LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND SOCIAL PROTECTION POLICY IMPLEMENTATION IN GHANA: A CASE OF THE LEAP IN GA EAST MUNICIPALITY

BY

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DECLARATION

I, PALM GRACE NAA ADAKU hereby declare that this thesis is a personal work produced under the supervision of DR BOSSMAN E. ASARE and DR EVANS AGGREY-DARKO towards the award of a Master of Philosophy in Political Science in the Department of Political Science, University of Ghana and that no part of this publication or the whole has been presented elsewhere for another degree. Secondary materials used for this study have been duly acknowledged.

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ABSTRACT

Social protection has become an antidote to economic and social development in modern governments worldwide. Since 1957, successive governments in Ghana have formulated policies to give relief to the poor and vulnerable in the society. Furthermore, some of these social policies have been rather unsustainable due to the myriad of challenges in policy implementation. However, the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme appears to be standing the test of time under different governments from its inception in 2008. Local Government, being a key partner in the LEAP programme remains very instrumental; however, it has received little attention in governance and in scholarly research on social protection. Therefore, this research seeks to assess the role of Local Government in the implementation of Social Protection policies in Ghana.

This research is purely qualitative. Data was purposively collected from the Ga East Municipal Assembly (GEMA) and some existing literature on social protection, local governance and decentralization was consulted as secondary data.

The research established that Ghana’s Local Government is crucial to the implementation of social protection due to its closeness to the citizens and plays major tasks to ensure the sustainability of the LEAP programme. However, Local Government is highly incapacitated to effectively handle social protection at local level as a result of its challenges and its over-dependence on Central Government. Again, the study discovered that Local Governments at sub-urban areas are somewhat neglected by the center creating a missing link in the synergistic relation that should exist between national and sub-national governments. To this end, a close correlation between multi-sectoral coordination, local participation and sustainability in social protection policy implementation is established in this study. A clarion call is also
made in this research for stakeholders to undertake a practical move for capacity building to aid the effective and efficient execution of social protection policies at the local level.
DEDICATION

I wholly dedicate this work to the Holy Spirit and my God-given parents: Mr and Mrs Jonathan Oscar Palm.
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I am grateful to the Omnipresent God for His grace and mercies that has brought me this far and for granting me knowledge and strength throughout this research study. To him alone be all the glory and honour. I acknowledge my supervisors, Dr Bossman E. Asare and Dr Evans Aggrey-Darko for their valuable time and guidance during my research period.

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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>Accra Metropolitan Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHRAJ</td>
<td>Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC</td>
<td>Development Assistance Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSPC</td>
<td>District Social Protection Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECDC</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development Centers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEMA</td>
<td>Ghana East Municipal Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPRS</td>
<td>Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSFP</td>
<td>Ghana School Feeding Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GWMA</td>
<td>Ga West Municipal Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GYEEADA</td>
<td>Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Development Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labor Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaNMA</td>
<td>La -Nkwatanang Municipal Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEAP</td>
<td>Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGSS</td>
<td>Local Government Service Secretariat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHMT</td>
<td>Municipal Health Management Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOGCSP</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCCE</td>
<td>National Commission on Civic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHIS</td>
<td>National Health Insurance Scheme</td>
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<td>NSPP</td>
<td>National Social Protection Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
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<td>OVC</td>
<td>Orphans and vulnerable children</td>
</tr>
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<td>PAMSCAD</td>
<td>Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Costs of Adjustment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAPs</td>
<td>Structural Adjustment Policies</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.0 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The global call for poverty alleviation through social protection programmes remains every government’s herculean task. Statistics from the World Bank has it that though about 767 million people in the world lived on less than US $ 1.90 per day as of 2013, “the number of people living in extreme poverty globally remains unacceptably high” (The World Bank, 2016, p. 1). Poverty reduction has therefore received great attention both on international and local levels in recent times which has esteemed social protection as undoubtedly, the most appropriate means to tackle poverty across the globe.

In the quest to fight poverty globally, the United Nations (UN) launched a Social Protection Floor initiative in 2009 which indicated “the importance of social protection as a necessary component of a comprehensive development strategy that addresses poverty, inequality and social exclusion and at the same time seeks to invest in people as a prerequisite for sustainable and fairly shared economic growth” (United Nations System Task Team 2012, p. 8). As a result, most member states of the UN became signatories to the International Labour Office (ILO) Social Protection Floor initiative. This was aimed at ensuring minimum social protection floors and Regional initiatives such as the African Union’s Social Policy Framework for Africa, complementing and strengthening the coordination between national and regional social policy initiatives (Bastagli, 2013). It is with this backdrop that the Government of Ghana rebranded and launched the National Social Protection Policy to mitigate
vulnerabilities, close the inequality gap and ensure total inclusion for all Ghanaians in June 2016 (Appiah, 2016).

Ellis, Devereux and White (2009, p. 3) asserted that in the past social protection was used as a tool to address unpredictable adverse events through emergency transfers but now it is seen as “predictable funding for predictable needs.” To the UN, social protection has resurfaced to become a key global development priority as a result of the recent global financial, energy and food crises, and the growing awareness of poor people’s vulnerability to climate-related disasters (United Nations Development Fund (UNDP) and United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF), 2013).

Successive governments have as a result, drawn pro-poor policies to ensure economic stabilization and development in their respective countries. The case has not been different in Ghana, as in her history both military and democratic rulers have made giant strides towards poverty reduction (Abebrese, 2011; Sowa, 2002).

In response to building state-citizen relation, the Kufuor Administration introduced the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme, contained in the National Social Protection Strategy, 2007 and piloted in 2008. For the start, Ghana piloted the LEAP programme to cover 1,654 beneficiary households in 21 districts with a monthly subsistence grant of GH₵ 8.0 to GH₵ 15.0 per month (Abbey, Odonkor, and Boateng, 2014). The vision of the LEAP programme under the flagship of the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection is to alleviate short-term poverty and encourage long-term human capital development. Currently, the beneficiary households have increased from 1,645 to 146,074 in 186 districts and projected the expansion of the LEAP programme, to reach out to 216 districts in the country by the end of the 2016 (Appiah, 2016).
Abebrese (2011) posited that there has never been a programme in Ghana like this which concentrates on the most vulnerable in society. Significantly, Imani Ghana (2015) in an assessment of the programme stated that for a lower middle income country such as Ghana, social protection interventions like the LEAP is necessary because a good number of the people live below the poverty line. Studies on the impact of LEAP have established that the programme has so far stimulated health care and other social services in most deprived areas (Debrah, 2013). Again, a beneficiary assessment recorded that the LEAP programme reached over 74000 households in 99 districts across the 10 regions of Ghana as of November 2013 which indicates a fair representation and the fast pace of the programme in Ghana (Abbey, 2013).

Several works have sought to assess and evaluate social protection programmes over the years in Ghana and brought to light some challenges facing the implementation of such programmes and the impact on poverty and inequality (Abbey, 2015, Debrah, 2013 and Abebrese, 2011). In the same vein, a study by Jones, Ahadzie, and Doh (2009) revealed that Ghana faces difficult macroeconomic and fiscal challenges, which are being exacerbated by the global economic crisis, as well as institutional and organizational constraints. Consequently, these challenges are noted to be holding back the expansion and efficient implementation of social protection programmes such as the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty, Ghana School Feeding Programme, National Health Insurance Scheme, among others.

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Ghana has been on record as the first sub-Saharan African country to have halved poverty at about 28.6 percent prior to the evaluation of the Millennium Development Goals in 2015 (UNDP, 2015). However, the issue of poverty and inequality in reality still persists as population increases. In the post-2015 Sustainable Development
Agenda, Social Protection was proposed to be the essential tool to eradicate poverty and reduction of inequality as stipulated in the SDG Goal 1 which seeks to “end poverty in all its forms everywhere” (Plagerson and Ulriksen, 2016, p.183). In this bid, the World Bank projected for the first-time in October 2015 that the number of people living in extreme poverty was expected to have fallen below 10% but despite this progress, the number of people living in extreme poverty globally remains unacceptably high and according to the Bank, “the work is far from over and a number of challenges remain. It is becoming even more difficult to reach those remaining in extreme poverty, who often live in fragile contexts and remote areas” (The World Bank, 2016, p. 1). This suggests that people who live in abject poverty are mostly found in rural enclaves. Underscoring the unflinching support of Local Government, which is no doubt a necessity for a successful implementation of any social protection programme since the poorest people live at the grassroots.

Research findings on the subject of Local Governance and Social Protection in both advanced and developing countries have revealed that social protection programmes aimed at growth and development have been hit with one hurdle or the other when it comes to targeting or means testing irregularities, poor monitoring, inadequate finance, bribery and corruption in its strategic implementation process (Jaha & Sika-Bright, 2015; Abebrese, 2011; Mkandiwire, 2005).

Jaha and Sika-Bright (2015) enumerated the challenges facing the LEAP implementation from an institutional perspective. Similarly, Debragh (2013) maintained that after years of LEAP implementation, minority of the masses have experienced the significant change in their living conditions and advocated for a multi-dimensional approach to focus on good governance to mitigate the diversion of
funds for social services, free health insurance and quality education at both primary and secondary level to teach productive skills.

Predominantly, these studies have concentrated largely on the broader national picture of implementing and evaluating social protection policies in Ghana to the detriment of local implementation of social protection. Conspicuously, there is scanty information available in literature on the role of key local implementers of the LEAP programme. Meanwhile, the success or failure of a policy especially a pro-growth policies such as LEAP solely relies on Local Government which implements every policy regardless of the government of the day in the local jurisdiction.

Furthermore, the failure to critically assess the role of Local Government in social protection policies will not bring to light the challenges and prospects for improving livelihoods at the local level and the national commitment to the global yearn to end poverty because “those remaining in extreme poverty, … often live in fragile contexts and remote areas” (The World Bank, 2016, p. 1).

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.

1. Assess the role of Local Government in Ghana’s Social Protection Programmes.


3. Investigate the challenges facing Local Government executing Government policies on Social Protection.

4. Assess the connection between local participation and sustainable social protection policy implementation.
5. Explore the prospects of Local Government in a sustainable social protection in Ghana.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the role of Local Government in Ghana’s Social Protection Programmes?
2. What is the relation between Central Government and Local Government to ensure workable Social Protection Programme?
3. What are the challenges that confront the Local Government in execution of Government Policies on Social Protection?
4. What is the connection between local participation and sustainable social protection policy implementation?
5. What constitutes the prospects of a sustainable social protection in Ghana?

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical lens through which this study will be viewed will cut across theoretical models of social protection and policy implementation. The use of theory in this study is mainly for meaningful conclusions to be achieved. According to Spicker (2000, p.8), “theory in social science begins with the process of describing empirical material, by disentangling facts from each other, and laying out a framework through which it can subsequently be analysed and understood”. In general, the theoretical models are to provide insights into the subject under discussion rather than a basis for arguments. Therefore, the study will be situated in
two theoretical models namely; the Social Democratic Welfare State model and the Bottom-Up Policy Implementation approach.

### 1.4.1. Social Democratic Welfare Model.

Social Protection is not bounded by a single theory however, the study will be underpinned by the Social Democratic Welfare State model. It will be simultaneously used with the Democratic Welfare model which basically shares the same assumptions. Noticeably, the general Welfare State theory has distinctions incumbent on a nation’s type of political regimes. Scholars including Schulz-Forberg (2012), Schmidt, (2001) Wilensky (2002, 1975), Esping-Andersen (1990), Titmuss (1974), Briggs (1961) among others have written extensively on the Welfare State and its models.

For a meaningful exposition of the theory, Briggs explained that a welfare state is ‘a state in which organized power is deliberately used (through politics and administration) in an effort to modify the play of market forces’ (Briggs as cited in Castles, 1998, p.146). He argued that a nation can attain the status of a “Welfare State” if it is able to undertake some distinctive activities such as the provision of social services for families and individuals against any possible poverty shocks.

In a comparative style, Esping-Andersen (1990) in his book, *Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism* characterized Welfare States into three kinds namely: Liberal Welfare States, Conservative or Corporatist welfare and Social–Democratic welfare states. He established that the welfare state is of different types in various state regimes. On the contrary in the bid to critique the distinctions of the Welfare State, Arts &Gelissen (2002) have concluded that no matter the specifications of welfare states by Esping-
Andersen, there are no ideal-typical worlds of welfare states which are satisfactory or pure because such are hard to be established, hence hybrid cases of Welfare States.

Sefton (2006) acknowledges the contested distinctions made by Esping-Andersen (1990) but states that they reflect different approaches to a redistributive policy in Welfare States. Therefore, these Welfare State models will be elaborated below in order to arrive at the preferred theoretical model for the study.

First, Esping-Andersen (1990, p. 26) notes that the Liberal Welfare System is “a means–tested assistance, modest social-insurance plans” by which benefits cater mainly to a clientele of low- income usually working class, state dependents.” The benefits of this type of welfare state is relatively modest and had strict rules and obligations attached to access it. Significantly, the role of markets in the provision of welfare is encouraged by the state however, subsidies are given by the State to support private welfare patterns. Sefton (2006) holds the view that the Liberal Welfare System sees the markets as the main source of welfare with the state ensuring that the operation of markets runs smoothly which implies a minimalist role for redistributive policy. The United States of America (USA) has been tipped as a country that practices this Liberal model of a Welfare State.

Secondly, the Conservative or Corporatist welfare state is described as more of social insurance than social assistance. Benefits mostly go to those who have insurance contributions which differentiates class and status in the society. Unlike the Liberal Welfare system, the Corporatist Welfare state relegates private insurance and renders markets inefficient. According to Esping-Andersen (1990, p. 27), “the corporatist regimes are also typically shaped by the church, hence, strongly committed to the preservation of traditional familyhood”. The state only interferes when the family’s
capacity to provide welfare to its members is exhausted. Again, the Conservative or Corporatist Welfare State is to a large extent traditional, which does not make room for redistributive policies because the state is more interested in maintaining the distribution patterns of the rich and poor. Furthermore, the state in a Corporatist Welfare system has a basic role to “underwrite and facilitate group-based schemes of insurance and arrange residual insurance pools for those who are not part of an established occupational group” (Sefton, 2006, p. 612). Therefore, the Corporatist approach to welfare emphasizes on holding status and employment rather than citizenship. This to a large extent dims the redistribution impact of the State. In reality, Sefton (2006) points to the continental European countries including France, Italy and Germany as Corporatist Welfare States.

The third type of Welfare State as espoused by Esping-Andersen (1990) is the Social-Democratic Welfare State. This welfare state ensures high benefits and services for citizens. That is to say, the state takes “direct responsibility of caring for children, the aged and the helpless” and operates on the principle of universalism. (Esping-Andersen, 1990, p. 27). This type of welfare state has elements of liberalism and socialism and therefore creates space for markets to operate in the state. The Social-Democratic Welfare State is constantly committed to social and resolving social problems rather than the stratified nature of provision in the Conservative or Corporatist Welfare State. It also gives much prominence to the role of the state in welfare and putting together redistributive policies.

The Social Democratic Welfare models unlike Liberal and Corporatist welfare models has a core assumption that “the outcomes of unfettered capitalism are unfair and therefore, social democrats are much more prepared to manipulate the market economy to social ends even at some cost to overall productivity” (Sefton 2006, p.
In this vein, a state achieves redistribution by taking particular responsibilities which include education, health, housing among others for the purpose of equity among citizens. Arguably, entitlements to certain welfare benefits are recognized as rights of citizenship and insurance packages are widely universal. One key factor that distinguishes the Social Democratic Welfare model is that it offers a “universal provision of welfare” whiles the Liberal Welfare model concentrates on “targeted welfare for the poor” (Sefton 2006, p. 612). That notwithstanding, Sefton (2006) has noted that in reality, most countries mix up the targeted and universal welfare provisions. Therefore, it may not be utterly wrong to indicate the fusion of targeted and universal welfare in a Social Democratic Welfare model. This model mostly practiced in the Scandinavian countries such as Sweden, Norway, Denmark among others. For example, with the control of a Social Democratic regime, Sweden became a force to reckon with when it comes to strong commitment to welfare and poverty alleviation however, pressures from globalisation has rendered welfare unsustainable giving way to neoliberalism.

As observed in literature, the Social Democratic Welfare model has been variously used by other writers as the Democratic Welfare State. Schulz-Forberg (2012) posited that the welfare state theory prior to the end of the cold war began as a normative order that ensured personal happiness to citizens and social security. He described this Welfare State as inclusive and democratic in that the citizens play a role in the political process that made it participatory hence, the Democratic Welfare State model. In description, Schulz-Forberg (2012, p. 3) articulated that citizens being a part of the political process made them “active voices in the formation and dynamic development of the welfare state” away from being mere “recipients of welfare”.
Subsequently, the post-cold war era saw this Democratic Welfare State widely accepted for the implementation of civil and human rights in a social organization.

The Democratic Welfare state according to Schulz – Forberg (2012), has become ideally successful as the combination of capitalism, democratic participation, and social solidarity. In modern times the practice of democratic welfare theory has become a “globally appropriated social order and will remain key for the regulation of national social struggles …” (Schulz- Forberg, 2012, p.5).

First, the Democratic Welfare State theory embodies the legitimacy of democracy considerably as it takes to account the social contract between the state and the citizens. It protects against impoverishment and income loss of major risks. That is to say, the state is able to play its protective role for the benefit of the citizens. Also, the state controls or reduces high levels of social inequality to the barest minimum. Politically, a Social Democratic Welfare State to a large extent, guards against political crisis that occurs as a result of a spill-over economic crisis. In an economic dimension, the redistribution of the state’s income enables democratic welfare state among many states to handle crisis better than weak states with poor social policy arrangements (Schmidt, 2001).

The exposition makes it clear that Democratic Welfare State theory is indispensable in sustainable development and modernization especially in a democratic countries of developing countries. The trend of Ghana’s welfare policies has been more related to the Social Democratic model that is why this study deems it fit as a theoretical model for Social Protection in Ghana.

On the whole, the above exposition on the Social Democratic Welfare State or Democratic Welfare State theory is akin to the social protection policy in Ghana.
Mainly because, the government makes efforts to provide basic needs to the less privileged in society. This highlights the assertion that in public expenditures, “the Welfare State is about two-thirds to three quarters of what governments do.” (Wilensky 2002, p. 211). In Ghana, under the LEAP programme, government assist the poorest families with basic needs including food and health as efforts to alleviate poverty situation among these category of persons.

Despite its strengths, financing the Social Democratic Welfare State is highly costly in that the state is burdened on its public budgets and tends to have high levels of public debt. Also, costs incurred by the Social Democratic Welfare state is mostly externalized on to future generations since the capacity of the economy is mostly distorted. Trade-offs are highly intensified between social protection and other essential social and economic goals. This makes way for an imminent centralization and bureaucratization becomes a threat to the Social Democratic Welfare state. This, therefore, stifles Local Government liberty to operate.

