

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**ASSESSING POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS BY DISTRICT
ASSEMBLIES IN GHANA: THE PERSPECTIVES OF BENEFICIARIES IN THE
SAVELUGU-NANTON MUNICIPALITY**

ABDALLAH HAKIM

**THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN AND GENERAL
STUDIES, FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES,
UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
DEGREE IN ENDOGENOUS DEVELOPMENT**

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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

ASSESSING POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS BY DISTRICT ASSEMBLIES
IN GHANA: THE PERSPECTIVES OF BENEFICIARIES IN THE SAVELUGU-
NANTON MUNICIPALITY

BY

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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



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FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN ENDOGENOUS
DEVELOPMENT

OCTOBER, 2019

DECLARATION

Student

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: **Abdallah Hakim**

Supervisors

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: **Professor Steve Tonah**

Co-Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: **Dr. John Gasu**



ABSTRACT

Many studies have supported the view that, the District Assembly system as it exists in Ghana is a good channel for stimulating socio-economic development and poverty reduction. However, a systematic study of the strategies for poverty reduction in Ghana has revealed that district level poverty reduction strategies have generally had limited impact in addressing the problem of local level poverty. This gives rise to the question of whether district or national level poverty reduction strategies are most suited for implementation in the struggle to reduce poverty at the local level. Most of the empirical studies carried out so far on this subject have tended to focus more on regional and national level poverty reduction interventions, with very few of such studies focused on beneficiaries' perspectives. Consequently, the real situation in the field remain unclear. Thus, the quest of this study is to fill this gap in the literature through assessing the effect of District Assemblies' poverty reduction interventions on beneficiaries from their own perspectives. The study employed the sequential mixed method design, which allows the use of both qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques and procedures. Questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussion tools were used in collecting data. The methods of data analysis employed were both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics, such as tabulation, frequencies, and percentages, were used to measure the magnitude of occurrence of the variables being measured while the inferential statistics, such as Chi-square (X^2), was used to determine whether there existed any significant difference between observed (i.e. existing phenomenon) and expected (theoretical) frequencies that are existing within the responses obtained from household responses. The qualitative data, on the other hand, were grouped under specific themes and sub-themes reflecting the study objectives, and subsequently interpreted. Cross analysis and triangulation were employed to compare findings from quantitative and qualitative analysis. A Municipal Assembly in Ghana, namely Savelugu-Nanton Municipal, was selected for the study. Three hundred and fifty-three (353) households were randomly sampled (made up of 89 LEAP and 264 non-LEAP households), thirty-two (32) opinion leaders and four (4) key informants were purposively sampled. In addition, two focus group meeting was organised with members of the Municipal Planning Coordinating Council (MPCU) and management of the Municipal Assembly (MA). The study found that: there were two broad categories of poverty reduction intervention (i.e. infrastructure and non-infrastructure interventions); the infrastructure interventions had a greater effect on poverty reduction than the non-infrastructure interventions; there was low beneficiaries involvement in planning interventions, as a result beneficiary influence on interventions was low; a number of implementation challenges emerged, but critical of those challenges was overreliance on external sources of funding interventions. Thus, the study concluded that, Savelugu-Nanton Municipal will only be effective at reducing levels of poverty among its target beneficiaries to the extent that it become financially self-reliant. This conclusion was partly attributed to SNMA's overreliance on external sources for funding most of its interventions, which results in the MA subordinating its local development priorities for donor priorities.



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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the loving memory of the departed souls of my family members:

My late father Mr. Paul Braimah Abudu Abdallah (1942-2007)

My late sisters Miss Pricilla Bunyagsa Abudu (1976-2010) and Nadrat-Naiim Abudu

My late wife Janet Lamisi Bayendeh (1976-2014) and late Son Yussif Aballah Abudu

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACP	Area Council Plan
CAP	Community Action Pan
CBRDP	Community Based Rural Development Programme
CSO	Civil Society Organisations
DACF	District Assembly Common Fund
DDF	District Development Facility/Fund
DMTDP	District Medium Term Development Plan
ED	Endogenous Development
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GOG	Government of Ghana
GPRS I	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GPRS II	Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy
GSGDA	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HPIC	Heavily Indebted Poor Country
IGF	Internally Generated Fund
IMF	International Monetary Fund
I-PRSP	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMDA	Metropolitan/Municipal/District Assembly
MPCU	Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit
MTDP	Medium-Term Development Plan
MTNDPF	Medium Term National Development Policy Framework
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
PAMSCAD	Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment
PRI	Poverty Reduction Interventions
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SNM	Savelugu-Nanton Municipal
SNMA	Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

To date, poverty continues to be the greatest challenge for local and international development experts the world over (World Bank, 1996b; United Nations, 2015). Poverty, as a global development problem, affects people differently across continents, nations and localities. No country can claim to be totally free from the phenomenon of poverty. However, the main difference is the prevalence and level of intensity of the phenomenon. It has been observed that “nations in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Latin America are with the highest level of poverty and consequently with the lowest level of socio-economic development. They are also said to be with the highest level of social insecurity, violence, unrest and generally unacceptable low living standards” (Oyemomi, 2003; p16). Studies have shown that about 16.7% of the world’s population (i.e. about one billion people) were extremely poor. They struggle for survival on a daily basis. They also suffer from lack of basic needs for survival such as “nutrition, health care, access to good drinking water, good sanitation, shelter, and other basic needs for survival” (Suharko, 2007; p2).

In an attempt at addressing the problem of global poverty, a number of actions have been taken towards tackling the phenomenon. In the 1960s, tackling poverty was considered as a side effect of economic growth with the assumption that the benefit of economic growth will automatically benefit the poor. The failure of the assumed “trickle-down” effect to occur gave birth to the emergence of the “Basic Needs Strategy” approach as espoused by the



International Labour Organisation (ILO) and “redistribution with growth” as advocated and promoted by the World Bank in the early 1970s (ILO,1976; ILO, 1977).

Poverty reduction gained international attention following the declaration made by the president of the World Bank (Robert McNamara) that “...poverty reduction is a fundamental goal of international cooperation...” (Chambers, 1983). However, in the 1980s, following the increasing debt crisis, there was a shift in development focus from poverty reduction towards structural adjustment policies aimed at recovering ailing economies. The subject of poverty reduction resurfaced in the global development discourse following the resultant negative social impacts of the structural adjustment policies and programmes. This resulted in the need to make the structural adjustment policies responsive to the needs of the poor and vulnerable groups through providing a safety net mechanism under the adjustment programme. The objective of which was to ameliorate the effect of structural adjustment on the poor and most vulnerable in society. This intervention in Ghana was termed Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment (PAMSCAD) (ODI, 1996).

Global attention to the subject of poverty reduction was reinforced following the publication of the World Bank Development Report of 1990 which was dedicated to poverty and how to address the challenge of global poverty. The report recommended that; to reduce poverty emphasis should be placed on engendering “broad-based economic growth, developing the human capital of the poor, and providing social safety nets for vulnerable groups in society” (World Bank, 1996; pVII). The subject of poverty reduction was taken a notch higher with the release of the World Development Report of 2000 which constitute the second world development report dedicated to reduction of global poverty. In the 2000 World



Development report, the World Bank broadened the focus of poverty reduction to transcend the economic domain to include other domains such as; social, cultural governance, political and more (World Bank, 2000; Shaffer, 2008).

The fight to reduction poverty was given a further boost with member states of the United Nations (UN) at a UN summit in 2000 adopted eight (8) development goals termed the “Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)” with the objective of waging a relentless war against global poverty. The MDGs served as the first demonstrated global commitment to the fight against poverty. Specifically, the eight MDGs include: “eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, universal education, gender equity, child health, maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS and other diseases, promotion of environmental sustainability, and promotion of global partnership” (Todaro & Smith, 2006; p24). The UN member states committed to reducing the percentage of people living on less than a dollar (US) per day and the percentage of people suffering from hunger by half by the end of 2015.



It is important to recognise that although many countries did not meet the MDG targets, but there was clear progress made towards achieving the target of halving the level of poverty by the end of 2015. During the period, the target of halving the proportion of people living in extreme poverty was achieved in 2010. The data showed that the proportion of the world’s population living in extreme poverty reduced from 36% in 1990 to 28% in 2000 and further reduced to 11.5% in 2015. Nonetheless, 850 million of the world’s population still lives on less than US \$1.25 a day. The period of the implementation of the MDGs also recorded a continuous decline in the proportion of the global population living in low-income countries. The proportion the world’s population living in low-income countries is estimated to be

about 58%, which declined to 41% in 2000 and further declined to 12% in 2013 (UNDP, 2015).

