

**GHANA'S VISION FOR DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY OF GHANA  
VISION 2020 AND THE GPRS I AND II**

**BY**

**DANSO SAMPSON**

**(10199867)**



**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA,  
LEGON IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR  
THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY (M.PHIL) DEGREE  
IN POLITICAL SCIENCE**

**OCTOBER, 2014**

## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that with the exception of quotes, ideas and analysis attributed to duly acknowledged sources, this study is the result of research dutifully conducted under the supervision of my supervisors, Dr. Abdulai Mohammed and Dr. Maame A. Gyekye-Jandoh. I am solely conscientious for any errors which may be identified in this work.

.....

**DANSO SAMPSON**

**(CANDIDATE)**

**DATE:** .....

.....

**DR. ABDULAI K. MOHAMMED**

**(MAIN SUPERVISOR)**

**DATE:** .....



.....

**DR. MAAME A. GYEKYE-JANDOH**

**(SECOND SUPERVISOR)**

**DATE:** .....

## ABSTRACT

Over the years, successive governments have experimented with myriads of development plans and strategies to accelerate the pace of development of Ghana. Governments have introduced development policy frameworks such as the First Step (1996-2000) of the Ghana Vision 2020 and the Poverty Reduction Strategies (2003-2009). The ideas behind these plans have been to consolidate the gains achieved so far in the area of political, economic and social development and also ensure poverty levels are reduced through economic growth. This study seeks to examine the processes and the outcomes of the Ghana Vision 2020 and GPRS I & II. Interviews were the main data collection tool used. A purposive sampling technique was employed to select respondents. Twenty respondents were selected for the study. The study found that the approach to planning has become more participatory and decentralized with the involvement of civil society organizations, academic institutions and other government agencies. Ghana has achieved some level of development in the thematic areas of private sector competitiveness, governance and civic responsibility, human resource development and macroeconomic stability in areas of private sector growth, employment, poverty reduction, health care and lower levels of inflation although the country can improve on its current standings. The findings reveal that the country does not have a national development agenda rather it has separate political parties' development agenda. Politicization of the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) has inhibited Ghana's vision for development hence the need for a long term national development adhered to by successive governments.

## DEDICATION

To my mother, Madam Gladys Afari

To my brother, Frederick and my sister, Joyce for your endless support all through

And to my dad, Mr. Elvis John Danso for the concern and my friend, Samuel Harrison-

Cudjoe for being there these many years



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Beginning this journey without God would have been impossible. I owe it all to Him. I am indebted to a number of people and institutions for the invaluable moral and material support throughout the period of my MPhil studies. Foremost is my principal supervisor, Dr. Abdulai Mohammed, whom I must thank for being there from the first draft of the research proposal to the final thesis write up. His frank and incisive comments and suggestions immensely strengthened this thesis both in form and substance. For that and a lot more, I owe him an indelible academic debt. To my second supervisor, Dr. Maame Gyekye-Jandoh, I say a big thank you for your motherly guidance. Special thanks goes to Prof. Atsu Ayee and Dr. Emmanuel Debrah who have been my inspiration and role models in academia.

I am very much indebted to institutions such as ISODEC, ISSER, IMANI Ghana, IDEG, NDPC and others persons who granted me audience when I was on the field. To my mates Isaac, Matthew, Harrison, P.K, Grace, Patience, Cosmos, Bright, Blay, Adade, Asante and Kofi, I could not have done it without your prayers, words of encouragement and support. I thank the entire staff at the department particularly Dr. Owusu-Mensah, Mr. Noi, Mrs. Esther Amanquor and Mr. Haruna Boateng. I am grateful to you all particularly Rev. Enoch Osafo and Rev. Augustine Bugyei, Amable, Boamah, Terry, Michael, Buckman, Dotse, Lydia Osei, Eric Yobo, Joseph Bawa and Mabel Ankomah for the prayers and support. To this wonderful family CASA, Legon and the C.A.C Int, Taifa Central, this is how far the Lord has brought me.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	i
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	ii
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	iii
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	iv
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT</b> .....	v
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	viii
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	ix
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....	x
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....	1
<b>1.1 INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK</b> .....	1
<b>1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM</b> .....	3
<b>1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS</b> .....	4
<b>1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES</b> .....	4
<b>1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY</b> .....	5
<b>1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY</b> .....	6
<b>1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS</b> .....	6
<b>1.7.1 Planning</b> .....	6
<b>1.7.2 Development</b> .....	8
<b>1.7.3 Development Planning</b> .....	11
<b>1.7.4 National development plan</b> .....	13
<b>1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS</b> .....	14
<b>1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	15
<b>1.10 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY</b> .....	15
<b>1.11 CONCLUSION</b> .....	16
<b>CHAPTER TWO</b> .....	17
<b>THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	17
<b>2.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....	17
<b>2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK</b> .....	17
<b>2.3 DEPLOYMENT OF THE THEORY</b> .....	21
<b>2.4 LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	22
<b>2.4.1 GENERAL STUDIES ON PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT PLANNING</b> ...	22
<b>2.4.2 HISTORY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN AFRICA</b> .....	25
<b>2.4.3 REVIEW OF PLANNING EXPERIENCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA</b> .....	26

2.4.4	STUDIES ON AFRICA'S VISION FOR DEVELOPMENT .....	28
2.4.5	TRAJECTORY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND PROGRAMMES IN GHANA .....	33
2.4.6	REVIEW OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EXPERIENCE IN GHANA .....	47
2.5	BACKGROUND OF GHANA'S VISION 2020 AND THE GPRS I & II.....	55
	<b>CHAPTER THREE .....</b>	<b>58</b>
	<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>58</b>
3.1	INTRODUCTION .....	58
3.2	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	58
3.2.1	Research Population.....	59
3.2.2	Research Sample.....	60
3.2.3	Sample Size.....	60
3.2.4	Sampling Technique .....	61
3.3	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	63
3.4	RESEARCH INSTRUMENT .....	64
3.5	DATA COLLECTION .....	66
3.6	DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE.....	67
3.7	ETHICAL CONSIDERATION.....	68
3.8	CONCLUSION .....	69
	<b>CHAPTER FOUR.....</b>	<b>70</b>
	<b>DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA .....</b>	<b>70</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION .....	70
4.2.1	Approach to Planning Ghana's Development from 1992 to the Close of 2009 .....	70
4.2.2	Participation in the Ghana's Vision for Development.....	72
4.2.3	Balanced Nature of Ghana's Visions of Development.....	76
4.2.4	Processes and outcomes of Ghana's vision for development .....	78
4.2.5	Remarkable Achievements on Ghana's Vision for Development.....	95
4.2.6	Ghana's Vision for Development Challenges.....	96
4.2.7	Country's Vision for Development in the hand of Political Parties .....	98
4.2.8	Recommendations to Achieve the Desired Objectives of National Development Policies .....	99
4.2.9	Lessons for better Development Policy making in Ghana .....	100
	<b>CHAPTER FIVE.....</b>	<b>101</b>
	<b>SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>101</b>
5.1	SUMMARY OF FINDINGS .....	101
5.2	LESSONS.....	102
5.3	CONCLUSION .....	103

<b>5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS</b> .....	104
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	106
<b>APPENDIX I: Interview Guide</b> .....	117
<b>APPENDIX II: Participants and their activities in Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I (2003-2005)</b> .....	119



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Groups and number of interviewees.....	61
Table 4.1: Outcome of some macroeconomic indicators set under the First Step (1996-2000).....	85
Table 4.2: Outcome of some macroeconomic indicators set under the GPRS I and II (2003-2009).....	86
Table 4.3: Summary of indicators for GPRS I (2003-2005) 2004 Annual Progress Report.....	87
Table 4.4: Summary of indicators for GPRS I (2003-2005) 2005 Annual Progress Report.....	88
Table 4.5: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2006 Annual Progress Report.....	89
Table 4.6: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2007 Annual Progress Report.....	90
Table 4.7: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2008 Annual Progress Report.....	92
Table 4.8: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2009 Annual Progress Report.....	94

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Ghana's GDP Growth from 1996-2009 .....	81
Figure 4.2: Annual Inflation rate in Ghana from 1996-2009 .....	82
Figure 4.3: Incidence of Poverty in Ghana .....	83

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

5YRP	5-Year Rolling Plan
ABPA	African and Beijing Platforms for Action
AICC	Accra International Conference Centre
APR	Annual Progress Report
ASIP	Agricultural Sector Investment Programme
BEIP	Basic Education Improvement Programme
CDD	Centre for Democratic Development
CDF	Comprehensive Development Framework
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CEPA	Centre for Policy Analysis
COCOBOD	Cocoa Marketing Board
CPESD	Coordinated Programme for Economic and Social Development
CPESDP	Co-ordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies
CPP	Convention People's Party
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
CSPGs	Cross-Sectoral Planning Groups
DAPIT	Development and Application of Intermediate Technology
DAs	District Assemblies
DPCUs	District Planning and Coordinating Units
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
ESRP	Export Sector Rehabilitation Programme
FASDP	Food and Agricultural Sector Development Programme
FBO	Farmer Based Organizations

FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GCC	Ghana Chamber of Commerce
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEA	Ghana Employers Association
GFD	Ghana Federation of the Disabled
GIP	Ghana Institute of Planners
GJA	Ghana Journalists Association
GoG	Government of Ghana
GPRS I	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I
GPRS II	Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II
GRATIS	Ghana Regional Appropriate Technology Industrial Services
GTP	Ghana Trade Policy
HIV/AIDS	Human Immuno Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IDEG	Institute of Democratic Governance
IEA	Institute of Economic Affairs
IMF	International Monetary Fund
I-PRSP	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
ISODEC	Integrated Social Development Centre
ISSER	Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MCA	Millennium Challenge Account
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MDBS	Multi Donor Budget Support

MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MEPRC	Ministry of Economic Planning and Regional Co-operation
MEST	Ministry of Environment, Science and Technology
MMDA	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
MSEs	Micro and Small Enterprises
MTADP	Medium-Term Agricultural Development Programme
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NALAG	National Association of Local Authorities Ghana
NARP	National Agricultural Research Programme
NCCE	National Commission on Civic Education
NDC	National Democratic Congress
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NDPF	National Development Planning Framework
NED	National Economic Dialogue
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
NGCP	National Gender and Children's Policy
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NGSE	National Goal Setting Exercise
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
NLC	National Liberation Council
NPP	New Patriotic Party
NRC	National Redemption Council
NTEs	Non-Traditional Exports
NUGS	National Union of Ghana Students
NUPS	National Union of Polytechnic Students

NYEP	National Youth Employment Programme
PAMSCAD	Program of Actions to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment
PAS	Public Administration System
PEF	Private Enterprise Foundation
PEM	Public Expenditure Management
PFM	Public Finance Management
PIP	Public Investment Programme
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
PP	Progress Party
PRPF	Poverty Reduction Policy Framework
PRSC	Poverty Reduction Support Credit
PRU	Poverty Reduction Unit
PSC	Parliamentary Select Committee
PSDS	Private Sector Development Strategy
PSIA	Poverty and Social Impact Analysis
PSIP	Public Sector Investment Programme
PSRP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
S &T	Science and Technology
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SAPRI	Structural Adjustment Participatory Review Initiative
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SEDP	Skills and Entrepreneurial Development Programme
TUC	Trade Union Congress
UN	United Nations

UNIFEM United Nations Development Fund for Women Mission

WB World Bank

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

National visions have become indispensable components of strategic planning for development not only in contemporary Africa but also beyond the frontiers of Africa. Countries such as China, Singapore and Sri Lanka have attained commendable development partly due to well-articulated and effectively implemented national visions. This has further been characterized by unwavering purpose and commitment, leadership support, communication and information management skills and clear prioritizing of what needs to be done and what can be done (Mutahaba and Kweyamba, 2010).

On the other hand, the recent two decades have witnessed many African countries resorting to long term visioning in the name of what has popularly come to be known as ‘national visions’ suggesting sorts of revitalization of the role of the state. This is in the context of the state being expected to return to steering national development but by acting as a guide and a facilitator in cooperation with other players in society (Mutahaba and Kweyamba, 2010).

This visioning approach with respect to development on the African continent has been recently adopted by countries such as Tanzania (Vision 2025); Kenya (Vision 2030); Nigeria (Vision 2020); Botswana (Vision 2016); and Rwanda (Vision 2020) to mention a few. These and many other African countries have established various measures and strategies through which the visions could be realized. According to Mutahaba and Kweyamba,

Rwanda Vision 2020, for example, is anchored on six pillars which include: good governance and a capable state; human resource development and knowledge economy; private sector-led development; infrastructure development; productive high value and market oriented agriculture and regional and international integration (Mutahaba and Kweyamba, 2010: 17).



It is worthy to note that with this well-articulated pillars, Rwanda would be able to achieve development. Ghana's vision for development on the other hand, dates back to the colonial era where a colonial governor, Gordon Guggisberg endeavoured to put the Gold Coast on the map of development by designing a Ten Year Development Plan (1919-1929). Similarly, the first Ghanaian elected government under Kwame Nkrumah did not relent on its promise made to Ghanaians thus the country was going to witness massive development as part of its vision. Military governments have also never been alien to the idea of development with the launch of the National Liberation Council's Two Year Development Plan and the National Redemption Council's Five Year Development Plan. They have also contributed immensely in the development of the nation through different strategies or approaches.

However, the unstable political climate and the turn of events has often left the country in its tracks in terms of its developmental agenda. Successive governments have preached the same message of transforming Ghana into a developed state but seem to nevertheless disagree on the way out for Ghana in achieving that dream. The roadmap to development has often been documented in the form of development plans, strategies, programmes and policies all of which are geared towards development.

The many years of independence in relation to the country's level of development have been a bone of contention in Ghana's development discourse. The general impression is that the country is steadily advancing though the pace of progression is a bit slow. Consequently, there has been much talk by successive governments on the roadmap to development specifically under the Fourth Republic spanning from 1993 to date. The question here then is what has been the outcome of the alternative visions of development from the period 1996-2000 and 2003-2009? The reason for choosing this period is the fact that one would want to

compare the development visions and strategies under two democratically elected successive governments.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Over the years, governments have desired making Ghana a developed state. The successive governments have used varying policy frameworks, aimed to achieving this goal. Many governments have made plans and set timelines to move Ghana into a new heaven of development. Some of these have included the Guggisberg Development Plan (1919-1929), the Nkrumah Seven Year Development Plan (1964-1970), the National Redemption Council's Five Year Development Plan (1975/76-1979/80) and the Provisional National Defence Council's Economic Recovery Programme (1983-1989).

The outcomes of these plans have not been worthwhile despite their ambitiousness. Nevertheless, from the late 1980s to present, Ghana has improved on some of the development indicators such as achieving single digit inflation although there are gargantuan developmental challenges such as high unemployment, macro-economic instability, high infant and maternal mortality rates and high debt burden (domestic and external) just to mention a few.

Under the Fourth Republic, the pursuance of the vision for development has never died down given the formulation and implementation of development frameworks such as the Ghana Vision 2020 by the National Democratic Congress (NDC) governments out of which the First Step (1996-2000) evolved and the subsequent introduction of Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I and Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (GPRS I and II 2003-2009) by the New Patriotic Party (NPP) government. The government's visioning approach cut across

human development, economic growth, vigorous infrastructural development, modernised agriculture centred on rural development, enhanced social services with special emphasis on education and health as well as good governance and private sector development. The NDC and NPP's vision have been to move Ghana into a middle income country status.

In the face of these well-thought objectives in terms of the country's developmental agenda, the question that arises is: what has been the outcomes of the government's vision of development on the nation. What lessons can be drawn to inform better policy making? It is in the light of this that the study interrogates these questions for answers.

### **1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Specifically, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What has been the approach to planning Ghana's development from independence to 1992?
2. What policies and programmes have been mounted by governments under Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and GPRS I & II to accelerate the pace of development of Ghana?
3. What processes and outcomes have attained by governments' vision of development?
4. What lessons could be learnt from both the Vision 2020 (The First Step) and GPRS I & II?
5. What challenges have been faced in the implementation of governments' visions for development and how can these be resolved?

### **1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The goal of this study is to:

- Assess the processes and outcomes of governments' visions for development in Ghana with respect to Vision 2020 and GPRS I & II.

The specific objectives of this study are to:

- Review the approaches to planning development in Ghana.
- Compare the processes and outcomes of the governments' Vision 2020 and GPRS I & II.
- Identify the challenges to the design and implementation of the Vision 2020 and the GPRS I and II.
- Suggest ways to overcome the challenges.

### **1.5 HYPOTHESIS**

Ghana has still not met its planned development objectives although it has made considerable strides. This hypothesis would be tested qualitatively against the outcomes of the NDC's Vision 2020 and the NPP's GPRS I and II.

### **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This study is important for the following reasons:

1. Contribute to the body of knowledge on planning and development.
2. Highlight the gap between planning and development in Africa in general and Ghana in particular.
3. Provoke rethinking of the strategies for public sector reforms (political, economic and social) that have yielded little development in Africa.
4. Raise awareness on the need for a long term national vision for Ghana.

## **1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

This thesis examines the outcome of Ghana's vision for development particularly from 1996-2000 under Rawlings and from 2003-2009 under Kufuor administrations. Essentially, these governments have presented well-laid themes to instigate and raise the level of development in the country. There is the issue of time factor, finance and insufficiency of documented materials for the purpose of this research, to mention but a few. All these are foremost nuisances on the path of the researcher in the process of carrying out this arduous task. The above limitations however would not hinder the researcher but motivate him to make a meaningful contribution to this research area. The main limitation of the research is that because it is a case study, its findings cannot be generalized and applied to other settings.

## **1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

### **1.7.1 Planning**

Planning as a concept is defined as 'deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who is to do it' (Ikeanyibe, 2009: 198). Planning is a 'means of making conscious choices about how to achieve a future aim' (Potts et al, 2003: 5). Planning embraces all the activities that lead to the determination of objectives and the appropriate courses of action that lead to their achievements. Plans are meant to achieve specific results; hence planning is not just an issue of determining objectives that are not consciously pursued or means that are never followed. It is therefore a blueprint for action. It entails determination of control, direction and methods of accomplishing the overall organizational or national objective.

Ejumudo (2013: 69) contends that planning involves 'thinking ahead initiating and taking a pre-determined course of action and deciding in advance what should be done, how, when and

by whom.’ For him, planning in essence, is the process of determining how the organization (government and its people) can get to where it want(s) to be and exactly what it will do to accomplish its objectives. In his estimation, planning goes further than attempting to attain stated organizational objectives and also involves the development of the strategy and procedure required for effective realization of the entire plan. Ikeanyibe (2009) posits that plans must be controlled and directed towards the desired set goals. From the aforementioned, it is the opinion of the researcher that planning represents a determined course of action leading to the attainment of pre-determined objectives.

Todaro (1989) reckons that the planning process itself can be described as an exercise in which a government first chooses social objectives, then sets various targets and finally organizes a framework for implementing, coordinating and monitoring a development plan. Planning has come to be accepted, therefore as an essential and pivotal means of guiding and accelerating economic growth in almost all Third World countries. The nature of planning is also influenced by its aims and so planning for development implies a form of planning that takes into account the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable sections of the community (Potts et al, 2003).

For Rathod (2010), the concept of planning helps in the promotion of economic growth and employment and social objectives. He argues that planning makes economic and social development easier by providing for explicit analysis and evaluation of alternative policies and that it can systematically resolve competing demands and conflicts. Rathod (2010: 53-54) considers planning to be ‘a universal factor in all-human activities-individual or social. It is a rational process of human behaviour.’ He makes that the case political review, evaluation, re-decision are vital to sound planning. He reckons that planning cannot be successful if it is not

considered as a collective effort. In short, planning constitutes a key ingredient in the advancement of development. There is therefore a link between planning and development.

### **1.7.2 Development**

Development as a concept means improvement or to become more advanced, more mature, more complete, more organized, more transformed, among others. Scholars have attempted to define it. Ikeanyibe (2009) for instance sees development as a multi-dimensional process involving the reorganization and reorientation of the entire economic and social system. This involves in addition to improvement of income and output, radical changes in institutional, social and administrative structures as well as in popular attitudes, customs and belief. It is worthy to note from the view of Ikeanyibe that development cuts across the economic and social strata.

Kendie and Martens (2008) state that development is about the politics of achieving social justice through economic change; it is about alternative ways or perspectives or visions of producing and distributing the 'common wealth.' Development is thus all about diverse visions and diverse solutions, and is therefore inherently political. In developing countries, development is all about people, their progress, the realisation of innate potential, the achievement of desirable goals, higher incomes, better nutrition, access to basic facilities, infrastructure and amenities of life that makes life worth living. Although, Kendie and Martens make the case that there is an element of politics within the framework of development, they concede that development also cuts across the economic and social strata as advanced by Ikeanyibe.

Omotola (2006) sees development as an adequate empowerment of the state and society for proper distillation of their complementary responsibilities, institutional and governmental stability, and great latitude of autonomy for the political community and its constituent parts, as well as individual members of such communities. This implies that for there to be development, there should be intellectual, moral, and social empowerment of the citizens. From the view of Omotola, development comes to mind when there is empowerment. Its absence (empowerment) defeats the idea of development. Walter Rodney (1982) on the other hand, views development as increased skills and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, external well-being, and societies' capacity to regulate both internal and external relationships. In the mind of Walter Rodney, without the above mentioned variables, development is non-existent.