1.4.2. Bottom-Up Approach To Policy Implementation

Policy implementation engages three models which includes the Top-down, Bottom – Up and Hybrid approaches which is a combination of the Top-Down an Bottom-Up approaches (Hill and Hupe, 2002). However, Cerna (2013) identifies that there are two approaches widely used in implementation literature namely; Top-Down and Bottom-Up approaches, which varies in areas pertaining to the role of actors, their relationships and the specific policies which are being applied. This research is therefore, grounded in the Bottom-Up approach to policy implementation. To do justice to this discussion, it is only appropriate to highlight the assumptions on the Top -Down and Bottom- Up approaches to have a clear distinction.
Historically, the Policy Implementation theory gained recognition in implementation studies during the 1970s. It evolved within the United States, as a reaction to growing concerns over the effectiveness of wide-ranging reform programs. At the end of the 1960s, clear political mandates and the role administrators to implement policies according to the intentions of decision makers were taken for granted which resulted in the failure of most policies and unachieved policy expectations (Hill and Hupe, 2002).

Furthermore, this attracted voices of scholars who brought up the concern for a clear approach for implementation since intervention of governments to tackle social problems was fast increasing at the time. Hargrove (1975), Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) became most popular scholars to find the missing gap in the study of policy process and implementation studies (Hill & Hupe, 2002). To this end, the debate of the policy process and implementation studies influenced the building of theory which translated into a new debate between the Bottom-Up and Top-Down approaches of implementation. Notable proponents of the Bottom-Up theoretical approach include Lipsky (1971, 1980) Hjern (1982), Elmore (1978), Berman (1978) and Matland (1995) whiles the Top-Down theoretical approach had Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) Van Meter and Van Horn (1975), Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) among others.

On the Bottom-Up theoretical approach, Lipsky (1980) advocates that implementation consists of everyday problem-solving strategies of “street-level bureaucrats”. To him, “implementation of policy is really about street-level workers with high service ideals exercising discretion under intolerable pressures. Therefore, the attempts to control them hierarchically simply increase their tendency to stereotype and disregard the needs of their clients.” (Hill and Hupe 2002, p. 52)
According to Matland (1995), the bottom-up approach focuses on target groups and service deliverers who are the actual implementers of policy. It assumes that there is a networking of people at the local and regional levels who take responsibility of policy making (Elmore, 1978).

Profoundly, the bottom-up model argues that “public policy is not best understood as made in legislatures or top-floor suites of high ranking administrators, because in important ways it is actually made in the crowded offices and daily encounters with street-level workers.”(Tsang, 2013, p. 5). This means that public policy is best executed with the involvement of Local Bureaucrats who are directly linked with their clients.

The Bottom-Up approach is also able to deal with a policy or problem involving a multitude of public and private programmes. They are better able to deal with strategic interaction overtime. This approach ensures that actors’ perceived problems have strategies developed for dealing with them. Also, through this implementation approach, actors are able to assess the relative importance of a variety of governmental programmes vis-à-vis private organizations and market forces, making it possible for solving problems. However, the bottom-up approach contends that if local bureaucrats (implementers) are not allowed discretion in the implementation process with respect to local conditions, then policy is likely to fail (Matland, 1995).

Berman (1978) accounts that policy implementation takes place at two levels which includes a macro and micro implementation level. At the macro implementation level, centrally located actors devise a government program. On the other hand, in a micro implementation level, local organizations react to macro-level plans; develop and implement their own programs. However, he argues that most implementation
problems emanates from the interaction of a policy with micro-level institutional settings. Central level actors can indirectly influence micro-level factors. This is because the rules established by central actors are dominated by local implementing contextual factors (Paudel, 2009).

Additionally, the Bottom-Up approach to policy implementation is more interested in decentralization in pursuing successful implementation. This brings to light the proposal that involving the target group enhances local participation and ensures stability of the policy. This suggestion by proponents of the bottom-up implementation approach underline the nexus between local participation and the success of a policy. This to a large extent, juts Local Government as critical for achieving resource equity through social protection in Ghana and involving citizens in the policy implementation process. This accounts for why the Bottom–Up theory is most suitable for an implementation study as such.

Notwithstanding the above mentioned strengths, the Bottom-Up theory has been criticized as lacking the explanatory account on the extent to which Local Implementers should exercise their discretion in problem-solving (Sabatier,1986). This means that the theory fails to give the exact means by which discretion should be used at the local level.

Again, Bottom-up theorists are criticized for the over-emphasis on the degree of actual local independence from the policy-makers as implementation cannot progress without the resources and institutional structure provided by the central planners. Important aspects of implementation such as human and financial resources tend to have a major impact on efficiency (Matland, 1995).
Furthermore, the bottom-up perspective does not provide satisfactory solutions to the problems of public policy, as its rejection of the authority of policymakers is questionable considering the standard democratic theory. This is because, policy control should be exercised by actors whose power is derived from their accountability to sovereign voters through their elected representatives however, the bottom-up model renders local authority blatant (Matland, 1995).

The Top-down theoretical approach on the other hand, holds the assumption that policy implementation starts with a decision made by the central government. The work of Sabatier (1986) simplifies this approach, revealing that policy decision begins from central government officials asking critical questions as its foremost focus.

According to Matland (1995), it is the carrying out of a policy decision by statute, executive order or court decisions, whereas authoritative decisions are centrally located by actors who seek to produce the effects desire. Other proponents like Sabatier and Mazmanian (1983) Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) unanimously see decision making as solely the responsibility of top management and policy formation with policy execution as distinct activities. Policies are set at higher levels in a political process and then communicated to subordinates levels.

The top-down model, however, sees local actors as impediments to successful implementation agents whose shirking behavior needs to be controlled. From a positive perspective, discretion for street-level bureaucrats is inevitably so great that it is simply unrealistic to expect policy designers to be able to control the actions of these agents.

The Top-Down approach has also been criticized for its distinct emphasis on the statute framers as key actors. On the contrary, implementation is not limited to a
purely administrative process, it also involves political aspects. The proponents of the top-down model fail to consider the significance of actions taken in the policy-making process. This is because many implementation barriers are found in the initial stages of the policy-making process and to understand implementation, these processes must be studied carefully. Local service deliverers have expertise and knowledge of true problems; therefore they are in a better position to propose purposeful policy while the Top-Down approach see them as impediments to successful implementation (Paudel, 2009).

Another criticism is that top-downers neglect the reality of policy modification or distortion at the hands of implementers. They object to the implicit assumption that policymakers control processes that affect implementation. This model also assumes that all priorities are known and can be ranked (Paudel, 2009).

From the above, it is clear that both Bottom-Up and Top-Down theoretical models have their strengths and weakness to make policy implementation stand out separately from policy formulation. Meanwhile, scholars have advocated for the mixture of the two approaches to form a hybrid theoretical model which is yet to gain grounds (Goggin et al., 1990).

1.5. CLARIFICATION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

The underlying terms and concepts will be defined as used for the purpose of this study. These are Social Protection and Local Government.

1.5.1 Social Protection

In Ghana, Social Protection is defined “a range of actions carried out by the state and other parties in response to vulnerability and poverty, which seek to guarantee relief
for those sections of the population who for any reason are not able to provide for themselves” (NSPP, 2015, p. 2). Social Protection in this study will therefore refer to the definition given above and to represent the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme.

1.5.2 Local Government

The World Bank in UNDP and UNCDF (2013,p.8) establishes that “Local Government refers to a specific set of institutions or entities, created through a legal or constitutional act, to deliver a range of specified services within a defined sub national jurisdiction.” In this vein Local Government in this study refers to the above given definition and be used as a pointer to the Department of Social Development, the main implementer of social at the local level.

1.6. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study is intended to critically analyze the Local Governments implementation of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme with focus on the Ga East Municipality. Notwithstanding the successes chalked with the implementation of the Programme since 2008, it is imperative to unearth the major role played by the local actors to ensure a smooth-running and a sustainable programme in the municipality since there is limited information on it.

Again, the critical assessment of the role of Local Government is borne out of the skewed nature of research on local governance and the implementation of social protection programmes in Ghana making it expedient for this research to bridge the gap in knowledge and to serve as foundation for future researches on the problem.
Furthermore, this research is forecasted to form the basis for a future review of the policy through modification, learning and termination.

1.7 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study is principally made of five (5) chapters with its contents as follows:

Chapter One encapsulates the background to the study of local governance and the implementation of Social Protection Programmes in Ghana with a focus on the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP). The chapter outlines the statement of the problem, the objectives of the research, the rationale for the study, the theory underpinning the study and the questions this research seeks to address.

Chapter Two is focused on the analysis of relevant and related literature on social protection policies and issues of local governance. The review of literature was based on books, articles, documents, reports which was aimed at reaching objectives and giving answers to the research questions.

Chapter Three comprises the methodology of the research. The various methods employed for the research are highlighted. The research design, types of data, study area and population, sampling technique, instruments for data collection and analysis are presented. In addition, the relevance of the preferred methods on the research findings and conclusions are explained. The chapter also discusses the limitations to the study and some ethical considerations noted for the study.

Chapter Four is composed of the presentation and analysis of the data collected from the field research. It gives a thematic analysis of the qualitative data collected from interviews conducted.

Chapter Five, which is the concluding chapter, entails the summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions of the study.
1.8. LOCATION OF STUDY IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

This research is purely in the field of Public Administration, a sub-field of Political Science with focus on Local Government and policy implementation.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter seeks to delve into what scholars have written about the subject in view. According to Saunders et al., (2000) “the Literature Review forms the framework for research, as it helps to develop a good understanding and to provide insight into relevant previous research and emerging trends”. The Literature Review will focus on five (5) thematic areas based on the objectives of the research. The following are the sub themes which would be reviewed:

- Historical Development of Social Protection
- Discourse on the Frameworks of Social Protection
- The Role of Local Government in Social Protection
- Central and Local Government relations in Social Policy execution
- Challenges in implementing sustainable Social Protection Programmes

2.1 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL PROTECTION

This segment of review looks at the fruition of social protection from safety nets to its current phase of different concepts among scholars such as Koehler (2011), Cook and Kabeer (2009), Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007), Voipio (2007). The chronology in the annals of social protection presented by Ellis, Devereux and White (2009); Merrien (2013); Brooks (2015); Devereux and Solórzano (2016) suggest that the steady growth of social protection is tackling vulnerability and ensuring social
inclusion over two decades. This to a large extent is a unanimous stance among scholars of social protection. It is therefore not surprising that most governments across the globe have resorted to the social protection phenomenon. However, in the view of the researcher, governments must take caution to plan the sustainability of social policies for their citizens and deepen the impact, social protection have on citizens from its inception.

Social Protection has been used in the European states, Scandinavian countries and other developed parts of the World over a long period. It would be unfair to describe it as a new phenomenon because traditionally it has experienced different phases and level until its proper institution in a welfare state. Social protection began on a small scale with the family helping it members out of their vulnerability. Abebrese (2011) reckoned that the oldest traditional system of social protection in Ghana was the ‘rural extended family care’ where the family took responsibility of old and invalid members. This was the usual practice in families until the surfacing of urbanization and economic hardships.

From a global perspective, Merrien (2013) maintains that social protection was limited to wealthy nations and workers in the formal sector having the International Labour Organization (ILO) as the key body championing the cause. However, non-workers were left out of this contributory social insurance agenda to reconsider a non-contributory social insurance option which came under heavy denigration from the World Bank. Chiefly among the criticisms was the expenses involved in such a programme and the likelihood of bolstering the ‘culture of poverty’ among populations. This notwithstanding, the World Bank accepted a nominal social security package for the poorest in vulnerable societies.
On the other hand, low-income economies across the continent have also been engaged in social protection but little has been discussed on their engagement over the years. Social Protection within the 1960s and 1970s was more like subsidizing food prices to ensure that all people regardless of their status could purchase food to consume. Countries like Egypt, Tanzania, and Sri Lanka had low priced staple foods such as wheat, maize, and rice to feed its citizens respectively (Ellis, Devereux and White, 2009). On the contrary, this form of social protection was hit with fiscal challenges internally and globally on world food market prices.

Bonilla Garcia and Gruat (2003) recounted that the paradigm shift of social protection was made when the craze of industrialization hit the world in the 1980s. The space of vulnerability and inequality became so glaring to the extent of gaining international attention for possible solutions. For this reason, the nineteenth and twentieth centuries saw an alteration in social assistance schemes to the ‘development of wage labour’. This meant that workers relied more on their wages and had no form of security which ignited the state’s interest in providing income security such as government’s saving schemes, private insurance, and mutual aid societies. However, legislations were made to regulate insurance schemes for workers which progressively covered the entire population to be known as social security. As labour became more organized, social protection took shape ensuring that basic needs of people were met and people were protected from socio-economic risks.

In the developing countries, Brooks (2015) revealed that the trend of social protection has been rather dramatic from the era of structural adjustments and economic downturns but, Carnes and Mares (2015) asserts that this has been a result of the heightened role of state over the seemingly failed private sector solutions to poverty during the liberalized reforms. Latin America remained the leading continent to adopt
social protection programmes among all low and middle income countries. Social policy in Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Chile among others have portrayed the state’s commitment to tackling poverty through pensions and social insurance which has spread like wildfire to other low and middle-income countries. In the view of Carnes and Mares (2015), Scholars have pursued the reason for the craze of social protection among states and have concluded on “policy diffusion” as the driving force. To a large extent, leaders noticed the good of implementing social policies and learnt to do same in their home countries. For instance, Brazil’s ‘Bolsa Familia’ and Mexico’s ‘Oportunidades’, South Africa’s Child Support Grant and Ethiopia’s Productive safety net schemes were successful models for countries like Kenya, Malawi, Zambia and Ghana to emulate for similar social protection programmes (Merrien, op. cit.).

Subsequently, social protection became a matter of discussion on the international scene. Merrien (2013:4) recalls that international bodies such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), World Bank and Department for International Development (DFID) in the UK have taken keen interest till date in Social Protection following the negative impact of the 1997 Asian economic crisis on global economy. Merrien op.cit. maintains that these international bodies promoted social protection to the extent that it became the ‘preferred instrument’ for achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which Fiszbein, Kanbur and Yemstov (2013, p. 4) in Devereux and Solórzano (2016) concurred by presenting social protection as the ‘silent partner’ for the achievement of development goals. This foresight has propelled the United Nations (UN) to advocate for the inculcation of social protection to attain the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) globally. This research believes in the assertion of Merrien (2013) and Fiszbein et al (2013) to be indispensable in the
discourse of national development. This affirms the indispensability of social protection in the discourse of national development.

In West Africa, Ghana embraced social protection. Abebrese (2011) identified that most Social Protection policies introduced in post-independence governments in Ghana have been unjustifiable. In 1965, the Social Security Act was enacted as a Provident Fund Scheme and lump sum payment for old age, invalidity and survivor’s benefits.

However, after a decade of independence, an economic downturn was experienced which led to a reduction in GDP to 2.2%. In Sowa (2002), it is indicated that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was as low as 2.2% between 1960-1970 and worsened at -0.8 between 1970 and 1983. This was a clear indication of how the Ghanaian economy had declined when almost one million Ghanaians were repatriated from Nigeria in the midst of droughts, bushfires, and poverty shock. This attracted the international community especially the World Bank to the scene with Economic Recovery Programmes in the early 1980s to salvage the economic situation (Sowa, 2002).

The 1980s saw Structural adjustment programmes and austerity measures in developing countries to minimize social spending in governments. There were also some few measures to fight the ever-increasing poverty rates at the time. Ghana, was said to have been among the countries in sub-Saharan Africa to adopt the structural adjustment programmes but due to the social hikes associated with SAPs on the citizenry in 1987, the Government of Ghana introduced the Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Consequences of Adjustment (PAMSCAD) which preceded subsequent programmes targeted at poverty reduction (Sowa, 2002).
Ghana, in her history, has had both military and democratic rulers who made giant strides towards poverty reduction. In 1991, the Social Security Law 1991 replaced the Provident Fund Scheme to cater for pensioners and death-survivors payment. Subsequently, the Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction (GPRS I) was also introduced in 2002-2005 to aid the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the United Nations. The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) was established along the line in 2003 to create a contribution scheme for health care. Aside the NHIS, the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) was initiated to provide at least one hot meal for every school child in Government schools. Between 2006 and 2009, the Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction (GPRS II) saw a second phase which focused on moving Ghana to a middle-income country by 2015. Again, the Kuffour Administration established the National Social Protection Strategy in 2007 which birthed many social protection programmes like the Capitation Grants, Free School Uniforms and Exercise books, National Youth Employment and the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP), the programme under consideration in this study.

The Government of Ghana revealed that the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme, is a social cash transfer programme that provides cash and health insurance to the extremely poor households across the country. The vision of LEAP is to alleviate short-term poverty and encourage long-term human capital development. This cash transfer programme is under the flagship of the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and implemented under the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development through the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development (Lithur, 2013). LEAP is largely funded by the government of Ghana and supported by the World Bank and the Department for International
Development, UK (DFID). It also receives technical support from UNICEF’s social protection unit.

Still on the development of social protection, Oduro (2014), wrote extensively on conditional cash transfers and citizenship in Ghana’s social protection recognizing that the potential of the LEAP programme to reduce poverty cannot be overemphasized. He established in his findings that the programme gives a good platform for re-integration of citizens and state-citizens relations. Also, it is a right signal to realize “social rights and promotion of citizenship in the developing world” and strengthening the trust of citizens in the social contract they have with the state (Oduro, 2014).

Referring to Dean (2010) in Oduro (2014), it was asserted that robust and ‘long standing’ industrialized countries as Britain completed the creation of ‘modern welfare state’ after paying attention to providing social rights and needs to citizens. That notwithstanding, Gough and Wood (2004) reported that welfare systems in sub-Saharan Africa were not reliable due to the inability of the state to fully play its social role. This is directly in congruence with the contention of Debrah (2013) stating that the strategy of transferring cash to reduce poverty only worsens the problem it intends solving since beneficiaries are not able to accumulate the capital but spend the little money on their basic needs. He, therefore, recommended a more ‘transformational outlook’ to tackle the issue of poverty in Ghana.

Significantly, scholars come into a fair agreement as far as the emergence of social protection is concerned and have divergent views on how the phenomenon of social protection should be approached. Therefore the next section looks at the various discussions on the approaches and frameworks of social protection.
2.2 DISCOURSE ON THE FRAMEWORKS OF SOCIAL PROTECTION.

Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, (2007) in their article “Debating Social Protection” discussed that recent interest in Social Protection globally has become bewildering and therefore there is a need to explore what has been different about it. They posit that” for one thing, the new social protection agenda comes with a fresh array of conceptual frameworks, analytical tools, empirical evidence, national policy processes, heavyweight agencies and big names in development studies aligned. They sought to explain how ‘social safety nets’ had been rebranded to social protection to suit the globalized and technological age.