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) represents a global commitment by the United Nations Member States and also a successor global development framework for the MDGs to end global poverty, protect the planet and also ensure global peace and prosperity by 2030. The SDGs are made up of seventeen (17) goal. These goals are meant to build on the gains of MDG pursued from 2000 to 2015. The SDGs also represent a “Pledge to Leave no One Behind”. Member states have committed to “fast-track progress for those further behind first”. The SDGs ultimately aims at achieving several “life-changing zeros” like aching zero; poverty, hunger, AIDS and discrimination against women and girls (Cities, 2015).

All these global efforts at addressing the problem of poverty culminated into Africa recording significant economic development since the mid-1990s. After two decades of poor economic performance in the 1970s and 1980s, the African economy grew at 4.5% per annum, which was at a more rapid pace than in the rest of the developing world, excluding China. In the 1990s Africa experienced a “sharp decline in large-scale conflicts, better economic fundamentals and improved participatory governance, a commodity super cycle, and discoveries of new natural resources and better technology for exploiting existing natural resources” (Beegle, Christiaensen, Dabalen., & Gaddis, 2016; p21), in view of which the description of Africa being a “growth tragedy” has changed to Africa being on a “path of growth” (Beegle et al., 2016).





In spite of the dramatic growth experienced in the 1990s, “a large share of the African population continues to live below the international poverty line of \$1.90 a day” (Beegle et al., 2016; p21). This implies that the growth recorded cannot be considered as a “pro-poor growth” and thus accounting for the large share of the population falling below the international poverty line. An examination of African poverty statistics revealed that “Africa’s poverty rate declined from 57 percent in 1990 to 43 percent in 2012... but due to the population growth, the number of poor people increased, from 288 million in 1990 to 389 million in 2012” (Beegle et al., 2016; p21).

The reduction and ultimate alleviation of poverty and poverty related problems, like hunger and starvation in Africa, remain a major development challenge facing most African leaders and the international community. In view of which Africa’s continuous underdevelopment, stagnation and poverty has led to the description of Africa as the greatest tragedy of the 19th century (Osakwe & Hakim, 2006). Fox and Liebenthal (2006), in corroboration, indicated that reducing poverty in Africa might appear to be an illusion and even quixotic. They explained that, by all measures, poverty has increased and deepened in Africa as a whole; and the prospects of meeting the international, national and local goals still remain elusive for most governments in Africa.

In confirmation of Fox and Liebenthal’s scepticism, Beegle et al. (2016) observed that “poverty reduction in Africa lags behind other developing regions. For instance, East Asia and South Asia started out with poverty rates that were as high as Africa’s in the 1990s; but their poverty rates are much lower today”. Again, from closely examining Africa’s progress towards attainment of MDG1, it became apparent that Africa remains the only region among

the developing regions where the MDG 1 target of halving extreme poverty remains outstanding even after 2015 (United Nation, 2015).

In 2006, the MDG target of reducing by half the proportion of people living in extreme poverty in Ghana was achieved nine years ahead of the target year of 2015 (i.e. MDG 1). Ghana has since continued to make remarkable progress in further reducing level of poverty. The 2016/17 Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 7) revealed a reduction in overall poverty from 31.9% in 2006 to 23.4% in 2017, while extreme poverty reduced from 16.5% in 2006 to 8.2% in 2017. Though the overall reduction in “poverty and extreme poverty occurred in both rural and urban localities and across the country, an analysis of poverty gap ratios (which measure the depth of poverty) shows that poverty is more severe in rural areas and parts of the three northern regions than it is elsewhere in the country” (GOG, 2018; p11). Poverty is most severe in the three northern regions with the Upper West Region being the highest, with an incidence of poverty of 70.9%, followed by Northern Region with an incidence of 61.1% and Upper East Region with an incidence of 54.8% (GSS, 2018).

Against this background, the developing countries including Ghana who are most challenged by the scourge of poverty are making concerted efforts at fighting it. These efforts can be seen particularly in Ghana with the implementation of various poverty reduction strategies.

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

Saveluga-Nanton Municipal (SNM) recorded a 58.3% percentage reduction in its incidence of poverty in 2013 (i.e. from 77.5% in 2006 to 32.2% in 2013). That notwithstanding, the incidence of poverty of 32.2% still remains higher than the national incidence of 24.4% for



the same period (GOG, 2005: GSS, 2014 & 2015). SNM is also characterised by: poor access to socio-economic services (water & sanitation, nutrition, health); a high illiteracy rate; low educational outcomes; low productivity; a limited livelihood base; high dependence on rain fed agriculture; inadequate income levels; poor resource mobilisation (savings); and few other assets to protect the citizenry against external shocks and inadequate safety nets mechanisms, etc. (SNMA, 2013).

The local development community, including government departments and agencies, international/local development partners and civil society organisations (CSO), have sought to improve the living conditions of poverty-stricken citizens through implementing poverty reduction interventions with the potential of tackling the root causes of poverty and its crippling effect on people trapped in the phenomenon. But after years of implementing such interventions to solve the problem of poverty, poverty still remains an intractable challenge.

In Ghana, like many other countries, every government since independence, have embarked on various interventions to reduce the levels of poverty. These efforts got to a crescendo under the decentralisation system of Ghana, which was initiated in 1988, where local authorities (i.e. District Assemblies) were given powers and tasks that had considerable potential for engendering socio-economic development and reducing poverty among its citizenry. There are mixed perceptions about the achievements of local authorities and the performance of assemblies in reducing poverty (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011). These “concerns are related to the capacities of assemblies for resource mobilisation and financial management, ...these have implications for reducing poverty” (p133).





Many studies have supported the view that, the District Assembly system as it exists in Ghana is a good channel for stimulating socio-economic development and poverty reduction (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011). However, a systematic study of the strategies for poverty reduction in Ghana has revealed that district level poverty reduction strategies have generally had limited impact in addressing the problem of local level poverty (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011; Adjie & Kyei, 2011; Asiedu, n.d; Kessey, 2013; Kyei, 2008; Osei-Fosu, 2008). This gives rise to the question of whether district or national level poverty reduction strategies are most suited for implementation in the struggle to reduce poverty at the local level (Dakyes & Mundi, 2013; Yakubu & Hassan, 2012; Orji, 2005; Osei-Fosu, 2010).

Most of the empirical studies carried out so far on this subject have tended to focus more on regional (i.e. administrative regions of Ghana) and national level poverty reduction interventions, with very few of such studies focused on beneficiaries' perspectives. Examples of such studies include: Eboreime and Njoku (n. d); Dakyes and Mundi (2013), Yakubu and Hassan (2012); Osei-Fosu (2010), Osei-Fosu, (2008), Adjei and Kyei (2011); Tersoo (2013); UNDP-Ghana (2018); GSS (2015), Asiedu (n.d) and Kessey (2013) among others.

The scarcity of literature even worsens when specific reference is made to Savelugu-Nanton Municipality as a spatial unit. Even where attempts were made at studying Metropolitan/Municipal/District Assembly (MMDA) poverty reduction interventions, such studies focused on assessing the effect of specific national or NGO poverty reduction programmes/projects on levels of poverty among beneficiaries of such programmes/projects in Districts/Municipals/Metropolis. They are mostly donor funded and done by their own



consultants or research units, thus failed to capture beneficiary perspectives in detail (Osei-Fosu, 2008; Inkoom, 2011a; 2011b; King et al., 2001; Braimah & Adom-Asamoah, 2011). To date, not very much independent studies have been carried out on beneficiaries' perspectives of the impact of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions in the municipality.

Furthermore, Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly (SNMA), in addition to the national poverty reduction initiatives, has attracted a lot of support for the implementation of the Municipal Medium-Term Development Plan (MTDPs) from local and international NGOs towards achieving the development and poverty reduction goals of the SNMA. This notwithstanding, there is comparatively limited research on the impact of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions on the living conditions of beneficiaries.

The quest of this study is to fill this gap in the literature by examining SNMA's infrastructure and non-infrastructure interventions as captured in the first five medium-term development plans of the municipality and implemented between 1997 and 2017. Specifically, the infrastructural interventions examined are categorised into two; economic (i.e. roads, dams, electricity) and social (education, health and water) infrastructure. While the non-infrastructure interventions are social protection intervention including direct cash transfer (i.e. LEAP), subsidies for farmers, and support for skills development and training for unemployed youth.