Potts et al (2003: 3 as cited in Potts, 2002: 11) concede that the concept of development therefore implies 'the improvement over time and on a sustainable basis of the level and distribution of income and the physical and human resource base.' It can be understood from the above that the concept of development has an economic dimension, but that it goes beyond measuring Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It is widely recognized that development involves distributional issues such bringing an improvement in the life of people and dealing with the issue of mass poverty (Potts et al, 2003).

Todaro and Smith (2006) perceive development as both a physical reality and a state of mind in which society has, through some combination of social, economic and institutional processes, secured the means for obtaining a better life. They are of the opinion that

Whatever the specific components of this better life, development in all societies must have at least three objectives- increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-



sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection; raise level of living, including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem and expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery” (Todaro and Smith, 2006: 22).

Todaro and Smith concede that development is not purely an economic phenomenon. In an ultimate sense, it must encompass more than the material and financial side of people’s lives. From the above quote, institutions play a significant role in advancement of development as mentioned by Omotola in his conception of development.

According to Prah (2011), the notion of development prominently implies the improvement and uplifting of the quality of life of people, that they (people) are able, to a large measure, attain their potential, build and acquire self-confidence and manage to live lives of reasonable accomplishment and dignity. Development must optimize the capacity of mass society to intervene intelligently, creatively and knowledgeably on the environment in pursuit of its mode of livelihood. Lawal (2007) sees development as the process by which a type of (social) change is introduced into a system in order to produce a better production method and improved social arrangement. It involves a structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of a country. Inferring from Lawal, the infusion of transformation variable drives the engine of development.

In the works of Thomas (2010) and Mkandawire (2011), development could be viewed at three levels: as a vision, description or measure of the state of being of a desirable society; as a historical process of social change in which societies are transformed over long periods; and

as consisting of deliberate efforts aimed at improvement on the part of various agencies, including governments, all kinds of organisations and social movement.

Ejumudo (2013: 68) argues that ‘development is very much related with aspirations and expectations of the people. It is interaction of the people with the natural resources available to them.’ He asserts that the modern concept of development can be traced to 1987 Brundtland Commission report which defined development to include economic, environmental, socio-cultural and health as well as political needs. He makes the claim that ‘development transcends beyond the improvement in income and output to the radical transformation in institutional, social and administrative structures’ Ejumudo (2013: 68).

He opines that in the thinking of Seers (see Todaro and Smith, 2009), evaluation of developmental levels must be concerned with what has been happening to poverty, unemployment and inequality. In the view of Goulet (2008) development encapsulates life-sustenance, self- esteem and freedom. According to Ejumudo (2013), life sustenance is primarily concerned with the provision of basic needs, whereas self-esteem and freedom have to do with the feeling of self-respect and independence and liberty from the three evils of want, ignorance and squalor.

From the preceding paragraphs, development is multi-dimensional, political, it increases skill and capacity of individuals within the society and asking the question of what is happening to issues of poverty, unemployment and inequality whilst finding answers.

### **1.7.3 Development Planning**

Simpson (1991) states that development planning has itself grown out of the development discourse and includes the studying and increasing understanding of economic processes; the

increasing internal integration of national economies which have replaced relatively discrete, disaggregated local economies, the increasing acceptance of the role of the state in the welfare of society; and development of administrative abilities and professional and technical skills to manage large and complex structures. Inferring from the above, the state is seen as the driving force in the welfare of citizens.

Ikeanyibe (2009: 198) on his part, reckons that development planning implies ‘deliberate control and direction of the economy by a central authority for the purpose of achieving definite targets and objectives within a specified period of time.’ Development planning comprehensively involves predetermining a nation’s visions, missions, policies and programmes in all facets of life such as social, human, political, environmental, technological and the means of achieving them. In his view, economic visions and programmes cannot be realized without ‘looking at developmental issues holistically, which entails improvement in all human endeavours’ (Ikeanyibe, 2009: 199). Ikeanyibe’s view of development planning is no different from that of Simpson (1991).

Development planning refers to ‘the preparation and implementation of a planning document seeking to determine the pace and pattern of an economy’s development in the medium-term, and the economic policies to secure these results’ (Killick, 2010: 145). Development planning presupposes a formally predetermined rather than a sporadic action towards achieving specific developmental results. More importantly, it entails direction and control towards achieving planned targets. It is necessary to underscore that development planning is not easy since it deals with many complex and futuristic events. From the standpoint of Ejumudo (2013), development planning is indispensable because development is neither accidental nor does it take place naturally and quickly of its own accord, it is self-serving to plan it

purposefully. Rathod (2010) reckons that there are a possible eight steps that must be followed in development planning. According to him,

- ‘The first step in development planning involves the determination of the objectives. Objectives are laid down by the policy-makers who are always political men. Thus, it is a policy decision and therefore, political is its nature.
- Select the best alternative. Out of all the available alternative only the best available is adopted, so that there may not be wastage of time, energy and maximum benefits may be achieved.
- Select the best means. The best means are selected for achievements of objectives. Selecting the right methods is indeed a difficult task and requires much care.
- Allocate resources. The planning authority has to arrange the priorities and distribute the resources among the objectives in an order of priority.
- The administration has to implement the plan as finally approved.
- Evaluate. The planning authority has to modify the plan in the light of the experience gained. The choice is initially tentative. The alternatives are tested in operation and the best course is finally chosen.
- Finally, it involves identification of the policy control variable in terms of policy instruments used in the plan implementation (Rathod, 2010: 55).

#### **1.7.4 National development plan**

Hulme and Turner (1997: 134), posit that a national development plan is a ‘deliberate governmental attempt to coordinate economic decision making over the long run and to influence, direct and in some cases even control the level of growth of a nation’s principal economic variables such as income, consumption, employment, investment, savings, exports and imports among others.’ Theoretically, development plans of any sort involve deliberate efforts on the part of government to speed up the process of social and economic development of a country.

One of the chief merits of national development planning is that it publicizes the choices before a country and encourages discussion of them. Their view advances the argument that governments have the sole mandate to formulate and pursue the vision of development. Sapru (2010) conceives that a national development plan requires a proper policy framework. Targets are achievable when they are drawn within the framework of policies and that successful policies make for successful (national development) plans and administration. For Rathod (2010), a good national development plan must necessarily exhibit the following tendencies:

1. It should always deal with the future;
2. Involve selection of particular course of action.
3. It should be pervasive thus it should operate at every level.
4. Inter-dependability, coordination and consistency should be the characteristics of the national development planning process.
5. It should be flexible and sufficiently broad-based.
6. It should be a continuous process-a never ending regular activity.
7. It should be comprehensive and simple as far as possible.
8. It should be reasonably economical.
9. No ambiguities in a good national development plan.
10. It should be flexible.
11. Well-balanced.
12. Well defined objectives.
13. Use the available resources to the utmost (Rathod, 2010: 56)

## **1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS**

For the purpose of this study, planning is defined as the formulation of proposed programme of action to be carried out within a given time frame by a government to achieve predetermined developmental objectives. Development is defined here as a remarkable change in the socio-economic and political status of a people of a state.

Development planning is defined as a comprehensive approach in the transformation of a people taking into consideration their social, economic as well as political spheres with clearly spelt ways of achieving set goals within a specified time frame. A national development plan is operationalized in this study as a conscious attempt by a government with the sole aim of transforming the socio-economic and political and environment aspects its people's lives within specific time frame.

### **1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The empirical basis of this study is primary and secondary data. Primary data came from interviews. The secondary sources of data included government publications, journals, periodicals, research papers, papers presented by scholars. The secondary information was used to complement information in order to enhance the validity and reliability of the findings. The results from the interviews was transcribed and analyzed using content analysis. The research methodology is further expanded in chapter three of this thesis.

### **1.10 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY**

This thesis is structured into five chapters. Chapter one comprise the background of the study and statement of the research problem. It also looks at the research questions and objectives of the study; hypothesis; and discusses the methodology employed in brief and the definition of concepts and operational definition of terms. It also covers the significance of the study and the scope and limitation of the study.

Chapter two examines the theoretical framework and then reviews literature pertaining to the study. This includes general studies on planning and development planning, review of

planning experience and development in Africa; studies on Africa's vision for development, planning experience and development in Ghana and planning approaches for development as well as development trends and a trajectory of development plans and programmes in Ghana.

Chapter three looks at the background of the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II and also discusses research methodology as well as the research design employed. The research instrument, sampling size as well as sampling technique, data collection and analysis procedure as well as the ethical consideration are thoroughly outlined.

Chapter four looks at the evaluation of plans for development while chapter five is devoted to summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations.

## **1.11 CONCLUSION**

The idea of development remains very much desired in the world setting particularly in Africa where development indicators have not improved. The process of development is a multi-dimensional exercise which achievement demands political will and the involvement of the people in the process. Development is not only associated with economic growth but the well-being of people in a country. Deciding the direction, pace and extent of development rests with the people and not in the hands of an external institutions or nations. Good leadership envisions development; the approach to development in Africa for that matter. Ghana needs to undergo refining with an adoption of an incremental development planning approach.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework and literature review. The incremental theory or (disjointed) incrementalism is presented as the theoretical framework that guide the study. The basic assumptions underpinning it, is also looked at. Scholar(s) credited with coming up with the original theory including distinguished scholars who have modified or expanded on the theory are also looked at. The justification for the theory in this study is also discussed. The literature that is reviewed includes general studies on planning and development planning, planning experience and development in Africa; studies Africa's vision for development, planning experience and development in Ghana and planning approach for development as well as development trends in Ghana and a trajectory of development plans and programmes in Ghana.

#### **2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The (disjointed) incremental theory or incrementalism postulated by Charles Lindblom in his famous article 'The Science of Muddling Through' published in 1959 was used to guide the study. Incrementalism as a theory emerged as a response to the rational comprehensive theory which called for a scientific approach to decision making. Rather than an ideal, it purports to be a realistic description of how policy makers arrive at their decisions (Lindblom 1959, 1979; Wildavsky 1964; Knill and Tosun, 2008). The theory posits that the selection of goals and objectives is intertwined with, not distinct from, the scientific analysis of the problem. Decision makers only consider alternatives for dealing with a problem that differs marginally



from existing policies. Incremental theory suggest that decision makers (governments) do not completely remake policy every time they make a policy decision, but as an alternative alter existing policy.

Maddison and Denniss (2009) describe incrementalism as a theory of policy decision making that is a fundamentally political and messy process where decisions are based on what is politically possible rather than what might be considered ideal. According to Anderson (2003), incremental decisions involve limited changes to existing policies. For each alternative, only important consequences are considered. Problems confronting the decision maker are continually redefined. Constant ends-means and, means-ends adjustments are made to better manage policy. Anderson (2006) contends that incrementalism in relation to decisions and policies are the products of give and take and mutual consent among numerous participants often partisan in their approach to decision making. Anderson in his book, '*Public Policy Making*,' summarizes the tenets of the incremental theory. According to him,

1. The selection of goals or objectives and the empirical analysis of the action needed to attain them are closely intertwined with, rather than distinct from, one another.
2. The decision maker considers only some of the alternatives for dealing with a problem, which will differ only incrementally from existing policies.
3. For each alternative, only a limited number of "important" consequences are evaluated.
4. The problem confronting the decision maker is continually redefined. Incrementalism allows for countless ends-means and means-ends adjustments that help make the problem more manageable.
5. There is no decision or "right" solution for a problem. The test of a good decision is that various analysts find themselves directly agreeing on it, without agreeing that the decision is the most appropriate or optimum means to an agreed objective.
6. Incremental decision making is essentially remedial and is geared more to ameliorating present, concrete social imperfections than to promoting future social goals' (Anderson, 2006: 125).

Knill and Tosun (2008) make the case that governments likewise engage in information gathering activity as they do not scan all available experience and instead use analytical shortcuts and cognitive investigations to process the information. Maddison and Denniss (2009: 84) note that underlying the incremental theory, is an understanding that policy makers do not start with a blank slate but build from the current situation in small degrees, and thus the decisions made are incremental in that they are usually only marginally different changes from the status quo.

Hill (2005: 147) on the other hand, making reference to a publication by Braybrooke and Lindblom published in 1963, states that in the context of (disjointed) incrementalism, 'the decision maker keeps on returning to problems, and attempts to ameliorate those problems rather than to achieve some ideal future state. What is more, decision makers adjust objectives to available means instead of striving for a fixed set of objectives.' Good (2011) on the other hand, contends that the theory of incrementalism has travelled from the generalized world of public decision-making to the particularized field of budget making. He contends that scholars like Wildavsky gave new meaning to the concept of (disjointed) incrementalism as it applied to budgetary processes.

According to Good (2011: 43), 'Wildavsky taking a behavioural and political approach, adapted disjointed incrementalism to describe and explain the budgetary process and its outcomes.' He further argues that in as much as Lindblom's disjointed incrementalism provided only a generalized take on policy-making, Wildavsky's use of incrementalism made refinements to the institutional character, including roles, rules, and culture in the budgetary process. In his view, budgets underwent structural changes based on what the actors involved felt was lacking, hence some adjustments.

Hitge and Van Dijk (2012) have used the incremental theory as an alternative approach to upgrading urban public transport systems in South Africa. They conclude that incrementalism can reduce some of the risks inherent in major interventions in the Rapid Bus Transit; thus provide the opportunity to gradually implement supporting policies; and provide improvements in a wider area, which would benefit a larger part of the population over a shorter time period. Although the incremental theory is used to explain the budgetary process and also improve transport systems, the theory has been criticized by critics.

Anderson (2006: 126) contends that ‘the theory is indeed a barrier to innovation, which is often necessary for effective public policy. Again, he opines that the theory in crisis situations, provides no guidelines for handling the task of decision. Geared as it is to past actions and existing programs, and to limited changes in them, incrementalism may discourage the search for or use of other readily available alternatives.’ Maddison and Denniss (2009) contend that incrementalism is seen as insufficiently goal orientated and that without goals it is impossible to measure whether a situation is getting any better. Weiss and Woodhouse (1992) highlight these same criticisms as advanced by Anderson as well as Maddison and Denniss.

However, Anderson (2006) reckons that despite the flaws in the theory, incrementalism has become a conventional wisdom used by governments in taking a decision on a matter of concern as a result of the lack of time. In contrast to the criticism of Anderson, Maddison and Denniss, and Weiss & Woodhouse, it is argued by Lindblom that the occurrence of small steps does not make incrementalism a slow approach, as many small interventions could be followed-up quickly by another, making it a potentially proactive and progressive.

In addition, Hitge and Van Dijk (2012: 593) argue that ‘incrementalism allows decision makers to address one issue at a time, which provides the opportunity with each step to evaluate the impact of prior steps and adjust accordingly.’ Consequently, Cervero (1998: 407) independently supports the stance, by arguing that ‘small incremental steps matter provided that they are guided by some general vision of where the region is headed.’ His argument is well laid out and reinforces the view of Lindblom. The use of incrementalism would prove helpful to the realization of Ghana’s vision for development as institutions and governments would have been able to learn previous experiences in relation to development failures.

### **2.3 DEPLOYMENT OF THE THEORY**

The incremental theory or incrementalism is thus justified and applicable to Ghana’s vision for development and best explains what governments have done and continue to do in bringing about development to the doorsteps of the people. Although the idea of development have been championed by past and current governments, there have been attempts to make structural modifications to the approaches of instigating development. Governments have attempted to continue from where other governments have left off and at the same time introducing certain dimensions to existing arrangements for achieving their development objectives. No government’s vision for development has been written off and the sequence of medium term strategies that have been employed over the years have been informed by predecessor plans and strategies.

Governments are faced with a myriad of problems. They look at some of these problems and try to redefine the problem since they do not have all the time in the world to solve them all. They tend to carry out politically expedient measures in their attempt to remedy the

development deficit. The problem of economic growth in the late 1970s was remedied on the principle of building a self-reliant economy looking at the resource availability of the country at the time. However, in the 1980s, the problem of economic growth now remedied on the principle of an open market liberalization policy due to high levels of mismanagement of state resources and revenues. This belief has always been that such open market liberalization policies would better bring the needed transformation countries seek. Therefore, countries have not been immune to this idea of open market liberalization policy.

## **2.4 LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section reviews the literature under the following headings, namely general studies on planning and development planning, history of development planning, planning experience and development in Africa and other literature on development planning in Ghana.

### **2.4.1 GENERAL STUDIES ON PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

Todaro and Smith (2009) have asserted that the early widespread acceptance of planning as a development tool rests on a number of fundamental economic and institutional arguments such as market failure, resource mobilization and allocation, attitudinal or psychological impact and foreign aid. They have opined that planning by governments has helped to rally people and mobilize them to work together in building nations. They observe that the formulation of development plans by national governments has even become a necessary condition for the receipt of bilateral and multilateral foreign aid particularly for developing countries.

The views expressed by Todaro and Smith is supported by Al-Shareef (1993) who asserts that development planning has played a major role in the rebuilding of the Western world even to

the extent that underdeveloped countries have found it necessary to draw up plans for their development to improve their social situation. According to Al-Shareef, development planning in Saudi Arabia has become a successful nation with the government's utilization of its wealth (oil) in improving the standard of living, a high rate of economic growth, the development of agriculture and industry, manpower skills and the development of urban centres. The result of careful planning has made Saudi Arabia a model for other nations in the sub-region and even beyond to emulate. The success of development planning in the country has not only been attributed to the country's wealth but commitment and priorities.

Whilst Todaro and Smith as well as Al-Shareef explore the positive correlation between planning and development, Straudt (1991) on the other hand, has argued that planning has become a ritualistic exercise in many nations, only distantly connected to budgetary realities and implementation. She opines that the lack of accurate and timely information makes planning uncertain. The refusal of countries to welcome on board private associations in amassing data to supplement or verify the accuracy of data gathered in the event of planning leaves much to be desired. According to her, information is treated as 'top secret' power resource. There exists a gap between planning and finance.

According to her, planners have often lost to shorter exigencies of finance or of the political executive. This gap has been diagnosed as institutional schizophrenia. The existence of budget games between planning agencies and finance ministries renders planning agencies impotent because of the lack of closeness to the presidency and budgetary authority. In the midst of these budgetary games, planning agencies overestimate their needs whereas the finance ministry underestimates money available delaying funding until crisis.

Stretching the argument of Staudt further, Todaro and Smith (2009) reckon there is an aura of mystique about planning and development because national planning has not lived up to its advance billing. This has been seen as a result of worldwide view that planning could offer an essential and perhaps the only institutional and organizational mechanism for overcoming the major obstacles to development. The failure of development planning is as a result of insufficient data and funding as well as lack of a closer collaboration between planning authorities and specific sector ministries.

According to them, people have questioned the desirability of formulating and implementing a development plan. Todaro and Smith in their work have developed two contrasting views on planning and development. They cannot conclusively take a stance on the efficacy or ineffectiveness of planning and development. Straudt's view that planning has become a ritualistic exercise in many nations, only distantly connected to budgetary realities and implementation can be considered as an unfortunate statement. In appraising development policies, plans and programmes the world over, there is a strong notion of politics within the national setting which may have a positive or negative impact on the country.

Mai (2008) argues that the non-availability of analytical techniques and planners' lack of skills for planning tasks make it hard for plans to survive with the dynamic complexity of the economic environment by remaining up-to-date, relevant, and comprehensive. Moreover, the data system and information is hard to access due to the data collection mechanism invariably impeding the development planning process. He further argues that the vertical and top-down links between different levels of government make it harder to listen to the public at the bottom of the pyramid during plan preparation. He concedes that the building and sharing of visions, diagnosing current environments, alternating strategic courses of action and

enhancing participation are the essentials of development planning. He recommends that conducting consultation on the development planning process would allow better coordination and implementation of development activities.

#### **2.4.2 HISTORY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN AFRICA**

The evolution of development planning in African colonies and protectorates dates back to the period before the Second World War (Abdelmalek and Clairmonte, 1965; Baah, 2003; Zandera, 2013; Makhan, 2013). They argue that colonial administrators prepared and rolled out ten year development plans in many of these colonies. They make the case that aid from colonial masters was made available to finance those colonial plans that targeted infrastructure and unemployment and were financed by the colonial masters. Nkrumah (1971) cites the example in the Gold Coast (now Ghana) where a ten year development plan comprised the construction of roads, railways, a modern harbour, schools and hospitals. However, due to financial crisis in Europe, colonial governments had to finance their own welfare and social development.

Abdelmalek and Clairmonte (1965) stress that somewhere in the late 1950s, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) dispatched teams to undertake an economy survey in British colonies in Africa which were later translated into first national development plans for new independent countries. According to them, the granting of independence to states on the continent signaled a break from the colonial/IBRD engineered development plans to those crafted by United Nations staff on the Economic Commission on Africa. Subsequent sets of plans were introduced but later abandoned owing to a series of economic crises and balance of payment crisis (Abdelmalek and Clairmonte, 1965; Baah,



2003). The notion of [medium and long-term] development planning is not a new issue in Africa (Zandera, 2013).

Makhan (2013) argues that despite the intensity of development planning which was characteristic of national governments in the early years of independence, this element was not extended to the regional and continental levels in the wake of the establishment the Organization of African Unity now the African Union. Its absence at the sub-regional level has posed serious challenges of development. From the above, the idea of development planning was borne out of a Western concept and not an indigenous one. As sub-regional bodies and as a continent, development planning has escaped the thoughts of many African leaders. Ghana thus learnt from the idea from a colonial governor, Guggisberg as other African countries took a cue from the colonial masters.