Looking at the world context, Holzmann, Sherburne-Benz and Tesliuc (2003, p.2) writing for the World Bank noted that “social protection was never at the heart of development debate” until there was a rethink of developmental agenda. To this end, many writers have confirmed how social protection has been resorted to, as the means to achieve developmental goals and poverty reduction even though it was despised in the 1990s as ultimately unaffordable for poor countries. The rebirth of Social Protection opened the avenue to dig out what makes it unique (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2007). Social Protection is seen as the response to social and economic vulnerabilities, however, writers view the ongoing debate in terms of thinking and practice which has remained unresolved.

Two groups of social protection advocates are unveiled as ‘the instrumentalists’ and ‘the activist’. To the instrumentalists, social protection is for efficient development as a result of extreme poverty, inequality, risk, and vulnerability which needs a sort of risk management mechanism for incomplete markets until poverty reduction becomes a reality for markets to play an appreciable role in the economy. On the other hand,
the ‘activists’ view poverty, inequality among others as a consequence of social injustice and structural inequity which needs social protection to give citizens the right to access basic necessities of life from the state. Obviously, the positions of these authors are based on choices for social protection but to Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007), their projections on how social protection should look like are purely technical which needs to be treated based on empirical evidence for policy makers to pursue the kind of society they desire. To them, this connotes the missing link between ideological choices and the vision for social protection.

Furthermore, Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007) disclosed numerous frameworks and approaches to social protection which have been widely debated on by scholars. Notable among them are five (5) conceptual frameworks mentioned by the authors which include; Social Risk Management, Transformative Social Protection, Assets Threshold, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) and Development Assistance Committee’s (DAC) approach and Universal Social Minimum (USM). Aside these frameworks, the European Commission (2015) also brought to the fore the Life Cycle framework of Social Protection which this review will capture basically. At this juncture, it is necessary to point out how the above-mentioned approaches work in relation to social protection.

The World Bank in the bid to review traditional social protection (labor market intervention and pensions) adopted social risk management as the concrete approach to social protection in the development debate (Holzmann, Sherburne-Benz and Tesliuc 2003). As a matter of fact, the World Bank has it that the Social Risk Management is an approach to shift from the regular instruments of social insurance to an objective of helping in risk management. Holzmann et al. (2003) argue that Social Risk Management is built on two premises. First, poor people are more
susceptible to natural, man-made, political, economic and health risks. Second, limited access of the poor to the government for support and social insurance necessitates mechanisms to manage risks.

Although the social risk management has been espoused globally by other institutions, in their article, *Transformative Social Protection*, Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004) argued strongly against the acceptance of Social Risk Management approach as the truth about social protection. This assertion according to them, is largely due to the World Bank’s continuous assimilation of some African Countries to entrench the social risk management as a universal framework and as a result, many high profiled officials see other approaches as being problematic. Again, the World Bank view on Social Risk Management as the comprehensive approach which espouses diverse risks and its application in developing countries has been contested in the article *Transformative Social Protection* by Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004). To underline this assertion, it is rather imperative to explore other frameworks or approaches that best suits social protection in the various client countries, be it low or high income countries. This should be done considering the fact that different approaches works differently in each country in relation to the development discourse.

The authors further argue that the World Bank’s SRM is more of an “economic protection” rather than a framework for social protection due to its emphasis on “livelihood shocks”. Again, equity and social rights are seen as “largely missing” from the Social risk management. That is to say, social protection without the elements of “equity and social rights” in addressing livelihood and economic shocks skews the realization of a holistic approach to social protection.
In a build-up to critique the World Bank’s influential approach, Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007) posited that the Social Risk Management focuses primarily on risks and efficiency in risk management rather than social protection’s primary emphasis on equity and needs. Although the SRM has the tendency to invest into poverty reduction, it also falls short on the basis of its failure to arrive at structural determinants of poverty and has also shifted the social protection discourse from an advocacy to an evidence-based policy. To a large extent, the authors’ position on social risk management does not utterly downplay its concept but rather points out the loopholes that can be filled by other approaches or frameworks of social protection.

However, the stance of the World Bank seems to be strong on avoiding risks and vulnerability with Social protection. The World Social Protection (2014) report indicate that all countries across the world have at least a social security system as its response to human rights but the fear of facing the risks of poverty and insecurity should make Governments embrace the issue of social protection with top priority on the post 2015 development agenda to be able to manage vulnerabilities. Meanwhile, Cook and Kabeer (2009, p.8) acknowledged SRM as providing a better institutional framework to salvage shocks and crisis but criticized the approach as a demeaning the role of the state and giving priority to private outfits through the markets adding that “it was only when private solutions failed or failed to emerge that a role was envisaged for the state.” To a large extent, the critics of the SRM framework underlined the evidence of a weak state which resorts to the markets as the best solution for risk management. This framework could be suitable in well-advanced countries where there are functional markets but may tend to suffer in a developing country with “widespread market failures” (Cook and Kabeer 2009). Again, the contention of the authors makes the concept of SRM rather bizarre in a developing
country like Ghana where this research is focused. A strong state must be perceived to be in control even when markets are liberalized, therefore putting the markets ahead of the state in risk management makes the state, a weak one.

Subsequently, Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007) mention the transformative framework of social protection as a response to the criticisms raised about the “hegemonic social risk management” as being solely an ‘economic risk management” exhibiting a social strand. In their view, transformative social protection argumentatively stands for a re-conceptualization of “vulnerability” as being a part of a “socio-cultural context” and demands that social interventions should be addressed by confronting structural causes of vulnerability effectively. Social protection goes beyond the support of the state to the citizens as a basic right. Social risks include domestic violence, child labour, ethnocentrism, abuse of power among others. To a large extent, the authors expound extensively to prove their preference for the transformative framework of social protection. They provided this framework as an alternative to the World’s Bank Social Risk Management which has broken the monopoly of the World Bank’s preferred framework. Basically, this makes the developmental path of Social Protection more dynamic. Making a case for a transformative social protection, Devereux, and Sabates-Wheeler (2004) conclude that Governments must indeed be the center of social protection provision as opposed to the SRM which presents a limited role for the government in social protection provisions. This is strongly backed by MacKinnon (2002) in his article Social Risk Management: A conceptual fallacy of composition. He stated that the Government ‘plays a somewhat prescriptive and limited role as a means only to compensate for market failure’.
Koehler (2011), in the article, *Transformative Social Protection: Reflections on South Asian Policy Experiences* consented to a transformational approach to social protection and proposed a broader perspective of transformation which includes macro-level and sectoral policies thus a focus on regional and domestic policies that will energize the rural economy with the informal sector. The article also posited the need for a global check on inequitable arenas of “international trade, investment, and finance” to ensure a transformative social protection scheme in countries. It is worth noting the strong linkage between global and domestic policies where the former affects the latter in most cases as a result of globalization.

The assets threshold framework social protection continues to be pointed to the developmental discourse. Its main assumption as cited in Deveureux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007, p.3) by Carter and Barrett is that ‘critical level of assets exists above which people can ‘invest productively, accumulate and advance’’, but below which people are in a ‘poverty trap’ from which they have no prospects of escape”. This is quite an economic thinking which was birthed out of a bifurcation policy which suggests that “large-scale resources should be given to the very poor and a threshold-based social protection to the vulnerable”. A clear advocacy for ensuring that the vulnerable does not fall into the ‘poverty trap’ (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler 2007, p.3).

Again, Deveureux and Sabates-Wheeler (2007, p.3) presented the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) and Development Assistance Committee’s (DAC) approach to poverty reduction. This framework according to the POVNET task team is “inflected by Nordic values of social development which produced a multidimensional understanding of poverty reduction and a focus on pro-poor growth that combines economic opportunities, social protection and inclusion or
empowerment.” To Voipio (2007), social protection is envisaged as a necessary tool for a pro–poor growth and as “a rights-based responsibility to care”. The approach plays two alternative roles such as being market–based and providing universal social security as a right.

The Universal Social Minimum (USM) as advocated by Thompson (2007) projects this framework as resources, opportunities, rights, and power to lead an appreciable decent and dignified life to participate and advance as a free and equal member in society. In the bid to counter this framework, the authors make it clear that though the Universal Social Minimum depicts a “political programme” with emphasis on human rights and social justice, which makes its practicality questionable. To buttress the USM approach, it posits the advantage of ensuring that “Parliamentarians”, “Civil Society”, “the media” and “the public” are mobilized and engaged in the “current debate” around social protection. To underline this point, the Universal Social Minimum seems to be too ambitious and unrealistic based on the ever increasing population growth and global intermittent economic downturns. The choice of this approach to social protection may be difficult to sustain.

The last but not least framework to discuss is the Life Cycle approach to social protection articulated by the European Commission (2015, p.26) in the paper, Supporting Social Protection Systems. The life cycle approach is based on the “understanding that individuals face different risks and vulnerabilities at different stages in life and that social protection can be designed to address these risks at any stage”. To expatiate, the paper unveils that a life cycle of an individual is the period where vulnerabilities are held constant and that social protection instruments can address these shocks as they occur in the negative life cycle changes of an individual. (European Commission, 2015) Though this approach in the 21st century is more
current and seeks to discuss the reality of life, the question of its sustainability still remains. It is worth noting that however, that the Life Cycle Social protection approach is a sure means to effect a proper means of targeting where the needs of individuals will be met accordingly. Furthermore, the approach is not opened on the main actors to implement this policy whether it should be shouldered by the State or a collaboration between the State and private actors.

Undoubtedly, Social protection has different definitions, approaches, models among scholars which makes it quite controversial and confusing. However, a proper recognition of the economic, social and cultural nature of a state will present the appropriate framework to be employed in executing social protection for the benefit of all.

2.3 THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOCIAL PROTECTION

This section focuses on the ability of Local Government to handle social protection in its jurisdiction in terms of its role and capacity building. Social protection as a crux in developing a country depends on the capacity of its institutions and the critical role they play to ensure its success.

Scholars have attempted to address the role of Local Government to ensure the smooth running of the general welfare of citizens but Local Government as an engine for poverty reduction seems to be agreed on by the few scholars who have written on this subject. In view of this, the questions to ponder over is whether the implementation of social protection is not a burden to the already existing functions of Local Government? Is Local Government significant in achieving the goal of social protection? What is the role of Local Government and how can its capacity be
enhanced in Social Protection? In order to suit the central objective of this research, a review of what scholars have opined will be subsequently brought to the fore.

According to Slack (2014), the idea of Local Government as a paramount actor in social protection was birthed out of the need to reach global targets such as the Millennium Development Goals from 2010 to 2015 (MDGs) and the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) from 2015 to 2030. The UN global call for countries to localize global targets placed an additional responsibility on Local Governments to ensure and monitor the achievement of developmental targets locally. The paper revealed the strong case made for Local Government by international organizations such as the UN. Slack (2014, p.1) comments that “local councils are in the best position to ensure that the needs of local people are understood and met.” In this vein, one can profoundly make a stance that even the SDGs “leave no one behind” agenda can only be realized when Local Government is recognized as a major implementer in their jurisdiction. One can argue that the case of Local Government and decentralization in social protection is a step in the right direction for the many countries pursuing some form of decentralization. This also confirms the findings of Scott and Rao (2011) that Local Government is seen as that part of governance that really impacts lives through social services.

The subsequent estimation of Scott and Rao (2011) suggest that over eighty percent (80%) of developing countries are engaging decentralization, which makes local governance, the most trending path for development and for a fact, the most significant tread for implementing sustainable social protection policies. It is relevant to note that, the Nordic countries which include Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark and the Faroe Islands have structured implementation of social policies such that, local authorities play key roles in administration and taxation eventhough
their national governments have the residual role of legislation. For example, the Swedish Welfare model entrusted the responsibility of health and social services into Local Government as emphasis drifted to the adoption of neoliberalism. This to a large extent shows the dynamic nature of welfare in modern states and the need to focus on Local Government.

As an implementer and coordinator of public services, Local Government plays significant roles in social protection which has been enumerated by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) the United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF) in 2013. First of all, Local Governments work as agents for sensitization and awareness creation. Social Protection requires an informed public to be more effective in placing demands on political leaders to cater for the poor and vulnerable in society. Also, local participation is enhanced in governance which contributes immensely to the implementation of social policies. For instance, when social protection materials are translated into the local dialects, local people are more likely to understand the objectives of government and hold representatives accountable especially when expectations are not met.

Local Government performs the function of targeting, which is the identification of vulnerable groups for social protection in their locality. By large, Local Governments are in a better position to identify the right people to benefit from social protection programmes. Mkandawire (2005) noted that targeting has the tendency to pose the challenge of “horizontal inequality” if not meticulously done. Therefore, Local Government becomes unavoidable in social protection targeting as drawbacks are mostly minimized as a result of their knowledge and nearness to the people. Vital information is collected from the local people to get to well deserving beneficiaries of Social Protection. Births and deaths are registered by Local Government to plan ahead
as well as keep tracking the most vulnerable and the poorest in the local area. This to a large extent, makes social protection targeting cost-effective when Local Government is involved as compared to central bureaus attempting targeting at the grassroots.

Another role of Local Government in social protection noted by UNDP and UNCDF (2013) is the ability to deliver benefits to social protection beneficiaries especially in the absence of an electronic payment system. One may argue that local officials giving out cash to the needy opens avenues for corruption. However, this could be checked if institutional and accountability mechanisms are set right. Local Banking services was suggested by the paper to avoid the direct involvement of local officials.

Furthermore, Local Government as part of its role in social protection creates the avenue for grievances and redress. According to the UN, audits and public hearings does great service to Local Government in its quest to offer better services. On the contrary, it is pointed out that complaints mechanism cannot be enough unless it is linked with relevant response from stakeholders such as the media, NGOs and CSOs in providing social protection for the vulnerable. This to a large extent, this assertion is laudable which could be emulated globally. In the context of this study, complaints and redress mechanisms have been paid less attention especially in the case of Ghana in Social Protection which the LEAP as a focal point of concern. A contention could also be made that transparency and accountability ensure effectiveness in policy implementation. Therefore, strides must be made to give Local Government, a facelift with regard to complaints and solutions to grievances.

Further on the task of Local Government, coordination of public services is recognized by the UNDP and UNCDF (2013). Apart from cash transfers in social
protection services, Local Government is mandated to coordinate other sectors like health, education, agriculture among others. In a further explanation, Local Government is aligned with other ministries of the aforementioned sectors to ensure the provision of relief to the vulnerable in accessing quality food, education, healthcare, employment, to mention but a few. In support of this, Miroro and Van Kesteren (2016) singled out the synergy between Agriculture and social protection as outstanding and beckoned stakeholders to pay attention. Giving an instance that local markets are boosted by demand for food and services, it was then revealed that eighty percent of Ghanaian beneficiaries spend their income in the local economy. Obviously, a stance could be made that the ability of Local Government to bring in line other sectors has a direct bearing on the realization of social protection.

Monitoring and evaluation remains a core responsibility of Local Government. UNDP and UNCDF (2011) recognized the strength of the local system ‘qualitatively’ to achieve greater prospects in monitoring than central level. This extensively remains unambiguous as Local Government is closest to the people. However, UNDP and UNCDF (2011) established the missing linkage between local governance and social protection in both “empirical and conceptual discussions”. This was largely drawn from the fact that many authors seem to focus on the implementations and outcomes of social protection without looking at the institutional structure to achieve it. The efficiency of Social protection according to the article largely depends on how the “administrative capacity” is empowered. Meanwhile, ongoing discourse suggests that local governance has no clear mandate on how to ensure the implementation of Social Protection. This is indeed alarming considering the bigger picture of reaching the needs of the grassroots citizens. Local Government as the main arm of public services due to its proximity to the people was projected by
the article, however, admitting the various conceptual debates on social protection and local governance such as targeting, universalism, conditional or unconditional cash among others.

Again, the article which was based on a desk review makes a strong assertion that social protection programmes are disjointed exhibiting poor governance and “weak institutional capacity” in most countries (UNDP and UNCDF, 2011). Obviously, these countries though not referred to by the article, have been unable to manage social policies, which has led to this classification.

On the other hand, concrete grounds were given by UNDP and UNCDF (2011) on why local governance and decentralization should be considered when it comes to social protection implementation. Also, the need to strengthen Local Governments in public service delivery as a strong link between Central government and the citizens was touched on buttressing the focus of this research. This to a large extent puts forward the potential of Local Government to implement social protection policies since it is the fastest way to achieve development goals such as the Sustainable Development Goals according to Voipio (2010).

From a Local governance perspective, UNDP and UNCDF (2011) posited that the role of Local Government becomes more evident and well understood if the framework for social protection is clearly noted. It is, therefore, inferred that the non-singular path social protection finds itself across the academic community is likely to blur the significant role played by Local Government. This also stipulates the crossroads at which social protection finds itself as the topmost priority of the development agenda in many countries especially developing countries.
Meanwhile, the authors give three main categories from which Local Government capacity and role for social protection could be viewed from. These include financing; setting policies, parameters, and norms; an implementation that is, management and administration (UNDP and UNCDF, 2011). As it stands, engaging social protection in governance is very expensive and requires funds to ensure its effective implementation.

The central government according to the (UNDP and UNCDF, 2011), should solely fund social protection programmes rather than Local Government based on the general debate of whom to be responsible for funding social protection. Jorgensen and Van Domerlen (1999) also consent to the importance of social funds as a boost to social protection. The indication from this point of funding suggests that Local Government does not have the funds to man public delivery unless the Central Government makes funds available.

A notable reason given by UNDP and UNCDF (2011) is that distributional and equity challenges emerged across Local Governments when social protection programmes are locally funded. Therefore, it is evident that Local Government lacks the sole funding capacity for social protection requiring the direct involvement of Central Government. However, there is an exception to this; local areas which seems to be affluent and can provide social protection should not be hindered. The central government, in this case, can only play supervisory or advisory role to ensure efficiency.

Notwithstanding the all-important role of Local Government, many scholars have unanimously projected the need to build the capacity of the sub-national government to be more effective and efficient. However, Vincent and Stephen (2015) are of the
view that scholars and practitioners have merely simplified the meaning of capacity-building but it is a rather complex subject which needs elucidation to survive in an administration. On the other hand, McGill (2010) recognizes the wide gap between theory and practice when it comes to capacity building in Local Governance. He argued that the core of capacity measurement of Local Government is getting the best performance from the entity, however, this cannot be achieved if an institutional development framework which has all capacity interventions captured is not created. This to a large extent is affirmed by Scott and Rao (2011) who state that the dynamic role of Local Government in this era of globalization needs to build capacity in order to match up the current trend of decentralization. They also exposed the criticisms surrounding Local Government as having a rather weak capacity building urge of which this research relates with.

