaks are not uncommon.

For rural farmers, access to bigger markets is hampered by an inadequate road network and poor conditions of feeder roads.

ICT

In the GPRS II, the following indicators were adopted to monitor and assess progress within the sector:

- Size of the ICT industry
- Tele-density / penetration rate
- The level of access to the internet
Competition and investment in the sector have continued to impact positively on the sector with telephone penetration rate increasing rapidly from year 2000 to 2008.

Mobile phones continue to be a major form of communication for many of the country’s rural farmers, micro businesses and other professionals to access information, provide critical services and transact business. Total mobile phone subscription stood at 11,568,850 in 2008 while fixed lines accounted for 143,900 in 2008.

Total internet usage has also been increasing over the period however the size of the population who has access to internet remains low.

The number of radio and television stations in operation in Ghana increased rapidly over the period; the number at the end of 2008 was 165.

**Recommendations**

- Set quantitative targets, design explicit policies and measures, and detailed timing to achieve the objectives in the area of socio-economic development. Such an approach would facilitate monitoring and accountability.

- Give needed attention to areas where progress has been slow or disappointing. This calls for a clear understanding of feasibility of targets and objectives, transmission processes from programs, policies and measures to objectives and difficulties likely to be experienced in policy implementation, as well as measures that could be put in place to overcome these.

**Objective 5: Make progress towards gender mainstreaming and equality**

Ghana has adopted or ratified several international conventions and human rights instruments designed to improve women’s welfare and to promote gender equality. The obligations deriving from these conventions and instruments have been reflected largely in domestic legislation and policies.

However a number of impediments still exist in the way of mainstreaming gender and concerted efforts are needed to address constraints that make it difficult to eradicate gender inequities.

Majority of women work in the informal sector as small farmers, food processors and traders, and official attitude towards this sector appear to be influenced by cultural biases against women. There is a need to respect efforts of people in this sector to make ends meet to involving them in decisions affecting their welfare as well as exploring means to assist them secure their means of livelihood.

**Strengths**

The country’s commitment to gender mainstreaming and gender equality dates back to the early independence days. A milestone was the creation of the NCWD in 1972 and subsequent creation of a cabinet-level Ministry of Women and Children Affairs in 2001.
The 1992 Constitution provides the constitutional basis for gender mainstreaming and equality, and for related legislation such as the Children’s Act (Act 560), 1998; the Amended Criminal Code Act of 1998 (Act 554); Act 484; the Revised Population Policy of 1994; the Local Government Act, 1996; and the Domestic Violence Act 2007 (Act 732).

In addition to legislation, governments have introduced a number of policy measures and embarked on programs to promote women’s rights in the country, including the Affirmative Action Policy Guidelines, 1998, the National Gender and Children’s Policy, 2004 and the Early Childhood Care and Development Policy, 2004.

Among specific measures that have been introduced under the Affirmative Action Policy Guidelines are:

- Commitment to provide 40% women representation in decision-making and executive positions at all levels of government
- Allocation of a 30% quota of female government appointees to the District Assemblies
- Establishment of Gender Desks in all ministries, departments and agencies
- Promotion of girls’ education as part of Free Compulsory Basic Education and increased enrolment of girls at the tertiary level.

**Weaknesses**

Commitment to ensuring effective implementation is weak. The Affirmative Action Policy Guidelines have remained guidelines and not yet a policy, reducing it to a seemingly attractive “political campaign promise”. The Ministry for Women and Children’s Affairs and the Gender Desk in Ministries Departments and Agencies are chronically under-resourced.

**Recommendations**

The political leadership should exhibit the will, good faith and determination to fight and overcome the cultural impediments to gender equality in Ghana.

**Objective 6: Ensure broad-based participation in development**

Formal channels for ensuring broad-based participation in Ghana’s development include Parliament, political parties and district assemblies. The district assembly structure, with such structures such as unit committees, is especially so designed as to widen participation in development to as many people as possible.