#### **2.4.3 REVIEW OF PLANNING EXPERIENCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA**

Lopes (2013) and Zandera (2013) posit that the continent has had ‘a chequered history’ during the early beginnings of independence. He posits that these plans at the time promoted ‘state-engineered economies’ with resources allocated by governments. Within the context of Africa, Todaro (1989), Tidjani (1998) and Lopes (2013) have maintained that plans are often overambitious. These plans try to accomplish too many objectives at once without consideration of how some of these objectives are competing or even conflicting. They posit that these plans are often grandiose in design but vague on specific policies achieving stated objectives. Both stretch their argument further with the stance that the gap between plan formulation and implementation has often been enormous.

Arthur-Lewis (1966), Hulme and Turner (1997) as well as the African Union and United Nations Economic Commission on Africa (2011) Report concede that the idea of national development planning which ought to be designed with national interest at heart tends to be drawn with political interest. It is often no surprise when national development plans are abandoned because of their perceived political nature. This has often not been because development plans have failed but then a change of government signals a change in a country's development framework.

Looking back on the evidence on the early planning experience on the continent, Mongula (2006) posits that the major weaknesses have to do with the implementation aspects of development plans. The most important among these sources are the political and institutional factors. In the wake of many years of development planning, one may point to the fact that such kind of development policy may not have brought the needed results which could have a telling effect on the African masses.

Commenting on Africa's quest in planning for development, Killick (1983) and Ibietan and Oghator (2013) contend that the continent's posture has remained so as a result of inadequate planning resources, absence of financial programming and the spate of technical flaws. Ikeanyibe (2009) and Ibietan and Oghator (2013) drawing on the gap between the continent's planning and development, reckon that the lack of expertise leaves much to be desired. There is no reasonable time for planning commissions as well as national development agencies to be able to do thorough work on a country's development.

Aside the aforementioned reasons for development plan failures, Ibietan and Oghator (2013) also contend that 'plan indiscipline and unnecessary partisanship; poor or inadequate

feasibility studies in planning; erratic and conflicting government policies manifesting in contradictions in areas of planning and non-revision of plans cannot be downplayed as probable causes. The arguments of Ikeanyibe is somewhat flawed as countries such as Ghana and Tanzania have had a pool of experts who have crafted development plans which have been implemented particularly in the case of Ghana's Seven Year Development Plan under Nkrumah.

#### **2.4.4 STUDIES ON AFRICA'S VISION FOR DEVELOPMENT**

Blair (1973) posits that there have been many pathways to development in Africa. These tendencies have existed towards certain ideologies such as capitalism, socialism or in some respect African socialism. He opines that the present aid and trade policies severely retard Africa's development. He asserts that Africa's vision for development has been unsuccessful as a result of development horror stories. These development horror stories are the negative results of planned and unplanned actions by the major actors in the development drama by Western nations, industrialists as well as aid-granting institutions. Achille (2007) exploring the factors inhibiting Africa's development, provides two factors responsible for deterring the development of Sub-Saharan Africa:

First and foremost, there is a persistent structural constraint, which impedes the sustained growth. Secondly, there is lack of good leadership more explicitly, lack of development behaviour-oriented leadership and good governance to catalyze the process. In fact, good leadership envisions development and endeavours, sound public finance management; hence a public expenditure management as a tool to attain its development vision, with efficiency and discipline in the best interest of the country (Achille, 2007: 54).

In highlighting Africa's development constraints, Elhraika (2005: 193) opines that 'economic growth in Africa is highly dependent on weather conditions and exogenously-determined

commodity prices,' where most of African countries rely on the agricultural and extractive sectors; the effects of aid conditionality on domestic policy and economic performance cannot be ruled out; problems of debt overhang and debt servicing commitments also affect the ability of countries to finance development as well as liberal trade policies that open up the markets of African countries, while many of their trading partners in the developed world continue to protect their markets. The views expressed by Elhraika are confirmed by the large aid inflows development partners provide African countries in relation to the other countries on the Asian continent.

Madavo (2005) makes a staggering revelation on Africa's vision for development. He argues that the continent lags behind other regions in the world particularly Asia. He makes the case that per capita GDP has witnessed some substantial growth over the years in Asia whereas that Sub-Saharan Africa has virtually seen no per capita growth owing to the increasing levels of poverty. He further argues whereas other parts of the world surge ahead in terms of non-income indicators of development. According to him, 'the continent's share of world trade has declined from 3.7% in the 1970s to 1.5% as at 2005' (Madavo, 2005: 2). He contends that the decline is equivalent an annual loss of 70 billion dollars as compared to 25 billion dollars that comes to Africa in the form of overseas development assistance.

He makes the case that Africa's less engagement in the global economy is worrying and that Africa is missing out on the technical transformation critical to laying the foundation for future investment to brighten the continent's vision for development. On the basis of social indicators for development, Africa lags behind in areas such as access to piped water and sanitation, primary education completion rates, gender equality, the HIV/AIDS menace and serious destructive conflicts. In the midst of all these gloomy images inhibiting the continent's

development, he concedes that there are ‘islands of real progress in improved economic policies, export growth, governance and democratization’ (Madavo, 2005: 3).

According to Frimpong-Ansah (1991), there has been less effort to solve the relevant and more controversial development issues that arise in Africa’s specific circumstances. Such issues are the inappropriate strategies in the progression from agriculture to industrialization and from import substitution to export substitution, questions of state promotion of development under free market conditions versus central planning involving state participation. The whole controversy between balanced and unbalanced strategies cannot be left out.

The impact of donor-driven policies has left much to be desired. According to Shivji (2006) and Mutahaba and Kweyamba (2010), the modest achievement of the nationalists or developmentalists were lost or undermined as a result of donor-driven policies such as the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). This included decline of social indicators such as education, medical care, health, nutrition, rate of literacy and life expectancy.

These were followed by increased de-industrialization and redundancies. The central role of the state became obviously affected. The privatization of public enterprises producing goods and services reduced the role of the state in areas where the private sector has often proved to be a better alternative. Notwithstanding the positives derived from these donor-driven policies on Africa’s development, the retreat of the state was detrimental for many African countries.

Mutahaba and Kweyamba (2010) in their evaluation of donor-driven policies on Africa’s development have come with two verdicts. The first verdict is the fact that the social and economic reforms have largely been externally driven and in fact countries have largely

succumbed to the pressure from the World Bank/IMF else they would not get any assistance from the two international financial institutions in financing their country's development. This has undermined the issue of the right to state autonomy which is supposed to be part and parcel of modern nation states.

The second verdict in regard to the impact of donor-driven policies on Africa's development is the nature of these policies particularly Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) which has largely been designed by the World Bank/IMF without country specificity considerations. The two verdicts by Mutahaba and Kweyamba are confirmed by events in 1983 in Ghana where the government had to succumb to the dictates of these institutions in turning around the country's development woes with the introduction of the Economic Recovery Programme.

Ghana at the time was marked with severe economic crisis with the collapse of primary commodity prices of cocoa, coffee and timber coupled with external debt burden. Ghanaians had become desperate and sought for a way out of this economic decay. There was the absence of credible alternatives to the ERP. The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government had tried to seek support from the Soviet Union but were advised to seek assistance from the International Monetary Fund. The government had to accept changes that would have been unthinkable in earlier times (Killick, 2010).

Killick (2010: 408) argues that the ERP had a positive impression on Ghana because 'the economy grew at about five per cent per annum (p.a.) during the ERP years, meaning that average per capita incomes by 1992 were about a tenth higher than in 1983 coupled with a dramatic improvement in exports and import capacities. Sandbrook (1993) commenting on the impact of ERPs, contends that a handful of countries registered some improvements in

their overall economic fortunes, including Ghana. In most African states, there had not been a hint of recovery. The ERP and SAP had promised more than it could deliver.

Although Sandbrook is quick to say the ERP improved Ghana's development, he admits that there were problems. The major structure of the economy remained unchanged as there was a high dependency on aid and a low contribution of industry to the Ghanaian economy. Killick (2010) also makes the point that the response of the private sector to ERP measures was weak with recorded private investment remaining low.

The views of Sandbrook and Killick are substantiated by Madavo (2005) as he contends that these SAPs and ERPs left many African countries with some mixed feeling as few countries had reversed the downward spiral that had begun in the 1970s. On the other hand, he suggests ways to overturn the continent's weak posture towards development. According to Madavo (2005: 5), the following would best solve the challenges the continent continually faces in development:

1. There is a need to put growth and poverty reduction at the center of African development efforts. Previously, too much spending had been directed at programs and projects that accomplished neither.
2. African countries have to lead and have ownership over their development strategies. These strategies cannot be imposed from the outside as conditionalities for aid.
3. Capable, well-led democratic states, which encourage engagement by the private sector, civil society and other stakeholders to safeguard accountability are essential. Equally important is a norm of transparency, particularly in the use of public resources and the fight against corruption.
4. The international community should not impose policies on African countries. It must, however, continue to play an important supporting role because Africa's resources are too limited for the continent to pull itself up by its own bootstraps. A real partnership between Africa and the international community is needed if it is to make progress towards meeting the MDGs by the 2015 deadline.

Lopes (2013) contends that although the SAPs paints a sad story for the continent, the negative effects of a decade of Structural Adjustment on welfare and social conditions have been reversed with the introduction of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). He maintains that even with the principle of ownership and consultations that have underpinned PRSPs, they lack credibility. His reason for this, is the externally driven nature of the process. He continues further by suggesting PRSPs have tended to place lop-sided emphasis on the social sector at the expense of the productive sector in so doing raising questions about the sustainability of the poverty reduction agenda.

From his review on the state of development on the continent, one can confidently say that donors in their desire to lift the continent from its development deficits, have only succeeded in keeping development at a standstill. He concludes on the score that in order to hit the mark in terms of development, ‘more work is required to improve the planning frameworks in Africa in order to translate the development aspirations and priorities into concrete results’ (Lopes, 2013: 4). For Zandera (2013: 14), ‘the key element in the credibility of development plans rests with the capacity and capability of governments to effectively implement, monitor and ensure that development plans are not captured by sectional interests that will relegate the vision into a state of oblivion.’

#### **2.4.5 TRAJECTORY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND PROGRAMMES IN GHANA**

Ghana has had a very long history and tradition of planning for national development from the era of British Governor, Sir Guggisberg to the era of the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001; Amoako-Tuffour and Armah, 2008; ;



Killick, 2010 and Tandoh-Offin, 2013). Ghana is reputed to have commenced the first development plan in the world, the Guggisberg Plan in 1919.

#### **2.4.5.1 The Guggisberg Development Plan (1919-1929)**

This was more of a public investment programme than a comprehensive development plan but it provided the framework for the first efforts to develop the Gold Coast up to 1926 (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001; Tandoh-Offin, 2013). This very first plan was developed by the colonial administration without any participation by the people and was implemented largely by the administrative service. The Guggisberg Development Plan was intended to bring some kind of social welfare to Ghanaians particularly those living in the municipal areas. The total estimated amount for the plan was £24 million pounds.

In the view of Kudjoe (1987), the plan as could be expected, could not be carried to the end due to the adverse opinion that prevailed then in British government circles. This was because it considered economic development in the British African colonies as unacceptable, even out of place. Consequently from 1927 to 1950, the colonial governments did practically nothing to bring social and economic development to the nation.

#### **2.4.5.2 The Burns Development Plan (1950-1960)**

Soon after the Second World War, Sir Allan Burns was appointed the Governor of the Gold Coast. In April 1950, he introduced another Ten Year Development Plan for the Economic and Social Development of the Gold Coast. The plan was defined as providing an outline of what was hoped would be achieved in all fields of development during the ten year period beginning from April 1, 1950. According to Kudjoe,

The ten year period was precisely designated to be merely a one phase in the development of the country. The second colonial Ten Year Development Plan, like the first, was nothing else than a typical colonial plan which planning experts labelled as ‘the shopping list’ plan. The ‘shopping list’ plan only sought to put together or compile information derived from the various government departments found to be essential for implementation during the plan period. The ‘shopping list’ method of planning remained the characteristic blue print or trajectory for Ghana’s development plans till and after the attainment of independence’ (Kudjoe, 1987: 277).

The plan was expected to impart on the economy through a consistent set of sectoral targets. The plan laid emphasis on four major areas: economic and productive services, communications, social services and common services and general administration. The economic and productive areas stressed on agriculture in all aspects as well as to industry and water supply projects. The annual planned government expenditure during the period of the plan was put at £7.4 million pounds when the actual government expenditure basket was situated in the region of £11.6 million pounds (Kudjoe, 1987). The plan was however disregarded as a result of the political upheaval in the country. According to Kudjoe, the CPP government which won the 1951 elections then decided immediately to convert the plan into a compact one of five years duration courtesy the advice of Sir Arthur Lewis.

#### **2.4.5.3 Nkrumah’s Development Plans (1951-1966)**

The first Five Year Development Plan of the Nkrumah government also became known as the Lewis Plan. The plan laid emphasis on the development of infrastructure and agriculture instead of industries. The plan was pure in its capitalist orthodoxy which wasto deepen Ghana’s peripheral dependency. The serious defect of the Lewis Plan was the failure to recommend the structural and institutional changes necessary to permit the plan to be turned into a concrete reality (Kudjoe, 1987). The 1951 Development Plan showed what ‘a truly

national government, run by dedicated nationals could do for a nation and its future, irrespective of the myriad, mighty and complex problems' (Kudjoe, 1987: 282).

The Second Five Year Development Plan in 1959 was a plan that was prepared with the assistance of experts of recognized international standing. For the rapid realization of the Second Five Year Development Plan, appeals were made for private direct investment to boost the national effort to attain a probable standard of development and welfare. It was a plan which put much emphasis on industrialization without, however, de-emphasizing the continued expansion of infrastructure, especially education (Kudjoe, 1987). In the words of Nkrumah, 'education would continue to remain one of the main pillars, if not the main pillar of government's efforts in the Second Five Year Development Plan' (Kudjoe, 1987: 282).

The 1959 development plan did not move away from the blue-print or trajectory set by Sir Arthur Lewis. It also maintained its shopping list characteristics. The development plan contained a list of things waiting to be done by government without the necessary financial clout to go with it hence its shopping list characteristics. It was designed to meet the desire of Ghanaians in abolishing disease, poverty and illiteracy. Also, it was to provide good housing and adequate food by making full use through hard work of the nation's resources. The whole estimate of the plan was at £350 million pounds.

Fears and uncertainties were entertained to the effect that the overall objectives of the plan were not fully attained. The whole plan was abandoned two years later. This was because 'the Ghanaian economy still remained basically an enclosed economy with its rate of dependency deepened. There appeared no systematic integration with the linkages that could provide the complexity and the buoyancy of the economy' (Kudjoe, 1987: 286).

By 1961, the government had become dissatisfied with the gradualist pace of development taking place in the country. Courtesy, the Lewis Report which urged government to lay socio-economic foundations to attract foreign investors as a means to industrialization, toured the Soviet Union, China and Eastern Europe in 1961. This gave him the green light to terminate the plan in support of a radical approach to development in the subsequent development plan in 1964 (Dzorgbo, 2001). A Seven Year Development Plan was later advanced.

The 7-Year Development Plan was named The Seven-Year Plan for National Reconstruction and Development and was approved by Parliament on 16 March 1964. The Convention People's Party (CPP) prepared a Programme of Work and Happiness in 1961 that provided the overall framework and principles for the socialist approach to the development of the country. The Planning Commission was established in October 1961 to provide a comprehensive development plan, instead of the public investment programmes that hitherto guided development efforts (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001). The Plan was the first integrated and comprehensive economic plan in Ghana's development administration history (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001). Nkrumah's development strategy was to transform the Gold Coast into a paradise in ten years. He sought to satisfy the appetite of his teeming followers during the anti-colonial struggle (Killick, 2010).

The CPP was to implement a socialist policy of economic development based on a programme of 'work and happiness'. Under it, the state would act as the leading sector of the economy. The CPP government would promote directly and indirectly, the creation of full employment and the economic well-being of all Ghanaians. The programme of 'work and happiness' contained a statement of the strategy for Ghana's economic reconstruction and development. It also contained the tasks of the plan, the role of the non-government sector,

sectoral programmes for agriculture, industry and mining, infrastructure, education, manpower and employment, health, housing; the Volta River Project; public administration; foreign trade and payments; financing the plan and plan implementation and management.

Key objectives of the Seven Year Development Plan were to accelerate economic growth, to start the socialist transformation of the economy and remove all vestiges of colonial structure of the economy. Implementation was cut short by the coup d'état in February 1966. Key stakeholders of the Seven Year Development Plan were the CPP party and government, the state sector of the economy, cooperatives, civil service, the intelligentsia and the private business sector. The Plan continued and expanded investments initiated under the First Development Plan and laid the basis for the country's physical and social infrastructure, promoted state-owned enterprises in the economic sectors (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001).

The main thrust of Nkrumah's Seven Year Development Plan was massive industrialization as the only hope breaking out of the poverty trap; the transformation of the colonial structure of production and increasing economic independence. The need to industrialize in order to reduce the unemployment problem was the dominant rationale offered by the Seven Year Development Plan. The implementation of the Seven Year Development Plan would catapult the nation to the threshold of the take-off stage. The development plan received a lot of outside advice from people like Dudley Seers and Arthur Lewis (Killick, 2010). The purpose of the plan was to achieve within a generation what the western developed nations, in their pioneering effort at industrialization, took a century to achieve (Kudjoe, 1987).

The approach adopted by the Nkrumah government was a Big Push strategy that by concentrating high rates of capital formation into relatively few years would transform Ghana

from an agrarian and primary commodity-producing economy to a modern industrialized nation (Hutchful, 2002). Although the development plan was in operation for only two years, ‘it had been the most systematically knitted development plan Ghana had ever devised, which broke away from the “shopping list” style of development planning which had been characteristic of previous development plans’ (Kudjoe, 1987: 292).

Ghana’s development agenda at the time of Nkrumah was thus driven by a strong need to redistribute national resources and social service delivery to the benefit of all Ghanaians. Rural and northern development schemes were initiated and implemented as an important means for leveraging and re-distributing resources to socio-economically excluded groups throughout Ghana (Martens and Kendie, 2008).

#### **2.4.5.4 The Two Year Development Plan of the National Liberation Council**

The pre-occupation of the military and police officers who overthrew Nkrumah and formed the NLC sought to restore some order to what they saw as a chaotic economic situation. The NLC sought to deal with the imbalance in the country’s foreign payment position, arrest the inflationary pressures to which the economy had been subjected during the past few years, provide more job openings for the rising population of the country and also restore the balance of government budget. The formulation of its two year development plan was drafted under E. N. Omaboe, a government statistician during Nkrumah’s reign.

According to him, there was the need to ‘correct the present imbalance in the country’s foreign payments position; cause the arrest of the inflationary pressures to which the economy has been subjected during the past few years; provide more job openings for the rising population of the country; and restore some balance to the Government’s Budget’ (Killick,

2010: 61). The overall strategy for dealing with these, put together with the advice of the IMF, was to pursue orthodox disinflationary fiscal and monetary policies while avoiding an adverse effect on production. The NLC sought to improve capacity utilization and prepare the economy for another development effort to be launched as soon as stabilization had been achieved. There were major cuts in public sector investments in a bid to improve balance of payments (Killick, 2010).

The principle adopted by the NLC in terms of development was that economically sound projects already underway should be completed but that few, if any, new ones should be commenced. The NLC pursued a policy of cautious liberalization with the eventual abolition of import, price and exchange controls. The NLC placed greater emphasis on the role of the private enterprise, especially Ghanaian with measures to assist Ghanaian businessmen, including legislation to restrict certain activities exclusively to Ghanaians. To enable the NLC pursue its developmental agenda, it sought to secure external aid and debt relief, especially from Western countries.

The military government sought to prepare the economy for a fresh development drive by stabilizing the economy and improving balance of payments by creating an atmosphere of confidence conducive to higher levels of private investment, by beginning to repair the neglect suffered by the country's peasant farmers under Nkrumah and by strengthening the economic planning capabilities of the public service. Indeed the NLC began to 'feel the need for more growth-oriented policies towards the end of its period and prepared a Two Year Development Plan with a sub-title From Stabilization to Development' (Killick, 2010: 62). Ghana had achieved a sufficient measure of economic stability and restored conditions for new growth at the time the NLC was handing over to the Progress Party.

#### **2.4.5.5 The One Year Development Plan of the Progress Party**

The Progress Party (PP) government assumed power in October 1969 faced with a view to addressing three development issues: growth, unemployment and equality. The issue of unemployment was of course completely consistent with the approach taken earlier in the early sixties with the introduction of the Seven Year Development Plan. The PP government displayed the greatest sensitivity to the employment issue. From the PP's development perspective, four main imperatives could be identified which were to substantially raise domestic investment and saving rates, expand export earnings and attract more external assistance, accelerate the Ghanaianization of economic activities and place special emphasis on rural development.

The civilian administration thus Dr. Busia's Progress Party (PP) which followed the NLC in 1969 concerned itself with development but had only a little more than two years in office before another coup swept the National Redemption Council (NRC) into power early in 1972 (Killick, 2010). The PP's Development Plan failed because its policies that sought economic efficiency directly struck at the interest of the urban coalition which wanted to reassert Nkrumah's redistributive social production system (Dzorgbo, 2001).

#### **2.4.5.6 The Five Year Development Plan of the National Redemption Council**

On assuming power, the National Redemption Council (NRC) set itself the task of clearing the chaotic conditions which led to the disastrous devaluation of the cedi in 1971. The 13<sup>th</sup> January Revolution declared economic self-reliance as a national development goal. Within the plan period, the NRC government with the support of the Ghanaian community expected significant gains in agricultural production, industry and trade.