The case of capacity building has not been different in Ghana’s Local Government; obviously, the service has been battling with corruption, overlapping of role, inadequate funds, lack of personnel, poor coordination among others which has necessitated the need for a Capacity Building Framework document to spell out the modalities for a capacity building in a long term (Local Government Service (LGS), 2016). Significantly, the clearly defined document of capacity building in Ghana’s Local Government is supposed to strengthen the weak institutional arrangements, which has been stated emphatically in many researches as a challenge in the implementation of social policies. This finding anchors the research problem and sparks up the caution that the framework for capacity building in local governance is likely to become a mere document rather than translating into reality if not protected by stakeholders.
According to Boyle and O’Riordan (2013), central to local capacity building is the recognition of the changing roles and management competency of Local Government. This buttresses the conviction of Murray (2007) cited in Boyle and O’Riordan (2013, p. 22) that; “without the capacity to make decisions and implement them well, ineffective government is the best expectation one might have: the worst expectation is a failed state”. This expression cannot be underestimated when it comes to an institutional capacity building. Local governance is the heart of a democratic state which envisages sustainable development and it is therefore crucial to note that the implementation of a social protection policy demands capacity building in the fields of research, human resource, financial management, monitoring and evaluation, Information and Communications Technology. This is agreed by Vincent and Stephen (2015) summarizing that the aforementioned areas of capacity-building approach contributes to a result-oriented Local Government.

2.4 CENTRAL - LOCAL GOVERNMENT RELATIONS IN SOCIAL POLICY EXECUTION.

Coordination between central and local authorities in governance has been one of the gray areas in public administration literature. Laffin (2009) assumed that perhaps researchers have not concentrated on this subject due to the difficulty associated with it. In an attempt, he defines central-local relations to broadly include the governmental relations that exist between central, local and non-governmental actors in the world of governance. A glance at this definition exposes non-governmental actors as an integral part of central and local relations in governance which stipulates a wide collaboration among entities both on a national and local levels to achieve results in implementation. This is what Hill and Hupe (2002) re-echoes as the inter-organizational relations with horizontal dimensions. Elaborating this, the horizontal
relation of implementing policy is described as involving officials who are primarily responsible for policy implementation such as Local Government and other departments.

Central to Local Government relations, on the contrary, is viewed by Laffin (2009) as more of a “central encroachment on local autonomy” which is the extreme. Apparently, this view is held from the situation in which policy implementation finds itself as a core implementer of policies at the local level. It also raises the concern of whether theory is far from practice particularly with social policies. On the other hand, Lambright (2011) states that central-local relations are the “formal administrative and informal political linkages” that exist between Central and Local Government explaining that what ever affects the center is bound to affect but quickly sidelines Africa as having a history of the center dominating the local level which makes the upsurge of decentralization significant in reshaping governance.

At large, central-local relations in policy success is incumbent on a strong policy, clear set functions and ensuring efficient service-delivery. However, Laffin (2009) negates this assertion with the inability of central government to motivate and work with Local Government with the common objective of the policy agenda.

In the same vein, a guide to District Assemblies in Ghana (2010) pointed out that although the decentralization policy in Ghana establishes the working relationship between Central and Local Government, most of the laws on local governance have not been in any straightforward language to be easily understood hence the need for a guide. Saito (2001) also acknowledged the experience of Uganda in its initial decentralization stage where central government was seen as more of a controller rather in mutual partnership with Local Government. However, with the passing of
time, MOGCSP (2015) in its National Social Protection framework creates an avenue for coordination and harmonization between Central and Local Government in policy delivery through planning, budgeting, targeting, monitoring and evaluation indicating that coordination between central and Local Government could be successful if it is fueled by a legislative instrument.

Conversely, a regional analysis discovered that though some countries in Asia and the Pacific largely confirms Local Government as a front liner in social protection administration and management, it is less involved in design, policy, planning and finance (UNDP and UNCDF, 2013). This appears unfortunate because, the sustainability of social protection rides on the back of a strong central to Local Government relationship. Therefore, UNDP and UNCDF (2013) proposed that it is imperative to ensure capacity building in both national and sub-national entities in order to attract non-state actors to be involved in governmental programmes of which Lambright (2011) concurs.

On the whole, Castles (1998) holds strong arguments with regards to decentralization and the outcomes of social protection. In his view, the most essential bit for a successful social protection is dependent on political decentralization rather than fiscal decentralization. His detailed analysis of twenty-one (21) OECD nations on the connection between decentralization and welfare policies makes it appropriate for this research to agree that, the robustness of central and local relations must always be referred to when evaluating the growth of social protection.
2.5 CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTING SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES.

This theme is basically focused on the challenges encountered by countries in the implementation of social protection policies especially in developing countries through the lens of Local Government, the key player in social policy implementation. After over two decades of pursuing social protection as an anti-poverty strategy, it is only necessary to assess scholarly opinion on the hurdles faced by modern Governments in Africa such as Ghana, South Africa, Nigeria, Uganda, Kenya among others, who have adopted decentralization squarely and inculcated social protection into their developmental agenda.

Rudra (2015) asserts that the principal challenge of social protection programmes especially in industrializing countries is the expansion and cutting cost on such programmes. This assertion supports the stance of Cook and Kabeer (2009), who clearly stated that the core issues of social protection includes scaling up, sustainability and financing of the programme.

Similarly, Barrientos and Hulme (2008) agrees that challenges exist when developing countries engage social protection but singles out financing as a major constraint on the implementation. In their view, though social protection is financed by various entities like international organisations, government’s fiscal purse, private organisations and Non-Governmental organisations, the problem lies in sustaining the aspect of financing. For instance in Ghana, Debrach (2013) unraveled that the major obstruction to the implementation of social policies is more related to mobilizing funds to support the programmes such as the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP).
Again, McCord (2009) (cited in Merrien, 2013) pointed out that African Governments are deterred from adopting Social Protection programmes because of its expensive nature. The issue of financing social protection is indeed not surprising because, the advent of adopting a widespread social protection policy was characterized by skepticism and even described as ‘unsuitable for the development of countries’ (Merrien, 2013, p.1). For instance, The World Bank until being exposed to the dynamics of poverty (Holzmann et al., 2003) had its own fears of vouching for social protection in developing countries based on the economic stress it presumed would be imminent. Presently, it is rather obvious that the pros of implementing social protection outweighs its cons which demands a strong financial support base.

Targeting has also been hinted as an exigent factor to social policy implementation. Mkandawire (2005) discovered that the shift from universalism to targeting by both developed and developing countries in the late 1970s was mainly due to financial restraint and the yearn for efficiency in social policies but UNDP and UNCDF (2013) strongly believes that the resort to targeting poses a threat to the implementation of social protection. According to the authors;

‘in many countries, targeting processes for social protection programmes are firmly integrated into the local patronage system. Local Government institutions or traditional authorities responsible for targeting may develop their own targeting criteria based on kinship or other traditional patron-client relations, rather than following criteria based on needs or social and economic vulnerabilities’ (UNDP and UNCDF, 2013, p. 16).

This disclosure however suggests there is an all-round hitch in targeting right from the centre to the local levels of social policy execution which is likely to exclude the very poor of the poorest in the society. Imurana, Kilu and Kofi (2014) adduced some other
critical issues in Africa’s policy implementation apart from financial constraints which is quite significant in Africa. They argued that politicization of public policies is a bottleneck in policy implementation in Africa. They indicated that most African Leaders fail to achieve policy goals right from the formulation stage which poses difficulties at the implementation stage simply because it was hastily done with the motive of gaining political marks citing the ambitious nature of a social policy, the National Health Insurance scheme in Ghana which has the objective of providing universal access to healthcare but in reality, struggling to be achieved. According to Makinde (2005), in Africa, the sustainability of policy implementation is secondary to politicians so far as elections were there to won but the question to ask is whether this assertion holds in implementing social protection viewing from its international acceptance as a priority for nation building. Ameyibor (2015) strongly affirms this assertion that the various assessments on Ghana’s social protection framework portrays a sense of national commitment and the likelihood of successful social protection schemes in the country.

In addition, mention was made of political instability as a hindrance to policy implementation in developing countries which to a degree does not hold in this research since most developing countries are now practicing some form of democracy and constitutional rule. This assertion of Imurana, Kilu and Kofi (2014) is in a direct connection with the findings of UNDP and UNCDF (2013) which identified the extent to which party politics influences institutional structures in the event of social protection targeting mechanisms at the implementation level. It is important to note that the place of party politics is gaining grounds in the implementation of social policies which is likely to undermine the function of the implementing body, Local Government.
Furthermore, implementation of policies in Africa is alleged to have been characterized by bribery and corruption. It has become a canker and a force to grapple with in policy implementation which has weakened institutions. Both top and low level Officials enrich themselves with financial resources of the state thereby creating lapses in work efficiency. Makinde (2005), Ugwuanyi and Chukwuemeka (2013) and Imurana et al., (2014) hold this view firmly in their various articles.

The challenge of coordination has been tipped to be a problem in social protection implementation. UNDP and UNCDF (2013) in a regional analysis, identified the inability of several countries to handle both vertical and horizontal especially when many agencies are involved in carrying out social protection programmes. Coherence between central and local levels in policy implementation requires resilience in political commitment and leadership. Conversely, when there has been a lack of precision in the roles of policy implementers. A case in point is the experience of Uganda where conflicting roles caused tensions among Officers as revealed in a study by Bukuluki and Watson (2012). In the same vein, Ameyibor (2015, p. 1) also lamented that ‘the weaknesses in coordination has resulted in lack of coherence, duplication and overlap, issues of sustainability, inefficient use of resources, turf-war and competition’ in Ghana’s Social Protection implementation system. One may argue that coordination among ministries and sectors presents a better place for policy implementation to thrive and must not unattended to by governments. Again, it makes it glaring that the masses at the receiving end are bound to suffer the consequences of poor coordination. It is therefore not strange for Rudra (2015, p. 467) to conclude that ‘the poor who should benefit the most from social programmes face tremendous mobilization problems because of their geographical diffusion, lack of access to information and coordination challenges’. This to a very large extent exhibits a firm
correlation between poor coordination and poor outcomes of social policy implementation.

Additionally, Makinde (2005) explained that a policy fails when the target group does not own it. This is to say, the lack of participation of the local people in the formulation of a policy makes its implementation cumbersome. Many a times, local people in Africa tend to be sidelined which does not allow for experimentation, innovation and accountability in service delivery (Imurana, Kilu and Kofi, 2014).

Significantly, human resource is also said to impede the implementation of social protection programmes. It has been identified that if staffing levels remain low, the few Officials feel reluctant to work which is a stark fact in most governments. Studies have shown that shortage incapacitate government officials to work towards achieving the successful execution of social protection policies (UNDP and UNCDF, 2013).

From another angle, Jaha and Sika-Bright (2015) unraveled an institutional twist to the challenges of a social programme implementation in Ghana. They found out that the unavailability of incentives and work tools cripples the efficiency of policy implementation. One of the examples given by the authors indicated that the issue of mobility was a major problem for local officials which inhibits the smooth running of the social programme in the grassroot community. Ameyibor (2015) therefore, re-echoed the need to build capacity of the policy implementers to be able to deliver and respond to the needs of beneficiaries of social programmes.

Subsequently, the issue of monitoring and evaluation remains on the top list of challenges confronting social policy implementation among scholars. The UNDP and UNCDF (2013) posited that monitoring and evaluation involves all levels of government be it frontliners or sub-national officials because through that data is
properly managed and the eligibility of beneficiaries are reviewed. However, the study bemoaned the extent to which capacity constraints stifles the progress of monitoring and evaluation in making social policies work. To support this assertion, Abbey (2013) writing on the “worrying signal of social protection in Ghana” hinted that the hurdles in Ghana’s social intervention programmes such as the Ghana School Feeding programme and Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Development Agency (GYEEDA) could be traced to the “non-existent” functioning of monitoring and evaluation system with an efficient information system. From a critical point of view, the position of Abbey (2013) writes off the mechanism for monitoring social programmes but one may argue that indeed there are monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in place but appears dormant. Significantly, Lithur (2013) also admitted to the fact that monitoring and evaluation needed to be strengthened in social programmes which brings to light the lapses in programme monitoring.

O’Flynn (2010) in a policy brief expounded that implementation success strongly relies on working across boundaries be it across nationals, organisations, sectors among others. She sets out practical areas that are critical to implementation success which primarily includes coordination and collaboration of governments, agencies and private entities based on purpose and function. However, she noted that working across these boundaries could double up as an enabler and barrier to policy implementation at the same time depending on its outlook. In this regard, four key factors which include formal structures; commonality and complexity; performance, accountability and budgets; people, culture and leadership were mentioned by the author to buttress her case on intersecting boundaries to achieve or not to achieve performance in public purposes.
The juxtaposition of these four key areas of cross-boundary working by O’Flynn establishes that indeed, formal structures enhances collaborative work especially when there is a sense of shared goals and outcomes (commonality) among working factions. Also, a focus on relationships and varied roles remain powerful to facilitate success in cross-working settings recognizing that the institution of performance systems, holistic budgets and accountability borders makes implementation easier. On the contrary, when these four key factors identified in cross-boundary working is misapplied according to O’Flynn, it becomes barriers to a successful implementation of programmes and policies.

To a large extent, O’Flynn (2010) gives a bigger picture of the major dynamics of the success or failure of policy implementation which cannot be understated because most of the challenges of implementation noted by scholars like Barrientos and Hulme (2008), Cook and Kabeer (2009), (Debrah 2013), Rudra (2015) to mention but a few are somewhat coined in the findings of O’Flynn on the challenges of implementations. Also, this buttresses Rondinelli et al. (1989) stance that as long as population increases, the demand for public services and expectations for a better standard of living will also increase. With much emphasis on developing countries, the authors described how local services are “inefficiently and ineffectively provided sporadically” by the central government. Underlying the fact, “that local institutions lack the incentives, adequate funds, technical expertise and management capacities to provide services”. That notwithstanding, Rudra (2015) is optimistic that ‘myriad of challenges’ facing developing economies should not be a stumbling block but embrace the opportunities that exist for the expansion of social protection and its implementation.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is focused on the Methodology which unveils the plans and the processes that were involved in carrying out this research. The methodology is the engine for conducting a research. It entails the research design or strategy, types of data, study area, population, sampling technique, sample size, methods and instruments for data collection, data presentation and analysis. The chapter also discusses the limitations or the problems encountered in the course of the research as well as the ethics that were upheld in collecting the research data.

3.1 THE RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Philosophical paradigms are important to the conduct of every research. Aside influencing the research under study, they act as the framework within which the research study is situated. According to Creswell (2013), every research is informed by some basic assumptions and beliefs. The research philosophy involves the use of abstract ideas and beliefs towards addressing a particular research issue. It also grants an explanation on the reason for adopting a specific research method namely Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods.

There exist four types of philosophical assumptions, also known as claims to knowledge. These are positivism, constructivism, advocacy or participatory and Pragmatism (Creswell, 2009; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). This study adopts the Constructivism research philosophy and Advocacy or Participatory research philosophy to address the objectives of this research. The reasons for adopting these two assumptions are briefly discussed in the sections below.
3.1.2 Constructivism

Constructivism is also known as social constructivism. It is based on the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live (Creswell, 2003). As much as possible, social constructivists rely on views of participants for addressing a particular situation under study. Social constructivism assumes that individuals develop subjective meanings of events. Mason (2002) asserts that constructivism is based on an understanding of the social world rather than making predictions. In this sense, researchers who adopt the constructivist view in addressing issues have to deal with a number of different views to arrive at certain conclusions. Constructivists mostly rely and adopt open-ended questioning of participants. This is because it is believed to grant the target group the opportunity to express themselves for significant details to be retrieved (Creswell, 2009). This assumption is relevant for this research which seeks to assess the connection between local participation and sustainable social protection policy implementation. The intent of the researcher under this paradigm is to make sense of the meanings participants have about the world (Creswell, 2007, p. 21). In this case, engaging beneficiaries and implementers of the LEAP Programme in interactions would ascertain the level of coordination that exists between central government and Local Government to ensure workable Social Protection policies.

3.1.3 Advocacy/ Participatory Assumption.

The advocacy or participatory assumption aims at empowering minority groups who have been neglected in society. It focuses on correcting social injustices, protect and
promote the rights of minority and vulnerable groups in society. This assumption suits this research since it mainly assess the role of Local Government in Social protection for the poor and vulnerable in the society.

The Advocacy or participation assumption was developed as a result of the need to address social injustice in society. According to Creswell (2009), the advocacy or participatory stance generally aims at mainstreaming the marginalised in society and improving upon their lives. It also aims to address issues of oppression, inequality and focuses on inclusiveness for minority groups in society. This, therefore, makes it suitable for the issue under study.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND APPROACHES

3.2.1. Qualitative Research Design

To Kumar (2014, p. 95), a research design refers to “a plan, structure and strategy of investigation to obtain answers to research questions or problems.” In his view, the design is the overall format or outline of the study. Kerlinger (1986) also adds that the design may include a framework of whatever the researcher will do right from putting down his or her research questions or hypothesis, all the way to drafting down the final assessment of data. The views of Selltiz, Wrightsman, and Cook (1976) appear to be in conjunction with that of Kerlinger (1986, p. 279) when they argued that “a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.” Kumar (2014, p. 96) argues that the functions of a research design are to help “conceptualise an operational plan to undertake the various procedures and tasks required to complete your study and to also ensure that these procedures are adequate to obtain valid, objective and accurate answers to the research questions.”
In the same vein, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) refers to a research design as a strategy or general plan of how the researcher will answer research questions. In simple terms, a research design or strategy is to be chosen with both questions and objectives of the research in mind. Other considerations of choosing a research strategy is well elaborated by Saunders et al. (2009) which includes the philosophical basis of the research, the extent of existing literature on the subject of research, the resources and the time available for the research to be conducted.

Fundamentally, there exists three main strands in research designs that have been identified by scholars in undertaking research. They include qualitative, quantitative and mixed method research design, also known as triangulation.

Kumar (2014) outlines that quantitative research designs are often precise, unambiguous, well organized and established, and they have often been approved for their levels of reliability and validity. Additionally, quantitative research designs can be unambiguously defined and identified. Dawson (2002) is also of the view that quantitative research designs are more concerned with the generation of figures or statistics by means of extensive and comprehensive surveys that resort to the use of questionnaires or structured interviews. According to Dawson (2002, p. 15), “this type of research reaches many more people, but the contact with those people is much quicker than it is in qualitative research.” Atieno (2009, p.13) also adds that a quantitative research “is empirical in nature; it is also known as the scientific research paradigm. The paradigm ensures validity by the process of rigorous clarification, definition or use of pilot experiments.”
The qualitative research design on the other hand is much concerned with the exploration of behavior, attitudes and experiences by resorting to the use of tools such as interviews and focus groups (Dawson, 2002).