1.3 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

How has the Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly's (SNMA) poverty reduction interventions (PRI) affected the living conditions of beneficiaries?

1.3.1 Sub-Research Questions

For the purpose of this research, the following sub-research questions were addressed:

1. What is the nature and scope of SNMA poverty reduction interventions?
2. How has SNMA poverty reduction interventions affected beneficiaries?
3. How has beneficiary involvement in planning poverty reduction interventions affected poverty reduction outcomes?
4. How has the challenges confronting SNMA in its efforts at poverty reduction affected implementation of interventions? and
5. How are beneficiaries influenced by their perceptions of SNMA poverty reduction interventions?

1.4 MAIN RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

Based on the problem statement and the research questions raised, this study sets out to assess the effect of MMDA poverty reduction interventions (PRIs) on beneficiaries from their own perspectives with particular reference to Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly (SNMA).

1.4.1 Sub-Research Objectives

The specific objectives of the research are to:

1. Examine the nature and scope of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions;
2. Assess the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention on beneficiaries;
3. Examine the effect of beneficiary involvement in identifying and planning of interventions on the outcomes of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions;



4. Review the main challenges confronting SNMA in its efforts at poverty reduction; and
5. examine the perceptions of the beneficiaries on the poverty reduction interventions of SNMA.

1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is underpinned by two theories; the theory of Self-Reliance and the Freire and the Freirean Dialogical Approach. The emphasis however, is on the theory of self-reliance and complemented with the Freire and the Freirean Dialogical Approach. A self-reliance approach to development provides a new orientation in the development discourse. The focus of this development approach is to meet the basic needs of the poor and to also ensure that the poor fully participate in the development process (Kempe, 1983). The theory emphasises “autonomy of decision-making and full mobilisation of society’s own resources under its own initiative and direction (Kempe, 1983; p455). Anyanwu (1992) and Galtung et al (1980) argues that, self-reliance is “development derived from a country’s own resources, involving its population based on the potentials of its cultural values and traditions” (as cited in Amakye, 2017; p8 and Kim & Isma’il, 2013; p586).

Self-reliance is a “rejection of the principle of exploitative appropriation of others’ resources” (Kempe, 1983; p455-456). It is also a form of “development that relies on “internal” resources as opposed to development that relies heavily on “external” resources” (Kim & Isma’il, 2013; p586). It is important to note that self-reliance development is not a rejection of “external” but a recognition of the fact that “internal” resources remain the major determinant of development with “external” resources only complementing. In view of this



Bloom (1988), Ikoku (1980), and Mansour (1979) submit that self-reliance is a development strategy that depends of indigenous socio-economic engineering, with an underpinning philosophy of “improvement from within”. This is not equated to a return to the past nor is it a dismissal of some advantages of international relations. The emphasis is on involving beneficiaries of development in planned programmes to enable them gain skills that could enable them cope more with their everyday life challenges (Charles & Lotsmart, 2003).

Amakye (2017) observed that the theory of self-reliance is associated with community development and other related concepts like “self-help, mutual-help, indigenous participation and rural development” (p8). Self-reliance also encourage people to use home initiatives and resources at their disposal to improve their living conditions (Kim & Isma’il, 2013; Anyanwu, 1992). Its focus as a development strategy is to “first satisfy the basic needs of the poor”. It also considers the poor themselves to be the best arbiters of their own basic needs and thus should determine the order of priority in which their “basic needs should be satisfied” (Kempe, 1983; p457).

The second area is the Freire and the Freirean Dialogical Approach, in which he postulates that dialogue between leaders and community members, is a critical requirement towards “liberation and education” of the masses to challenge traditionally held approaches through the use of “critical thoughts” (Freire, 1970). Critical thoughts according to Freire “increases consciousness and challenge the assumption that people should fall into some established routines or systems”, instead of helping to change existing systems to form new systems that better address their needs. This emphasis on conscious, collaborative action gives power to



community members motivated to redefine aspects of existing system to meet the current and emerging challenges.

Freire's idea of consciousness is considered critical towards the emergence of participatory approaches for empowering the poor. The principle of consciousness is based on Freire's theory of dialogical communication. Freire and Macedo (1995) stated:

“in order to understand the meaning of dialogical practice, we have to put aside the simplistic understanding of dialogue as a mere technique. Dialogue does not represent a somewhat false path that I attempt to elaborate on and realize in the sense of involving the ingenuity of the other. On the contrary, dialogue characterizes an epistemological relationship. Thus, in this sense, dialogue is a way of knowing and should never be viewed as a mere tactic to involve students in a particular task... I engage in dialogue not necessarily because I like the other person. I engage in dialogue because I recognise the social and not merely the individualistic character of the process of knowing”, (p. 382).

From the foregone, dialogue is an indispensable element of the process of learning and knowing. Consciousness, according to Freire, "is an on-going process by which people move toward critical consciousness, develop critical levels of awareness of their reality and take action to change it; a process that gives voice to people submerged in a culture of silence" (as cited in Nkuba, 2007, p. 67). Consciousness allows people to speak their mind (either as individuals or as a group). It also advocates for the need to treat all persons involved in a dialogue with dignity irrespective of their economic, social, or geographical backgrounds. Freire's theory advocates for seeing others as counterparts and thus reciprocate their gesture of listening to you by listening to them to. Servaes (1996) in support of the Freirean perspective, indicated that the “model stresses reciprocal collaboration throughout all levels



of participation. Listening to what the others say, respecting the counterpart's attitude, and having mutual trust is needed” (p. 75).

The Freirean theory provides a suitable framework which guided the process through which the listening and understanding of the experiences and perceptions of the poor involved in poverty reduction interventions were realized. The researcher holds the view that no one can tell the story of poor better than the poor themselves. The researcher also understands that the participatory model for development is based on the benefactors' assumption about knowledge of context in question. One of the principles of the Freirean dialogical theory emphasizes the need to allow the capability of poor people to “reflect, conceptualise, and critically analyse” their own condition in order to influence decisions for social change (Freire, 1993). The suitability of the theory also stems from the researcher’s advocacy for beneficiaries of PRIs involvement with the planning, implementation and monitoring of PRIs. Beneficiaries of PRIs in SNMA deserve not only to be part of the conversation, but to be explicitly invited to that conversation and involved in the solution.

The self-reliance theory is also influenced by the theories underpinning development especially endogenous development which implies “development from within that is both biophysical and socio-cultural in nature. Although not exclusively, it draws mainly on locally available resources, local knowledge, culture and leadership, and their Cosmo vision, with an openness that allows for integration of outside knowledge and practices” (Haverkort et al., 2003; p30).





Self-reliance theory can also be informed by the theory of stakeholder participation which advocates the involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making and policy-making process. The general argument of the theory of stakeholder is that stakeholder participation may contribute inputs into the decision-making or implementation process (Soneryd, 2004; Rowe & Frewer, 2004; 2005; Arnstein, 1969) and sharing in the cost, benefit or outcome (Blackburn et al., 2002). Self-reliance is anticipated to bring about the involvement of the population to be affected directly or indirectly by development interventions from initiation, execution and evaluation.

Self-reliance is also informed by the extent of democratisation, given that democratisation involves devolution of decision making to the citizen at the grassroots level. Self-reliance is anticipated to bring about democratisation through its tenants of autonomy of decision making and ensuring full participation of the poor in their own development process. This is based on the assumption that effective participation in the development process could result in enhancing the chances of obtaining democratic outcomes and achieving equity (Reed, 2008); empowering excluded groups and enhancing the legitimacy of policies and outcomes (Neef, 2008; Dougill et al., 2006). Thus, Self-reliance and democratisation are interrelated and their outcomes affects the success or failure of self-reliance.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study stems from the need to explore how responsive poverty reduction policies and strategies are to local needs and aspirations. According to Ismi (2004), proceeding from the basic historical fact that there is no “universal development model” out of space and time that is valid everywhere and at all times, particularly so when “top-down”

development strategies have largely failed to yield the desired results. Therefore, development should depend on the history, culture and experience of a people and that it cannot be a carbon copy of another experience (Ismi, 2004).