Over the plan period, the main objective of development as far as resource availability would permit, was to accelerate the growth of real gross domestic product. As a long term goal, full employment of all the nation's resources, human and natural was to be provided. Equitable distribution of income in terms of equal access to employment and productive opportunities was to be pursued. There was also to be the maintenance of the internal integrity of the cedi through the control of rapid inflation. There was the promotion of national economic independence in terms of creation of effective links between the sectors of the economy so that development becomes mutually reinforcing.

There was also be an attempt to minimize the balance of payments constraint on the national economic and social reconstruction effort. The declared philosophy of self-reliance was based on the recognition that the nation's attempts at development must rest in the first place, on its own efforts. This realistic philosophy of self-reliance was 'well in accord with the injunction of the International Development Strategy adopted by the United Nations for the 1970s which stated categorically that developing countries must and do bear the main responsibility of financing their own development' (GoG, 1977: 49).

Development efforts targeted local initiatives and indigenous enterprise while seeking to redistribute national resources fairly through the 'Operation Feed Yourself Programme' (Martens and Kendie, 2008). The Five Year Development Plan failed because it was more interested in re-distributive politics that could guarantee its survival in a context of declining production and changing fortune. The leader of the NRC 'patrimonialized the state, undermining its capability and effectiveness in the management and development process' (Dzorgbo, 2001: 252).

#### **2.4.5.7 The Provisional National Defense Council's (PNDC) Economic Recovery**

##### **Programme**

The subsequent programmatic effort towards national development was the two-phased Economic Recovery Program (ERP) under the PNDC. This involved stabilization and rehabilitation, liberalization and growth. This was initiated in 1983 with the support of the World Bank and the IMF (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001). Although Ghana's level of development had dipped, the PNDC sought to turn around Ghana's development woes. As a result of progressive mismanagement over a decade or more, it felt a strong decision to salvage the economy (Kudjoe, 1987: 450).

The ERP was initiated in 1983. It was a two-phased programme involving stabilization and rehabilitation under phase I (1983-1986) and liberalization and growth under phase II (1987-1989). Major areas of policy reform included: pricing, trade and industrial policy, investment, taxation and subsidies, as well as human resource development and institutional development. A Program of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment (PAMSACD) was initiated to address poverty issues arising from the reform process.

Key objectives of the ERP were to arrest the decline in production, restore internal and external macroeconomic balances as well as rehabilitate productive and social infrastructure and sustained economic growth. It was to improve domestic saving and investment as well as improve the management of the economy. It sought to re-orient the economy towards market determination of prices and improve the social and overall wellbeing of Ghanaians, particularly the under-privileged, the deprived and the vulnerable. Implementation of the ERP, including programmed structural reforms was completed in 1987. The programme was

prepared solely by government teams and collaborating officials of the World Bank and the IMF (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001).

The ERP I consisted of a stabilization package designed to reduce inflation and achieve external equilibrium. It was a programme to promote economic growth and export recovery through the realignment of incentives towards productive activity and rehabilitation of economic and social infrastructure (Hutchful, 2002). There were also monetary and fiscal policy changes which included strict credit ceilings, increases in interest rates with the objective of reaching positive interest rates, reform of the tax structure to broaden the tax base and at the same time reduce the tax burden on corporations and the cocoa sector and other measures to increase revenue, shrink the budget deficit and reduce reliance on the banking system (Hutchful, 2002).

There was also the Export Sector Rehabilitation Programme (ESRP) which was designed to rehabilitate the export sector by relieving supply and input bottlenecks improving producer incentives and reforming the State Cocoa Marketing Board (COCOBOD). There was also the Public Sector Investment Programme (PSIP) where the rehabilitation of the economic and social infrastructure was carried forward through a rolling three year Public Sector Investment Programme designed to 'remove infrastructural bottlenecks with external funding' (Hutchful, 2002: 56).

ERP II was formulated to deepen the on-going reforms and to attack the continuing weakness in the economy which involved a medium term policy framework designed to achieve an average annual rate of growth of real GDP by 5% and lower average annual rate of inflation from 25% to 8% in 1990. Under ERP II, a number of ambitious structural and institutional

reforms were launched in the financial sector, the state enterprise, the educational sector and the civil service. ‘The Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment as well as the Medium-Term Agricultural Development Programme (MTADP) were introduced’ (Hutchful, 2002: 57).

There was very little or no involvement of civil society groups in the preparation of the programme. The main preparation process included the preparation of the policy framework, including letter of development policy by government officials, review by officials of the donor agencies, negotiations and agreement on terms and conditionality by government and donor teams. The ERP was largely effective in restoring macroeconomic balances from 1989 to 1990; but there were major slippages from 1992. Furthermore, the major structure of the economy remained unchanged in terms of dependency on a few primary exports, low technology agriculture, low contribution of industry and high dependency on aid. Attempts to address social and poverty concerns under PAMSCAD were limited in scope and impact (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001).

The relative success of the ERP was attributed in equal measure to programme design and fortuitous circumstances. Among the programme effects was the fact that there was initially a much greater ‘through-put’ of the currency and price realignment that had been the case in earlier stabilization programmes under the NLC, Busia and Akuffo regimes. This required a lot of political courage on the part of the PNDC. At the political level, there was a widespread consensus among all the important social and political groups that reform was necessary, although there was disagreement as to what form it should take. Although once it got going, the ERP stirred up some opposition. None of the important groups decisive to the ERP, such as the trade union, had a credible alternative (Hutchful, 2002).

Even though a substantial progress was made in reversing the downward trend, the ERP brought into light some major structural problems of the economy particularly with the falling price of cocoa far below historical levels and weakness in the financial system (Nyanteng, 1997). The economic recovery programmes under the PNDC such as the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) did lead to an increased exploitation of natural resources in non-sustainable ways as the SAP had an inherent bias towards the reinforcement of colonial features of the economy rather than fashioning structures for self-sustaining, self-interest national economic development (Issahaku, 2000).

However, the ERP was not a strategic planning process in the real sense as it was more of a policy response to solving structural economic problems. It did not have a long-term development vision towards which the programmatic actions of macroeconomic stability, sectoral productivity and social development were geared. Indeed the emphasis was on laying the foundations for long-term growth, the parameters of which were yet to be articulated (Vordzorgbe and Caiquo, 2001).

Haven looked at the trajectory, it is worth mentioning that Vordzorgbe (2005) has classified these development plans and programmes into some broad themes such as constitutional development imperatives, politically originated strategies and economic growth strategies. From his standpoint, constitutional development imperatives refer to the formulation of development frameworks for the country as mandated by the laws of the land (constitution) with specific to the 1969 and 1979 constitutions.

Politically originated strategies, on the other hand, refer to plans espoused by political parties before the resumption of power. Mention could be made of the left or centre socialist oriented

Nkrumah tradition and the Busia-Danquah tradition. The economic growth strategies refer to plans drawn towards positive changes in the level of production of goods and services over some considerable period of time. One can think of the Seven Year Development Plan of Nkrumah and the Economic Recovery Programme/Structural Adjustment Programme (ERP/SAP).

#### **2.4.6 REVIEW OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EXPERIENCE IN GHANA**

Ghana's planning experience dates back as far as the colonial period with the first Ten Year Development Plan launched by Governor Gordon Guggisberg. Aryeetey et al (2004) in examining the legal framework for development planning in Ghana, contend that development planning after Ghana's return to constitutional rule in 1992 is guided by two acts of parliament, namely: the National Development Planning Commission Act (Act 479, 1994) and the National Development Planning (Systems) Act (Act 480, 1994).

According to them, these legislative instruments provide for the institutional structures, their powers and procedures in the planning processes. They further postulate that it also provides the linkages between these structures from the district through the regional to the national level. The latter legislation has implications for the general planning process and local community development activity. By these Acts of Parliament, the NDPC becomes the sole regulatory and approval body at the national level in the planning system. Although Aryeetey et al examine development planning in the legal context, they only end reducing the idea of development planning to a legal document when it transcends beyond the legal context thus failing to touch on what goes into the planning process.

Vordzorgbe (2005) in reviewing the bane of development in Ghana, describes it as being 'short-termism' in terms of the structure, responsibilities and duration of public sector agencies with development and regulatory responsibilities. He goes further to make his case that the 'contour of cooperation and collaboration of institutions' with the NDPC in national development strategy preparation and monitoring have been unclear and are still evolving. In his estimation, there has been no attempt to stretch the development planning process so as to achieve meaningful targets. For him, this short termism approach leaves agents of development farther apart in terms of expectations. The assertion is confirmed by the supposed stand-off between planning commissions, government officials and the finance ministry in some African countries. A clear case is that of Ghana (Vordzorgbe, 2005). Although Vordzorgbe touches on the nuisances of development, measures to tackle the problem of development is conspicuously missing.

Tandoh-Offin (2013) makes the claim that many of the plans that have been created to guide economic and social development in Ghana since the immediate pre-independence period till the 1980s hardly finished their full term. He alludes to the fact that high level of economic and political instabilities, long-term economic declines, poor terms of trade, falling export yields and resource mismanagement on the part of officials are reasons development plans fail to run their actual span. It is an undeniable fact that all those factors enumerated by Tandoh-Offin have often times crippled development efforts but he also ignores the issue of unanticipated events which sometimes may distract a country desirous of advancing its development.

Having undertaken a cursory look at strategic planning processes in Ghana, Kuuzegh and Twerefou (2006) suggests that some earlier plans have not stood the test of sustainability in

the area of focusing on outcomes and means of implementation. Plans have not been based on sound technical assessment of the present situation and of projected risks as well as examining links between local, national and global challenges. In some respect, planning experience in the country can be likened to a 'shopping list' because every government craves for one but none is fully implemented or its efficacy rarely realized. Although Twerefou may not far from the truth, his use of the term 'earlier plans' does not give one an idea of the period he is looking at. From his argument, there is every reason to believe that there have some changes in terms of outcomes and implementation.

Frimpong-Ansah (1991) in his comparison of previous plans in the country establishes the case that there is no clear difference amongst them with specific reference to the Guggisberg Development Plan and that of Nkrumah's Development Plans in the 1950s. According to him, 'the difference between the Guggisberg Development Plan of the 1920s and the Nkrumah strategies of the 1950s were unclear. Guggisberg's programme was designed for a specifically identified need. Nkrumah's development programme was for long-term modernization for unspecified needs. It was dictated by 'the desire of a nationalist leader seeking rapid general economic advancement for his country' (Frimpong-Ansah, 1991: 78). Although he makes a sound argument in terms of the difference between the Guggisberg and Nkrumah's plans, he fails to look beyond that period and also there may also some differences in development plans even up to the 1980s.

Mensa-Bonsu (2008) in a presentation on the topic 'Ghana's Development Agenda past and present,' asserts that there has been limited stability and continuity. Location and programming of investment from a physical development perspective have been largely neglected with the exception of the Nkrumah Seven Year Development Plan. In his



estimation, the Seven Year Development Plan gave Ghanaians something to witness in terms of development. He further argues that there is lack of political will and commitment to successfully implement plans. Finally, he makes the case that there is also a lack of integration and coordination from the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA) and Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) plans and budgetary processes. Although he catalogues the teeming problems of development, he fails to touch on ways to deal with these problems that confront Ghana's development.

Participation in planning for development is often times dominated by elitists. Indeed, Dzorgbo (2001) makes the case that governing elites have not been able to achieve a consensus on development strategy, let alone ensure a smooth transition from one strategy to another. This has often created political stalemates and economic paralyses. Although his argument may be true to some point, there is also the notion that development should comprise the masses and elite altogether is narrowly missing. Vordzorgbe and Caiquo (2001) and Mensa-Bonsu (2008) make the case that stakeholder participation in the design of the development plans has been either non-existent or very low and ineffective. Dzorgbo's case along with others is corroborated further in the work of Kuuzegh and Twerefou '*Development and Implementation of National Strategies for Sustainable Development: The case of Ghana*' where the issue of elite consensus is discussed.

Aryeetey et al (2004) have revealed that Ghana's previous development planning system has been seriously flawed due to a number of visible characteristics, which inhibit effective policy formulation, programme implementation and monitoring. According to Aryeetey et al (2004: 53), some of these inhibitions include:

A highly centralized planning system that has been the preserve of the central government; little or no participation from the citizens in whose interest the plans are being formulated and implemented; people at the local level do not seriously identify themselves with the plans and hence almost all previous plans have lacked popular ownership since they are most at times isolated from the people's aspirations and also the previous plans have concentrated on economic development and have not therefore not been integrated with social and environmental development issues.

In their view, the country over the years has migrated to a new development planning process. They contend that Ghana's new development planning process has emanated from a reconfiguration of its Public Administration System (PAS) under its decentralization programme. They further concede that for one to fathom the intricacies of Ghana's current development process, one needs to have a proper appreciation of the institutional structures created under the decentralization programme. Although institutions play a monumental role in policy making, individuals or other actors also contribute immensely to the success of policies. Hence, Aryeetey et al overstretch the role played by institutions at the expense of other actors.

Kuuzegh and Twerefou (2006) as well as Amoako-Tuffour and Armah (2008) contend that the planning system has been highly centralized, thus it has become the preserve of the central government, with little or no participation from citizens in whose interest the plans are formulated and implemented. These scholars re-echo the views of Aryeetey et al. From the viewpoint of Kuuzegh and Twerefou, the people at the local level do not seriously identify themselves with the programmes and projects being implemented for them in their locality. Hence, almost all development plans and most development projects lack popular ownership since they are isolated from the people's aspirations. According to Amoako-Tuffour and Armah, the limited open participation and with regards to consultation are done through the

preferred political process. It is evident that this preferred political process is so advantageous and crucial to any government of the day and that they monopolize the system to the detriment of other political parties.

Breisinger et al (2011) argue that, in recent years, Ghana has made significant progress in improving the process of developing strategies. They further assert that participation and consultation with stakeholders have become a common place and accepted aspects of strategic decision making. Kuuzegh and Twerefou (2006) on the other hand, reckon that although planning has been centralized over the years, the situation has changed with the inclusion of some civil society organizations to participate in the planning process from the year 2000. Invariably, the top-down approach has given way to a participatory planning process. They, however, maintain that the quality of the capacity of civil society organizations (CSO) to participate effectively in consultation process leaves much to be desired.

With the exception of the established think tanks such as the Centre for Policy Analysis (CEPA), Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA), Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER), Private Enterprise Foundation (PEF) and Centre for Democratic Development (CDD), many of the CSOs who participate in the consultations are less established and have limited research experience and capacity to carry out a comprehensive, participatory consultation exercise with all the requirements in terms of personnel, expertise and documentation.

Aryeetey et al (2004) thus argue that the planning approach would bring about some form of transformation in the lives of the people in an area as well as their environment in ways that will improve their existing economic and social conditions and circumstances; their physical

surroundings and existing institutions. Aryeetey et al fail to measure or quantify the level of transformation. In the design of strategic frameworks for national development, Vordzorgbe and Caiquo (2001), make the case that these strategic frameworks are influenced by key trends and factors, both positive and negative. These include the pain and memory of past economic downturn, the resultant economic liberalization and market-based stance of economic policy which has yielded a fragile stabilization as the economy is still prone to destabilization by external economic factors.

They opine that there is also the transition to multi-party democratic governance, relative peace and stability, increasing population, unemployment, demand on social services and a fall in living standards and poor natural resource management resulting in loss of forest cover and general environmental degradation which impacts on Ghana's developmental focus.

Kuuzegh and Twerefou (2006) have argued that Ghana has been over-dependent on external sources in financing its development as a result of low domestic resource mobilization. This situation has brought little improvement in Ghana's vision for development. Over-reliance on donor funding makes development programmes non sustainable. Although they make mention of low domestic resource mobilization as a contributory factor to slowing the country's development efforts, ways to increase the level of resource mobilization is not thoroughly discussed.

Breisinger et al (2011) assert that Ghana has often been impatient and set ambitious development goals that it has failed to aggressively pursue. Governments in Ghana have often been too ambitious and unfocused in pursuing their goals, and there has often been a 'rush to claim success' (Breisinger et al, 2011: 37). They cite a case that the Nkrumah government

converted a 10-year plan inherited from the colonial government into a 5-year plan with the consequence of rapid depletion of reserves and massive accumulation of public debt. They argue that Ghana tried to industrialize prematurely and pursued this course for several decades unsuccessfully.

Breisinger et al (2011) argue that Ghana has often not set realistic development goals adapted to local conditions. They are of the view that the development of realistic policies also require knowledge of local conditions. They state the claim that many governments in Africa (including Ghana) have not done their 'homework' by understanding and analyzing the country's situation before designing their strategies. According to them, 'governments have simply implemented policies that have proved successful in other countries or used policies proposed by outsiders as a blueprint for development without taking their own judgment and the country's local conditions sufficiently into account' (Breisinger et al, 2011: 38). Breisinger et al (2011) make the case that the development of the capacity and culture to design and implement policies owned by the country and the ability to negotiate with donors on an equal intellectual level is critical for success.

The literature review has touched on general planning and development planning across the globe, the planning experience in Africa as well as Ghana, development trends in Ghana as well as Africa and Africa's vision for development. The literature review has also captured the trajectory of development plans and programmes in Ghana. The review has tried to find out the origin of development planning and its outcome on the continent and on Ghana thus before the establishment of the Fourth Republic.

The review has established the approach, legal framework for development planning and incremental nature of development planning in Ghana. However development literature on Africa and Ghana examined so far, has not attempted to ascertain the outcome of the alternative visions of the NDC and the NPP into the new millennium (1996-2000) and 2003-2009).

## **2.5 BACKGROUND OF GHANA'S VISION 2020 AND THE GPRS I & II**

The Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and GPRS I and II as a blue print for the country's development were modelled in line with the constitutional provision that bind governments to streamline and provide the necessary impetus for the improvement in the well-being of Ghanaians economically, socially and politically.

The 1992 constitution of Ghana in article 36(5) states that 'within two years after assuming office, the president shall present to parliament a coordinated programme of economic and social development policies including agricultural and industrial programmes at all levels and in all the regions of Ghana' (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). In accordance with this provision, Presidents Rawlings and Kufuor presented before the floor of Parliament a document called 'Ghana Vision 2020: The First Step' and the 'Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy' as well as the 'Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy.'

A national goal setting exercise started from 1990 to mid-1991 followed by the formulation of a hierarchy of long-term national development goals and objectives for the country served as a tonic for the start of Ghana Vision 2020 (GoG, 1997). The NDPC and the CSPGs came together to arrive at the plan targets that were intended to be specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound. A locus of responsibility thus coordination, monitoring and

evaluation of the various sections of the plan were entrusted with the NDPC, the Ministry of Finance and the Policy Management Group of the Office of the President.

The objective of the First Step was to ‘consolidate the gains achieved over the past decade by the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) and lay strong foundations for accelerated growth and development in the subsequent two decades into the 21st century’ (GoG, 1995: 2). The main crux of the First Step was built on five development themes: human development, economic growth, rural development, urban development and an enabling environment. Under the human development perspective, issues of reducing poverty, increase average incomes and reducing disparities in incomes and opportunities.

The idea of economic growth in Ghana was to establish an open and liberal market economic that raises the rate of economic development and ensures the maximum welfare and material well-being of all Ghanaians. The purpose of rural development was to lessen disproportions between the incomes and standards of living of rural and urban populations. The pursuance of urban development was to ensure that both small and medium-sized towns and cities adequately fulfilled their role as service centres for their rural hinterland and that the process of urbanization contributes positively to development. The objective of providing an enabling environment for all sections of society contribute to sustained and accelerated rates of social and economic development. It was hoped that by the close of 2000, Ghana would have made significant strides in the area of development.

The New Patriotic Party, a newly elected government introduced its Coordinated Programme for the Economic and Social Development as a step to moving Ghana into a middle income economy. This development framework like the Ghana Vision 2020 was also presented to the

floor of parliament. It was out of which the medium term framework was espoused with its introduction of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy and the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I and II).

The groundwork of the full Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) for 2002-2004 (or GPRS as it is called in Ghana) took off in August 2000 right after the joint Boards of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank had accepted the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) started in June 2000 under the NDC. The GPRS I was streamlined on these thematic areas: ‘macroeconomics; gainful employment/production; human resource development/basic services; vulnerability and exclusion; and finally governance.’ The core aspiration of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy was to ‘ensure sustainable equitable growth, accelerated poverty reduction and the protection of the vulnerable and excluded within a decentralized, democratic environment’ (GoG, 2003: 30).

The GPRS II was framed in pursuance of the following priorities thus continued macroeconomic stability, accelerated private sector-led growth, vigorous human resource development and good governance and civic responsibility. The fundamental goal of the new policy was to accelerate the growth of the economy to enable Ghana to achieve middle-income status within a measurable planning period. GPRS II sought to lay more emphasis on growth.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter covers the research design and methodology. It also explains the research objectives and provides a suitable methodology to achieve those objectives. The primary objective of the study was to examine the outcomes of the alternative visions for development in Ghana. The secondary objectives of this study were to examine the approach to planning development in Ghana, find out how previous visions for development compare with that of the NDC and NPP's development frameworks and make available lessons that could be drawn to inform better policy making.

This chapter is devoted to the methodology of the study. Topics that are examined here include the sampling techniques used, methods of collecting data and approach to data analysis. The research made use of data collection from two sources thus both primary and secondary. In the area of primary sources, data was obtained through the use of interviews and an interview guide. On the other hand, secondary sources of the research was employed through the use of journals, articles and published works by seasoned authors.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The strength of any academic research relies heavily on its methodology. Kothari (2004: 8) contends that research methodology is 'a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically.' Singh (2006: 79) postulates that research methodology involves 'the systematic procedures by which the

researcher starts from the initial identification of the problem to its final conclusions. The role of the methodology is to carry out the research work in a scientific, and valid manner.’