Apart from these structures there are also a number of professional, work, religious and social associations as well as a number of formal civil society organizations which offer citizens the chance to participate in contributing to policy making.

The reality however is more complicated. A number of constituents find it difficult to gain access to their MPs. The MPs themselves also complain of lack of resources and assistants to help them
in their work. A number of them have complained about restraints imposed on their ability to initiate policies. Many constituents also expect patronage rather than advocacy from the MPs.

Political party membership is also increasingly being seen as passport to jobs and contracts rather than a body for people sharing a common viewpoint for development.

Although the unit committee structures of the District Assemblies are easily accessible to the ordinary citizen, there is strong degree of apathy among the population to work of the assemblies. Voter turn-out during assembly elections have stayed consistently low.

A number of civil society organizations are however well organized and some have been effective in influencing position such as the successful advocacy of women’s groups in ensuring the passage of the Domestic Violence Law. Most of these organizations often have particular focus.

Other initiatives have been adopted to elicit participation of citizens such the consultative processes used in drawing up the country’s medium term development plans and the organization of various stakeholder forums. These initiatives however have their limitations in terms of the number of organizations and structures who are consulted and the depth and seriousness of the consultation process.

**Conclusion**

Ghana started its life as an independent country on a very optimistic note, posting high GDP growth rates and recording notable achievements on the social front. The goal of the country’s first seven year development plan was to move the country away from being a producer of raw materials to a more self sustaining semi industrialized country.

However, wild fluctuations in the price of the country’s main export crop, cocoa, had a very visible and ultimately far reaching impact on the country. Years of political instability followed accompanied with steady deterioration in the country’s economic fortunes. A military coup in 1981 ushered in a long period of political stability while economic reforms undertaken in 1983 marked a slow but painful revival of the economy. A number of national policy papers have been produced since then but the most comprehensive development policy framework, with a significant national ownership and a system for tracking policy interventions was the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy, GPRS-I, which was launched in 2003.

GPRS-I and its successor document, GPRS-II, these medium policy frameworks have progressively contributed to guiding the allocation of resources, especially under the national budget. They have helped the country to focus attention on addressing specific economic and social concerns. Monitoring of the GPRS I and II are facilitated by the Annual Progress Reports (APRs) which are undertaken by the National Development Planning Commission with the help of independent experts. Progress is expected to continue under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA) 2010-2013.

The APRs have been helpful in recording progress as well as shortcomings in the implementation of medium term policy frameworks, but they are not very comprehensive and omit to provide information of some of the proposed interventions under the frameworks. On the other hand, assessing the country’s socio economic development purely on targets set in the GPRS does not fully capture the broad context within which developments have taken place.
Reductions of poverty in the country for instance started long before the implementation of the medium term development frameworks. It has certainly been speeded up since 2000 but the story is less dramatic if development in the previous decade is taken into account.

Similarly, the effect of debt write off under the HIPC initiative played a big role in improving the macroeconomic environment and accelerating economic growth in 2003-2005. It is important to take this into account when exploring means for repeating or deepening the country’s achievements in the past few years since there is no guarantee of subsequent debt write-offs. This point becomes especially relevant when one looks at Ghana’s increasing high debt liability since 2007.

There is some basis for attributing Ghana’s inability to maintain a sound macroeconomic environment to unpredictable external factors such as high oil prices, fall in commodity prices and global food crisis, but it could also be argued that a stricter interpretation of fiscal prudence could have reduced the degree of turbulence caused by excess expenditure over income (APRM Panel of Eminent Persons, 2005).

From another angle though, the production of oil and gas in commercial quantity, expected to start by the end of 2010 would no doubt provide more resources to support government expenditure. This can lead to an improved macroeconomic environment for the country but this development can also encourage the propensity to contract more external loans as was the case after the debt write-off under HIPC, which led to huge indebtedness and macroeconomic instability.