In addition, majority of the studies on poverty reduction interventions in Ghana have often been limited to national and regional level assessments in particular and when such studies are focussed on the district they are often centred on donor or NGO funded programmes/projects. Therefore, by focussing this study on Savelugu-Nanton Municipality, this research adds a new dimension to the empirical studies conducted on MMDAs in Ghana, especially in the Northern Region of Ghana, with particular emphasis on perspectives of beneficiaries. Thus, this study serves as a significant step towards filling the gap in the literature. An exploration of this subject is important because it can help shape international, national and local poverty reduction policies and interventions to reflect the specific peculiarities of beneficiary communities as well as the poverty reduction debate.



The study is further justified due to the role of poverty reduction interventions in improving access to basic necessities of life (e.g. health care, food, water, and shelter), as well as improving the living conditions experienced by disadvantaged, vulnerable and excluded groups, thereby strengthening their prospects for attaining a decent life (Abdallah, 2009). This remains a challenge for most MMDAs in Ghana and elsewhere in the developing world.

Furthermore, the results of this study are useful to the people within the study area, as the research results are co-owned with researched communities. Given that women, children, the aged, physically challenged and rural farmers among others are the worse affected by the

phenomenon of poverty in most parts of Ghana, especially in the three regions of the north (GOG, 2003), the results of this study will help enhance poverty reduction intervention targeting in Ghana and elsewhere.

Finally, the results of the study would serve as a useful form of feedback to local government administrators and practitioners, policy makers, development practitioners, and researchers in various fields as it provides a better insight into poverty reduction interventions from the worldview of beneficiaries. Such an insight enhances better project packaging and management to achieve desired results.

1.7 RESEARCH SCOPE AND LIMITATION

In the face of resources and time constraints as well as the limitations of the research agenda, there was an imperative need to clearly define key conceptual and theoretical limits, identify the major actors within the research space and spatial coverage of the study. This research was limited to assessing poverty reduction interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana, specifically from the perspective of beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality.

The research covered Savelugu-Nanton Municipality (SNM) in the Northern Region of Ghana. The study did not cover all 216 MMDAs in Ghana, but one selected from the twenty-six (26) MMDAs in the Northern Region of Ghana. However, the status of SNMA changed in November 2017, following the decision by government to split the Municipality into two separate districts (namely; Savelugu Municipal and Nanton District). These districts were inaugurated in March 2018 which meant SNMA ceased to exist. The researcher still maintained the study area as SNMA because the researcher found that it was practically





impossible to disaggregate some kinds of data including financial data. Furthermore, the newly created districts out of SNMA do not have district medium-term development plans which served as the source documents for the selected interventions to examine this study.

The decision to carry out this study in SNMA was due to the fact that, since poverty reduction became a national development priority in Ghana, not much has been done to assess the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions on the living condition of the target beneficiaries. Considering the fact that poverty is not monolithic and differs in space and time, the prescription of interventions to address or reduce poverty should correspondingly reflect the dictates of the problem to be addressed as well as its unique condition in space and time and perceptions. The study focused on two broad interventions namely infrastructure and non-infrastructure interventions, which are traceable to the Municipal Medium-Term Development Plans (MMTDP). The intervention examined were limited to those drawn from the first to the fifth MMTDP implemented by the Municipal Assembly and this spans from 1997 to 2013.

The research, as a district level study, is focussed only on examining the nature and scope of SNMA poverty reduction interventions; assessing the effect of SNMA poverty reduction intervention on beneficiaries; examining the effect of beneficiary involvement on PRI outcomes; assessing the factors affecting the outcomes of SNMA poverty reduction interventions and the perceptions of beneficiaries of interventions. The outcome of this study will serve as a basis for advancing appropriate recommendations to make district level programming for poverty reduction more impactful. It is, however, important to note that broad generalisation about how to address the problem of poverty is limited given the distinct

peculiarities of each spatial unit in terms of physical, social, economic, political and cultural characteristics and conditions affecting the spatial unit in question.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

In the context of this research work, certain terms were used in a manner that can be understood only in relation to the discussion in this work. This does not suggest that new meanings are being developed for such terms, but rather the terms are used here operationally. A few of these terms are briefly presented here.

Development: the study adopts Todaro and Smith (2006) definition in which the argued that “development must therefore be conceived as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structure, popular attitude and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty” (p17).

Endogenous development: Involves “development based mainly, but not exclusively, on locally available resources, local knowledge, wisdom, culture and leadership... ED is open to integrating traditional with outside knowledge and practices. It has mechanisms for local learning and experimenting, building on and from local to regional economies and the retention of benefits in the local area” (Haverkort et al., 2012; p15).

Self-reliance: Involves a “rejection of the principle of exploitative appropriation of others’ resources” (Kempe, 1983; p455-456). It is also a form of “development that relies on “internal” resources as opposed to development that relies heavily on “external” resources”



(Kim & Isma'il, 2013; p586). It is important to note that self-reliance development is not a rejection of “external” but a recognition of the fact that “internal” resources remain the major determinant of development with “external” resources only complementing.

Participation: Involves the involvement and/or full participation of target development stakeholders in the development decision-making process. Proponents of the participatory approach hold the view that every person in the target community is considered a partner or a stakeholder in the entire project planning circle (i.e. decision-making, design of intervention, implementation, and evaluation process) of development and that everyone is of equal importance under the participatory development approach (Cees, 2000).

Poverty: this involves a state of deficiency of something that is either tangible or intangible or both and could result in a feeling of inferiority or low self-esteem relative to other members of society. Poverty manifests in various forms, with a consequent negative impact on sufferers of poverty. It promotes lethargy or apathy and prevents realisation of the innate potential of a people afflicted by poverty. Thus, poverty transcends lack of income or inadequate access to material well-being to include, but not limited to, “denial of choice and opportunities which form the basis to human development (i.e. leading a long, healthy and creative life as well as enjoying a decent living standard in freedom, dignity, self-esteem and with a sustainable livelihood). It manifests itself in terms of lack of assets, material deprivation, vulnerability, isolation, lack of decision-making powers, limited freedom of choice and opportunity (in matters of production, consumption, employment and socio-political representation)” (UNDP, 1990; as cited in Kokor, 2001; p116).



Poverty Reduction: this involves all formal actions or interventions directed towards lowering the level or prevalence of poverty in a country, region, district or community. Specifically, poverty reduction involves a collective responsibility by all key stakeholders (i.e. state actors, NGOs, CSOs, citizen, project beneficiaries, the private sector, etc.) to systematically eliminate all forms of deprivation through collaborating with all stakeholders: to reduce the number of people who are poor as well as lower the level of poverty among the poor (also referred to as poverty alleviation); to enable the poor move out of poverty; and to build institutions and societies that ensures that people do not become poor or slip further into poverty.

Poverty Reduction Interventions: this involves all specific deliberate interventions to address poverty in the form of national and local policies, plans, programmes and projects (PPPPs) directed at improving the general livelihoods of the poor thereby moving them out of a state of poverty to a state of well-being within the medium to long term.



National Level: refers to a group of state institutions with centralised authority with the mandate to originate and implement policies and also determine the appropriate resource allocation mechanisms as well as the formulation of policies related to structural issues of an economy intended to stimulate free market mechanisms (e.g. through privatisation and trade measures).

1.9 ORGANISATION OF THESIS

The thesis is structured into six chapters. Chapter one examines the problem and its context. Specifically, the chapter defines the research problem, objectives and questions. It also

examined the theoretical framework adopted for the study, ethical considerations during the research, the study area, justification and limitations of the study.

Chapter two is organised into two parts, with the first part focusing on the concept of poverty and a review of relevant theoretical literature on strategies of poverty reduction. The second part, on the other hand, traced the various poverty reduction strategies implemented in Ghana since the early 1980s. It furthermore examined the DA system of Ghana in the context of its poverty reduction role and concluded with an empirical review of literature and emerging issues from the review of literature.

Chapter three presents the logical sequence of events from the start of the study to the end of the study. Specifically, it discussed the research strategy employed to investigate the defined research problem and examined the analytical tools employed in the course of the study.

The results of the study are presented in chapter four. The chapter begins with an examination of the demographic characteristics of the study population as a basis for establishing a basic understanding of the studied population. The chapter also looked at the research findings under four themes: the nature and scope of poverty reduction intervention; the effect of poverty reduction intervention; the effect of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of poverty reduction interventions; and the factors affecting poverty reduction intervention outcomes.



Chapter five focuses on the philosophical and theoretical discussion of the research findings. Specifically, the findings from the study are related to finding obtained from the literature reviewed in chapter two. The chapter like chapter four is organised to reflect the five study objectives.