According to Creswell (2014: 1), research approaches are ‘plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.’ He makes the case that the selection of a research approach should be based on the nature of the research problem being investigated or issue being addressed, the researchers’ personal experiences and the audiences for the study. He makes the claim that there are three research approaches, namely qualitative, quantitative and a mixed method. For the purpose of the study, a qualitative research is heavily relied upon. The research approach discusses into detail the research population, sample, sampling size, sampling process and procedure used for this study.

### **3.2.1 Research Population**

In the view of Harrison (2001: 19), a research population is ‘a group which shares characteristics to which we apply an explanation, for example, civil servants, party members, the unemployed.’ According to Kothari (2004: 14), research population refers ‘to all the items under consideration in any field of inquiry.’ In the view of Singh (2006: 82), population connotes ‘the entire mass of observations, which is the parent group from which a sample is to be formed.’ The research population of this study included state/non-state actors, development experts as well as institutions or organizations with interest in the country’s development issues as well as those that were consulted or participated.

### **3.2.2 Research Sample**

A sample is defined as a sub set of the population. Singh (2006) makes the claim that the study of a total population is not possible and it is also impracticable in any research endeavor hence to sample or undertake sampling. In the view of Singh (2006: 81), ‘the concept of sampling has been introduced with a view to making the research findings economical and accurate.’ Kothari (2004) establishes grounds for a good sample. He enumerates five steps so as to ensure a good sample in the area of research.

According to him, one must first define the set of objects making reference to the population; a decision has to be made concerning the sampling unit before selecting the sample; a researcher must prepare a comprehensive, correct, reliable and an appropriate source list or sampling frame; the size of the sample should be optimal thus fulfilling the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility and the researcher must decide on the type of sample (technique) to use. The sample for the study was chosen from a list of Cross Sectoral Planning Groups between 1996-2000 and 2003-2009 and institutions who were directly involved.

### **3.2.3 Sample Size**

Scholars consider sampling size very crucial in being able to carry out an evocative analysis in research. For instance, May (2011) argues that there are many factors that should be considered when choosing the sample size and the goal for most researchers is to gather enough data to undertake meaningful analyses. He makes the claim that in general terms it is worth noting that a large population may not necessarily require a larger sample size. De Vaus (2002: 80) contends that the required sample size of any research depends on two key factors:

‘the degree of accuracy we require for the sample and the extent to which there is variation in the population in regard to the key characteristics of the study.’ In this study, a total of twenty-five persons were interviewed based on their involvement in the planning process of Ghana Vision 2020 and GPRS I & II, expertise and interest in Ghana’s development frameworks. The respondents were selected because of their roles connected to the design and the implementation of the policies under consideration. Twenty were actually interviewed for the study. The respondents were drawn from myriad groups (see Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1: Groups and number of interviewees**

Group/Institution	No. of interviewees
Cross Sectoral Planning Group (Ghana Vision 2020-The First Step)	4
Cross Sectoral Planning Group (GPRS I and II)	6
Imani Ghana	1
Institute of Democratic Governance (IDEG)	1
Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC)	1
Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research (ISSER)	3
Development Consultant with Economics Department, University of Ghana	1
National Development Planning Commission (NDPC)	3
Total	20

### **3.2.4 Sampling Technique**

A purposive sampling technique was used for the study. This sampling technique can be categorized as non-probability sampling technique. The justification for the use of purposive sampling technique was that respondents possessed particular features or characteristics which would enable a detailed exploration and understanding issues on Ghana’s vision for development which the researcher wished to study. These particular features included their roles and in-depth knowledge in the Ghana Vision 2020 and GPRS I & II development frameworks.

Again, institutions who have continually shown interest in Ghana's vision for development were selected and an interview guide sent to although some did not respond due to the non-availability of key respondents at the time of the research. In the case of the Cross Sectoral Planning Groups which worked within the period under study, the researcher with the help of the National Development Planning Commission, established some contacts with respondents.

Harrison (2001) contends that non-probability sampling occurs when one hand-pick samples for characteristics or properties. Kothari (2004: 89) defines non-probability sampling as 'that sampling procedure which does not afford any basis for estimating the probability that each item in the population has of being included in the sample.'

May (2011) argues that in purposive sampling, 'numbers may be small and once again, the fit for purpose defence may be used.' According to Kothari (2004), purposive sampling is considered more appropriate when the universe happens to be small and a known characteristic of it is to be studied intensively. However, Singh (2006) and May (2011) argue that the use of purposive sampling technique make it extremely difficult to generalize because the researcher has no idea of the size of the population.

Since the study is purely qualitative and the research instrument used, other sampling techniques would not generate the needed responses worth analyzing for the study. Moreover, respondents exhibited their in-depth knowledge, expertise and willingness to speak to the issues under study. Hence a purposive sampling was deemed most appropriate.

### **3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Polit et al (2001:167) define a research design as ‘the researcher’s overall for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis.’ Kothari (2004:31) on the other hand defines it as ‘decisions regarding what, where, when, how much, by what means concerning an inquiry or a research study constitute a research design.’ According to Singh (2006:77), a research design is ‘a mapping strategy which is based on sampling technique. It essentially includes objectives, sampling, research strategy, tools and techniques for collecting the evidences, analyzing the data and reporting the findings.’

He reckons it is a decision of an investigator about the constituents of his project and development of certain components of the design. He advances his argument further by saying that a (research) design good or not, it is adjudged by standards such as the degree of accuracy attainable on the level of relevant evidence sought. Creswell (2009: 1) on his part contends that research designs are ‘plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.’ Marczyk et al (2005) postulate that the primary purpose of research design is to eliminate these sources of bias so that more confidence can be placed in the results of the study.

The study employed a longitudinal approach which concerned itself with complete information of the phenomena from its genesis up to its fruit thus from the formulation of visions for development, its implementation and its outcome. In the view of Singh (2006: 102), this approach is ‘time sensed’ because this interest of the study is pertinent to a time range. In the context of this study, the period of 1996-2000 and 2003-2009 are looked at making it a case study.

According to Yin (2009: 18), a case study is ‘an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context especially when the boundaries within phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident’. According to Graham (2000: 1), a case study is ‘one which investigates the above to answer specific research questions (that may be fairly loose to begin with) and which seeks a range of different kinds of evidence, evidence which is there in the case setting, and which has to be abstracted and collated to get the best possible answers to the research questions.’

Case studies contribute to one’s knowledge of individual, group, organizational, social, political and related phenomena. The need for case studies has arisen out of the desire to need complex social phenomena. Case studies are preferred in examining contemporary events. Case studies rely on history but add two sources of evidence-direct observation of the events being studied and interviews of the persons involved in the events. The unique strength of case studies is ‘its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence-documents, interviews and observations’ (Yin, 2009: 11).

### **3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

In an attempt to ensure an active and impeccable data collection, interviews were comprehensively used in the research to solicit for first-hand information from some knowledgeable individuals at certain institutions. An interview guide was designed to provide answers to the research questions. The interview guide was pre-tested before finally being carried out on the field. In the words of Harrison (2001: 90) an interview is defined as ‘an encounter between a researcher and a respondent, where the respondent’s answers provide the raw data.’ According to Kothari (2004: 97), the interview method of collecting data ‘involves presentation of oral-verbal stimuli and reply in terms of oral-verbal responses. This method

can be used through personal interviews.’ Interviews are a fitting method to use when exploring practitioners perspectives due to the qualitative nature of the information one is seeking to gather.

Kothari (2004: 98) contends that the use of interviews come with huge advantages as compared to other research instruments because ‘more information in greater depth can be obtained. Interviewer by his own skill can overcome the resistance, if any, of the respondents; the interview method can be made to yield an almost perfect sample of the general population. There is greater flexibility under this method as the opportunity to restructure questions is always there, especially in case of unstructured interviews. Observation method can as well be applied to recording verbal answers to various questions. Personal information can as well be obtained easily under this method. Samples can be controlled more effectively as there arises no difficulty of the missing returns; non-response generally remains very low.’

Nevertheless, he is quick to also point out the shortcomings about the use of interviews as a research instrument. In his view, ‘it is a very expensive method, especially when large and widely spread geographical sample is taken. To him, there also remains the possibility of the bias of interviewer as well as that of the respondent; a headache of supervision and control of interviewers. This method is relatively more-time-consuming, especially when the sample is large.

Kothari (2004) concedes that interviewing is a skill overseen by certain scientific principles and every effort should be made to build a friendly atmosphere of trust and confidence, so that respondents may feel at ease while talking to and discussing issues with the interviewer. He further admonishes the interviewer to ask questions properly and intelligently and make every



effort to record the responses accurately and completely. At the same time, the interviewer must answer legitimate question(s), if any, asked by the respondent and must clear any doubt that the latter has.

### **3.5 DATA COLLECTION**

The study was aimed at examining the outcomes of Ghana's vision for development from the period 1996-2000 and the period 2003-2009. In line with government's desire to formulate and implement the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II, Cross Sectoral Planning Groups (CSPGs) were formed. The CSPGs include state and non-state actors drawn from Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs), professional bodies and institutions, research institutions and think tanks, the private sector, outstanding individuals with expertise in relevant fields and development partners. Some members of the CSPGs were contacted with the help of the National Development Planning Commission. Research institutions who have played some major role in Ghana's development were contacted.

An introductory letter and a copy of the interview guide were sent to members of the CSPGs and some institutions. Remainders were sent to individuals and institutions by way of telephone calls and personal visits. Information was primarily gathered through personal interviews. Data was collected between February, 2012 to May 2012 and then from February to April 2014. In the collection of data for this study, information gathered was hand written and tape recorded with the consent of the interviewees.

The role of the researcher was to elicit information from interviewees. The researcher introduced himself to the interviewees and also stated the purpose of the study. Questions were asked proceeding from general to specific using a semi-structured interview guide

prepared ahead of the interview. Ethical issues, in particular, confidentiality, were addressed. At the end of the interviews, interviewees were asked if there was any last word or anything to be added. This was done with the primary objective of closing the interviews. The interviewees were told that there would be the need for follow-up interviews should there be any aspects that were not clear.

### **3.6 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE**

Data was analyzed under themes from which the research questions were drawn from. In addition, the analysis procedure also used documentary as well as content analysis. According to Krippendorff (2004: 18) content analysis is ‘a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use.’ Prasad (2008: 173) defines it as the study of the content with reference to the meanings, contexts and intentions contained in messages. Content analysis may be seen as a method where the content of the message forms the basis for drawing inferences and conclusions about the content (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1976 as cited in Prasad, 2008).

As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, increases a researcher's understanding of particular phenomena, or informs practical actions (Krippendorff, 2004). The content analysis was used to draw tables to help in the analysis of the outcome of both the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II from secondary sources in particular. The interviews were transcribed and arranged under thematic areas to help in the analysis.

### **3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

Ethics are not alien to any political research (Harrison, 2001). This relates to moral standards that the researcher should consider in all research methods in all stages of the research design. May (2011: 278) postulates that ethics are ‘fundamental for maintaining the integrity of research as a whole, as well as respect for co-participants and practically speaking, as a condition of research access.’ De Vaus (2002) and Singh (2006) concede that social scientists have ethical responsibilities to analyze data properly and report it fairly as it they witness it.

Harrison (2001) catalogues three issues that should be paramount in research ethics. According to her, confidentiality should be adhered when it comes to interviews and personal records. For her, it is crucial that the identity of the respondent is not exposed. Secondly, she mentions that a researcher should be careful when asking very sensitive questions. Finally, she admonishes researchers to be open and honest about the purpose of their research so as to encourage participation. It is important that participants ‘trust’ the research.

In carrying out this research, ethical considerations were not downplayed. The researcher assured interviewees of absolute confidentiality as this was clearly stated on the interview guide. Again, interviewees were verbally assured of absolute confidentiality before the interview process commenced. The researcher from the onset, told researchers that the interview exercise was purely for academic purpose and not to be manipulated for any other thing. In cases where respondents did not want to be recorded, the researcher took notes during the interview. The researcher made no attempt to compel respondents if they did not want to speak to all issues captured on the interview guide.

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter research methodology, design and instrument have been presented. The use of interview and case study methodology was extensively used for this research. The purpose of a research design is to maximize valid answers to research questions. The researcher was main data collection instrument. Data was collected by means of interviewing. The researcher made sense of data by using content analysis to analyze it and also ensured that the data gotten was trustworthy. The observance of principles of confidentiality, avoidance of asking very sensitive questions and being open and honest about the purpose of the research was adhered so as to encourage participation. It also ensured that the participants were morally and ethically protected. It sought to build trustworthiness between the researcher and the respondents. Chapter Four discusses the data analysis and findings.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents findings from the series of interviews with respondents on alternative visions for Ghana's development and content analysis of relevant secondary information such as the First Step (1996-2000) Programme of Action and GPRS Annual Reports from 2003 to 2009. The primary objective of the research was to examine the outcomes of the alternative visions for development for Ghana.

#### 4.2.1 Approach to Planning Ghana's Development from 1992 to the Close of 2009

Interviewees were asked about the approach to Ghana's development from 1992 towards the close of 2009. Sixteen (16) of the interviewees were of the view that there had been an incremental approach to development planning. In their estimation, governments often did not completely turn away from previous plans as political parties have often made people to believe. Governments have continuously searched for politically expedient plans to win the confidence of Ghanaians.

Interviewees made references to the thematic areas of the development policies by governments: Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and GPRS I and II. According to a section of the interviewees, no government had the whole year to itself to figure out a very comprehensive development plan for the country. According to one interviewee, 'Ghanaians would not be in the position to wait for a more rational comprehensive development plan in the face of serious developmental challenges' (interview with IDEG respondent, 2012).

According to one other interviewee, ‘the approach to planning is likened to the reading of the budget as there are very few things to be added’ (interview with ISSER Respondent, 2012). A few of the interviewees (20%) expressed their reservations about the incremental approach to Ghana’s development. In their view, a rational approach would give the country the needed motivation for development. A rational approach as explained here refers to a commitment to systematic planning. There should be the identification and determination of national development goals, ranked in an order of priority, identifying possible alternatives in the attainment of these national development goals coupled with a systematic process of calculating and comparing benefits and costs of specific national development plans.

From the responses gathered, there is a shift towards an incremental development planning approach as both the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II had been fashioned on the basis of what government deemed to be in the interest of the Ghanaian populace. The incremental development planning approach is continually building out from the previous development plan at the time (Ghana Vision 2020), step by step with little modifications. The GPRS I and II were developed out of the Ghana Vision 2020. This incremental planning approach gives one a realistic description of how policy makers arrive at their decisions as emphasized by Lindblom (1959, 1979); Wildavsky (1964) and Knill and Tosun (2008) because there is limited space of time to deal with existing problems. The planning approach also reemphasizes the idea that decision makers (governments) do not completely remake policy every time they make a policy decision, but as an alternative alter existing policy. The arena for stakeholders to participate in the planning process is gradually being expanded. It was established based on the comments from some respondents from the field and was further substantiated with specific reference to the Ghana Poverty Reduction

Strategy I (2003-2005) document as captured in pages 6 and 7 of that document. It included community groups, district directors of agriculture, health and education, the Ghana Journalist Association, the Trade Union Congress, National Union of Ghana Students and National Union of Polytechnic Students. Other groups included Netright and other women groups, National Association of Local Authorities Ghana, Ghana Institute of Planners and Ghana Employers Association. Research institutions and think tanks like the Institute of Economic Affairs, Integrated Social Development Centre, Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research, Members of Parliament and representatives from political parties and sector ministries and their deputies were consulted.

#### **4.2.2 Participation in the Ghana's Vision for Development**

Interviewees were asked about participation in the Ghana Vision 2020 and GPRS I and II. According to four of the interviewees who were then members of the Cross Sectoral Planning Group between 1996 and 2000, they met other experts in different fields in drafting the development policy document at the time. One of the Cross Sectoral Planning Group members recounted the groups that participated. 'There were the Ghana Real Estate Developers Association (GREDA), private think tanks, private press houses, the Private Enterprise Foundation (PEF), National Council on Women and Development (NCWD) and the Ghana National Association of Farmers and Fishermen (GNAFF) among others' (interview with a member, CSPG 1995-2000). It was on record that the National Commission for Civic Education (NCCE) as well as the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) was however left out.

According to another member of the CSPG (1995-2000), it was difficult to assess the effectiveness of different institutions in relation to their roles regarding the development of the Vision 2020 framework. District Assemblies at the time did not feature prominently on the CSPG in relation to the Ghana Vision 2020. Their comments are evidenced in the 1997 Programme of Action for the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step). According to the document, policy makers in government, ministries, departments and agencies, farmers' representatives, academic and research personnel, public sector and private sector businessmen constituted the Cross Sectoral Planning Groups. It also included individuals with varying backgrounds grouped into three Cross-Sectoral Planning Groups (CSPGs) in 1991 and 1992 (GoG, 1997).

According to some of the interviewees who worked on the First Step, there was close collaboration with the Ministry of Finance which facilitated the course of preparing the document. One of the interviewees said 'this permitted the NDPC and the CSPGs to arrive at the plan targets that were specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound' (interview with member, CSPG 1995-2000, 2014). According to the respondent, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning sought to develop annual budgetary allocation in an attempt to ensure that the development plan would not be starved of funds.

According to an NDPC official, the NDPC developed parameters to be used for the Accelerated Rural Development Zones. It advanced the idea that all districts should have a district plan which was later integrated into a composite national development plan. The Cross Sectional Planning Group conceived the idea of meeting with policy makers in the public and private sectors to solicit their inputs in the workshops and meetings. Other stakeholders particularly the Ghana Real Estate Developers Association proposed that adequate



housing be available for the entire population at affordable rate (interview with NDPC respondent, 2014). The NDPC had assumed the lead role in charting the course of development.

All six (6) interviewees on the CSPG (2003-2009) mentioned that in the case of the GPRS I and II, there were elements of participation and consultation with civil society, academia and research institutions and policy makers in government. Ten of the interviewees indicated that although the planning approach was similar to that of the First Step, there was however some differences. According to them, 'the results of past participatory studies were also included as inputs into the plan of the GPRS to moderate the pressure and costs of undertaking fresh participatory studies' (interviews with ISSER respondent and members, CSPG 2003-2009, 2012). Thus, they found these past participatory studies very useful.

Interviewees were asked whether the approach to planning has been followed through or not over the years. All interviewees mentioned that continuation and broader consultation to planning had been followed through particularly in the case of GPRS I and II unlike the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step). They were of the view that a second term in office, gave the NPP government the needed impetus to continue from where it left off with emphasis on growth. However, they noted that the First Step had served as some reference point for the Cross Sectional Planning Groups (CSPGs) in the drafting of the GRPS I and II.

In their view, there was a much broader consultation looking at the numbers consulted although they did not give a definite number of groups consulted. The consultation or participatory tools used included the organizing of workshops at community, district, regional and national levels; public fora for concerned individuals to also contribute; retreats for Members of Parliament, policy hearings, sectoral meetings with ministries, departments and

agencies, special for a for civil society organizations and a national economic dialogue. These participatory tools paved the way for groups and stakeholders to make inputs in the design and implementation of the Ghana Vision 2020 and the GPRS I and II. The Ghana Federation of the Disabled for instance, recommended the building of physical infrastructure in schools for the physically challenged. Women groups advocated for gender balance and equity as well as the promotion of women rights.

According to a member of the Cross Sectoral Planning Group (2003-2009), ‘even MPs, chief directors, ministers and their deputies as well as religious and traditional authorities were involved. The purpose of this was to give the development document a national character.’ From the responses, a considerable effort has been made over the years to keep the element of consultative culture in the planning process so as to allow people from all walks of life and background to influence the development agenda. So far as the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) is concerned, the issue of continuity and broader consultation in reference to planning has changed as more organizations had the opportunity to participate and throw more light on on-going deliberations.

The broad participation and consultation witnessed only goes to question the assertion by Amoako-Tuffour and Armah (2008) in the literature that the limited open participation and with regards to consultation are mostly done through the preferred political process. It is important however to note that the Cross Sectoral Planning Groups have played a pivotal role in streamlining the country’s development by preparing the initial report of each of the thematic areas in both the Ghana Vision 2020 and the GPRS I and II. For tables showing participants and their level of participation during the GPRS I and II consultative process, refer to appendix II.

#### **4.2.3 Balanced Nature of Ghana's Visions of Development**

Interviewees were asked whether the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II covered every aspect of development of the country in achieving their set objectives. Varied responses were gotten. Majority of the interviewees mentioned that both did not encapsulate all aspects of development and that there was a bias towards economic development because the economic elements far outstripped those of the social as well as political dimensions. This they attributed to the traditional conception of development. According to one of the interviewees, 'governments have been so concerned about economic development (growth) as though it was the only form of development so much desired by Ghanaians. Many Ghanaians are not interested in hearing the big economic terms. In addition to economic variables, social and political elements should have been streamlined and vigorously pursued' (interview with IDEG respondent, 2012).

Four (4) interviewees noted that the issue of well-balanced objectives with regards to the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and the GPRS I and II was debatable looking at what the government wanted to achieve around that time. In their view, Ghana Vision 2020 was well balanced ahead of the GPRS series. However, the Ghana Vision 2020 was an overly ambitious attempt to turn the country's development fortunes around. According to them, 'Vision 2020 tried to capture every aspect of enhancing the well-being of Ghanaians. These included human development which sought to improve the health, life expectancy and capabilities of all individuals, to eliminate extremes of deprivation, reduce poverty and ensure an equitable distribution of the benefits of development. Under the guise of economic growth, it sought to establish an open and liberal market economy that optimized the rate of economic development and ensured the maximum welfare and material well-being of all Ghanaians.