The general agreement among a number of reviewers (UNDP, 2008, APRM 2005, and UNICEF) is that Ghana is doing well on social indicators such as improving access to education, health and other basic services, in addition to recording significantly high rates of economic growth since 2003. However, there is also an agreement that Ghana’s macroeconomic performance during the period has been inconsistent, potentially putting at risk some of the country’s socio-economic successes. It was noted in a 2007 Ghana Joint Assistance Report that:

Despite the recent economic expansion, the structure of the economy has not changed substantially. The economy continues to be largely dependent on agriculture (40% of GDP and 50% of employment) It is constrained by low-productivity farming practices, poor infrastructure (e.g. roads, irrigation, and ICT), land tenure uncertainties, gender inequities, and uncertain access to inputs. Traditional exports – cocoa, gold and other natural resources – still account for almost half of GDP. The industrial sector remains relatively small and dominated by firms with low productivity. Foreign direct investment is relatively low for an economy of Ghana’s potential.

Finally, concerted action is needed to address two cross-cutting issues. First, women face a number of obstacles in the way of realizing their full potential. The problem is more serious in certain parts of the country where prejudice against women remain strong. Some efforts have been made to address some of these prejudices but there is still a long way to go. Generally women are still marginalized when it comes to top political, business and public service positions.

Second, unemployment became a pressing issue in the wake of retrenchments carried out in the public service in the mid-1980s and has remained so since, with the unemployment rate said to be growing by the day. One solution heralded since the days of the structural adjustment is the
development of the private sector. However, growth of this sector so far has failed to reach projected targets and serious work needs to be done to encourage the private sector.

In sum, although a lot of work has been done, more remains, and it is imperative to take steps to address these areas of concern if the people of Ghana are to enjoy continuous improvement in their well being and standard of living.

Ongoing monitoring of progress made under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGD) and future national frameworks will be critical. It is hoped these efforts will be made easier with the monitoring framework set out above, as well as by the socio-economic development indicators matrix and the summary table of baseline data in the appendices below.

References


The National Socio-economic Development Monitoring Framework

In Ghana, socio-economic policies are monitored through a number of agencies with activities designed for the purpose. Under the GPRS-I, a comprehensive GPRS Monitoring and Evaluation Plan was formulated to support the implementation of the strategy. Key policy initiatives under the plan included the following:

- An institutional framework for coordinating the system, including analysis and mode of reporting on the progress on GPRS implementation to different stakeholders, including Government, civil society and development partners
- Establishment of monitoring indicators against GPRS baselines and core targets
- Establishment of special indicators to facilitate the tracking of the HIPC, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the medium-term priorities.
- Studies to enhance the knowledge and database for the conduct of objective impact analysis of GPRS (i.e. PSIAs)
- A dissemination and a communication strategy
- Wider stakeholder participation (government, parliament, NGOs, CSOs, private sector) in monitoring progress of the GPRS

Monitoring the GPRS Indicators

The Annual Progress Report (APR) provides the key platform for the monitoring and evaluation of progress towards the achievement of GPRS targets as well as the outcomes and impacts of government policies. The recommendations from these reports have influenced the respective annual national budgets and the formulation of GPRS II, according to the GPRS-II document (p. 70).

As part of the process of determining the impact of the socio-economic policies on the poor, Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIAs) studies were also undertaken. The National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) with the support of development partners has commissioned PSIAs to ascertain the impact of selected policy reforms implemented under the GPRS.