Chapter six represents the concluding chapter of the study. It presents a summary of the entire research process, the major finding of the study, the conclusions reached and recommendations made. The chapter also recommends areas for further research and offers a reflection of the study's contribution to knowledge.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study assesses poverty reduction interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana with particular focus on the perspectives of beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality. Poverty reduction is a vast area that covers many concepts. This review of relevant literature is appropriate to understanding the specificities of poverty reduction interventions and how District Assemblies as part of its mandate work towards the reduction of poverty and covers the following areas: the evolution and the concepts of development; the concept of poverty and poverty reduction; the poverty profile of Ghana, strategies of poverty reduction strategies and the District Assembly and poverty reduction. In order to contextualise the study, a conceptualise framework of the study is presented to begin the chapter.



2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The conceptual framework of the study assumes that poverty reduction interventions of District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies are classified into two broad categories namely infrastructure and non-infrastructure interventions.

The infrastructure interventions constitute the basic facilities, services and installations needed for the functioning of a community or a society. Infrastructure is also described as systems and networks which enables the delivery of public services which are either physical or non-physical in nature such as; water, electricity, transport, education services, health



care, and economic service. Infrastructure interventions are usually untargeted interventions, as a result, anyone living within the intervention area becomes an automatic target beneficiary of such an intervention. The delivery of economic infrastructural facilities is expected to directly result in increased productive activities with a consequent effect of increasing employment opportunities. Figure 2.1 shows that the infrastructural intervention is made up of economic and social infrastructural interventions. The economic infrastructure also known as physical infrastructure provides equipment such as transportation networks, production and delivery systems and drainage and irrigation systems which are necessary for economic activities and directly support them. Economic infrastructural facilities usually have direct economic returns (Gianpiero, 2009). Social infrastructure includes all infrastructural facilities which usually do not have direct economic returns, and yet promotes economic development and poverty reduction (Gianpiero, 2009). The delivery of social infrastructure enhances access to basic social services.

On the other hand, the non-infrastructure interventions are targeted interventions to identifiable individuals or groups. This intervention is aimed at directly impacting the livelihood activities of targeted beneficiaries through improving livelihood activities of identifiable individuals or groups of individuals in a community. Figure 2.1 indicated that, the expected result of delivering non-infrastructure interventions is to improve social inclusion and enhance individual livelihood activities.

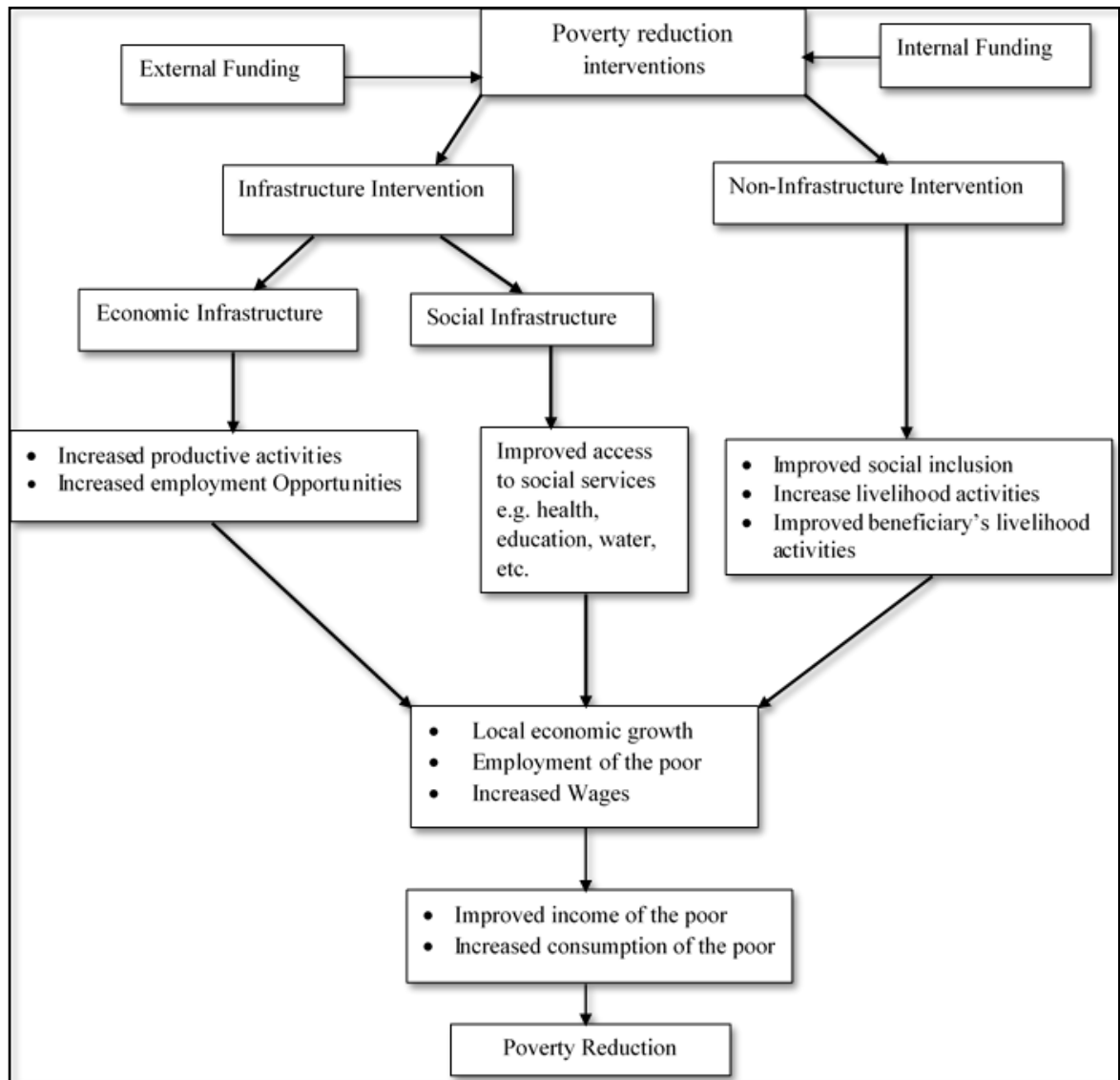
The framework anticipates that, if all the interventions are developed within a participatory process and reflect the felt needs of target beneficiaries (infrastructural and non-infrastructure) of interventions, it is expected that the interventions will result in local

economic growth, increased employment of the poor and increased opportunity to earn wages by the poor. This eventually results in improved income and consumption of the poor of both consumables and non-consumables goods consequently resulting in poverty reduction.

However, this whole chain of events as discussed based on the primary theory (self-reliant) underpinning this study will only occur if the process of “development is derived from a country’s own resources, involving its population based on the potentials of its cultural values and traditions” (as cited in Amakye, 2017; p8 and Kim & Isma’il, 2013; p586) and it should be a form of “development that relies on “internal” resources as opposed to development that relies heavily on “external” resources” (Kim & Isma’il, 2013; p586). It is important to note that self-reliance development is not a rejection of “external” but a recognition of the fact that “internal” resources remain the major determinant of development with “external” resources only complementing.



Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Authors Construct, 2019

2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Development was perceived purely as an economic phenomenon in the 1950s and early 1960s. During that period development was measured by two common economic indicators; per capita income and the average annual rate of growth of the national income. The experience of the period (i.e. 1950s and 1960s), after many developing nations had achieved their economic growth targets but the levels of living of the masses of people remained poor,





signalled that something was very wrong with the economic view of development (Todaro, 1977; Todaaro & Smith, 2006). In view of which there was a clamour by development economist and policy makers for a more direct attack on absolute poverty, inequitable distribution of income and high levels of unemployment.

In the 1970s development as a concept was redefined in terms of “the reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality, and unemployment within the economic context of growing economy” (Todaaro & Smith, 2006; p16). In an attempt to establish the meaning of development Seers (1969) posed the following: “the question to ask about a country’s development are therefore: What has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result development even if per capita income doubled’ (p3).

Seers’ view of development according to Todaro and Smith (2006; p16) was “neither idle speculation nor the description of a hypothetical situation”. A number of developing countries enjoyed relatively high levels of per capita income growth during the 1950s and 1960s, but they failed to address the three central problems of development as their levels of poverty, inequality and unemployment worsened. By the economic conception of development, these countries were developing but based on the new conception of developing such countries are not developing.