Kalof, Dan and Dietz (2008) are of the view that whereas quantitative research focuses on the use of statistics to interpret data, qualitative research design relies extensively on the skills of the investigator to observe patterns without resorting to statistical instruments in the investigation process. The qualitative research design in a nutshell, traditionally inclines towards the fixation of “the meaning and motivations that underlie cultural symbols such as language, personal experiences, and phenomena and on detailed understandings of processes in the social world” (Kalof,Dan and Dietz, 2008; p. 79).

Furthermore, the qualitative research design is also enfolded in a more explanatory and chronicled mode that by implication, reduces the burden of the difficulties of conceptualizing the salient outcomes by other scholars. It also makes it possible for the researcher to conduct interviews that will not be restricted to specific questions and can be altered by the researcher to suit the situation at any time. It also flexible enough to redirect the course or bearing and structure of the study as soon as new or additional information and findings come into light.

Denzin (1989) argues that the qualitative research method guides to a well detailed explanation of the views, feelings and experiences of the respondents as well as aiding to decipher the relevance or impact of their actions. This approach has been motivated by the affirmation that unlike the other research designs, a qualitative research design is more opened to the quality rather than the quantity of a phenomena. Since this research has the prime objective to assess the role of Local Government in the
implementation of Social Protection Programmes, opinions and views cannot be analytically quantified which makes room for a qualitative study to ascertain the quality of implementing the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme in the Ga East Municipal Assembly (GEMA) to gain insight into the complex issue of Local Governance and Social Protection.

Regardless of the benefits derived from adopting the qualitative research approach, it comes with its share of challenges. For instance, Atieno (2009) argues that qualitative research is often overburdened with ambiguity which are also inherent in human language, making its analysis quite difficult. Additionally, the findings of qualitative research in most circumstances “cannot be extended to wider populations with the same degree of certainty that quantitative analyses can. This is because the findings of the research are not tested to discover whether they are statistically significant or due to chance” (Atieno, 2009 p. 17). It also relies extensively on the proficiency of the investigator and can therefore without much difficulty be prejudiced by the personal preferences or predisposition of the researcher; thereby making the study process relatively unscientific.

In discussing the mixed method research design as the third force of the research approach, Creswell (2009) argues that it founded on the logical and theoretical notions which amalgamates the quantitative and qualitative research approaches in study. The mixed method therefore, attempts to merge both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches to collect and analyze data. The mixed method design or triangulation merges both qualitative and quantitative methods to address their limitations. On the contrary, it has been criticised based on its non-aligned nature in the process of research with qualitative or quantitative designs.
Specifically, the researcher employed a qualitative approach in order to attain the objectives of this study and to gain the flexibility to explore the nitty-gritty of the LEAP implementation process. It is important to note that one good thing about a qualitative study is that it simplifies and manages data without distorting “complexity and context” (Atieno 2009, p. 16).

Furthermore, the choice has been necessitated by the nature of this study as an implementation research. According to Hill and Hupe (2002), an implementation requires a qualitative design to be able to look into a single policy which in this study is the Social Protection policy. Again, they argue that an implementation research does not need a quantitative approach in which varying cases or policies will be compared and analyzed, that is why it was imperative to use the qualitative research design in this study.

3.2.2. Case Study Approach

A qualitative research design has various approaches through which enquiry is achieved. Among these approaches are case study, ethnography, grounded theory, narrative and feminist research (Dawson 2002).

Yin (2009, p.18) indicates a two-fold technical definition of case studies. First, “a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context especially when boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly indicated”. The second part of Yin’s definition states that a case study research strategy or approach “copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points and as one result, relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in
a triangulating fashion and as another result, benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis” (Yin, 2009, p.18).

To a large extent, the above definitions makes case studies highly significant to the enquiry of any contemporary phenomenon and projects itself as a multi-sided approach to research design, theory, data collection and data analysis. Again, the case study research is distinctive in the sense that it can be used in both qualitative and quantitative methods of research but closely associated with a qualitative study (Yin 2009). In the views of Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight (2006), case studies as the name implies, focuses on specific or distinct cases. Giving an outline that the case study approach is most preferably used when a researcher intends to concentrate on just a single phenomenon which makes it relevant in this study.

By inference, the case study approach demands an in-depth understanding, densed observation and a direct contact with the prevailing phenomenon for an accurate analysis to be reached on the subject under study. Therefore, the approval of a case study for this research creates that platform to assess the role of Local Government in the implementation of Social Protection. Again, the approach facilitates the access to adequate information on the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme and the experiences of stakeholders who are in the grassroots system.

Furthermore, looking at the nature of the research topic and its main objective to assess the role of Local Government in the implementation of the LEAP programme, it is only imperative to delve into processes and conditions surrounding the implementation from the people involved which calls for a case study approach.

Moreover, the case study is appropriate for the constructivist and participatory philosophical assumptions of study which is first, to understand issues from the
world’s perspective and second, to advocate equality for the marginalized in the society through strong systems. Adopting a case study therefore, drives the need to engage beneficiaries and authorities of the LEAP programme in a particular setting known as the Ga East Municipality.

Aside the strengths, the quality of a case study has been opened to doubt and described as a “soft research” Yin (2009, p. 19). However, he argues that, a case study is not a soft research and could only be described as such if the researcher fails to follow systematic procedures associated with the approach. For this reason, I followed the systematic way of collecting data and making analyses to arrive at conclusions of the study making it credible.

Another weakness associated with the choice of case study is the complexity in making scientific generalisations with the findings of the research. On the contrary, the researcher agrees with Yin (2009) that case studies can be equally generalized in terms of theoretical propositions like scientific experiments, therefore the findings of this research can be expanded and generalized based on the Social Democratic Welfare and Bottom-Up theoretical models underpinning this research. Although this study is focused on a peri-urban setting, the findings and conclusions made could be applicable elsewhere.

On the shortcomings of validity and reliability in a case study, this research is not affected because Yin (2009) brings to bare four tests that are widely common for establishing validity and reliability in any empirical research. These tests include; construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability which the researcher adopted in the research. First, to survive a construct validity, specific operational concepts such as Local Governance and Social Protection were targeted.
for the research and subsequently situated in existing literature and theoretical propositions. Again, the use of multiple sources of evidence such as the semi-structured interviews and observation in the data collection process survives the test for construct validity. The second test noted by Yin (2009) is the internal validity with is concerned with explanation building in the study. Causal relationships have been established to assess the role of Local Government in Social Policy implementation which meets the internal validity test. The third test is the external validity, which relates to defining the scope in which a research findings can be generalised based on theoretical assumptions has also been met. On the fourth test of reliability, the study is to demonstrate the operations of the research. The well-established data collection methods, techniques and detailed analysis in this research sets it for reliability.

In summary, the case study approach is most appropriate for the research because; first, it has means to achieve the research objectives, second, it has the ability to combine research techniques relevant for data collection, third, it is compatible with the philosophical view points of this research and finally suitable for investigating the single policy of this study.

3.3. SOURCES OF DATA

The researcher used both primary and secondary data. The data was primarily collected from interviews using interview guides which the researcher prepared herself to acquire relevant knowledge on the subject of the research. An introductory letter was sent to the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and the Municipal Coordinator of the Ga East Municipal Assembly (GEMA) in order to have
access to the LEAP Coordinator and the staff of Social Development respectively for interviews.

The secondary data on the other hand was collected and reviewed from published materials, journals, working papers, LEAP annual reports and other relevant materials to arrive at a desired result. These information were obtained from the Balme Library and the Institute of Local Government Studies. Additional information were also collected from electronic sources such as jstor and sage. Both the primary (interviews) and the secondary data assisted in providing an assessment of the empirical study.

3.4. RESEARCH POPULATION

The Population for the study constituted the Local Government Officials and beneficiaries of the LEAP programme in the Ga East Municipality. The interest in the Ga East Municipality as study area stems from its uniqueness as peri-urban dwelling which has benefited from most Social Intervention programmes in Ghana and experienced the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme right from its inception in 2008. To make the choice of population justifiable, it is generally assumed that towns in the regional capital should be financially stable due to the brisk economic activities undertaken. However, the Ga East Municipal Assembly which is situated in the northern part of Greater Accra region in Ghana has impoverished dwellers who rely on the LEAP programme for survival. Again, beneficiaries who have received the state’s cash transfer since its birth in Ghana are in a better position and have the rich experience to provide the required knowledge of the subject of study. Therefore, the municipality is deemed appropriate for the study, since it carries the historical information of the LEAP programme.
3.5. SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND SAMPLE SIZE

The research used a non-probability sampling technique, thus purposive sampling, to intentionally select the research respondents whose qualities and expertise match the requirements of the study. This approach was largely due to the purpose of achieving greater results in the findings of the research.

The sample size was drawn from the Ga East Municipal Assembly office, beneficiaries of LEAP in the assembly and the LEAP Management Unit in Accra. The sample size constituted twenty (20) respondents. Ten (10) Officials including the National LEAP Coordinator, Head of Social Development in Ga East Municipality, Three (3) Municipal LEAP officials, Four (4) voluntary Community LEAP Officials and one Representative of an NGO operating in the municipality. The other ten (10) respondents are beneficiaries of the LEAP comprising four (4) Household Heads, two (2) persons living with disabilities, two (2) Caregivers of Orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) and two (2) elderly people above age sixty-five (65).

The ten (10) officials were chosen for the interview primarily because of their role as field implementers of social protection programmes like the LEAP. On the other hand, the ten (10) beneficiaries were purposively selected because of their qualification to benefit from LEAP cash transfers. This was to enable the researcher sift in-depth information from the various categories of beneficiaries.

3.5.1. Respondents Available For Interview

Fifteen (15) respondents were accessed for interview instead of the twenty (20) respondents initially selected for the study. Five (5) officials which included; The Head of Social Welfare and Community Development (GEMA), Head of Monitoring
and Evaluation of the LEAP Management Unit (Ministry Of Gender, Children and Social Protection), Social Development Officer of the Ga East Municipal Assembly (GEMA), Community Focal Person (Abokobi), Community LEAP Implementer (Boi). There were also ten (10) beneficiaries of LEAP who were available for the interview. They include; four (4) household heads above 65 with dependants, two (2) caregivers of OVCs, two (2) Physically challenged persons, and two (2) elderly people above sixty-five living alone. These beneficiaries were drawn from various areas in Ga East Municipality such as Abokobi, Boi, Dome, Akporman, Sesemi and Kwabenya.

All respondents were carefully selected for the interview as primary informants of the research based on their knowledge and expertise in the area of research. The five officials represented the core interest of this research to assess Local Government in the Social protection policy implementation whiles the ten (10) were selected to share their experiences with the LEAP programme and the Officials responsible for its implementation at the grassroot level of administration.

3.6. METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

To aid the collection of data, interviews, documents review and personal observation methods were primarily used. The choice for an interview was imperative because it helped the researcher to gather in-depth knowledge and have a face-to-face encounter with Local Government Officials and LEAP beneficiaries for raw data. This is directly in line with the thoughts of Kothari (2004) who states that interviews offer researchers, a greater advantage for soliciting information than all other research instruments or tools for data collection. Again, questions could easily be reframed because of the flexibility of interviews especially unstructured interview guides.
Therefore, a participatory research such as this, two (2) semi-structured interview guides were required to give me a first-hand information from stakeholders and beneficiaries of LEAP. The interview guides were designed to answer the research questions and pre-examined before sending it out on the field. This enabled me to have control over the line of questioning which made it selective and ethical. Furthermore, interviews were recorded and results transcribed to capture the pertinent issues raised by respondents. Notwithstanding the significance of interviews, there are also some difficulties associated with it. Kothari (2004) noted that the researcher may be biased in data presentation and very time-consuming when respondents are many.

I also engaged in an observation on the field to have a foremost information on how Local Officials interact with LEAP beneficiaries in discharging their duties through the LEAP payment process. The challenge of the observation was that I was perceived as an intruder which confirms the weakness of an observation as noted by Creswell (2014).

Furthermore, I reviewed documents from the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and Local Government portals. This choice emanated from the fact that these documents are readily available for the research. Nonetheless, Creswell (2014) criticizes the review of documents in the sense that the information may not be completely adequate or authentic.

3.7. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Creswell (2014) posits that the process of data presentation and analysis is a sensitive one which involves a rigorous exposition of the data collected in detail. This includes preparing the data for analyses, conducting various analyses, representing the data and making an extensive meaning out of the data.
The research adopted a thematic analysis approach to analyse and interpret the data collected from the field. Themes and sub themes are developed from the interviews conducted and analyzed in relation to the research problem and the objectives underlying the study.

Again, by qualitative, the researcher engaged a word-based presentation and a generic analysis of the secondary data such as annual reports of the LEAP programme, journals articles, document reviews, and existing scholarly research on the subject under consideration to enrich the findings of the research.

### 3.8. PROFILE OF STUDY AREA.

#### 3.8.1 Local Governance

The study area for this research is Ga East Municipal Assembly which was birthed out of the then Ga District established in 2004 by an Act of Parliament (Legislative Instrument 1589) which later gained a municipal status in 2008 by LI 1864. The Ga East Municipal Assembly (GEMA) has ten (10) electoral areas represented by ten (10) elected Assembly members, four (4) appointed Assembly members and a Member of Parliament who form the leadership of the political and administrative structure. The Municipality is also divided into two local administrative areas known as Zonal Councils - Abokobi Zonal Council and Dome Zonal Council. The Municipal Assembly is located at the northern part of Greater Accra Region and covers a Land Area of about 96 sq. km with the capital located in Abokobi. The Assembly is boarded on the west by the Ga West Municipal Assembly (GWMA), on the East by the La-Nkwatanang Municipal Assembly (LaNMA), the south by Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA) and the North by the Akwapim South District Assembly- Eastern region. The Municipal Assembly has about fifty-two (52) settlements with about 82% of the population living in the urban areas. The remaining 18% occupies the rural
areas. The Municipal capital Abokobi is approximately 29 kilometers from the capital city of Ghana, Accra. Some major towns in the municipality include Haatso, Dome, Taifa and Kwabenya.

The report from the 2010 National Population and Housing Census indicated that the Municipal Assembly’s population stands at 198,220 with a growth rate of about 4.2%. Males and females represent 51% and 49% respectively. The Municipality has a population density of 1,214 persons per sq km much higher than the national density of 79.3 and the regional density of 895.5 persons per sq. km. This indicates a great pressure of population on land and resources or what the land can generate.

The Assembly is the highest political authority in the municipality vested with the powers to deliberate, legislate, plan and develop the entire municipality through the preparation and effective implementation of development plans and budget. The municipality is the political and administrative head which has the mandate to enact bye-laws in their jurisdiction.

3.8.2 Vision And Mission Statements Of The Ga East Municipal Assembly.

Vision

The vision of the Assembly to become a highly professional socio-economic service provider that creates opportunities for human resource development in partnership with stakeholders.

Mission
The mission of the Assembly is to facilitate improvement in the quality of life of the people in the Municipality through the provision of basic social service and the promotion of socio-economic development within the context the governance.

Figure 1: Map of the Ga East Municipality.

Source: GaEast Municipal Assembly Archives.
3.8.3 Provision Of Social Services

**Education**

With educational facilities, the municipality has a community day Senior High School and there are about five (5) privately owned Senior High Schools. There are fifty-six (56) public Junior Secondary Schools and a number of private schools which are sited mainly in the peri-urban areas of the Municipality. Also, there are sixty-four (64) public primary schools, with about thirty (32) Early Childhood Development Centers (ECDC), enrolling only 9.8% of children at that level. There are however a number of privately owned Early Childhood Development Centers.

**Health Care Delivery**

The Ga East Municipal Health Management Team (MHMT) is responsible for all health service delivery in the entire municipality. The municipality is responsible for the organization and distribution of primary health care services in all sub-divisions of the area.

**Social Protection**

The municipality benefits from quite a number of social intervention programmes which includes the School Feeding programme, National Health Insurance, Free School Uniforms, Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty among others. These social interventions are being implemented to improve the livelihoods of the vulnerable in the society, by the Municipal Assembly in the area of education, health, agriculture and livelihoods.

The School Feeding Programme aims at serving at least a balanced meal a day for pupils at school. About eighteen (18) out of one hundred and thirteen (113) basic schools in the municipality.
To deliver healthcare for the vulnerable, the National Health Insurance Authority in collaboration with the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection to provide free health care to LEAP beneficiaries.

As the name implies, the Free School Uniforms Programme undertakes the sharing of free school uniforms to children in basic schools. Most school-going children have benefited to ease pressure on their parents for uniforms.

About twenty-three (23) communities benefit from the LEAP programme as of 2013 and not been updated yet. These communities include; Adenkrebi, Agbogba, Ashongman, Abokobi, Aborman, Akporman, Boi, Danfa, Dome, Haatso, Ayimensah, Kweiman, Madina, Nyamekrom, Musuku, Otinibi, Oyarifa, Pantang, Sesemi, Teiman, Ablorh-Adjei, Adoteiman and Kwabenya. However, the creation of the La-Nkwantanang – Madina assembly left Ga East with fourteen (14) communities and two hundred and eighty-nine (289) households benefitting from LEAP. The main implementing body for the LEAP programme is the Department of Social Development under the Ga East Municipal Assembly.

**Agricultural Sector**

The municipality has farming as the major economic activity is about 55% of the economically active population. About 70% of the rural population depends on agriculture as their main source of livelihood with about 95% of them being small farm holders. The major agricultural activities are crop production and livestock production. Among the wide range of vegetables produced are pepper, tomatoes, cabbage, okra and garden eggs based on the seasons for farming them. Livestock production has a very good potential and the district is encouraging it. There are a
number of poultry farmers in and around Abokobi, the Municipal capital notably the Abokobi Agricultural Project.

Tourism

Tourism has become a significant avenue of income and employment generation sector in the country but on the contrary, the Municipal Assembly is yet to tap the existing potentials. There are a number of tourist sites in the municipality that can be developed for the use of the country. The municipality believes that these sites though underdeveloped, hold the key to the area’s development if steps are taken to explore the large potential they present. Undeveloped sites include the slave fort at Kponkpo, the African Village near Sesemi which happens to be the historical origin of the headquarters, Abokobi as a settlement for Presbyterian missionaries and their cemetery. Besides these, potentials exist for ecotourism. The reconstructed Royal Danish Plantation Frederiks gave (Danish Slave Fort) built in 1832 by King Frederik VI at Sesemi, is currently being visited by a few people.

Roads and Transport

The municipality uses roads as form of transport. This implies that the overall improvement of the road network, maintenance and rehabilitation will facilitate and lower transportation cost and integrates the Municipality’s rural economy with the urban economy to reduce poverty. In general, the road network in the municipal area can be described as quite good.