The current national socio-economic development framework, the successor to the GPRS, is the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA 2010-2013). Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) of the GSGDA builds up on the system under GPRS I & II establishing a robust, comprehensive, fully integrated, harmonised and well coordinated system that uses a bottom-up approach to ensure ownership and improve the demand for M&E by stakeholders at all levels. Strategies adopted to achieve this include:

- Reinforce institutional arrangements with adequate capacity to support and sustain effective monitoring and evaluation;
- Strengthen, harmonize and effectively coordinate existing mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of public sector service delivery;
- Evolve an efficient system for generating relevant, reliable and timely quantitative and qualitative gender disaggregated information;
- Manage an effective feedback mechanism that makes statistical information available in useable form to Government, private sector and civil society;
• Ensure a holistic approach to M&E that would include monitoring of inputs (including resource allocation and use), as well as processes and outputs, in addition to evaluating the outcomes;
• Foster participatory M&E;
• Improve coordination between Central Management Agencies (CMAs) and MDAs to strengthen demand for M&E; and
• Build the technical capacity for M&E at all levels.

As part of decentralization planning, District are required to develop their District Medium-term Development Plans (DMTDPs) and Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Plans in line with the GSGDA (Sector M&E Planning Guidelines, NDPC 2009). Having developed guidelines on preparations of the DMTDPs and M&E, the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC), the institution with the legal mandate to coordinate the decentralized M&E system (NDPC Act 1994, Act 480) organized orientation on its use for all one hundred and seventy (170) MMDAs in 2009 and early 2010. The 2010 Annual Progress Report (APR 2010) was thus prepared under the GSGDA.

By the end of the second quarter, 2011 even though 147 MMDAs had prepared and submitted their respective DMTDPs to NDPC as required by law, only 48 MMDAs, constituting 28.2% of the existing MMDAs, had prepared their respective M&E plan for monitoring the implementation of their respective DMTDPs. As per the APR 2010, challenges encountered in the process of developing the MMDAs’ M&E Plans include:
• Absence of some decentralized departments in some MMDAs;
• Late release of funds to prepare the plans;
• Inadequate logistics;
• Too much work load on M&E Staff;
• Inadequate staff with the relevant M&E Skills; and
• Difficulties in getting stakeholders to attend meetings.