Development or a chronic state of underdevelopment is not simply a question of economic or even one of quantitative measurement of variables like income, employment and inequality. Underdevelopment is a reality for over three billion people in the world. This is eloquently captured in the words of Goulet (1971) that:

“Underdevelopment is shocking: the squalor, disease, unnecessary deaths, and hopelessness of it all! No man understands if underdevelopment remains for him a mere statistic reflecting low income, poor housing, premature mortality or underemployment. The most empathetic observer can speak objectively about underdevelopment only after undergoing, personally or vicariously, the “shock of underdevelopment.” This unique culture shock comes to one as he is initiated to the emotions which prevail in the “culture of poverty.” The reverse shock is felt by those living in destitution when a new self-understanding reveals to them that their life is neither human nor inevitable... The prevalent emotion of underdevelopment is a sense of personal and societal impotence in the face of disease and death, of confusion and ignorance as one gropes to understand change, of servility towards men whose decisions govern the course of events, of hopelessness before hunger and natural catastrophe. Chronic poverty is a cruel kind of hell, and one cannot understand how cruel that hell is merely by gazing upon poverty as an object” (p23).

The problems associated with the economic concept of development (such as; the breakdown of traditional, social and political institutions which has resulted in increases in crime, deprivation, dependency, health problems and increasing inequalities between individual, groups and regions) led to the formulation of “new” of “current” concept of development which is concerned with the welfare of humankind. This current concept conceives development as a “state of human well-being rather than as a state of national economy. This concern was first expressed as a statement known as “the Cocoyoc Declaration” in 1974

which was adopted by the United Nation Environmental Programme and the United Nations Council on Trade and Development in Cocoyoc, Mexico in 1974. The declaration states:

“Our first concern is to redefine the whole purpose of development. This should not be to develop things but to develop man. Human beings have basic needs: food, shelter, clothing, health, education. Any process of growth that does not lead to their fulfilment or even worse, disrupts them is a travesty of the idea of development. We are still in a stage where the most important concern of development is the level of satisfaction of basic needs for the poorest section in the society which can be as high as 40% of the population.” (Cocoyoc Declaration, 1974; p5).

It was further argued that “development should not be limited to the satisfaction of basic needs. There are other needs, other goals and other values. Development include freedom of expression and impression, the right to give and to receive ideas and stimulus. There is a deep social need to participate in shaping the basis of one’s own existence, and to make some contribution to the fashioning of the world’s future” (Cocoyoc Declration, 1974; p5).



In keeping with the changing understanding of development, the World Bank (1991) shifted its stands of economic growth as a goal of development in the 1980s with the publication of the 1991 World Development Report where it took a broader perspective of development by asserting that:

“the challenge of development is to improve the quality of life. Especially in the world’s poor countries, a better quality of life generally calls for higher income; but it involves much more. It encompasses as ends in themselves better education, higher standard of health and nutrition, less poverty, a cleaner environment, more equality of opportunity, greater individual freedom, and a richer cultural life” (p4).



After examining various perspectives on what development should mean Todaro and Smith (2006) asserts that: “development must therefore be conceived as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structure, popular attitude and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty” (p17). They argued further that development in any society should seek to achieve the key objectives. The first is “to increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection”; the second is “to raise levels of living” through higher incomes, provision of jobs, provision of good education and greater attention to cultural and human values; and thirdly and finally, “to expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations” (p22).

2.4 THE DEVELOPMENT DILEMMA IN AFRICA

Binns and Nel (1999) observed that development had generally failed to deliver the kind of change it promises particularly in Africa. They specifically asserted that:

“The general failure of the grand development narratives of the post-World War II era, the theoretical vacuum left as a result of the collapse of state socialism in the 1980s, and the dubious results of structural adjustment, have together created an impasse in development thinking in the 1990s. Although there appears to be no single grand narrative which can realistically offer an all-embracing alternative in the same sense that some of the earlier theories did, an opportunity for more situationally relevant and people-centred development is apparent and seems highly appropriate. Local development initiatives may be seen as a partial response, which is steadily gaining in prominence, possibly because of the support which free-market ideology accords to the notion of independent economic action, and the basic reality that poverty, particularly in the South, encourages individuals and communities to take charge of their own destiny” (p389-390).



The vain Western notion of a “global village” failed to recognise the inability of majority of the world’s population to effectively participate in such post-modern concepts, as eloquently captured by Esteva and Prakash (1997; p285) who asserted that; “far from being “globalised”, the real lives of most people on Earth are clearly marginalised from any “global” way of life. The social majorities of the world will never, now or in the future, have access to these so-called global phenomena”. Rather, notions such as “Endogenous development” and “self-reliance” emerged among the few realistic development alternatives available to the “poorest of the poor”, who seem to have been abandoned by the western-dominated notion of global economy (Binns & Nel, 1999).

The uncertain economic realities in Africa has compelled many communities to seek home grown solution to the circumstances they are confronted with. The United Nations reports that, “...for approximately one-sixth of mankind, the march of human progress has become a retreat. In many nations, development is being thrown into reverse. And after decades of steady economic advance, large areas of the world are being thrown back into poverty” (Gooneratne & Mbilinyi, 1992; p22). The collapse of social and infrastructure services delivery in most parts of Africa, tied with hyperinflation, massive debt burdens and the negative effects of global trade and structural adjustment policy, work against any intervention by national governments. Apart from some limited interventions received from donor agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), many communities have had to look internally at their own resources and skills, in order to fashion out a viable future for communities (Binns & Nel, 1999).



There has been a general consensus that Western oriented development strategies implemented in Africa have failed to achieve the intended goals, prominent among these is the statement that; “the failure of successive generations of imported, Western development strategies and projects to deliver meaningful reductions in poverty and achieve basic needs in Africa, has provoked a deep questioning of Western concepts and methodologies of development” (Binns & Nel, 1999; p391). In corroborating the above Sachs (1997; p290) asserts that, “After forty years of development, the state of affairs is dismal. The gap between frontrunners and stragglers has not been bridged; on the contrary, it has widened to the extent that it has become unimaginable that it could ever be closed”. The result has been to focus attention on strategies which depend on local knowledge, skills and resources. Such locally oriented strategies are responsive to culturally unique aspirations and objectives of the people, rather than “striving to impose an inflexible, alien set of ideologies and goals” (Gooneratne & Mbilinyi, 1992; Burkey, 1993).

This change in development focus could be attributed to the perceived “impasse in development theory” (Schuurman, 1993), which is influenced by factors like; widening gap between rich and poor, the adoption of more short-term policy orientation by many developing countries, a series of environmental and economic catastrophes and the fall of socialism. More so, it has been noted that global theories, and a fixation with the world instead of national markets, have failed to reduce poverty, inequality and unemployment, whilst “post-modern” arguments have at the same time sought to challenge the “great narratives” of the past (Schuurman, 1993; Crush, 1995).



The noticeable changes observed in local and community-based development over the last three decades are slowly being acknowledged and integrated into theoretical constructs. The early and somewhat limited, principles of “development from below” and “development from within” are being pulled together with “empirical evidence” into a more sustained framework by the recent emerging “anti-development” paradigm (Stock, 1995). It appears the “anti-development” school emerged as a result of the current development crisis and from works of grassroots groups. Escobar (1995; p226) posits that there is potential “for more radical transformations of the modern capitalist order and the search for alternate ways of organising societies and economies, of satisfying needs, of healing and living”.

It is therefore proposed here that, the concrete expression of the theoretical standpoints detailed earlier is to be found in “self-reliance” and “Endogenous Development” approaches to development. What unites the both concepts are the importance of local control and empowerment, coupled with a “reliance on local initiative and resourcefulness of local citizenry to improve their own conditions” (Binns & Nel, 1999; p392).

2.5 ENDOGENOUS DEVELOPMENT

In order to anchor the self-reliance theory and Freire and the Freirean Dialogical Approach adopted as the underpinning theories for this study, there is a need to redefine development as a “locally grounded and managed process” (Apgar, 2010; p26). The derive towards locally centred development has led to some development practitioners and theorists advocating for an “endogenous development” approach. The endogenous development (ED) approach according to its proponents is “already present and active in all communities” and that it has

been so for centuries (Centre for Indigenous Knowledge and Organisational Development, 2010).