Under its rural development theme, it sought to improve conditions of life in rural areas significantly by providing basic economic and social infrastructure and accelerated development in rural areas. Under urban development, it sought to ensure healthy environments in all urban areas by the appropriate provision of public utilities, effective waste management and adequate provision of open spaces for tree cover and recreation. Under the enabling environment, it sought to create an environment in which all sections of society could contribute to a sustained and accelerated rate of economic and social development over the long run.

The GPRS I focused more on dealing with the issue of poverty. Thus it was more socially driven and the GPRS II was geared towards the building of the economy that was growth-oriented. The GPRS I was initiated as a condition for development assistance under the IMF-World Bank-supported debt relief initiative in 2002 which sought to restore macroeconomic stability and reduce the incidence of poverty. The GPRS II stressed growth as the condition for sustained poverty reduction for Ghana to attain middle-income status within a measurable planning period by the close of 2009.

Four (4) of the interviewees were of the opinion that the GPRS I and II cut across every aspect of development because government at the time wanted to grow the social and political dimension of development and follow it up with the economic dimension. According to one of the interviewees, 'what made the GPRS I and II an all-round development framework was the fact the government at the time studied the Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step) and subsequently built on the shortfalls' (interview with ISSER respondents, 2012).

It is evidently clear from the responses that governments have been overly ambitious in their attempt to accelerate the pace of development without sometimes considering the financial

resources of the country. A national development vision should be an all-encompassing document that includes political, economic and social dimension. A country cannot consider itself as having developed when it falls short in its social indicators and political indicators. Hence, there is the need to rethink about the whole concept of development.

To re-emphasize the balanced objectives of development alluded to earlier, the idea of Todaro and Smith (2006) is worthy of consideration. These scholars note that, ‘development in all societies must have at least three objectives: increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection. The second objective is to raise level of living, including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem. The third objective is to expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery’ (Todaro and Smith, 2006: 22).

#### **4.2.4 Processes and outcomes of Ghana’s vision for development**

Interviewees were asked how Ghana has fared so far in terms of the processes and outcomes of its development planning. From the interviews, it came to light that the NDC government set the agenda for the Ghana Vision 2020 with the introduction of a National Development Goal Setting Exercise around 1994. As a government that had emerged from a military regime, it had become familiar with the problems facing Ghanaians. It therefore sought to ‘improve the quality of life of all Ghanaians by reducing poverty, raising living standards

through a sustained increase in national wealth and a more equitable distribution of the benefits therefrom' (Government of Ghana, 1995).

Under Ghana Vision 2020, the government outlined five themes within which Ghana's development was premised on: human development, economic growth, rural development, urban development and an enabling environment. The objective of human development was to improve the health, life expectancy and capabilities of all individuals, to eliminate extremes of deprivation, reduce poverty and ensure an equitable distribution of the benefits of development. Under economic growth, the objective was to establish an open and liberal market economy that optimizes the rate of economic development and ensures the maximum welfare and material well-being of all Ghanaians. It also touched on achieving a real GDP growth of 7%, reducing annual inflation to 8% and reducing the incidence of poverty by year 2000.

Under rural development, it sought to improve the quality of life for all Ghanaians in rural areas. Under urban development, it sought to achieve a more spatially equitable and rational distribution of population between settlements of varying sizes. In both rural and urban development, the issue of poverty was very critical. Under the enabling environment, all sections of society were to contribute to a sustained and accelerated rate of economic and social development. A cursory look at the human, rural and urban development themes of the Ghana Vision 2020 shows the importance the government attached to alleviating poverty as it was highlighted in each of these themes.

Under the GPRS I and II, the government outlined five themes and four themes respectively. GPRS I touched on the macro economy, production and gainful employment, human resource

development and basic services, vulnerability and exclusion and finally governance. GPRS II touched on continued macroeconomic stability, accelerated private sector-led growth, vigorous human resource development and finally good governance and civic responsibility. Preliminary poverty situation analysis as identified in the thematic areas of GPRS I and II give credence to significance to poverty reduction and growth. Primarily, the GPRS I and II were geared towards the reduction of poverty and enhancing growth by ensuring a 5% real GDP growth and checking annual inflation in check irrespective of the development themes.

Majority of the interviewees (thus twelve (12) in number) noted that in terms of the processes, the government revised the sections of the Ghana Vision 2020 focusing on aspects such as poverty, employment and macroeconomic stability. They maintained that the country had witnessed mixed outcomes as a result of needless partisanship, plan indiscipline and inadequate feasibility studies although it had made some strides whereas in some cases, there were serious challenges impeding the country's progress. Most of the interviewees noted that there was high dependence on donor funding for financing the cost of implementing the vision (2020) and strategies (GPRS).

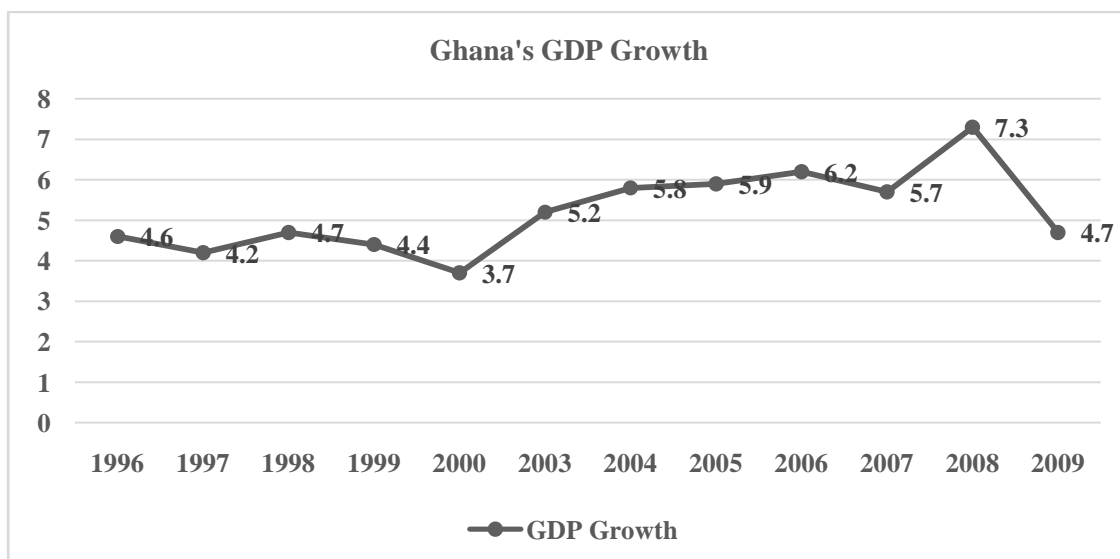
Other interviewees in the majority indicated that the implementation process of the First Step of the Ghana Vision 2020 was unable to achieve programmed goals due to low awareness of the Vision (2020) among the populace and the inability of the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) to effectively coordinate sector planning by the Ministries, Departments and Agencies. Some development goals were set by governments in their respective development plans.

As part of government's policy objective, it sought to achieve a real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth of seven percent (7%), reduce annual inflation to eight percent (8%) and

reduce the incidence of poverty by close of 2000 as evidenced in the *Ghana Vision 2020 Policy* document. Governments also as part of its policy objective wanted to achieve a real GDP growth of five percent (5%) by close of 2005 and 5.7 per cent by close of 2009, keeping inflation in check to 11.5 percent by close of 2005 and achieve a single digit by close of 2009 and reduce the incidence of poverty according to the *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy* and the *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Policy* documents.

According to one of the interviewees focusing on outcomes, ‘it was hoped that the country would have achieved an eight per cent growth in GDP but that was not to be. This felt short of the expectation of government. Ghana was able to achieve 4.7% real GDP growth which put Ghana in a precarious situation impeding Ghana’s quest for development’ (interview with ISSER respondents and IDEG respondent, 2012 and 2014 respectively). Below are some tables showing Ghana’s Gross Domestic Product growth, annual inflation levels and incidence of poverty from 1996 to 2009.

**Figure 4.1: Ghana's GDP Growth from 1996-2009**



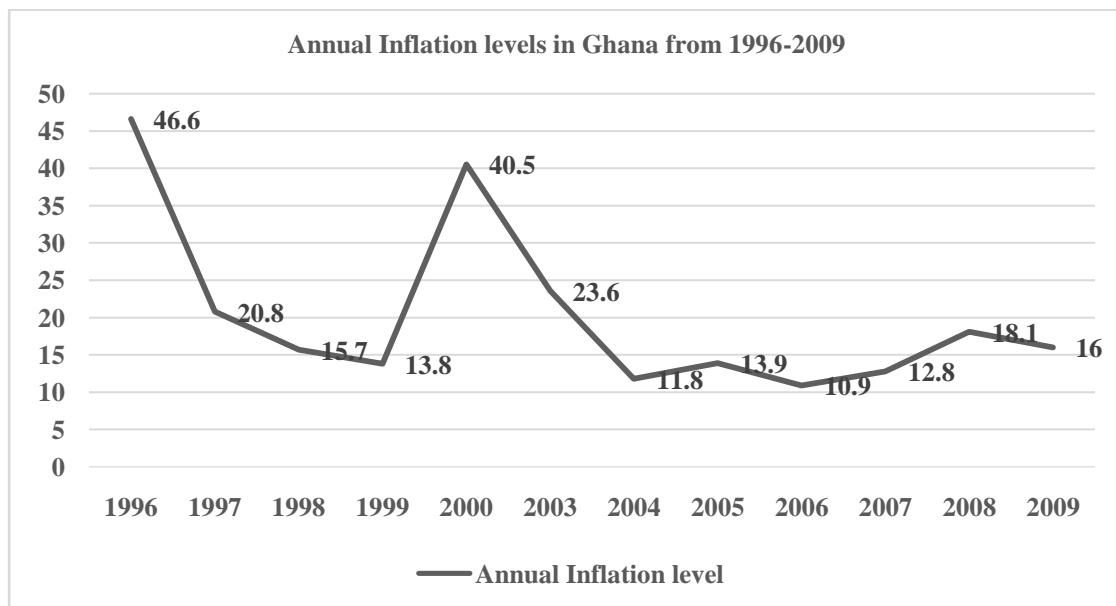
Source: Compiled from the Government of Ghana, Budget statements from 1997 to 2010, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning.



The issue of GDP growth in this sense refers to an increase in the total final output of goods and services produced by the country's economy, within the country's territory, by residents and non-residents. Governments have often times pleaded with local and foreign businesses to set up in Ghana. It is evident from the table above that Ghana's GDP growth falls short of the expectations of governments and more could be done to ensure an appreciable growth which would then reflect in the country's development in terms of encouraging more businesses to set up and provide them with the conducive environment to have an impact on GDP growth.

Another interviewee noted that 'macroeconomic stability and poverty reduction had been witnessed over the years through the introduction of Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme although there was room for advancing Ghana's development agenda particularly inflation levels. Below is a table showing annual inflation levels in Ghana.

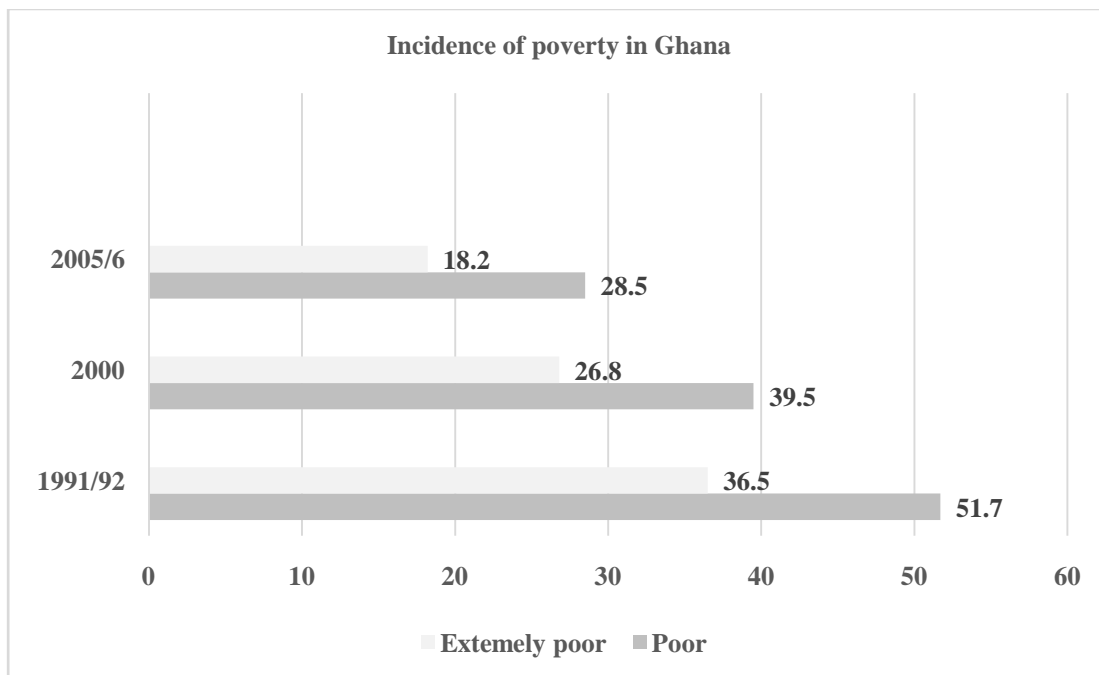
**Figure 4.2: Annual Inflation rate in Ghana from 1996-2009**



Source: Compiled from the Government of Ghana, Budget statements from 1997 to 2010, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning

It is evident from the figure above that although the desire of governments has been to reduce inflation by a significant margin to single digit, there is room for improvement on the side of governments. According to some of the interviewees, ‘employment used to be a major challenge for governments but in the course of time, governments have tried to increase its employment rate for more people to get jobs to do and also tried to do something about poverty levels in the country (interview with ISSER and IDEG officials, 2012; 2014 and 2012 respectively).

**Figure 4.3: Incidence of Poverty in Ghana**



Source: Compiled from the Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (1997) and (2003) as well as the 2007 Annual Progress Report of Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy.

It is evident that governments have tried to deal with the issue of poverty. The Ghana Vision 2020 touched on poverty alleviation and GPRS I and II touched on sustained poverty reduction. The outcomes have been encouraging although not to the level government desired.

Extreme poverty has reduced from 36.5% in 1991/1992 to 18.2% in 2005/2006. Extreme poverty's reduction of 18.3%, is an indication that governments are committed to tackling issues of poverty. On the other hand, the percentage of people classified as poor during the 1991/1992 period has reduced from 51.7% to 28.5% by close of the 2005/2006. There has been a reduction of 23.2%. It is worthy of note that there is no elaborate data on poverty levels beyond the period of 2007 other than the Ghana Statistical Service's Ghana Living Standard Survey report of 2008 which mentions the three northern regions as the poorest, particularly the Upper West.

According to two of the interviewees, there continues to be an upsurge in crude oil prices and food prices as well. As a country, we continue to enjoy a good international market for our two most rated exports, cocoa and gold.' It is evident that data on the current poverty levels are not available. The outcome of both development plans and strategies in Ghana's case hardly reflects the view advanced by Ibietan and Oghator (2013) in the context of Africa that poor feasibility studies, plan indiscipline characterized by unnecessary partisanship have denied countries of the needed positive outcomes. It must be emphasized that with respect to their view on the non-revision of plans in many African countries, Ghana since the early 2000s has taken a cue from previous plans.

From Table 4.1, it is certain the timing of the First Step coupled with the unfavourable world economic conditions and the inability of the government to plan in advance obviously made the First Step one destined for very little success. Hence, the First Step achieved limited success. The failure to reflect the policies and programmes of the First Step to the annual budgets from 1996 to 2000 also played a role in the failure of the plan.

**Table 4.1: Outcome of some macroeconomic indicators set under the First Step (1996-2000)**

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1997</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>Target</i>
<i>Real GDP Growth (%)</i>	4.6	4.2	4.7	4.4	3.7	7.0
<i>Agriculture (%)</i>	5.2	4.3	5.1	3.9	2.1	4.5
<i>Industry (%)</i>	4.1	4.7	6.4	3.2	4.9	8.4
<i>Service (%)</i>	4.2	6.5	6.0	5.0	5.4	7.9

Source: Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005) Field Study, 2012

A critical analysis of some macroeconomic indicators of the GPRS indicates that there were levels of success although there were some shortfalls. Some of the targets were met whereas others were not met. In the first three years of the GPRS, targets were realised with agriculture recording the highest in 2004, the industrial sector growing by 5.6% in 2005 and the services sector recording 5.4% growth in 2005. The high performance of the first phase of the GPRS is attributed to improved fiscal management and favourable global market conditions for cocoa and gold. The target set for GPRS I with respect to cocoa was 13.2 per cent whereas the actual was 29.9 per cent. It is mentioning that in the case of GPRS II, although the actual target is not unknown, increased to 31.6 per cent. In the case of gold, a target of 3,000,000 tonnes was set and the actual being 3,123,797 tonnes meaning an increase. In the case of GPRS II, there is no availability to measure an increase or decrease. All these data are contained in GPRS Annual Progress Reports (2003-2009).

However in the second phase of the GPRS II, the agricultural sector witnessed a sharp fall from 6% in 2005 to 2.5% in 2007. The sector grew to about 6.2% by the close of 2009. Industrial sector grew from 5.6% in 2005 to 9.5% in 2006 and fell to 3.8% by the close of 2009. The services sector recorded its highest of 10% in 2007 and fell to 4.6% below the target set in 2009. The unstable performance of these sectors is attributed to the upsurge in food prices and crude oil (GoG, 2010).

**Table 4.2: Outcome of some macroeconomic indicators set under the GPRS I and II (2003- 2009)**

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>2003</i>	<i>2004</i>	<i>2005</i>	<i>Target</i>	<i>2006</i>	<i>2007</i>	<i>2008</i>	<i>2009</i>	<i>Target</i>
<i>Real GDP Growth (%)</i>	5.2	5.8	5.9	5.0	6.2	5.7	7.3	4.7	5.72
<i>Agriculture (%)</i>	6.1	7.5	6.0	4.8	5.7	2.5	5.1	6.2	6.6
<i>Industry (%)</i>	5.1	5.1	5.6	5.2	9.5	5.1	8.1	3.8	5.72
<i>Service (%)</i>	4.7	4.7	5.4	5.1	6.5	10.0	9.3	4.6	5.72

Source: Compiled from GPRS Annual Progress Reports (2003-2009): Field Study, 2012

From an analysis of the 2003 Annual Progress Report, a total of 60 core indicators were used to assess the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy. Previously in the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2000-2002), fifty-two core indicators had been set out. The increase from 52 to 60 core indicators was made possible as a result of the availability of data, the linkage between these indicators to the Medium Term Priorities of the GPRS and taking into cognisance the view of stakeholders (GoG, 2003).

Out of these 60 indicators, (ten) 10 of the indicators were achieved, sixteen (16) were on steady progress, nine (9) had not been achieved whereas 25 indicators could not be assessed primarily because of lack of data. Among the targets that were achieved include democratic effectiveness of District Assemblies, the establishment of Parliamentary Committee on Poverty Reduction, proportion of total resources to key GPRS sectors, immunization coverage and the development and implementation of lifeline pricing of electricity.

Among those that achieved steady progress included the dissemination of Parliamentary debates on poverty and development, adequate security and protection for women and children, drug based treatment for people with HIV/AIDS and the gross enrolment of pre-school and basic schools. Among the targets that were not achieved include infant mortality rate, reduction in reported cases of guinea worm and food price inflation. Indicators that could

not be assessed as a result of inadequate data include growth of domestic revenue, timely disbursement of budgetary Municipal and District Assemblies' allocation and the incidence of poverty among others (GPRS 2003 Annual Progress Report, 2004).

From the analysis of the 2004 Annual Progress Report, macroeconomic stability achieved the highest target out of the various thematic areas, achieving fifty percent (50%) of its set target. This was particularly in the area of real per capita GDP growth rate, food price inflation, real per capita food crop growth rate and real per capita agricultural growth rate. Governance under GPRS I, achieved the second highest set target in the area of the establishment of a Parliamentary Committee on Poverty Reduction and the democratic effectiveness of District Assemblies. This was followed by the production and gainful employment thematic area. These included areas under fish farms and the lifeline pricing for the electricity sector. Both the human resource development and programme for the vulnerable and the excluded thematic areas had achieved relative steady progress although targets had not been realised.

**Table 2.3: Summary of indicators for GPRS I (2003-2005) 2004 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic stability</i>	0	0	4	4	8	50
<i>Production and Gainful employment</i>	6	11	3	1	20	15
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	6	5	0	3	14	0
<i>Governance</i>	1	6	2	1	9	22
<i>Vulnerable and the Excluded</i>	0	4	0	5	9	0
<i>Total</i>	15	29	9	13	60	

Source: Computed from GPRS I Annual Progress Report 2004, Government of Ghana, 2005 Field Survey, 2012

From the analysis of the 2005 Annual Progress Report, the production and gainful employment thematic area achieved the highest number of set targets, followed by the human resource development thematic area and finally governance thematic area. In the level of

steady progress, production and gainful employment made a lot of steady progress followed by human resource development and macroeconomic stability thematic areas. Twenty three key indicators could not be assessed as a result of data from sector ministries, departments and agencies as well as districts, municipal and metropolitan assemblies.