The MMDAs had up to the end of third quarter to finalize and submit their DMTDPs and corresponding M&E plans to NDPC.
### Appendix 4.1 Monitoring Framework for GPRS –II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Sector and District Monitoring and Evaluation of Policy Implementation</strong></th>
<th><strong>Districts prepare M&amp;E plans against indicators and targets</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citizen assessment survey</strong></td>
<td><strong>A Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation framework undertaken to complement the quantitative data obtained from the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) and the Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in assessing the effects of key GPRS policies, and also to provide an opportunity for citizens to participate in the monitoring and evaluation process of the GPRS.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Budget and Public Expenditure Management Systems</strong></td>
<td><strong>A computerised financial management system aimed at enhancing efficiency and effectiveness in budget preparation, budget implementation and reporting.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Development of National Statistics</strong></td>
<td><strong>To provide an effective and unbiased basis for monitoring development programmes and projects and evaluate the outcomes of development programmes and projects.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ghana Info Database</strong></td>
<td><strong>To provide an overall, up-to-date view of the socio-economic situation in Ghana</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Multi-Donor Budget Support (MDBS) Programme</strong></td>
<td><strong>The MDBS outlines the modalities for supporting the Government of Ghana’s budgetary needs by the Development Partners. The government commits itself to implementing agreed set of policy reforms outlined in the Performance Assessment Framework (PAF), which consist of a set of actions to be undertaken by selected Government Ministries, Department and Agencies (MDAs), and are aligned to the thematic areas of the GPRS II</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distribution of the Monitoring Reports</strong></td>
<td><strong>Copies of the various M&amp;E reports are distributed to government departments, civil society organisations and the media</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 4.2 The National Socio-economic Development Governance Indicators Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREA OF FOCUS</th>
<th>ISSUES</th>
<th>POLICY</th>
<th>STRATEGIES</th>
<th>GLOBAL LINKAGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Agriculture-led growth | Low agricultural development and output                                 | Ensure sustainable increase in agricultural productivity and output to support industry and provide stable income for farmers | *Irrigation development*  
Expand irrigation infrastructure - valley bottoms, dams and dug-outs, bore holes tube wells, etc especially in the three northern regions | MDG 1, ECOWAS, APRM Obj.2 under Socioeconomic development |
|                        | Generally low access of women to land including irrigated land         | Promote land reforms that ensures equal access to irrigated land for men, women and Persons with Disability |                                                                            |                                                                                  |
| Employment generation and improvement and expansion of safety nets | Inadequate Sectoral Capacity for formulating and Implementing Employment Policy that is sensitive to the needs | Develop and implement a national employment policy                      |                                                                            | MDG 1/3, APRM Obj.1 under Socioeconomic development |
|                        | Slow progress in achieving universal basic education and adult literacy | Increase access to and participation in education and training at all levels |                                                                            |                                                                                  |
| Health                 | Low level of overall health expenditure and inadequate social protection | Ensure sustainable financing arrangements that protect the poor          | Accelerate the Implementation of the health insurance scheme Low level of overall | MDG 2, APRM Obj.1/2/3 under Socio-economic development |
| Malaria control | Enhance multiple prevention | Promote use of insecticide treated bed nets  
Encourage drainage, mosquito proofing and general sanitation | MDG 6, MDG 8 (Target 17) |
|-----------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|------------------------|
Promote safe sex practices | APRM, Obj.9/10 under Political Governance  
MDG 1/3/5 |
| Water and Environmental Sanitation | Accelerate the provision of safe water | Provide new investments in rural water, especially in guinea worm endemic areas  
Strengthen the management of on-going investments in deprived regions | MDG 7; APRM Obj.4 under Socio-economic development |
## Appendix 4.3 National Socio-economic Development and Governance Baseline Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of focus</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Target in 2008</th>
<th>Indicator level at 2006</th>
<th>Indicator level at 2008</th>
<th>Progress toward target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Modernized Agriculture</strong></td>
<td>Change in yield of selected crops and livestock</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>Steady Progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cocoa</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of cultivated lands under irrigation (irrigation/ha)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.21%</td>
<td>0.89%</td>
<td>Target exceeded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(14,928.5)</td>
<td>(23,657)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per capita production of key staple foods (crops) &amp; livestock (in kg/Annun &amp; in live animal/annum), respectively</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>Significant progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>154</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>485.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cassava</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm Household incomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-farm Household income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>=&gt;60%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>Steady progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;40%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio between subsistence crop/livestock and commercial crop/livestock farming</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>Target exceeded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gradual shift towards commercial agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment generation and improvement/ expansion of safety nets</strong></td>
<td>Number of labour disputes</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>Steady progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of new jobs created by sector</td>
<td>240,000</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>692,714</td>
<td>Target exceeded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social protection expenditure as percentage of GDP</td>
<td>≥4.42%</td>
<td>0.09%</td>
<td>2.33%</td>
<td>Steady progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Gh¢19,642,805.7)</td>
<td>(Gh¢408,830,342.41)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
<td>83.6%</td>
<td>89.9%</td>
<td>Steady progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>93.7%</td>
<td>95.2%</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior High School</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>77.4%</td>
<td>78.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate (NER)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>84.9%</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>Steady progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Junior High</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>52.4%</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>Survival Rates</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index (GPI)</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Malaria Control</td>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Primary</td>
<td>● Kindergarten</td>
<td>● OPD Attendance</td>
<td>● Under five malaria case fatality (%)</td>
<td>Median HIV Antenatal Prevalence Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.3%</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>&lt;4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.3%</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85.4%</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1: 2,125</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>67.7%</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>85.1%</td>
<td>40.5%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.0%</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good progress</td>
<td>Target not achieved</td>
<td>Target exceeded</td>
<td>Worsened</td>
<td>Target not achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not achieved</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
<td>Worsened</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>Target not achieved</td>
<td>Slow progress</td>
<td>Target not achieved</td>
<td>Target exceeded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>