3.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The consent of every respondent was sought before the interview was conducted. For this reason, interviews were free from compulsion and views expressed was highly kept confidential for only academic and research purposes. The anonymity of
beneficiaries especially was protected and other targeted respondents who declined were also respected for their decision which made participation in the research interview voluntary. The researcher explained the objectives and the significance of the research to the state and its citizens.

Furthermore, the information given by some respondents had to be made meaningful for specific analyses of the themes and straight quotations from the respondents were also used to support the thematic analyses and discussion of findings.

### 3.10. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research work encountered some challenges which are hereby noted.

First of all, the researcher had a challenge accessing literature on the subject of social protection and local governance in Ghana. The limited nature of literature on social protection and local governance made it difficult for the researcher to review literature from a pool of scholarly works.

Secondly, the research was limited in scope due to financial and time constraints. The researcher limited the study to the Ga East Municipal Assembly which is a peri-urban area. Ideally, a research of such caliber needed to be conducted in both peri-urban and rural areas to compare the findings but this was not possible, however, a suggestion has been made for further research to conducted in such manner. This may also mean that the findings of this research may not be applicable to specific metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies.

Thirdly, the researcher had difficulties with beneficiaries who declined interview for fear of being deleted from the list of LEAP beneficiaries.
Similarly, some officials did not want to be interviewed giving the excuse that such student research works are not utilized in policy making.

Furthermore, the researcher was delayed in interviewing officials at the outfit responsible for social protection as key officials were on a nationwide tour for LEAP bi-monthly payment.

Finally, some government departments supposed to coordinate with the Department of Social Development to implement social protection in GEMA were hostile to the researcher and refused to be interviewed for this research for lack of information. Again, this could be attributed to their belief that LEAP as a social protection programme is highly politicized and that they were not interested in politics.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS.

4.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analysis and discussions on the data collected from the various interviews conducted from the field with reference to literature and theory.

The collection of data sought to primarily ascertain the role of Local Government in the implementation of sustainable Social Protection Programmes in Ghana with focus on the LEAP programme. In order to achieve this, the data collection process aimed at first, ascertaining the role of Local Government in social protection, assessing the connection between local participation and sustainable social protection policy implementation. Again, it sought to assess the coordination that exist between central and local governments to ensure workable social protection programmes. Also, the challenges confronting Local Government in executing government policies on social protection and finally, to explore the prospects of achieving sustainable social protection (LEAP). The data collected from respondents were analysed using the thematic approach in order to safeguard the realisation of the main research objectives buttressing it with existing literature and the theoretical models underpinning the study.

4.1. THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOCIAL PROTECTION

4.1.2. Familiarity Of Local Officials On Their Roles In Social Protection.

Article 240 and 245 of the Constitution of Ghana establishes Local Government as the administrative and political authority in a district. This is buttressed by the Local Government Act 1993 (462) and Local Governance Act 2016 (939) which projects
Local Government as responsible for both social and economic well-being of the district as well as, co-ordinates the execution of programmes to be implemented by Ministries, Departments, Agencies among others in the district.

Generally, the role of Local Government emanates from the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana but the responsibilities of local officials in social protection is not clearly stated. However, the National Social Protection Policy which is focused on the policy drive of social protection in Ghana, explicitly states that “local authorities have the responsibility for implementing social protection in response to their particular geographical context and collaborate with private and civil society entities in implementation” (NSPP 2015, p. 29). This points to the extent of Government’s commitment to social protection in recent times as a national agenda.

In view of the core objective of this study to ascertain the role played by Local Government in the implementation of social protection at the sub-national level, Local Officials in the Department of Social Development were engaged by the researcher to find out whether they were privy to their roles as stipulated in Ghana National Social Protection Policy. From the responses, it was noted by this research that the officials were fairly abreast with the tasks they had to perform in relation to social protection at the local level. They had the responsibility of basically ensuring that the right people were targeted to benefit from the LEAP programme, mobilise beneficiaries for payments every two months, monitor improvements of the beneficiaries lives among others.

All four officials sampled from the Ga East Municipality had a fair knowledge about their position in carrying out social protection in the municipality. Most responses were interrelated as LEAP implementers were fully aware of their roles and
resposibilities. In particular, a key informant highlighted the following as the social protection roles played:

“As local authorities, we are responsible for major roles like: Implementing policies of government, ensuring beneficiaries get what they need, education and sensitization on programmes of Government, supervising the works of supporting staff (field workers), targeting beneficiaries using poverty maps provided by Ghana Statistical Service, monitoring and evaluation at the local level” (Field interview, 2017).

To show the significance of Local Government, another respondent confidently noted that:

“Local Government’s role in social protection programmes is a big deal. Without us, the work of Government is nowhere” (Field interview, 2017).

The aforementioned findings of the study to a large extent emphasize, that local authorities bring a lot on board for social protection implementation. It is therefore no accident that Ghana has taken the route of a decentralized social protection implementation. Although, the roles according to the respondent gave a fair idea of what local authorities do, it is important to state that these roles were basically pointing to mixed responsibilities rather than the specific roles played in social protection. It would have been better if there was a codified document with the direct roles of local workers spelt out. Even though Ghana’s policy framework on social protection has something on implementation through decentralized structures, the responsibilities of the local officials under the Department of Social Development are not clearly specified which poses a problem.

Moreover, the study recognized that the officials at the Local level were not privy to the Ghana National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) which was launched by the
Ministry Of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MOGCSP) in 2016. This could be alluded to the fact that the outfit of the social protection implementers had no copies of the framework for Local officials to study the details of the social programme they were running in the localities. The officials however, remained uncertain as to when the policy framework will be provided by the central ministry indicating the gap in vertical coordination. In actual fact, this is not a true reflection of the Bottom-Up theoretical model whereby the street bureaucrats are actual implementers of the public policy according to Matland (2005). In the view of this research, if the service deliverers were in practical control of their local affairs, policy implementation would have been much easier for maximum outcomes in local in the local jurisdiction.

According to Basset et al (2012) in World Bank (2012), governance in social protection entails how service providers are held accountable with regards to behavior and efficiency. Also, such governance requires an “institutional architecture” which is strengthened by “rules, roles and controls”. That is to say, for social protection to have an appreciable “institutional architecture”, it needs rules which will offer operational guidelines for policy achievement, clear description of roles of actors involved in the programme and controls which connotes accountability mechanisms at both supply and demand side (Basset et al., 2012 in World Bank, 2012, p.21).

Comparing this assertion to the case of Social Protection in Ghana, it could be said that Ghana has an “institutional architecture” where systems are in place across national and sub-national levels to ensure the possible implementation of social protection. On the contrary, this research can posit that there is a struggle in creating institutional relationships and local accountability of responsibilities as far as local governance and social protection is concerned. This stems from the reality on the
ground where the local office of social protection did not possess the Ghana National Social Protection Policy document and officials could not establish when they will have it for duty references. Again, the issue of accountability on the demand and supply sides of policy implementation come to play in this case. The question still remains whether local authorities on the supply side will be able to account for their action and inactions to the citizens on the demand side. It is therefore quite obvious that accountability will remain weak since no local official can be sanctioned based on any statutory social protection responsibilities.

In sum, findings from the study indicatesthatLocal Government plays the major role of social protection implementation in their locality. With this, the bottom-up theoretical approach underpinning this research projects how Local Government cannot be overlooked in the implementation of social protection in Ghana. As stated by Lipsky (1980) “the street bureaucrats” are in a better position to understand the needs of citizens based on their geographical proximity.

Local Officials are aware of their roles in social protection and are not certain about the content of the National Social Protection Policy which is the manual for social protection in Ghana. This means that exposure and training of Officials on social protection framework has been limited. Moreover, this has a likelihood of affecting a proper sensitization of the public on social protection in the local areas.

4.3. CENTRAL - LOCAL RELATIONS IN SOCIAL PROTECTION IMPLEMENTATION.

4.3.1. Level Of Coordination Between Central And Local Government.

The research sought to examine the level of coordination that exists between the center, local, private and non-governmental organisations. The interview was geared
towards knowing the activities that exists for multi-sectoral coordination in social protection at the local level.

First of all, Ghana’s policy framework on social protection states that Local Government is supposed to coordinate functions across sectors in social protection. Departments of health, Education, Labour and Agriculture at the local level are meant to coordinate with national government by way of communication, technical expertise, monitoring and evaluation. Also, International bodies, civil society, faith-based organizations and Non-Governmental entities in local areas are to harmonize with Local Government to ensure the successful implementation of social protection.

The study discovered that central and Local Government ride on high shoulders when it comes to the disbursement of LEAP funds for the grassroots beneficiaries. By this, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MOGCSP) communicate through the Regional Coordinating Councils to the municipalities and districts about the release of social protection funds. After which, Local officials in charge of LEAP inform beneficiaries in their locality and the set dates for payment. This funds were hitherto sent to beneficiaries through Ghana Post. However, the introduction of the LEAP electronic payment makes it possible for beneficiaries to use the E-Zwich payment platform provided by the Ghana Interbank Payment and Settlement Systems (GhIPSS) through partner banks to access their money with the help of officials, who ensure that information reaches beneficiaries to receive their monies.

This appears to be a step in the right direction as financial institutions which are mainly private entities, partner with the Government in social protection. For instance, on set dates of LEAP payment, bank representatives are accompanied by local officials to remote areas to disburse the money to beneficiaries by electronic means.
Although some official respondents had their own reservations about the partner banks in the interview, they concurred that the electronic payment system had good benefits as the tag of corruption which used to be on Local Officials had been removed. This also suggests that corruption has been on the down side in the implementation of Social Protection.

Furthermore, the study identified that some Non-Governmental organisations and research institutes outside the locality were involved in fieldwork and monitoring the progress of beneficiaries in general. For instance, the study found that registered NGOs in GEMA helped Local Officials in addressing the welfare of the vulnerable in the society by educating and training them in skills to enhance their livelihoods however, such NGOs have been recently dormant in the responsibility of social protection due to financial constraints.

Still on coordination, central government plays a supervisory role on Local Government when it comes the payment of the LEAP Funds. A key informant of the research recalled that Officials from the central government come to the locality to supervise the payment of funds to beneficiaries but has been rare for a long while. More to the point, the study found out that the local officials system of reporting to central Government after payment of funds remain strong which is appropriate for evaluation.

On a critical note, information gathered from five (5) respondents on the coordinating activities reveals that coordination between national actors and sub-national actors is more visible during the period of funds disbursement and reporting. This is mainly because, funds for social protection is centralized rendering Local Government more dependent on the center in the provision of social protection for the vulnerable. A key
respondent’s opinion on coordination in social protection implementation described that:

‘…..central government is like our father who provide our needs when we need it at his own convenient time...’ (Field interview, 2017).

This finding is bizarre and reveals the perceptions of Local Government on Central Government, which defeats the objective of decentralization in the Ghanaian Constitution. In Article 240, (2b), the constitution is emphatic that “parliament shall by law provide for the taking of such measures as are necessary to enhance the capacity of local government authorities to plan, initiate, co-ordinate, manage and execute policies in respect of matters affecting the people within the areas, with a view to ultimately achieving localization of those activities.” (Ghanaian Constitution, 1992, p. 137). This provision of the constitution conspicuously gives autonomy to Local Government to be able to manage social protection. On the contrary, this has not yet materialized in the sub-national level of Ghana. Therefore, there is the need to re-orient local governance in Ghana especially as the country is attempting to sustain social protection.

Furthermore, the study sought to probe into how multi-sectoral coordination is being pursued at the sub-national level. Interestingly, respondents in the Ga East Municipality revealed that the departments of Education and Agriculture have no implementation relationship with the Department of Social Development (DSD) in the LEAP programme. A case in point is that farmer beneficiaries require support from the department of Agriculture by way of supplying seedlings and some farm equipment to cultivate seasonal crops but this not happening. Another instance is that the Department of Education in the municipality must give a certain priority in
educational scholarship and oversight to school-going Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) under social protection but then, this is not taking place in the municipality.

The Head of DSD commented that there is supposed to be a District Social Protection Committee (DSPC) to ensure cooperation in sub-committees of social protection in the locality, however, such committee appears to be non-existent because there has been no official meeting to discuss issues on social protection in the Ga East Municipal Assembly. Therefore, departments remained uncommitted to the agenda of social protection except for the Health Directorate which ensures that beneficiaries of LEAP are registered without charges on to the National Health Insurance for healthcare.

Moreover, the District LEAP Implementation Committee and the Community LEAP Implementation Committee seemed like a mirage when the official respondents were asked in the interview. A Community LEAP Implementation member disclosed that the team of volunteers who assist LEAP implementation in the various communities in the Ga East Municipal Assembly do not hold meetings to evaluate the LEAP programme cooperatively. Apparently, there are six (6) members representing twelve (12) communities in the Ga East Municipal Assembly who have the responsibility of moving from house to house to inform LEAP beneficiaries of payment periods and report to local officials of deceased beneficiaries to be deleted from the programme. These members are voluntary workers living in the various communities and given an allowance at the end of the payments of funds. This is a good initiative that fits into the Bottom-Up model of implementation where citizens at the grassroots are factored into policy implementation but the low level of cooperation even among them
remains static. This could be alluded to the fact that the formation of a recognized LEAP community committee has been delayed.

Furthermore, respondents were asked to rate on the scale of one (1) to ten (10), the level of coordination in social protection based on mutual partnership between Central and Local Government in Ghana. To this end, majority of officials rated central to local coordination below ten (10). This shows that coordination in social protection between Central and Local Government is more of a controller–controlled relationship rather than mutual partnership to achieve common policy goals. This, therefore, defeats balance in decentralization and the positive sum outcome as noted by Saito (2001). Drawing from the fact that the history of colonial rule is to be blamed for the practice of centralization in most decentralized African governments, it is significant that the passing of time and acceptance of decentralizations should create an avenue for mutual partnership between Central and Local Governments.

4.3.2. Significance Of Coordination In Social Protection.

Opinions of Respondents were sought on the relevance of coordination between the central and Local Government in the implementation of social protection. Four respondents from Local Government and one respondent from central government unanimously agreed that coordination in implementing social protection is very crucial. The various responses were recorded as thus:

A) “Coordination in policy implementation is extremely important because without it we as local official cannot work efficiently and it even ensures that the policy is fully implemented by the municipal assembly. Coordination also helps to assess performance and apply the necessary sanctions” (Field interview, 2017).
B) “Coordination is very necessary it serves as checks and balances. It makes things run smoothly in terms of communication and supply of logistics. For instance, changing from manual to electronic payment of LEAP funds was made possible with coordination between Central, Local Government, private banks and the international donors. That is the beauty of coordination” *(Field interview, 2017)*

C) “It makes the work easier, simple” *(Field interview, 2017).*

D) “Coordination is the fuel that keeps implementation of policies going, it is very necessary” *(Field work, 2017)*

E) “….My education level is not high but I know coordination solves problems in executing social policies of such nature” *(field interview, 2017).*

The aforementioned responses significantly affirms the assertion of O’Flynn (2010) on working across boundaries. It also points to the fact that inter-sectoral coordination speeds up the success of a social protection policy which means efforts must be made to strengthen it. The expression of respondents indicates a high level of craving for a well-coordinated social protection programme in Ghana.

4.3.3. Obstacles affecting cross-sector coordination in social protection.

This sub-section looks at the obstacles that inhibits central to local coordination in executing social protection. Respondents disclosed causative factors that makes central to local relations bleak in LEAP implementation.

Poor communication was the first obstacle to be noted in policy coordination. All four respondents at the local level admitted that the flow of information from the center to the local level has not been the best due to bureaucracy. However, a respondent from the center strongly disagreed that there was an issue with transmitting information in social protection delivery. It was disclosed that the Regional Coordinating Council was responsible for transmitting information from central government to Local
Government but a senior officer in GEMA reiterated that communication in practical terms is delayed and ineffective pointing to the fact, he was in direct contact with the LEAP Management Unit to receive information to be acted on by the local officials.

Internally, the study found out that horizontal coordination and communication at the local level was being challenged. This was attribute to the fact that the merging of two departments namely, social welfare and social development in 2015 brought in Heads who were ill-informed about the detailed activities of social welfare and social development combined. For instance, in GEMA, the Head of the Department of Social Development conceded that she was not a better position to give details about Social Protection. She disclosed this before the interview:

“….I do not know much and cannot give you details because I was transferred here from Social Development so my knowledge on social welfare activities is limited.”

(Field interview, 2017)

On the other hand, the National Head of Monitoring and Evaluation of LEAP agreed that the coordination challenge at the local level and the reason attached to it was bound to happen due to the re-structuring process of social protection in Ghana. However, he was positive that this anomaly could be rectified for the smooth implementation of social protection going forward.

Aside poor communication, a respondent disclosed that a difficulty related to coordination in social protection is the priority given to other Local Assemblies over others. It was noted that with regards to logistics and funds for social protection, central government gives so much preference to the three (3) northern regions not recognizing the existence of urban poverty. This to a large extent makes management of social protection very cumbersome as Local Assemblies in peri-urban areas appear sidelined. This was an eye-opener for the research because, it was made clear that
Local Assemblies in sub-urban areas were disadvantaged in executing government’s social protection policy. The main objective for social protection is to take everyone away from vulnerability and reduce poverty in the entire nation, for that reason, it will be unfair to treat identified geographical areas with poverty differently.

In addition, the study found out that the relationship between the center and Local Government is marred when seasoned officials with expertise in social protection implementation are transferred to other departments not related to social protection. A respondent cited an experience in this manner:

“A certain official was sent to Brazil for training in social protection implementation but was immediately transferred on his return to work in another outfit outside social protection, which made Officials assigned to learn from him like me struggle to find their way around the new LEAP programme” (Field interview, 2017).

Based on the above finding, it may be stated that although the transfer of officers is appropriate in public administration, it is however, best when it occurs after there have been series of interactions between transferred staff members and staff members taking over from them. It goes a long way to solve problems related to continuity in service. In the case of social protection, officials trained to implement policies in poverty alleviation programmes should have their expertise utilized before being transferred. This also underlines that the transfer should be taken critically on the part of central government.

Furthermore, the study’s exposure of bottlenecks in central to local coordination in social protection affirms the discovery of Ameyibor (2015,p. 1) that “the weaknesses in coordination have resulted in lack of coherence, duplication and overlap, issues of sustainability, inefficient use of resources, turf-war and competition”. This to a degree
cannot be underestimated because this research maintains that the stronger the relationship between central and Local Government, the more sustainable social protection becomes.

4.4. CHALLENGES FACING LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOCIAL PROTECTION.

4.4.1. The Nature of Challenges in Social Protection Implementation

The study found out a myriad of challenges associated with local governance and social protection in Ghana. Nevertheless, these challenges of social protection implementation have been general but recurrent in the existing works of Ghanaian scholars including; Jaha and Sika-Bright (2015), Abbey, Odonkor and Boateng (2014), Abbey (2013), Lithur (2013), Abebrese (2011), Sowa (2002) among others which makes it more pressing than to be ignored.