Endogenous development (ED) has been explained as; “development based mainly, but not exclusively, on locally available resources, local knowledge, wisdom, culture and leadership... ED is open to integrating traditional with outside knowledge and practices. It has mechanisms for local learning and experimenting, building on and from local to regional economies and the retention of benefits in the local area” (Haverkort et al., 2012; p15). According to the UNDP (2011) ED involves localised development initiated from within communities by organising and mobilising local resources both material and nonmaterial for the benefits of the locality. It is therefore important to note that ED is “based on local peoples’ own criteria of development and takes into account the material, social and spiritual well-being of peoples” (Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p9). Which implies that local cultures are held as important points to start from and postulates that those cultures as critical for social progress and cross-cultural exchanges to occur (Hountondji, 2002). DE therefore “draws from and harnesses local resources to mitigate development. It builds on and excites local actions for change to occur from within the existing system” (Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p9). By its very definition, ED aims at attaining “sustainable, functional and people-centred development”.

High and Nemes (2007) and Ray (1999a) have observed that the concept of ED has often been employed in the development of intervention project in rural communities. Ray (1999b) posits that ED could be examined from three main perspectives that is; it is “territorially” centred; it focuses on the use of local resources; and it thrives of local participation. This





according to some scholars including Jenkins (2000) has been a basis for justifying “territoriality” and local culture within a “modern” setting. Remmers, (1996) and Shucksmith (2000) have indicated that the LEADER programme has employed the ED approach as a means of developing deprived rural communities in Europe, with remarkable reported outcomes include improved social capital formation and improved inclusion of marginalised sectors. One can also find a similar application of ED in the work of the COMPAS an international network for the support of ED (Haverkort et al., 2003).

Apgar (2010) reports that COMPAS’ work revealed that “endogenous development emerges out of local knowledge systems, with cultural and cosmological frameworks as central to the process” (p27). Haverkort et al., (2012) posits that “the conventional approach to supporting development, consisting of whole-sale transfer of technologies, knowledge and values from the developed world to the developing world, needs to be revised. Instead, traditional knowledge and values that exist within the communities, with their technical, social and spiritual dimensions, need to be accepted as the starting point for development, and from within their own culture. When developments start from and is grounded in the local it can then open up for meaningful external collaborations that can expand benefits and sustain growth” (p15).

Smith (1987) and Shiva (1993) strongly advocated for the adoption and building on the local, which they argue is meaningful especially to the marginalised group of people whose livelihoods and wellbeing are dependent on the local. The local according to them is shaped by the “values, beliefs and systems that form and shape lived realities” (p15). It is only when the everyday realities are understood (from individually or collectively perspective), and



become pivotal to all engagements with external agencies, then, change can be mutually beneficial to all parties involved. Smith and Shiva have both challenged the notion of globalising development, since according to them it universalises some specific experiences into extinction. They therefore advocated for integration of “the local and the global or extra-local” in way that will not result in colonisation of the local. It has been noted from the COMPAS experience that “development is better facilitated and sustained when it is based on local traditions and culturally informed meanings and efforts” (Haverkort et al., 2012; p15). Haverkort et al., 2012 as noted that:

“Supporting endogenous development does not imply a narrowly defined development approach. It neither romanticizes nor rejects indigenous traditions and values. It seeks to address local needs and contradictions. It identifies local potentials to enhance local (community and national) economies and to link them to international systems for the optimization of results and benefits. It supports co-existence and co-evolution of a diversity of cultures. It is rooted in inter-cultural learning and research. Exchange and dialogues will be helpful in finding the most desired development path in specific contexts and for building on accumulated experiences toward beneficial ends” (p16).

Whereas indigenous knowledge, structures and systems are considered critical to the ED approach, its strength depends on the degree to which it drives local development. It is important to note that ED is not about returning to “a virgin and static past or even romanticizing that past” but it is concern with “learning or working with local and cultural traditions” to promote development. It is also concerned with achieving social transformation which is informed by “local realities rather than external realities”. Above all, it also recognises that “local realities are not immune from external realities but are susceptible, responsive, to external agents” (Haverkort et al., 2012; p15).



In principle, ED is “inward looking but not in a negative way. It does not close off external influences such as modern science and technology. Rather, it works to minimise and even eliminate its tendencies of disorienting, undermining, compromising, and even annihilating indigenous or traditional systems”. ED permits relying on external sources on condition that their benefits are critical to the enforcement of local initiatives or even augmenting their enforcement. It is imperative to note that ED at all times seeks “optimal ways for combining local resources with external inputs without unduly sacrificing or even attempting to replace the local”. It emphasises the centrality of local people initiating, negotiating and determining. ED recognises “ownership, relevance, diversity and identity” as critical elements to be address if development is to reflect the peculiarities of the local people (Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p9).

Adherents of, ED in corroborating with the above indicated that ED is “built on local initiatives, institutions, resources, strategies and values” (Millar, et al, 2012; p5; Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p10). This by extension implies that, the development “needs, priorities and criteria” for development differ from one community to the other and thus may not reflect those of the development worker all the time. Central pillars of ED as articulated by Millar et al (2008) and Boonzaaier and Apusigah (2008) are: “privileging local control of the development process; taking cultural values seriously; finding a balance between traditional and external resources; and knowledge to manage change (social progress) in ways that are cultural relevant and appropriate” (p10).

ED has a strong participatory undertone. ED seeks to “empower local communities to take control over their own development processes based on their local resources and livelihood



strategies” (Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p10). This implies that enhancing ED involves taking deliberate steps to build on local resource while “complementing them with appropriate external resources, maximising local control, encouraging the dynamics of local knowledge systems, retention of benefits within the local area and ensuring equity in the sharing and use of resources” (Millar, 2005; p94). This process also implies “networking, lobbying, and policy advocacy leading to policy reforms” (Haverkort & Heimstra, 1999; p12). Millar (2005) concludes that ED is a self-oriented development process where the resultant benefits of remains largely within the locality in question.

2.6 SELF-RELIANCE AS A DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

Self-reliance as a concept originated from the works of an American transcendentalist and philosopher, Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882) in 1841. In his work he emphasised “trust in one’s present thoughts, skills, originality, belief in own capabilities and genius and living from within” (as cited in Ite, 2016; p2). Theoretically, self-reliance takes a slightly different path from conversional view of development by focusing on “power of independence, creativity, originality and belief in self strength and resilience” (Ite, 2016; p2). also, self-reliance as a development alternative “builds on an entirely different understanding of development as primarily directed to the satisfaction of the basic human needs and thus to the development of human beings and not of in animate objects” (Volker, 1979; p79). In the 1940s self-reliance as a development concept was traced to Moa-tung in a speech he delivered in August 1945 as succinctly captured in Roland Berger’s account of a Chinese origin of the concept:

“August 1945 in a speech in which Moa-tung used the phrase “tsu li keng sheng” which literal translates as “regeneration through our own efforts”. This more accurately conveys the true meaning of the policy than the term “self-

reliance". "Regeneration through our own efforts" also makes it clear that self-reliance is radically different from "self-sufficiency" or "autarchy". It is in fact the mass line applied on the economic front and stems directly from Mao-tung's consistent emphasis that "the people and the people alone, are the motive force in the making of world history" and that "the masses have boundless creative power" (as cited in Galtung, n.d; p1).

The essence of self-reliance is recognised by United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR 2005; p1&7) when they defined self-reliance as "the social and economic ability of an individual, household or community to meet basic needs (including protection, food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education) in a sustainable manner" (UNHCR, 2005; p.15). The UNHCR further suggested that self-reliance should be viewed in the context of "strengthening livelihoods" and "reducing vulnerability"; "reducing reliance on external assistance"; and "providing clear practical steps to achieve goals leading to self-reliance" (Martin & Dudley, 2016; p198). These are articulated in three distinct steps proposed by the UNHCR; "identifying needs and creating a programme to meet them, identifying those who possess transferable skills and are capable and assisting others towards similar levels of capacity, and thirdly, targeting those whose capacity has already developed to the point where they might provide long-term benefits to the community. At this stage, a clearly worked out exit-strategy will encourage the growth of self-reliant measures" (UNHCR, 2011; p.16).