**Table 4.4: Summary of indicators for GPRS I (2003-2005) 2005 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic stability</i>	3	0	0	5	8	0
<i>Production and Gainful employment</i>	3	3	8	7	21	38.1
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	3	1	6	5	15	40
<i>Governance</i>	0	5	1	1	7	14.3
<i>Vulnerable and the Excluded</i>	0	4	0	5	9	0
<i>Total</i>	9	13	15	23	60	

Source: Computed from GPRS I Annual Progress Report 2005, Government of Ghana, 2006 Field Survey, 2012

From the analysis of 2006 Annual Progress Report, core indicators increased from sixty (60) to a hundred and fifty-nine core indicators as a result of the expansion of key indicators in the respective thematic area. The previous five thematic areas under GPRS I had been condensed to four thematic areas. Out of twenty four (24) core indicators under the thematic area of macroeconomic and economic governance, only seven (7) were achieved. These include per capita GDP growth rate, percentage contribution to sub-sectors and gross international reserve among others. Four (4) indicators were on steady progress such as end of year inflation and establishment of credit reference bureau among others.

Under the thematic area of private sector competitiveness, twenty seven (27) targets were achieved and these include a reduction in the number of days for registering a limited liability company as well as a reduction in the number of days for resolving commercial disputes whereas four (4) targets were on steady progress including Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) net inflows and the ease of doing business ranking. Under the thematic area of human

resource development, out of thirty-six (36) indicators, six (6) were achieved whereas just one (1) was on steady progress. As many as twenty-four (24) indicators were not achieved at the close of 2006.

Under the thematic area of good governance and civic responsibility, three (3) targets were achieved namely submission of medium term development to the National Development Planning Commission, proportion of national budget allocated to women issues and the publication of 2006 annual progress report on GPRS II. Those that achieved steady progress include the freedom of information bill and social protection policy among others. On the whole, the macroeconomic and economic governance achieved the highest number of targets.

The unavailability of data makes it very difficult for thematic areas to be assessed in appreciating the level of development in the country.

**Table 4.5: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2006 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic and Economic Governance</i>	7	4	7	6	24	29.2
<i>Private Sector Competitiveness</i>	27	6	15	20	68	22.1
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	24	1	6	5	36	16.7
<i>Good Governance and Civic Responsibility</i>	5	8	3	15	31	9.8
<b>Total</b>	63	19	31	46	159	

Source: Computed from GPRS II Annual Progress Report 2006, Government of Ghana, 2007 Field Survey, 2012

From the analysis of the 2007 GPRS Annual Progress Report, the thematic area of macroeconomic and economic governance, out of the seventeen (17) indicators, seven (7) indicators were achieved. Some of these indicators included per capita GDP, nominal GDP and credit referencing bureau. Among those that achieved steady progress include end of year



inflation and gross international reserve. Under the thematic area of private sector competitiveness, eighty-four (84) indicators were assessed.

Out of these indicators, twenty-two (22) indicators were achieved. Among these included private fixed investment, domestic credit to private sector and a reduction in the number of days for registering a limited liability company. Eighteen of these indicators were on steady progress particularly the ease of doing business ranking. Under the thematic area of human resource development, twenty-three (23) indicators were assessed.

Out of the twenty-three indicators, eight (8) achieved the target with one (1) on steady progress whereas eleven (11) indicators were not achieved. Under the thematic area of good governance and civic responsibility, thirty-three (33) indicators were assessed. Out of the thirty-three indicators, three (3) targets were achieved. These included the submission of medium term development plan to the NDPC and the publication of 2007 GPRS Annual Progress Report.

Indicators on steady progress include the catering of social protection policy in the national budget. On the whole, macroeconomic and economic governance thematic area had many of its targets achieved followed by the human resource development thematic area. Good governance and civic responsibility witnessed a decline from 9.8% in 2006 to 9% in 2007. Human resource development witnessed an increase from 16.7% in 2006 to 34.8% in 2007. Inadequate data continues to inhibit the pace of development.

**Table 4.6: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2007 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic and Economic Governance</i>	1	6	7	3	17	41.2
<i>Private Sector Competitiveness</i>	37	18	22	7	84	26.2
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	11	1	8	3	23	34.8
<i>Good Governance and Civic Responsibility</i>	3	20	3	7	33	9.0
<b>Total</b>	52	45	40	20	157	

Source: Computed from GPRS II Annual Progress Report 2007, Government of Ghana, 2008 Field Survey, 2012

From the analysis of the 2008 GPRS Annual Progress Report, macroeconomic and economic governance achieved six (6) targets out of twenty (20) indicators, five (5) were on steady progress whereas nine (9) had not been achieved. Among the targets achieved included per capita GDP, nominal GDP and sectoral growth in service and industry with the exception of agriculture. Among those that achieved steady progress included total foreign remittances, domestic revenue and discretionary payments. Among those that did not achieve their target included inflation, nominal exchange rate depreciation and balance of payments.

Under private sector competitiveness, some of the indicators that were achieved included private fixed investments, domestic credit to the private sector as a ration of GDP. Among those that achieved steady progress included ensuring the ease of doing business ranking and the number of days for registering a limited liability company. Under human resource development, four targets were achieved. Among them were improvements in percentage of rural population with access to safe water sources. Among those that achieved steady progress included bridging gender in accessing education, ensuring the financial arrangement that protect the poor and a reduction in the incidence of guinea worm. Under good governance and civic responsibility, eight targets were achieved with seventeen indicators on steady progress.

Among the targets achieved included citizen reports on policy and programme implementation and completion and publication of the 2008 GPRS Annual Progress Reports. Among those that achieved steady progress included the timely preparation and implementation of monitoring of fully costed district development plans, operationalization of local government service act and social protection policies such as the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) and the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP).

Under the GPRS 2008 progress report, macroeconomic and economic governance recorded the highest number of targets with 30% as compared to 41.2% in 2007. Good governance and civic responsibility achieved the second highest number of targets with 25.8% as against 9% in 2007. Human resource development recorded the lowest with 14.3% as compared to 34.8% in 2007. Indicators without adequate data reduced from twenty (20) to eleven in 2008.

**Table 4.7: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2008 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic and Economic Governance</i>	9	5	6	0	20	30
<i>Private Sector Competitiveness</i>	20	40	15	6	81	18.5
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	10	13	4	1	28	14.3
<i>Good Governance and Civic Responsibility</i>	2	17	8	4	31	25.8
<i>Total</i>	41	75	33	11	160	

Source: Computed from GPRS II Annual Progress Report 2008, Government of Ghana, 2009 Field Survey, 2012

From the analysis of the 2009 GPRS Annual Progress Report, macroeconomic and economic governance achieved six (6) targets out of thirty-one (31). Indicators on steady progress were nine (9). Indicators not achieved were fifteen (15) whereas indicators without adequate data amounted to one. Among those that were achieved included per capita GDP, nominal GDP

and domestic revenue. Among those that achieved steady progress included discretionary payments and balance of payments.

Among the indicators that did not achieve its target included real sectoral growth, inflation, interest rate, total foreign remittances, gross international reserve and gross domestic debt. Under private sector competitiveness, seventy-one targets were set. Out of the seventy-one targets (71), twelve targets (12) were achieved. These included private fixed investments, proportion of timber royalties going to resource owners and an increase in information communication technology (ICT).

Twenty-four indicators were on steady progress. Among these included per capita production of key staple foods, farmhouse incomes and time taken to register land. Targets that were not achieved included the ease of doing business ranking, cultivated lands under irrigation, rate of deforestation, timber utilization contracts and the number of social responsibility contracts. Under human resource development, twenty-eight (28) indicators were assessed. Out of these, four targets were achieved and this included an increase in the percentage of rural population with access to safe water sources. Sixteen (16) indicators achieved steady progress and these included gender parity index, National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) coverage to indigenes, increases in percentage of urban population with access to safe water sources.

Ten (10) indicators did not achieve its targets and these included increase in percentage of trained teachers and decrease in malaria case fatality in children less than five years. Under good governance and civic responsibility, thirty (30) targets were assessed. Four targets were achieved and these included the operationalization of local government service act and the completion and publication of the 2009 GPRS Annual Progress Reports just to mention a few.

Sixteen (16) targets were on steady progress and among these included amounts allocated to National Commission on Civic Education (NCCE) as a proportion of sector expenditure, number of citizens with National Identification Cards, change in the minimum daily wage and corruption perception index. Nine targets were not achieved among them include the reduction in the number of ministers appointed from parliament. On the whole, good governance and civic responsibility achieved the highest percentage of indicators with 33.3% as compared to 25.8% in 2008. Private sector competitiveness achieved the lowest level of targets set with 16.9% as compared to 18.5% in 2008.

**Table 4.8: Summary of indicators for GPRS II (2006-2009) 2009 Annual Progress Report**

<i>Thematic Area</i>	<i>Not Achieved</i>	<i>Steady Progress</i>	<i>Target Achieved</i>	<i>Inadequate Data</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage (%) Achieved</i>
<i>Macroeconomic and Economic Governance</i>	15	9	6	1	31	19.4
<i>Private Sector Competitiveness</i>	27	24	12	8	71	16.9
<i>Human Resource Development</i>	10	7	9	2	28	32.1
<i>Good Governance and Civic Responsibility</i>	9	16	4	1	30	33.3
<i>Total</i>	61	56	31	12	160	

Source: Computed from GPRS II Annual Progress Report 2009, Government of Ghana, 2010 Field Survey, 2012

The limited success of the First Step of the Ghana Vision 2020 only confirms the negative performance of development plans and the exogenous shocks in the form of changes in world economic conditions that development plan suffer in Killick's 1983 review of development planning in some selected African countries such as Chad, Nigeria, Cote d'Ivoire and Kenya. It is worth noting that whereas the GPRS made use of certain indicators to ascertain the outcome of each thematic area, the First Step did not make use of possible indicators to test the efficacy of the thematic areas in the First Step. The list of indicators as used in assessing the outcome of the GPRS points to proper monitoring and evaluation procedures.

#### **4.2.5 Remarkable Achievements on Ghana's Vision for Development**

Interviewees were asked if remarkable achievements have been achieved between the periods 1996-2009. Most of the interviewees noted that one of the remarkable achievements was the realization and provision of suitable platform for the private sector to contribute its quota to Ghana's development efforts. One of the interviewees stated that 'some years back the state was the main agent for development but today, the state (government) has realized it cannot do it alone' (Field interview, 2014).

According to two of the interviewees, Ghana's agricultural policy and programme (1994-2000) brought recognition to the country leading to a publication in the 1999-2000 World Development Report about how Ghana's agricultural sector was improving as a result of some good agricultural policies. Some of these good agricultural policies and programmes included provision of storage and marketing facilities and also the provision of agricultural extension services for farmers. Another interviewee said access to health care has been phenomenal with the replacement of the cash and carry system with a National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) in 2003 in a bid to make healthcare affordable and accessible.

According to some of the interviewees, access to education across all levels had been one of the most remarkable achievements with increased numbers of primary, junior, secondary high and tertiary institutions as well as private sector competitiveness thus making the private sector the engine of growth. Others opined that the coming into being of a National Youth Employment Programme could be considered as one of the memorable achievements in the history of national development.

#### 4.2.6 Ghana's Vision for Development Challenges

Interviewees were asked about some of the challenges impeding Ghana's vision for development. Some eight (8) interviewees mentioned problems such as lack of political commitment. Governments' vision for development was statist in approach although there were public consultations. According to one interviewee, 'the issue of poverty, diseases, housing and unemployment were inhibiting the country's development' (interview with IMANI respondent, 2012). The lack of political will as alluded to earlier in the literature by Mensa-Bonsu (2008) sums up the challenges the country faces with respect to Ghana's vision for development. According to him, 'there is lack of political will and commitment to successfully implement plans in Ghana.'

According to some four (4) interviewees, 'there was limited success as a result of the lack of coordination between the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MOFEP) in relation to Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step). The NDPC had been given very little role to play in the plan whilst the MOFEP was left with the economic and fiscal management of the plan. To make matters worse, the actual cost of the First Step was not considered and so it became increasingly difficult for the MOFEP to release funds. The belief was that annual budgets would reflect in policies and programmes as stated in the First Step but this was not to be.

One of the interviewees touched on the issue of institutional weakness as a challenge to reaching the country's developmental goals. He was of the view that the constitutional powers bestowed on the president in the appointment of the chairman of the National Development Planning Commission posed a serious challenge. This is evidenced in Chapter Eight (8) of the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana, Article 85 (2) and 87. Below is an extract:

The Commission shall consist of a Chairman who shall be appointed by the President in consultation with the Council of State. The National Development Planning Commission shall be responsible to the President. The Commission shall advise the President on development planning policy and strategy. The Commission shall, at the request of the President or Parliament, or on its own initiative. The Commission shall also perform such other functions relating to development planning as the President may direct (The 1992 Constitution of Ghana, pages 60-61).

According to one of the interviewees, ‘the NDPC is not fully autonomous and it is seen as partisan in terms of the chairmanship position. This position is no place for partisan politics and thus it comes as no surprise that its outputs are seen as the document of the incumbent government. Political parties are disinterested in using the NDPC’s development framework even in the design of their party manifestos. Why will the country not be faced with challenges?’

One of the interviewees was of the view that the lack of effective monitoring and evaluation tools, the lack of data and high inflation levels have not allowed the country to pursue its developmental agenda. There has been increases and decreases of inflation levels. According to an interviewee, ‘citizens are not interested in single digit inflation rather they are interested in seeing some improvement in their working and living conditions. The GPRS I and II in particular, suffered mechanical challenges, arising mainly from large fiscal and balance of payment deficits. This was as a result of external shocks such as the upsurge in crude oil prices. World-wide financial crisis made the financing of the GPRS difficult particular in 2008. There is an absence of reliable data which government could fall on in drafting their development frameworks (interviews with a member, Cross Sectoral Planning Group (1995-2000) and an ISODEC respondent, 2012).

From the analysis of both visions for development, the Ghana Vision 2020 and the GPRS I and II have suffered chronic data collection challenges. They have failed to harmonise



development partners' monitoring and evaluation requirements with those of Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) and there has been the absence of feedback mechanisms to ensure that plans/strategies stay on course. The view put forward on the issue of lack of data as a challenge to Ghana's development by the interviewees solidify the argument of Todaro and Smith (2009) on how important a role data plays in enhancing development. The lack of data or insufficient data would always pose a challenge.

#### **4.2.7 Country's Vision for Development in the hand of Political Parties**

Interviewees were asked whether political parties in government should be the sole architects of a country's development plan. Interviewees gave varied views on the issue. Majority of the interviewees totaling twelve (12) were of the view that political parties should not necessarily be the chief architects and that it was the responsibility of the National Development Planning Commission to advise the president and the government of the day on the way forward concerning the country's developmental pathway as this was enshrined in the constitution. In their view, political parties served a fixed term of office and that it would be impossible for them to engineer a development policy framework and finish before they leave office. According to one of the interviewees, 'it would be unpardonable for parties to draft development policies. The ultimate question is whether they would be able to draft a non-political and an all-inclusive national development policy.'

On the other hand, eight(8) of the interviewees were of the view that political parties were to be the chief architects of the country's development pathway. They also premised this on the basis of the 1992 Republican Constitution. According to one of the interviewees, 'article 36, clause 5 of the constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992) states 'within two years after

assuming office, the president shall present to parliament a coordinated programme of economic and social development policies, including agricultural and industrial programmes at all levels and in all the regions of Ghana. This coordinated programme thus represents his vision of development for the country he presides over.’

#### **4.2.8 Recommendations to Achieve the Desired Objectives of National Development**

##### **Policies**

Most of the interviewees, twelve in all agreed that national politics has eaten deep into the fabric of Ghana’s developmental efforts and that this constrains a nation. They were also of the opinion that development frameworks/strategies should be national in character. According to some of the interviewees, there is also the need for proper planning and not just any makeshift planning although they reckon there has been a steady improvement. According one of the interviewees, civil society organizations should lead the path towards the organization of a national consultative forum on a nationally-owned development vision (Interview with ISODEC respondent, 2012). It is observed that ISODEC had actually taken a bold step towards that objective.

The view expressed tie with that of Lopes (2013) and Zarenda (2013) that more work needs to be done in improving planning frameworks and the success of these resulting planning frameworks rest on the capacity of governments to effectively and efficiently implement and monitor them. Others noted that the National Development Planning Commission should engage in effective monitoring and evaluation if the country stood a chance of addressing its developmental challenges. Some other interviewees (40%) touched on the issue of data. They were of the view that institutions tasked with the compilation of national data should be given the necessary impetus to reliable data for successive governments to plan for the country.

They also asserted that data collected should be up to date by revising the data in their custody.

#### **4.2.9 Lessons for better Development Policy making in Ghana**

With regards to lessons that can be drawn to inform better policy making in Ghana, interviewees are of the opinion that monitoring and evaluation should be taken seriously. According to an official at the NDPC, ‘there has not been any form of serious monitoring and evaluation due to lack of funds’ (interview with NDPC respondent, 2012).

According to two interviewees, ‘the institution tasked with coordinating, monitoring and evaluating of development frameworks should be de-politicized. It should be made autonomous in theory and in practice. There is the need to transform the NDPC into the National Development Planning Authority (NDPA) to rid it of political interference and allow it some autonomy to operate’ (interview with ISSER respondents, 2012).

According to an interviewee, the Economic Planning component of the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning should be merged with the NDPC. Governments should do the obvious-what people expect from them and not what development partners expect from them (interview with IMANI Ghana respondent, 2012). Another interviewee noted that the country would have to make room for unanticipated events which may arise when development plans have been set in motion. With this in mind, governments would be in a better position to continue with the plans without terminating them.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

This study set out to examine the outcomes of governments' vision for development, which are the Ghana Vision 2020 (the First Step 1996-2000) and the GPRS I & II respectively. The study relied primarily on qualitative research methods with the use of an interview guide to solicit first-hand information on governments' vision for development. A purposive sampling technique was used in selecting respondents drawn from the Cross Sectoral Planning Groups under the National Development Planning Commission, the Integrated Social Development Centre and a host of other institutions.

The study revealed that under the current political dispensation, the approach to planning has changed from the top-down centralized framework to a more participatory decentralized planning approach which involves stakeholders such as district assemblies, research institutions, think tanks, civil society organizations and other bodies. The advent of decentralization and the return to democratic rule in 1993 has made the issue of development an all-inclusive one although the quality of participation can be improved.

The study found that the country has enjoyed appreciable levels of development in the thematic areas of private sector competitiveness as the private sector has been become the engine of growth, governance and civic responsibility, human resource development and macroeconomic stability although the country would want to improve on these. There are still

some development challenges particularly in housing, health, poverty alleviation and employment sectors.

The findings revealed that the country does not have a national development agenda rather it has different political parties' government development agenda. The involvement of political parties in opposition in the drafting of these development plans, strategies or agenda only appears on paper and not in reality. The idea that the country has a national development agenda exist in theory and not in practice. What the country gets to pride itself in are medium term development plans which cover a three year period. The continuous rolling out of these medium term development frameworks have not done the country much good.

There are lack of funds for effective monitoring and evaluation of development plans and programmes. There is also the politicization of the institution tasked with national development and this defeats the purpose of development planning. Development plans in some cases have not been costed to ascertain how much governments would be spending. There is also the issue of some lack of political will and commitment to drive the country towards development.

## **5.2 LESSONS**

The study presents the following useful lessons worth considering from the outcomes of the implementation of development plans in the country's quest to pursue its vision for development.

1. The success of any development plan or strategy depends on how well people are informed and involved in the development process.

2. An effective development plan or strategy should have mechanisms for implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
3. Policies and programmes that do not take into cognisance the cost of the policy or programme are bound to achieve very little success.
4. Coordination deficits undermine the success of policies.

### **5.3 CONCLUSION**

This study has examined the outcomes of alternative visions for development with the First Step of Ghana Vision 2020 and the GPRS I and II as comparative case studies. Ghana has witnessed a steady progress in its development efforts. Some monumental achievements have been chalked particularly in the area of health, good governance and macroeconomic stability.

The evidence of inadequate data continues to account for the country's inability to achieve its developmental objectives. Monitoring and evaluation within the context of development planning have improved under the alternative visions for development although there is room for further improvement. The planning approach has shifted from the central or elitist planning approach to a more decentralised planning approach as a result of the introduction of decentralisation and democracy. Ghana's vision for development is very much alive although there is no concrete national development agenda. The need for a national non-partisan development agenda is long overdue.

The attainment of development is very much aided by a development plan or strategy of some sort. The efficacy of these development plans thrives on proper institutional structures, political commitment and the setting of long term national development agenda.

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Successive governments are overly bothered about what and how the country should develop in the medium term. The country is entirely dependent on medium term development plans which have really inhibited the country's development with rising levels of unemployment, fall in cocoa and gold prices, housing deficits, bad road networks and the increase in poverty levels, just to mention a few. There is the need for rethink on the continuous use of medium term development plans in order to shift to a more sustainable long term development plan.

The effectiveness of any development plan rests on its long term perspective and adequate allocation of resources. The institutional weak structures as evidenced in the interviews and the GPRS annual progress reports (2004-2010) particularly with the implementing agency-the NDPC working hand in hand with sector ministries will require some form of transformation in terms of its legal status and staffing. The following recommendations are proposed for the purposes of ensuring that the objective of Ghana's vision for development is realised.