All respondents selected for the research identified problems they face as officials involved in social protection. The question posed to respondents was, what are the challenges confronting Local Government in the implementation of social protection policies?

One respondent intimated that:

‘For the difficulties the list is endless! Local Government has so many challenges’. (Field interview, 2017).

All Local Government respondents maintained that financial constraints inhibits their efficiency and work output. This is because, there are no funds readily available to cater for any administrative contingencies. In fact, the over-dependence on the center for funds in Ghana has resulted in making Local Government more handicapped than ever in the carrying out social services.
Again, lack of logistics was mentioned by all respondents. They agreed that there was work to be done, however, they could not work without these logistics. According to the respondents, transportation is a problem which renders monitoring in the area, ineffective. Three (3) official respondents clarified that efforts were made by central government to get motorbikes for the officials however, they were dissatisfied because they could not ride it to the hinterlands which are mostly mountainous in nature. In the same vein, a respondent recounted:

“…. I had to use my own personal computer because I could not work without it...monitoring is failing because Local Government is not able to do it effectively which causes some beneficiaries misuse funds. The lack of monitoring also creates the fear of some voluntary community LEAP members extorting funds from beneficiaries” (Field interview, 2017)

This is purely an administrative challenge which shows how de-motivated officers implementing the LEAP programme have become. The provision of logistics such as vehicles, computers, and printers, to mention but a few is prominent in ensuring effective monitoring, evaluation and reporting. Local officials without laptops are unlikely to give LEAP reports on time which makes administration deficient. Consequently, attention has not been paid to public sensitization in the municipality for years which is worrying. The ordinary citizen in the locality is less informed or even not aware of the ongoing LEAP programme.

Aside this, evidence of this study maintains that the human resource base of Local Government is deprived. The staff to execute social protection in the local area is inadequate looking at the vastness of the municipality which creates gap in monitoring. For instance, officials are not able to often visit beneficiaries in the remotest places to ascertain the appropriate use of the funds for better livelihoods
The study found out that local government is faced with problems of targeting. A respondent recalled that during the early days of the LEAP programme, questionnaires presented to prospective beneficiaries requested much details of the person to ensure that the right people are targeted, however, the new questionnaires have less details which makes it difficult to notice dishonest people. Most often, there is confusion between officials and local people because they do not understand the eligibility criteria for beneficiaries. An instance cited by a respondent suggested that some community mobilizers are coerced to select indigenes to benefit from the LEAP programme based on family ties. Also, some caretakers fail to give names of deceased beneficiaries to be deleted from the LEAP enrolment list which is becoming perennial in the locality. Arguably, this is a dent on the targeting mechanism employed in the LEAP programme. It actually breaks the confidence of citizens in the targeting system.

Central government may be blamed for targeting anomalies since questionnaires used for selecting beneficiaries at local levels are prepared from the top but the findings of this study have proved differently. That is to say, although the Center manages the beneficiary registry and finalises the enrolment process, some irregularities such as targeting wrong people spring from the local level. This to a large extent confirms conclusions made by the UNDP and UNCDF (2013, p.16) that in many countries, the act of patronage and clientelism is prevalent at local level where up-close targeting is done. This study therefore agrees with this conclusion recognizing that the case in Ghana is not aloof.

Another notable challenge identified by the study is political influence. All five (5) respondents commented that the implementation of social protection is mostly
confronted with political interferences. In particular, two (2) respondents commented that:

“The change in government does not make policy implementation consistent. New personnel are introduced without requisite training on the policies which affects implementation progress” (Field interview, 2017)

“...I will say the LEAP programme for example has been politicized. I will keep saying it because every political party that comes to power wants to gain political marks using social protection programmes...” (Field interview, 2017)

The aforementioned points to the fact that local governance in Ghana retrogresses when there is a change in the political sphere, this is mainly because politicians bring on board cronies who may not meet the knowledge requirements of the offices they occupy. For this reason local officers are compelled to dance to the tune of their political heads making their work lack integrity. In the same vein, the study discovered that the change in government brings to the fore new or modified policy directions of which Local Government is rushed to implement. Again, the data collected from the field suggested that the payment of conditional and unconditional cash to the poor has been politicized by political parties in Ghana to extent of using it in their campaign messages in the bid to win elections. A case in point was the 2016 manifesto of the National Democratic Congress which had a headline ‘consolidating social protection’ which said that social protection was a core part of the social development policy of the NDC (Ameyibor, 2016). On the contrary, this study argues that this defeats the mentality of social protection being a national agenda at the grassroots level since there is no distinction between national and political party’s policy. Again, this finding contradicts the assertion of Devereux and White (2012) that though the politicisation of social protection is inevitable, it is also not
disadvantageous. Meanwhile, the finding confirms the review of Cook and Kabeer (2009) on social protection which indicates that ground level research succinctly exposes social protection as “highly political” issue that has been neglected in literature.

Internally, there are various confrontations between local authorities and local people when it comes to social protection as found out by this study. Official respondents admitted that this has been an obstacle in their service delivery consistently. Notably, there is always public tension and pressure on officials anytime the LEAP funds are delayed from central government. Also, some people seeking to be enrolled on the LEAP programme end up mounting verbal attacks on officials even though they do not meet the beneficiary criteria. The researcher observed some of these instances during the period of cash payment in the area of study which nearly distorted the smooth process of payment to LEAP beneficiaries. Local Officials were even held responsible for anomalies with fingerprints on the payment verification machine which indicated the low level of sensitization on the LEAP programme in the locality.

On the question of whether officials perceived the challenges mentioned above as operational or political, two (2) respondents confidently described the challenges as merely operational whiles three(3) respondents perceived the challenges as both operational and political. The two (2) respondents believed that the challenges are operational because Local Government lacks a strong leadership to manage well its day to day activities. A respondent added that:

“I would describe the challenges as mainly operational because even the basic management skills we know as local authorities are not being put into use.”

(Field interview, 2017)
That notwithstanding, the three (3) respondents believed that the outlook of the challenges remains operational and political because Local Government in Ghana is characterized by an administrative and political leadership. Therefore, challenges that face local authorities also emanates from the action and inactions of both administrative and political outfits.

From the above, it is made lucid that challenges that confront Local Government is a problem of institutional weakness and the lack of commitment to institutional mechanisms to avoid some of the challenges earlier mentioned.


The research posed questions which sought to sift information on how Local Government is able to address the plethora of challenges as they occur in social protection implementation and the efforts made by central government to provide solutions to these challenges.

On the management of implementation challenges in social protection at the local level, four (4) out of the five (5) respondents emphatically stated that Local Government is not able to manage these obstacles encountered in social protection implementation because it does not have the capacity to do so. Conversely, one (1) respondent held another view that internal mechanisms were in place to manage challenges of social protection at the local level but the commitment of leadership to it cannot be guaranteed.

Furthermore, the views of official respondents concerning central government’s efforts to address challenges in social protection was more of a cynicism than conviction. All five (5) official respondents opined that central government’s
steadfastness to solving social implementation at the local level was minimal. In particular, a comment was made by a respondent to affirm this finding:

“Honestly, there is no urgency in tackling Local Government challenges especially when the cabinet minister is not vocal, it becomes very difficult” (Field interview, 2017).

The above finding may appear surprising but that is the reality on the ground which raises the question of whether Ghana is ready to handle social protection to the letter.

4.5. LOCAL PARTICIPATION AND SOCIAL PROTECTION IMPLEMENTATION

4.5.1. Effects of Local Citizens Involvement in the Policy Process

This section generally looks at the extent to which local citizens are involved in social protection implementation and for that matter the LEAP programme. To this end, both local officials and beneficiaries were interviewed to present their opinions on the significance of local participation in policy implementation which will be discussed concurrently.

Results from the data collected from local authorities reflects the essence of involving local people in the implementation process. All five (5) officials and seven (7) out of ten (10) beneficiaries interviewed for the study appreciated the need to make provisions for the ordinary individual to be involved in implementing social protection in Ghana. An official noted that dissemination of information to the rural folks is made easier when citizens feel a part of executing social protection in the locality. Another official affirmed this about local participation:

“Local people are the recipients of the programme and therefore their engagement is a must! When the people are well informed, they corporate with official during the
policy implementation. In short, I will say local participation contributes to the success stories of social protection programmes (Field interview, 2017).

On the other hand, three (3) beneficiaries remained indifferent about local participation because they did not understand why, citizens should be involved in the affairs of Government. This could be attributed to illiteracy and the lack of information on social protection. Furthermore, an official noted that even though it was appropriate to allow for local participation, it was also important to view the negative effects of local participation in the policy process and stated that:

“On the negative side, too much involvement of the local citizens can result in patronage and even sabotage the programme. I say this because, sometimes people who are supposed to help officials in the programme implementation end up giving false information to get their relatives signed unto the social programme” (Field interview, 2017).

On the whole, responses from the interview suggested to this study that local participation leads to a high possibility of achieving policy goals in local jurisdictions and therefore needed to be encouraged in Ghana. However, local participation should not be without regulative measures to ensure openness and accountability. This finding is in line with the global discourse on social protection advocating for local participation and accountability. For instance, the UNDP and UNCDF (2013) recognized that it is better to make the citizens aware of existing social protection programmes so that they can access them without hindrance. UNDP and UNCDF (2011) also advocated for citizen inclusion in social protection to promote downward accountability. Reiterating the need for Local Government to ensure that citizens are well-informed to hold local authorities responsible for their actions and inactions.
4.5.2. Grassroots Knowledge on Social Protection.

Local Government’s agency responsible for implementing social protection in a locality has a mandate to educate all citizens on the social programme being run to create familiarity and a sense of ownership of the programme. For this reason, the research sought to ascertain the level of citizen’s knowledge on social protection.

Four (4) respondents out of the ten (10) beneficiaries interviewed expressed in-depth knowledge on social protection. They were formally educated and had read more about LEAP on the internet and heard about it through the electronic media. On the other hand, the six (6) other respondents had little information which they obtained from local officials during the LEAP enrollment exercise. However, they were more interested in the receipt of the LEAP bi-monthly cash that came to them than knowing the details of the programme. A follow-up interview confirmed from the local officials that there had been less of public education on social protection in the local area due to fiscal constraints. It was further explained that funds for organizing town hall meetings on social protection was not forthcoming which has resulted in the low sensitization.

On the contrary the study found out that the beneficiaries were well-informed by local officials and on electronic media on the dates of LEAP payment in their communities as soon as central government releases funds for payment. An observation of this study draws attention to the detail that priority is attached to beneficiaries in the communities. This is mainly in terms of information which leaves out non-beneficiaries who had little or no information on social protection as a result of no community meetings on social protection.
In essence, the level of citizens’ knowledge on social protection goes a long way to make them own the policy since there is transparency and information readily available to them. This is exactly not the case at the grassroot level as the citizens are out of touch with the social protection policy. Although all ten (10) beneficiaries were full of praise for the LEAP programme and how their lives were being improved, answers from eight (8) respondents to the question on what they could do to help local authorities play their role opened the study to the truth that they were not willing to support the implementation process. This is because, they opined that a government policy should be fully implemented by local authorities as their responsibility. A respondent had this to say as translated from the local dialect:

“…. I do not bother myself with such things. All I need is the money to take care of the orphans I am taking care of…..” (Field interview, 2017)

Meanwhile, two (2) of the beneficiaries were willing to be involved in the programme implementation especially during the targeting process and wished the assembly could present reports on social protection at town hall meetings and on public announcement boards.

From the above, it can be recognized that citizens at the local level are distant from the policies of government as in the case of social protection. The story could have been different if the grassroot citizens had constant awareness programmes on social protection and also made to understand the mechanism by which local authorities were accountable to them as citizens.

4.5.3. Local Authorities and Citizens Relation in Social Protection.

This sub-theme sought to ascertain the extent of interaction between local authorities and citizens which includes citizens satisfaction of officials’ role and the address of
grievances in social protection execution. The study found out from eight (8) beneficiary respondents that LEAP officials in GEMA were approachable in service delivery and therefore, citizens’ relationship with officials was cordial. It also noted from respondents that they could express their dissatisfaction about the LEAP programme to the officials without any restraint. However, five (5) out of the ten (10) beneficiaries were dissatisfied about how their grievances and complaints were handled by local authorities. They stated that there is no formal unit for grievances and complaints to document citizens’ concerns on social protection. On the contrary, grievances are channeled informally through the Community LEAP implementers to the LEAP programme officers in the assembly which is likely to be forgotten in the human mind.

From the study, it appears local officials are critically not responsive to complaints brought up in social protection implementation. In spite of the NSPP (2015) provision on how grievances should be addressed by the Public relations and complaints committee with CHRAJ at the Local Assemblies, it is yet to see the light of day. This discovery then highlights the need to establish a specialized social protection unit for grievances and complaints which is similar to Ghana’s situational analysis of social protection which projected “an establishment of a case management system for complaints and feedback to enhance people’s participation and social accountability” (NSPP, 2015, p. 10). Additionally, this hinges on the position of UNDP and UNCDF(2011,p. 78) that grievance and redress mechanisms are relevant in social protection but should not be limited to its contribution to accountability but also its ability to reduce “exclusion-inclusion errors” in social protection programmes. On this note, it could be said that the altitude of importance attached to grievances and
redress units, will determine the satisfaction of aggrieved citizens and in turn make room for effective local participation in social protection implementation.

4.6. FUTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND SOCIAL PROTECTION IN GHANA.

4.6.1. The Sustainability of the Social Protection

The study inquired about the general perceptions on the sustainability of the LEAP programme and the contributions Local Government could bring on board to ensure that the agenda to alleviate poverty by implementing social protection programmes is sustained.

On the issue of the sustainability of LEAP, all but one (1) official respondent was pessimistic of LEAP’s survival. This is because the respondent believed that until the structures of the local implementing body is given a facelift, social protection will sink in Ghana. Again, the respondent was skeptical about the sustained role of international donor agencies and fiscal challenges indicating that the future of social protection is bleak. To some extent, the perception of the current social protection lapses at the local level may have necessitated this stance. It may not be far from wrong since it will be a conscious effort both at the national and local levels to achieve sustainable social protection programmes. Arguably, this is in direct contrast with the optimism expressed in various studies conducted by Plagerson and Ulriksen (2016), Bastagli (2013), Lithur (2013) and Devereux and White, (2012) on the prospects of social protection.

On a positive note, four (4) officials were certain about the sustainability of social protection as a whole. A respondent maintained that since social protection had become a global priority, it would be extremely difficult to be laid aside in the
development agenda of a nation. Another recounted that the LEAP programme is viable because international donor support for middle income countries like Ghana has become a part and parcel of modern governance and social protection. Again, the study noted that the feat chalked since the inception points to the bright future of social protection in Ghana and Africa as a whole.

From a critical point of view, the number of positive responses for a workable social protection outnumber the negative response which is an indication that social protection is likely to thrive if excuses such as, weak institutional arrangement and the lack of political will as noted by Devereux and White (2010) are written off.

Reflecting on the past of social protection in Ghana, it could be said that the LEAP programme has come a long way in that hitherto, IMANI (2015) concluded that there was no “clear steering policy document” for LEAP, but now there is a revised policy design for social protection which provides a transformative direction for the future. This may be a giant step but the main implementing body, Local Government remains incapacitated to handle the demands of a transformative social protection which needs attention.

4.6.2. The Possibility of a Devolved Social Protection in Ghana.

Hypothetically, the study collected views from respondents to figure out whether there was a place for a devolved social protection in that Local Government would be a front line. As a matter of fact, the case of decentralization in Ghana has been debated in Ahwoi (2010) stipulating that the actual concept of devolution evolves in the ‘district level of governance’ nonetheless Ghana has missed the mark in its constitution through conceptual confusions of decentralization. This to a large extent suggests difficulties in setting a straight path to devolution in social protection.
Meanwhile sister countries such as South Africa, Kenya and Uganda have an experience of a devolved social protection movement of which Ghana can learn from in the long run.

The study discovered from the interviews that two (2) local officials were against a devolved social protection in Ghana meaning that it was not possible whiles comments of three (3) other officials suggested that a devolved social protection could be given a try since other countries are implementing it successfully. In effect, the following responses were given:

“Yes, to some extent the assembly can a front liner since they do handle the District Assembly Common Fund. I believe devolving the programme will make Local Government think on its feet. Again, a consensus could be reached with central Government to allocate the taxes from property rate for social protection in the municipality” (Field work, 2017).

“I think Ghana could consider devolution in the long term for implementing social protection policies because we were able to decentralize governance as a country when we had to. Therefore, in the same line, if goals are set right social protection could be devolved” (Field Work, 2017).

Based on the responses, it could be stated that devolving social protection in Ghana is workable in the long term only if it is backed by a legal framework. Therefore, this is a demand on the national government to update provisions of the constitution.

Furthermore, a strong case was made for Local Government to show how social protection can be handled at the local level if revenues internally accrued are properly budgeted for. Nonetheless, UNDP and UNCDF (2011: 64) opposes the quest for Local Government financing social protection but holds that funding social protection should be the responsibility of central government. Ostensibly, the debate of devolution in social protection is yet to gain grounds in schools of thought who will
argue whether unconditional and conditional transfers should be a preserve of the central government or Local Government.

In Ghana, financing social protection is centralized making Local Government solely dependent on the centre. However, this research is of the view that this should be reviewed to enable Local Government explore ways of managing its own affairs with little supervision from the centre. Evidently, a profound conclusion in a regional analysis suggest that “the more devolution and fiscal decentralisation are evident, the more likely it is that Local Government will be involved in the implementation of social protection” (UNDP and UNCDF, 2013).

From a critical point of view, this research advocates that Local Government should be practically autonomous without central interference in decision making at local level with regards to social protection. This has been largely proven by the data gathered from the field of study.

4.6.3. Non-State Actor Partnerships in Social Protection

Limited capacity of public sector calls for a level of collaboration and assistance from non-state actors to give social protection in Ghana. This is however, not to preclude transnational actors like the World Bank, UNICEF and DFID actively in support of social protection but to expand the support-base for alleviating poverty and vulnerability. Non-state actors may play significant roles in the delivery of social protection if they partner with Local Government in the role of administrating and managing. The study discovered that non-state actors in Ghana including traditional leaders, civil societies, non-governmental and private organisations have not been actively involved in social protection with the exception of some banks who partner with government for the LEAP electronic payment. However, in the long run, Ghana
has envisaged such non-actors partnerships to strengthen its social protection agenda in future (NSPP 2015, p. 18) which affirms the conceptualisation of social protection by Holmes and Jones (2009) who believe that social protection could be carried out by private sectors formally.

To complement this, the research sought to ascertain whether local officials will vouch for non-state partnerships in social protection. Four (4) officials answered in the affirmative whiles one (1) disagreed. The following are some profound responses from the field.

“... Yes, in the long term, I will go for public-private partnerships because it will help to establish proper checks and balances. For instance, big private firms could liaise with the Government internally to provide social protection...” (Field work, 2017).

“No! There will be calamity. I must admit that even the partnership we are having with the banks is causing havoc. The local people have complained and would rather have their payment through Ghana Post than the challenges that comes with the Ezwich card like fingerprint challenges. Also, because the NGOs that tried could not sustain their partnership with us” (Field Work, 2017).

It is evident from the above that non-state actors could enhance effectiveness if they come on board to offer assistance to Local Government in social protection. For example, the involvement of traditional authorities may not be monetary but could play a major role in assisting to target eligible beneficiaries in their community and monitor their progress whiles civil societies can contribute in sensitizing the general public. On the other hand, such partnerships should be encouraged and regulated to avoid any role conflicts.

Non-state actors in partnership with Government to implement social protection has the tendency to build the capacity base for effective social protection delivery. The involvement of Experts such as policy analyst, researchers, financial experts, project
managers among others bring on board expertise for a better model of social protection that fits the country to be adhered to. This could be buttressed with the reflections of Barrientos and Hulme (2009, p. 450) on Social Protection which makes it clear that “institutional partnerships can contribute its strengths: national coverage, links to poor people, finance, analytical and monitoring capacity” and add that “such partnerships are without their problems”.

4.6.4. The Transformative Social Protection Agenda 2030.

The National Social Protection Policy of Ghana has short, medium and long term objectives as part of its policy phasing. In the near future, social protection implementation is envisaged to be transformative in that there will be a progressive social protection for all. This will therefore be the means to achieve a sustained socio-economic progress and deepen the core purpose of a Social Democratic Welfare State.

Advocates of the transformative approach to social protection, Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004, p. 8) are particular that social protection goes beyond mere resource and cash transfers to the vulnerable. They advocate that social protection should be a comprehensive programme which includes productive inclusion, economic opportunities and social equity. Thus, citizens at any point in life should be migrated to a social protection like free education for children, free maternal care for pregnant women, skills acquisition for the youth, free healthcare for the aged among others. This is consistent with the stance of Debrah (2013, p. 22) on providing a “multi-faceted strategy” to address the endemic nature of poverty in Ghana.

According to the NSPP (2015, p. 16), Ghana seeks to embark on a transformative social protection agenda in the long term as part of her policy focus and direction.
Therefore, it was essential to find out the steps being taken by central and Local Government to achieve this agenda. Sampled views from officials differed on whether Ghana is treading the path of the transformative social protection or not. Local officials were apparently not privy to any steps being taken by central government to achieve a transformative social protection whiles a follow-up interview with a national LEAP officer revealed that governmental plans were underway to secure productive inclusion through an international collaboration. Evidence to support this could be amassed from the following responses:

A) “...I don’t think social protection is being transformative in Ghana at the moment, may be it will be in a time to come because I cannot come to terms with a transformative social protection and the lapses in the system such as inadequate staff to undertake effective monitoring and evaluation...” (Field work 2017)

B) [...]For example, the focus of LEAP is to be transformational but the manner of its implementation does not depict the end. OVC Beneficiaries are supposed to be enrolled on to different programmes as they grow. That is, those who turn eighteen (18) should be taken off LEAP and enrolled on the Youth Employment Programme but nothing has happened in this area. Furthermore, Local Officials should be able to monitor child beneficiaries where caretakers are to make available a copy of their birth certificates but this linkage is not realized[...](Field Work, 2017)

C) “Yes, of course we are on the path to a transformational social protection! We are currently partnering with the Japan Social Development Fund to ensure a “productive inclusion” where beneficiaries who attain the age of eighteen (18) are trained in skills and graduated to other social protection programmes”(Field work, 2017).

D) [...]No, we are not seeing transformational social protection, things are simply wrong in the country[...](Field work, 2017)

E) [...] I don’t really know of this transformation social protection[...] (Field work, 2017)
The varied responses suggest to this research that the broader picture of social protection is still hanging which defeats the quest for local ownership of state policies and the bottom-Up theory to a large extent. It is quite complicating to realise that local officials are detached from the vision of transformative social protection and even steps that needs to be followed to achieve it. This could be largely attributed to the unavailability of the policy document on social protection in the local offices and inadequate in-service trainings on the social protection for these Local Officials. This finding is seemingly problematic which needs a massive concentration from government.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The global trend to adopt social protection as a means to fight against poverty has been embraced by many governments especially those in the developing countries. Over two decades, Ghana has made giant strides to address poverty and inequality formally by national and international obligations. The 1992 Ghanaian Constitution, the 2004 and 2008 Ouagadogou Declaration and Plan of Action, the 2003 African Union Social Policy Framework, the 2006 Livingstone Declaration among others have placed a special demand on government to establish a well-coordinated and comprehensive framework for modern social protection.

Essentially, the implementation of social protection rest in the hands of Local Government as the driving force to achieve the desired results of alleviating poverty and social inclusiveness. This is largely due to Local Government’s propinquity to citizens. Additionally, the engagement of Local Government in social protection makes it rather easier for implementation and monitoring to be done effectively. On the contrary, previous studies have focused more on the impact of social protection, its feasibility and affordability in low income countries but has sidelined the critical role of Local Government in social protection in Ghana. Therefore, this research sought to project the role of Local Government in social protection with the following objectives:

1. Assess the role of Local Government in Ghana’s social protection implementation.


4. Assess the connection between local participation and sustainable social protection policy implementation.


To achieve the above objectives, interviews were conducted at the Department of Social Development in the Ga East Municipal Assembly and the LEAP Management Unit under the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection using the purposive sampling technique to sample respondents for the study.

To this end, this chapter summarizes the findings from the field of study and draw substantial conclusions from it. Based on the conclusions, recommendations are made to enhance the role of Local Government in the implementation of social protection. Subsequently, suggestions will be given for further research works on the subject of study.
5.2. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This section summarizes the findings of the research with regards to the objectives that underlined the study.

5.2.1. The Role of Local Government in Social Protection.

The aforementioned objective was the main thrust of the study focusing on the significance of Local Government in social protection and whether capacity had been built to ensure the smooth implementation of social protection in the local areas.

From a general perspective, most literature in Ghana has largely focused on the impact and challenges of social protection with a missing gap regarding studies on the main implementing body of social protection, Local Government. Therefore, it was necessary to delve into the role of Local Government in executing social protection programmes in their jurisdiction.

The research established that Local Government basically ensures implementation by effecting cash transfer to beneficiaries, public sensitization on social programmes, targeting beneficiaries based on the dictates of Central government, monitoring beneficiaries progress and evaluating the implementation of social protection programmes in the local areas as per the evaluation formats from Central Government. Again, the sub-national government is responsible for coordinating and enhancing effectiveness among agencies handling social protection programmes. More specifically, these roles have been stipulated in the National Social Protection Policy (2015) of Ghana but there are deficiencies in its practice at the local level. Also, a careful study of the policy revealed that staff of Local Government had no roles clearly spelt out except for Community LEAP implementers who are mostly
volunteers. This is likely to affect accountability as there is no pointer to the specific role of a local official implementing social protection.

On the issue of capacity, the study discovered that Local Government falls short in capacity building to enhance efficiency in the discharge of its duties. It seems weak to perform to the letter the role of implementing social protection as it has been hit with a lot of challenges. Most resources required for efficiency is unavailable which has made the outlook of social protection more of a burden than a preferred venture for Local Government. The LEAP programme for instance has reduced local officials to cash payers since they are challenged in effective monitoring of beneficiaries and how monies received are used profitably.

5.2.2. Central - Local relations in Social Protection implementation.

The study indicated that level of coordination that exists between national actors, local actors and non-state actors was relatively poor. However, vertical coordination is deepened during period of cash transfers to beneficiaries. This can be described as an occasional coordination in delivering social protection services.

Significantly, government sectors at the local level including agriculture, education, health, labour and employment poorly coordinate in communication, monitoring, evaluation and technical expertise in the bid to achieve successful social protection implementation in Ghana. This brings to light how weak horizontal coordination is in the attempt to implement formal social protection.

Again, the study identified that coordination in social policy implementation is more of a controller-controlled rather than mutual partnership in reference to central to local relations. This notion has therefore left Local Government extremely dependent on
central government. This to a large extent is stifling initiatives of Local Government in implementing social protection.

Furthermore, the existence of District LEAP Implementation and the Community LEAP Implementation Committee appears to be non-existent particularly in the Ga East Municipality. These committees are supposed to play the general role of implementation, monitoring and evaluation but this is yet to be realized. Although Local Government recognizes the significance of coordination in a workable social protection programme, less attention has been paid to its fruition.

The study also indicated that a major obstacle that affects both vertical and horizontal coordination is poor communication which is largely due to bureaucratic means of communication than a technologically advanced way of communication to reach every agency of Local Government at the same time without delay.

Moreover, the study discovered that the haphazard transfer of local officials in social protection to other duties unrelated to it mars the coordination process between central and Local Government. This is because transfers effected by central government normally affects continuity in service and inexperienced social workers which makes social policy implementation cumbersome.

Noticeably, the efficacy of multi-sectoral coordination in Ghana’s social protection is more of theory than in practice. This is because Ghana’s framework for social protection has multi-sectoral expectation of policy implementation. On the other hand, this is not being realized to the fullest.

5.2.3. Challenges facing Local Government in Social Protection.

The study found out that a plethora of challenges confront actors at the local front of social protection. These challenges are barely managed either by central or Local
Government affecting the output of work. Evidence of the study describes these challenges as administrative and political by nature.

First, the study found that Local Government is financially constrained in carrying out its responsibilities in the local area. Funds are not readily available to cater for any local activity such as education of the public regarding social protection. Instead, this has left Local Government overly dependent on central government for it needs which mostly delays.

Apart from the lack of funds, Local Government lacks the requisite logistics such as vehicles, computers, printers among others to make work proactive. Local offices are not conducive for work as a result of the absence of office equipment. This largely affects their role of monitoring beneficiary progress and reporting adequately to national stakeholders of social protection.

Additionally, Local Government is deficient of a human resource base for executing social protection in the locality. The number of local staff responsible for social protection are few looking at the vastness of the communities of operation.

Again, there are challenges in targeting eligible beneficiaries of social protection. Targeting in local areas is clouded with alleged clientelism and patronage on the side of community mobilizers. They are mostly confusion between officials and local people due to the scanty information they have on criteria based targeting. Also, most caretakers appear dishonest withholding names of deceased beneficiaries.

Furthermore, the study found out that social protection is politicized making it difficult to differentiate national policies from political party’s policies. Social protection is now used to amass electoral votes.
On the whole, these challenges have been recurrent without any recognized solution. This has led to weak institutions and lack of commitment in the delivery of local social protection services.

**5.2.4 Local participation and Social Protection implementation.**

The study recognised that there is a strong correlation between local participation and policy implementation success. This was drawn from the fact, when local people are involved in the implementation of social protection by constant sensitization on the programmes, their interest is enhanced to own the policy and hold officials accountable for their actions and inactions.

On the other hand, the research found out that many non-beneficiary citizens do not know about social protection accounting for a high level of indifference about social protection programmes at the grassroots level. Meanwhile beneficiary’s knowledge on the roles of Local Government is reduced to the mere payment of LEAP funds bi-monthly, giving information on LEAP payment and enrolling eligible citizens to benefit from social protection.

Imperatively, the study found out that beneficiaries were satisfied with role of local officials however, most of them were dissatisfied about how grievances and complaints are addressed. There are no specialized grievance address units for social protection in Local Assemblies which makes it obvious that Local Government is less responsive to complaints of aggrieved citizens.

**5.2.5. Future Of Local Government and Social Protection in Ghana.**

The study found out that the sustainability of social protection had great prospects as long as the role of Local Government is taken serious by national government.
Although, the current outlook of social protection may not be encouraging, solutions to challenges confronting Local Government and the enforcement of the National Social Protection Policy framework will enhance the success of poverty alleviation.

Secondly, the study discovered that the centrality of Ghana’s social protection policy spells a rocky path for the full realization of sustainable development, therefore in the future, social protection could be devolved where Local Government will implement social protection based on their discretion and resources available to them with little supervision from central government. Again, the study noticed that devolution in social protection could occur when the legal framework backing decentralization is strictly adhered to. Countries like South Africa, Uganda, and Kenya are practicing a devolved social protection from which Ghana learn from.

Thirdly, the research revealed the feasibility of non-state actor partnerships in social protection to support government in implementing successful social protection programmes. The study realised that non-state actors such as traditional rulers, civil society and non-governmental organisations have not been actively involved but could assist government to target, educate, monitor and evaluate social protection programmes if they are involved in the activities of social protection implementation.

In addition, the research identified that the vision of Ghana to attain a transformative social protection in 2030 is achievable and that steps are already being taken by central government to ensure a productive inclusion. On the other hand, the study realised that Local Government officials were not privy to the measures being taken to achieve the 2030 transformative agenda in Ghana.
5.3 CONCLUSION

Local Government remains the heart of social protection implementation in Ghana. This is largely because of its touch with the local people and its affordability in the delivery of services. The formation of Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection in 2012 and the formulation of a National Social Protection Policy in 2015 is a clear indication that Ghana is highly committed to social protection and poised to fight against poverty and vulnerability. Nonetheless, the focus of government to build the capacity of Local Government in the delivery of social protection has been staggered. Despite the launch of a policy framework for social protection, its focus remain vastly theoretical than practical depicting that government is more interested in the formulation of policies and achieving outcomes than the agencies implementing this policies at the local level.

To a large extent, it could be concluded that the country has not come to terms with the rubrics of decentralisation resulting in the less recognition given to Local Government. It is therefore important, to have re-orientation of decentralisation in Ghana so that Local Government can take its place as the backbone of Central government.

The dormancy and the inefficiency of Local Government makes the journey of a social protection unbearable and largely affects the national vision to end poverty. It is therefore necessary to uphold the essence of the role of Local Government since the achievement of a transformative social protection in Ghana is promising.

Additionally, the role of Local Government in the implementation of a social protection policy cannot be gain-said. This is to imply that a successful implementation of a social protection policy is contingent on how local governance is
upheld in a country. Significantly, the global fight against poverty and inequality can be won by the level of attention given to Local Government to enhance its capacity.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study in this section presents some relevant recommendation for policy makers and also suggest areas for further research.

First of all, the findings of this research suggeststhat the role of Local Government should not be under-emphasized but rather quick measures should be taken to give Local Government a facelift to handle the implementation of social protection programmes. Again, this will enable Local Government to manage its challenges as they occur. To this end there should be a review of decentralisation in Ghana to make Local Government a frontliner in reality.

Secondly, multi-sectoral synergy should be strengthened to make way for up-to-date information delivery across board for early feedbacks. This will give Local Government the opportunity to be abreast with the activities of central government.

Furthermore, government should set a day to celebrate social protection and establish award schemes for deserving social protection implementers at all local levels. It is very important to note that this will go a long way to motivate employees of Local Government to work harder.

Moreover, government should establish specialised units to address grievances and complaints in relation to social protection.
Additionally, Government’s resources and logistics to support Local Government’s role in poverty alleviation should not be one-sided but rather evenly distributed to cater for both rural and urban poverty nationwide.

Also, government should try as much as possible to formally inaugurate District LEAP Implementation Committees and Community LEAP implementation committees at the local level for the purpose of accountability.

Additionally, the National Commission on Civic Education (NCCE) and the media should increase public sensitization on social protection as a national priority to improve citizens interest and participation.

Hard copies of the National Social Protection Policy should also be distributed in all governmental agencies especially those in the Department of Social Development across the country.

Furthermore, social protection policy makers must review the National Social Protection Policy to include the specific roles of the staff of Local Government implementing social protection.

More importantly, the study suggests that government should create a consolidated fund for social protection to minimize Ghana’s over reliance on foreign donors.

The researcher finally recommends that future research should focus on devolution in social protection and a comparative analysis of social protection implementation in rural and sub urban areas.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR IMPLEMENTERS

A) ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND CENTRAL TO LOCAL RELATIONS IN SOCIAL POLICY IMPLEMENTATION.

1. What is the role of Local Government in the LEAP programme?

2. How does central and local levels coordinate to implement social protection policies?

3. Do you think that central-local coordination necessary for implementing successful social protection programmes?

4. What are the difficulties associated with Ghana’s central to local coordination in policy implementation?

5. Do you agree that the stronger the relationship between Central to Local Government, the more sustainable a social protection programme becomes? Explain your answer.

6. In terms of mutual partnership rather than Controller-Controlled relations, rate Central, local and non-governmental coordination in Ghana with regards to Social Protection on the scale of 1-10.

7. Provide some suggestions to strengthen central-local coordination in Ghana to ensure a sustainable social protection.

B) CHALLENGES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOCIAL POLICY IMPLEMENTATION.

1) What are the challenges confronting Local Government in the implementation of social protection policies.

2) Would you describe these challenges as mainly political or operational or both?

3) Is Local Government able to manage some of these challenges on their own?
4) Do you think the centre is making any effort to address these challenges as they occur constantly? Explain your answer.

5) What would you suggest central and local government do to minimize challenges that come with social policy implementation?

C) LOCAL PARTICIPATION AND SOCIAL PROTECTION POLICY IMPLEMENTATION.

1. What is the mechanism for targeting the most vulnerable in the local area?

2. Is there any grievance and complaints unit in the local area? If yes….what is its significance to LEAP implementation? If no…..why?

3. How does local participation affect the implementation of social policies?

4. What is done by local officials to create awareness on social protection programmes?

5. In your opinion, has the LEAP programme been beneficial to the local people?

6. What can be done to enhance local interest in the implementation of Social Protection Programmes?

D) THE FUTURE OF SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMME (LEAP) IN GHANA.

1. To what extent, do you perceive the future of social protection in Ghana especially the LEAP programme?

2. In which way can local Government contribute to the agenda of social protection to end poverty and “take everyone along” in development?

3. Is it necessary to devolve local governance to make local government, a frontline for social policy implementation?
4. Would you vouch for a long term public-private partnership in social protection programme (LEAP) to make it more effective?

5. With reference to the LEAP, would you say Ghana is treading the path of a transformative social protection?
APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR BENEFICIARIES ONLY

1. How did you hear about the LEAP programme?

2. In what way has the LEAP programme improved your life?

3. How do you express your dissatisfaction about the activities of Local Officials in the LEAP programme?

4. Do you think Local Authorities consider your opinions in the LEAP programme as a beneficiary?

5. What challenges have you noticed about the LEAP programme?

6. What suggestions would you give to authorities to make the LEAP programme more successful in the long term?

7. What can you as a citizen and a beneficiary do to help local authorities to play their role in social policy implementation (LEAP)?