1. There is the need for a long term national vision put in place by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) and adhered to by successive governments in Ghana. The 'what' question with respect to the national vision should lie with the NDPC and the 'how' question with respect to the manner in which the national vision should be realized must be left to successive governments. The effort of the Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC) is a laudable one with its organization of a national consultative forum on the nationally-owned development vision.
2. Any national relevant development plan or strategy in Ghana must take into consideration four critical issues: where the country stands today in terms of

development; the very nature of existing development discourse and strategies; the entire cost of that strategy or plan and what can practically be done in ensuring its success. This would give governments a better frame of mind to move the country into another milestone in Ghana's quest for development.

3. Availability of current data to national governments is crucial to meaningful and sustainable development. The absence of reliable data would invariably lead to plan failures. The current data has explained to a point that Ghana has achieved although the country has made a steady progress in its development efforts.
4. There should be a complete de-politicization of planning the country's development in future so as get the development results the government and the general public would want to see.
5. There should be the inclusion of international best practices in the country's development planning framework to transform Ghana into a developed state. Governments could borrow some insights from countries such as Singapore and Malaysia on how they have able to turn their countries around.
6. Although there has been some level of participation in the development planning process, the quality of stakeholder participation should be of prime interest to governments. It is imperative to note that mere involvement does not necessarily mean equal consideration of the issues, equal influence and equal understanding of issues.
7. Lessons from failure and success stories and how the information can inform future policy should be factored in the drawing and implementation of development policies.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abdelmalek B. and Clairmonte, C. (1965). Planning in Africa in *Journal of Modern African Studies*, Cambridge University Press Vol. 3. No. 4 pp. 473-497. Available at <http://www.jstor.org/stable/159174> accessed on 25/08/11
- Achille, T.S (2007). Sub-Saharan Africa Strategy for Sustained Growth to Breakthrough in the 21st Century: Revisiting the development literature and paving the way ahead. A World Bank Institute Working Paper. Available at <http://www.worldbank.org> accessed on 11/01/12
- Al-Shareef, T. M (1993). Social Values and Planning in *Journal of King Abdulaziz University Economics & Administration*. Vol. 6. Available at [http://spc.kau.edu.sa/Files/320/Researches/51542\\_21677.pdf](http://spc.kau.edu.sa/Files/320/Researches/51542_21677.pdf) accessed on 26/08/11
- Amoako-Tuffour, J. and Armah, B. (2008). *Poverty Reduction Strategies in Africa: Perspectives and Lessons from Ghana*. Lexington, KY, USA: Lexington Books Publication.
- Anderson, J. E. (2003). *Public Policy Making: An Introduction. Fourth Edition*. Belmont, USA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning Publishers.
- Anderson, James E. (2006). *Public Policy Making: An Introduction. Sixth Edition*. Belmont, USA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning Publishers.
- Arthur Lewis, W. (1966). *Development Planning: The Essentials of Economic Policy*. London: George Allen & Unwin Publishers Ltd.
- Aryeetey, E. B., Atuguba, R. and Kunbuor, B. B. (2004). *The Right to Development Report Ghana Country Study*. Accra, Ghana: Legal Resources Centre.
- AU and UNECA (2011). *Development planning in Africa: Key Issues, Challenges and Prospects*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: UNECA. Available at <http://www.uneca.org/cfm/2011/documents/English/DevelopmentPlanning-inAfricaKeyIssuesChallengesandProspects.pdf> accessed on 11/08/11

- Baah, A. (2003). *History of African Development Initiatives*. Johannesburg, South Africa: Africa Labour Research Network Workshop.
- Blair, T. L. (1993). *The Poverty of Planning*. London: Redwood Press Limited.
- Breisinger, C., Diao, X., Kolavalli, S., Al Hassan, R. and Thurlow, J. (2011). *A new era of Transformation in Ghana: Lessons from the Past and Present for the Future*. Washington D.C: International Food Research Policy Institute.
- Cervero, R. (1998). *The Transit Metropolis: A Global Enquiry*. Washington D.C, USA: Island Press.
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches. Third Edition*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches. Fourth Edition*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage Publications.
- De Vaus, D.A. (2002). *Surveys in Social Research Fifth Edition*. Sydney, Australia: Allen and Unwin Publishers.
- Dzorgbo, D. (2001). *Ghana in Search of Development*. Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Ejumudo, K. B. O. (2013). *The Problematic of Development Planning in Nigeria: A Critical Discourse*. Vol. 3 No.4. Available online accessed from <http://www.iiste.org>
- Elhraika, A. (2005). An Integrated Approach to Africa's Development Constraints in Teunissen, J.J and Akkerman, A. (eds) (2005) *Africa in the World Economy: The National, Regional and International Challenges*. The Hague, Netherlands: FONDAD. Available at <http://www.fondad.org> accessed on 11/01/12
- Field Interviews, 2012.

Field Interviews, 2014.

Frimpong-Ansah, J. H. (1991). *The Vampire State in Africa: The Political Economy of Decline in Ghana*. London: James Currey Publishers Limited.

Good, A.G. (2011). Still Budgeting by Muddling Through: Why Disjointed Incrementalism lasts in *Policy and Society* No. 30 pp.41–51 Available at <http://www.sciencedirect.com> accessed on 19/01/14

Goulet, D. (2008). *The Cruel Choice: A New Concept on the Theory of Development*. New York, USA: Athenaeum Publishers.

Graham, B. (2000). *Case Study Research Methods*. London, England: Continuum Publishing.

Harrison, L. (2001). *Political Research: An Introduction. First Edition*. London, England: Routledge Publishers.

Hill, M. J. (2005). *The Public Policy Process. Fourth Edition*. London, England: Pearson Longman Publishers.

Hitge, G. and Van Dijk, E. N. R. (2012). *Incremental Approach to Public Transport System Improvements*. A paper presented at the 31<sup>st</sup> Annual Southern African Transport Conference. Pretoria, South Africa: CSIR International Convention Centre.

Hutchful, E. (2002). *Ghana's Adjustment Experience: The Paradox of Reform*. Oxford: James Currey Publishers Limited.

Ibietan, J. and Oghator, E. (2013). Trends in Development Planning in Nigeria: 1962-2012 in *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*. Volume 15. No.4

Ikeanyibe, O. M. (2009). Development Planning in Nigeria: Reflections on the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) 2003-2007 in *Journal of Social Science*. Vol. 20 (3) pp. 197-210. Available at <http://www.krepublishers.com> accessed on 11/08/11

- Issahaku, Abdul-Nashiru (2000). The Political Economy of Economic Reform in Ghana: Implications for Sustainable Development in *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*. Available online at <http://www.jsd-africa.com> accessed on 17/01/12
- Kendie, B. S. and Martens, P. (ed) (2008). *Governance and Sustainable Development*. Cape Coast: Marcel Hughes Publicity Group.
- Killick, T. (1983). Development Planning in Africa: Experiences, Weaknesses and Prescriptions; *Development Policy Review*, Vol. 1 Available at <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com> accessed on 17/9/11
- Killick, T. (2010). *Development Economics in Action: A study of economic policies in Ghana*. Routledge Studies in Development Economics 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. New York: Routledge Publishers.
- Knill, C. and Tosun, J. Policy Making in Caramani, D. [ed.] (2008). *Comparative Politics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 495-519.
- Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques. Second Revised Edition*. New Delhi, India: New Age International Publishers.
- Krippendorff, K.H. (2004). *Content Analysis: An Introduction to its Methodology. Second Edition*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Kudjoe, F. K. (1987). *Elites, Ideology and Development Problems of Ghana*. Hamburg, Germany: Hamburg University Press.
- Kuuzegh, R. and Twerefou, D. K. (2006). *Development and Implementation of National Strategies for Sustainable Development: The case of Ghana: A Technical Report*.
- Lawal, G. (2007). Corruption and Development in Africa: Challenges for Political and Economic Change in *Humanity & Social Sciences Journal* Vol. 2 (1). Available at <http://www.idosa.org> accessed on 11/01/12

- Lindblom, C. E. (1959). The Science of Muddling Through in *Public Administration Review* No. 19 pp. 79–88.
- Lindblom, C. E. (1979). Still Muddling, Not Yet Through in *Public Administration Review* No. 39 pp. 517–526.
- Lopes, C. (2013). Fifty years of Development Planning in Africa—Lessons and challenges. <http://www.uneca.org/es-blog/50-years-development-planning-africa-lessons-and-challenges> accessed on 14/2/14
- Madavo, C. (2005). *Africa: The Development Challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. AFRICA Occasional Paper Series No. 4.
- Maddison, S. and Denniss, R. (2009). *An Introduction to Australian Public Policy: Theory and Practice*. New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Mai, T. V. (2008). Comprehensive Planning: Does it work? Experiences from Vietnam in *Journal of Administration & Governance*, Vol. 3.No. 2.
- Makhan, V. (2013). *Challenges and Opportunities: Retrospect and Prospects of Development Planning on Regional/Continental Scale* accessed from <http://www.lemauricien.com/article>
- Marczyk, G., De Matteo, D. and Festinger, D. (2005). *Essentials of Research Design and Methodology*. New Jersey, USA: John Wiley and Sons Publishers.
- May, T. (2011). *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process. Fourth Edition*. London, England: McGraw Hill Open University Press.
- Mensa-Bonsu, I. (2008) *Ghana's Development Agenda: Past and Present*. A KOAFFEC on the Spot Workshop for West Africa July 28-31, 2008 Accra, Ghana Available at <http://www.koaffec.org> accessed on 21/7/11

- Mkandawire, T. (2011). Running While Others Walk: Knowledge and the Challenge of Africa's Development in *Africa Development*, Vol. XXXVI No. 2. Available at <http://www.codesria.org> accessed on 11/01/12
- Mongula, B. (2006) The Dependent Character of Development Planning in Tanzania. *Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review*, Volume 22, No. 2, pp. 65-83. Available at <http://www.muse.jhu.edu/journals>
- Mutahaba, R.G and Kweyamba, B.A (2010). *Searching for an Optimal Approach to National Development Planning in Africa: Assessing the Contribution of Public Administration Systems*. The 32<sup>nd</sup> African Association for Public Administration and Management Annual Roundtable Conference, Durban, South Africa, 15-19 November, 2010. Available at <http://unpan.org/introdoc/public/documents/undpadm/unpan04413.pdf> accessed on 11/08/11
- Nachmias, D. and Nachmias, C. (1976). *Content Analysis in Research Methods in the Social Sciences*. London, UK: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- Nkrumah, S. A. (1971). Political and Administrative Obstacles to Development Planning In Developing Countries in *Journal of Management Studies*.
- Nyanteng, V. K. (1997). *Policies and Options for Ghanaian Economic Development. Second Edition*. Legon: ISSER.
- Omotola, S. J. (2006). No democracy, No development or Vice Versa in Saliu, H. A., Ogunsanya, A. A., Olujide, J. O. and Olaniyi, J. O. (eds.) *Democracy and development in Nigeria: Conceptual issues and democratic practice*. Lagos, Nigeria: Concept Publications.
- Polit, D.F. and Beck, C.T. (2001). *Nursing Research: Principles and Methods. Seventh Edition*. Philadelphia, USA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins Publishers.
- Potts, D. (2002). *Project Planning and Analysis for Development*. New York: Lynne Rienner.

- Potts, D., Ryan, P. and Toner, A. (ed) (2003). *Development Planning and Poverty Reduction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Prah, K.K (2011). *Culture: The Missing link in Development Planning in Africa*. Available at <http://www.codesria.org/IMG/pdf/9-3.pdf> accessed on 11/08/11
- Prasad, N. (2008). in Laldas, D.K and Bhaskaran, V (eds.) *Research Methods for Social Work*. New Delhi, India: Rawat Publishers.
- Rathod, P. B. (2010). *Elements of Development-Administration (Theory and Practice)*. Jaipur: ABD Publishers.
- Republic of Ghana (1977). *Five Year Development Plan 1975/76-1979/80*. Part 1
- Republic of Ghana (1992). *The Constitution of Ghana*.
- Republic of Ghana (1995). *Ghana Vision 2020 (The First Step 1996-2000) Presidential Report on Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (Policies for the Preparation of 1996-2000 Development Plan)*
- Republic of Ghana (1995). *Sectional Address by President Rawlings at the State Opening of the Third Session of the Parliament of Ghana*, Accra on 6th January 1995.
- Republic of Ghana (1997). *Ghana Vision 2020-The First Term Development Plan*. World Press Limited, Accra
- Republic of Ghana (1997). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana*, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (1998). *Ghana Vision 2020-The First Term Development Plan Programme of Action*. World Press Limited, Accra
- Republic of Ghana (1998). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana*, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (1999). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana*, Accra.

- Republic of Ghana (2000). *Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2000-2002)*.
- Republic of Ghana (2000). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2001). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2002). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2002). *The Coordinated Programme for the Economic and Social Development (2003-2012)*
- Republic of Ghana (2003). *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005): An Agenda for Growth and Prosperity Vol. 1: Analysis and Policy Statement*. National Development Planning Commission, Accra
- Republic of Ghana (2003). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2004). *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005)*. 2003 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2004). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2005). *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005)*. 2004 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2005). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II 2006-2009)*. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2005). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009)*. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2005). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.



- Republic of Ghana (2006). *Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005)*. 2005 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2006). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2007). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009)*. 2006 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2007). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2008). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009)*. 2007 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2008). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2009). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009)*. 2008 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2009). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Republic of Ghana (2010). *Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009)*. 2009 Annual Progress Report. National Development Planning Commission, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2010). *The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana, Accra*.
- Rodney, W. (1982). *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*. Washington D.C.: Howard University Press.
- Sandbrook, R. (1993). *The Politics of Africa's Economic Recovery*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Sapru, R.K (2010). *Public Policy: Formulation, Implementation and Evaluation. Second Edition*. New Delhi, India: Sterling Publishers.

- Simpson, E.S (1991). *The Developing World: An Introduction*. New York: John Wiley and Sons Publishers.
- Singh, Y. K. (2006). *Fundamentals of Research Methodology and Statistics*. New Delhi, India: New Age International Publishers.
- Tandoh-Offin, P. (2013). Development Planning in Ghana since 1992: Implications for the Decentralization Process in *Journal of International Relations and Diplomacy*. Vol. 1, No. 2. pp. 93-107.
- Thomas, A. (2000). Development as Practice in a Liberal Capitalist World in *Journal of International Development*, pp. 773-787.
- Tidjani, B. (1998). *Africa Union under Structural Program*. Available at <http://www.erudit.org> accessed on 22/12/11
- Todaro, M. P. (1989). *Economic Development in the Third World. Fourth Edition*. New York: Longman Publishing.
- Todaro, M. P. and Smith S. C. (2006). *Economic Development*. Harlow, Essex, England: Pearson Educational Limited.
- Todaro, M. P. and Smith S. C. (2009). *Economic Development*. Harlow, Essex, England: Addison Wesley Publishers.
- Turner, M. and Hulme, D. (1997). *Governance, Administration and Development: Making the State Work*. Connecticut, USA: Kumarian Press.
- Vordzorgbe, S. D. (2005). *National Sustainable Development Strategies for Ghana: Approach and Guidance*. Accra, Ghana: A UNDP/Government of Ghana Environmental Resource Management Programme.
- Vordzorgbe, S. D. and Caiquo, B. (2001). *Report on Status Review of National Strategies for Sustainable Development in Ghana*.
- Weiss, A. and Woodhouse, E. (1992). Reframing Incrementalism: A Constructive Response to the Critics in *Policy Sciences* No. 25: pp.255-273. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Wildavsky, A. (1964). *The Politics of the Budgetary Process*. Boston, USA: Little, Brown & Company Publishers.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods. Fourth Edition. Applied Social Research Methods Series*. Vol. 5. Los Angeles, USA: Sage Publications.

Zarenda, H. (2013) *South Africa's National Development Plan and its implications for Regional Development*. A Trade Law Centre Working Paper. Accessed from <http://www.tralac.org>

**APPENDIX I: Interview Guide****DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE****INTERVIEW GUIDE**

I want to thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. My name is Danso Sampson, an MPhil final year student of the Department of Political Science, University of Ghana, Legon. I would like to talk to you about Ghana's vision for development-A study of Ghana Vision 2020: The First Step (1996-2000) and the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I and II. Specifically, as one of the objectives of this thesis is to examine the processes and outcomes of alternate visions for development in Ghana in order to draw lessons that can be used in realizing Ghana's vision for development. The interview should take about thirty (30) minutes. All responses will be kept confidential.

---

Interviewee

---

Date

**Questions**

1. What has been the approach to planning Ghana's development from 1992 to 2009?
2. Is there an element of continuity and what is the level of participation by non-state actors in the alternate vision for development?
3. Would you say that Ghana's vision for development has been balanced or in other words, do the country's visions for development cover aspects thus political, social and economic?
4. What are the processes involved and the outcomes of Ghana's vision for development?
5. What are some of the remarkable achievements on Ghana's vision for development?
6. What are some of the challenges that have impeded Ghana's vision for development?
7. Should political parties in government be the chief architects of the country's vision for development?
8. What will you recommend for Ghana to be able to achieve its desired objective of national development?

9. Are there any useful lessons Ghana can draw to inform better development policy making?

Is there anything more you would like to add?

Thank you for your time.

## APPENDIX II: Participants and their activities in Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I (2003-2005)

### Participants and their activities in Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I (2003-2005)

Activity	Participants
Conceptualization forum	Cross section of stakeholders on Poverty Reduction
Launching of GPRS process	Cross section of Ghanaian society
Core Teams orientation	Core Teams
Community, district and regional consultations	Community groups, district and regional representatives
Harmonization	Core Teams, Civil Society Organization, Private sector, Development Partners
Special Forum for Civil Society (as input into the National Economic Dialogue)	Civil Society Organizations
National Economic Dialogue	Cross section of Ghanaian society
Linking GPRS to annual/MTEF budget	MTEF, Budget Division/Ministry of Finance
Presentation on draft GPRS	Development Partners
GPRS Instructional Workshop for MDAs	MTEF sectoral groupings
GPRS consultation workshop	Chief Directors–MDAs, NGOs and Religious Bodies, Labour Unions, Civil Society, Policy Advocacy groups, Think tanks, the Media and Women's groups
Review workshop	Research institutions, policy activists and Think tanks
Call for comments	Divisional Directors, MDAs, National Association of Local Government, Professional Bodies, National Union of Ghana Students, National Union of Polytechnic Students, Private Enterprise Foundation, Association of Ghana Industries, Ghana Chamber of Commerce, National Association of Small Scale Industries, Core Teams for GPRS and Gender Network
Consultation and training workshop	Budget Officers from Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
Policy Review Workshops with MTEF/Budget Division	Administration, Social Infrastructure and Public Safety Groups
GPRS/MTEF cross sectoral meetings	MDAs
Policy Hearings	MDAs
Retreat	Parliament
Budget Hearings	MDAs
Finalization of draft estimates from MDAs	Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
Review of Draft Estimates	Cabinet
Review of budget with GPRS priorities	Parliament
Regional and District workshops	Regional and District Personnel, NGOs and CSOs
Stakeholders Forum on final draft	Cross section of Ghanaian society

Source: Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005) Policy Document, Government of Ghana

### **Participants and their activities in the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (2006-2009)**

Activity	Participants
Formation and meetings of Cross Sectoral Planning Groups (CSPGs)	MDAs, CSOs, CBOs, NGOs, Private Sector, Professional Associations, Tertiary and Research Institutions, Development Partners, etc.
Preparation of initial report for each thematic area	CSPG core working groups and consultants
First review and validation by Steering Committee	NDPC members
Second validation and review by Steering Committee	NDPC members
Gender Mainstreaming stakeholder workshop	Gender focal persons in MDAs, DPs, Groups, CSOs, NGOs
Preparation of zero draft of GPRS II	CSPG core groups and consultants
Validation by Policy Management teams of MDAs, DPs and Specialists	MDAs, Development Partners, Specialists institutions and individuals
Review of Gender input into thematic reports	Gender Consultative Groups
Third review and validation by Steering Committee	NDPC members
Submission of zero draft to Parliament	All Members of Parliament
Regional and District level Consultations	Regional Coordinating Councils, District Assemblies, Civil Society Organizations Professional Associations, Labour Unions, Trade association, Women's Organizations, NGOs and Traditional Authorities
Consultative workshop for Parliamentary Select Committees	Parliamentary sub-committees on Finance and Poverty Reduction
Training workshop for 2006 budget	Budget Officers, Ministry of Finance
Policy review workshop with MTEF/Budget Division	Budget Officers of MDAs
Fourth review and validation by Steering Committee	NDPC members
Review and validation of Gender mainstreaming into draft GPRS II	United Nations Development Fund for Women Mission (UNIFEM)
National Level Consultations	Student unions such as NUGS and NUPS, Farmer Based Organizations, Labour Unions, Trade Associations, Professional Associations, National House of Chiefs, Council of State and the Media
Consultative Workshops	Ghana Federation of the Disabled
Fifth review and validation by Steering Committee	NDPC Members
Review and validation by experts and private sector	Policy think thanks, ISSER, private consultants, PEF, Financial institutions
Validation workshop for Parliamentary Select Committee	Members of Parliamentary select committee on Poverty Reduction
Submission of Final Draft to Cabinet Committees	Oversight, Finance and Economy Committees
Costing of programmes and projects	MDAs organized around the three main pillars
National indicator workshops	MDAs, CSPG members and Group consultants
Submission of Final Draft to Cabinet	Full Cabinet
Meeting with Development Partners	Heads of Missions and Agencies
Submission to Parliament	All Members of Parliament
Consultative Group Meeting	Development Partners, Government of Ghana, Members of Parliament, Civil Society Organizations, NGOs and the Private sector

Source: Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009) Policy Document, Government of Ghana