The upsurge of economic downturn racing through sub-Saharan African countries have had an overwhelming impact on the African population, resulting in unprecedented socio-economic dislocation (Kim & Isma'il, 2013). The failure of the state to respond decisively has worsened the state of affairs coupled with the increasing dependence on donor aid by





most Sub-Saharan African countries. This has brought to light the urgent need to shift from conventional means to successfully address the basic needs of the African populations. In view of which Njoh (2002) suggested that Community involvement is viable way to complement state efforts towards meeting the needs of their populace. Similarly, Gooneratne and Mbilinyi (1992) affirmed that self-reliance is a viable alternative to “dependent development” and “donor-led structural adjustment” in developing countries. They viewed, the case self-reliance as not just a matter of necessity but as a matter of survival as Galtung and Preiswerk (1980) opined that indigenous development initiatives are picking up in grasslands. Acho-chi (1998) in corroboration observed that the inhabitants of the Grass fields are creatively adopting new knowledge and technologies to address their local realities.

Kim and Isma’il (2013) pointed out that self-reliance “is defined by independence; and that it is the ability to think and act without the help or influence of others, the ability to decide what you should be or do” (p.586). Self-reliance stresses on the critical need to improve a people’s living conditions by adopting home based initiatives and resources at their disposal.

Alternatively, it is “development that relies on internal resources as opposed to development that relies heavily on external resources” (p586). It is worthy to note that Self-reliant development is not “autarky” as it allows for “external” support and heavily sustained by “internal” resources. The implication of this is that, in as much as the pursuance of policies of self-reliance and a strive to achieve “autonomy” are encouraged, they may allow for some external support (Capfens, 1999; Kim & Isma’il, 2013).

Anyanwu (1992) discovered that community development in most African countries has depended largely on “voluntary cooperative efforts”. This he observed was in accordance



with existing traditional trait which are in line with the virtue of self-reliance. Self-reliance advocates for transfer of capacity and skill through involvement of people in planned programmes as a basis of enabling them to become self-reliant in coping with their daily challenges of meeting their basic and non-basic needs (Charles & Lotsmart, 2003). It is in keeping with this that Galtung et al. (1980) concluded that self-reliance is “development derived from a country’s own resources, involving its populations based on the potentials of its cultural values and traditions”. Preiswerk (1980) in furtherance of the above argument added that communities and individual “define their own development according to their own needs, values and aspirations”. Kim and Isma’il (2013) observed that local-level development provides an important avenue to effectively utilize local resources such as land, water and labour and represents an important approach of community and individual participation in determine the kind of development they desire.

Most development scholars including Kim and Isma’il (2013) agree that self-reliance is a critical factor in community development which requires that community and individuals in the community apply their knowledge and skills towards utilising their locally endowed resources. This perfectly agrees with Anyanwu’s opinion that, developing relevant skills and attitudes of a people to be able to take advantage of their immediate surroundings can enable them fulfil their basic and non-basic needs. This will result in the people growing self-reliant, thereby minimizing their dependence on external agencies (Anyanwu, 1992).

Taylor and Mackenzie (1992) in examining the question of self-reliance, built on Stoshr (1981) thesis of “development from below”, advocating for “development from within” in the case of Africa. In their view such a development should seek to augment local people’s



participation and control over their own development endeavours in a manner which embraces all members of a community (Binns & Nel,1999). Other development scholars like Volke (1979), Galtung (no date), Kim and Isma'il (2013), Anyanwu (1992) and Ojameruaye (2004) called for promotion of self-reliance as an alternative development strategy to the existing models of development. However, Ojameruaye (2004) cautioned that promotion of policies of self-reliance coupled with the strive to ensure autonomy in rural economies while allowing for substantial external support could pose a serious challenge towards independence of the economic unit.

Ojameruaye (2004) suggested that self-reliance as a development option ought to be viewed as a continuum which is bounded on the left-hand side by “parasitism” and on the right-hand side by “autarky” but exclude both extreme boundaries (i.e. “parasitism” and “autarky”) but oscillates between them. This implies that there are different degrees or levels of self-reliance depending on where between the two extremes ends it lies. Thus “the farther an economic-unities to the right hand-side of the continuum, the more self-reliant it is” (Ojameruaye, 2004; p586).

Self-reliance is a development strategy which focuses on sustaining as well as increasing cooperative relationship within, between and among Third World nations and to also reduce their individual and collective dependency on developed nations (Kempe, 1983). A self-reliance strategy aims at maximise the provision of basic needs of its people through a selective coordination of economic activities (Kempe, 1982). Also, there is the concept of “collective self-reliance which is a necessary extension of national self-reliance for almost all Third World nations, both in terms of creating interdependent relationships with similar

economies and of improving the terms of economic exchange with developed nations” (Kempe, 1983; p456).

The aim of the proponents of self-reliance as a development approach wanted a new international economic order which will seek to ensure majority of the poor benefit from development rather than the elite, of Third World countries. James (1979) indicated that “bread and justice are most fully realised in societies committed to self-reliance”. Therefore, self-reliance development rejects a development strategy which concentrates national resources on the rich in anticipation that, something might be trickling down. Rather self-reliant development focuses directly on the poor and their basic needs (Kempe, 1980).

It is an approach of development that focuses on meeting the basic needs of the poor in a given country through adopting strategies that utilizes the country’s own human and natural resources and also guided by its values and traditions, coupled with adopting strategies to maximise the collective efforts of people within each country and among Third World countries (Kempe, 1980; Volker, 1979; Galtung, no date).

The operational framework of self-reliance development approach is built around four key elements: the first relates to basic human needs; the second relates to maximisation of the use of local resources and local values; the third relates to participation of the poor in the development process; and the final relates to interdependence or collective self-reliance among that World countries (Uma, 1975; Jacques, 1983; Kempe, 1983).





The basic human needs element as mentioned earlier, involves addressing the problem of poverty directly and not through a trickle-down process. In essence it implies priority has been given to the provision of “food, shelter, housing, education, health care, and jobs, at the least”. The element that seeks to maximise the use of local resources and values; focuses on internal resources as well as local value systems to engender development. It also advocates reliance on an educational system which is appropriate to “the local needs, resources and values of the people”. Also critical in this element is the focus on both individual and national development. This element further seeks to build a link between the first element (i.e. basic human needs) and the second element (i.e. maximise the use of local resources and values) by using education as a conduit for addressing the basic needs of the poor through equipping the poor with relevant knowledge and skills and the attitudinal change required to be productive in a manner that benefits them both as individuals and as a society. It is in view of the dynamism of this element that it has been referred to as a creative self-reliance; since it does not seek to cut-off links completely with the world but rather it seeks to build-confidence as nations, which are capable of pursuing development relying on their own cultural values, and on its terms and thinking and on its own value system without being apologetic or defensive (Kempe, 1980).

Participation of the poor masses constitute the third element in the framework. This element emphasises the involvement of the poor in the development process. Specifically, it advocates that the poor should be involved in the planning and implementation of programmes. it is the view of Uma (1975) that the process of development will be accelerated in the poor masses participate in all stages of the development process. The fourth element in the framework examines interdependence or collective self-reliance, which involves



encouraging or promoting technical cooperation among Third World countries for both their collective and individual development. Jacques (1983) opined that “collective self-reliance and growing cooperation among developing nations will further strengthen their role in the world economy”. The aim of such a cooperation is to either generate or adopt knowledge required for a socially relevant endogenous self-sustaining development process in order to avoid the blind or forced transfer of inadequate technology (Kempe, 1983). He indicated that the collective self-reliance strategy to development involves breaking away from components of the economic system that hinder the possibility of a balanced relationship being established and focus on strengthening the existing links among Third World countries with whom the possibility of establishing a balanced relationship is highly attainable.

The focus of the self-reliance development approach is that all forms of economic activities should seek to satisfy the basic needs of the poor masses. It is also based on the premise that the Third World Countries and the poor masses are the best judges of what constitute their basic needs and in which order of priority the basic needs should be satisfied. The strategy also ensures that, the collective interest of developing countries is balanced out against each other, thereby making it profitable for each country to accept the principles of collective self-reliance (Uma, 1975; Jacques, 1983; Kempe, 1983).

2.7 PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT

Over the past 50 years or more well-endowed nations of the West have supported poor nations in Africa with over a trillion dollars (Moyo, 2009). This notwithstanding, there is still continued advocacy by some development experts including Sachs (2005) for more international development support for developing countries, with the claim that it was the



moral responsibility of the more-endowed nations to support less-endowed nations to reduce levels of extreme poverty. However, other development experts like; Moyo (2009), Nelson and Write (1995) and Long (2001) held a contrary view.

The increasing scepticism towards development support have resulted in development practitioners and institutions as well as governmental and Non-governmental organisation (NGOs) making efforts to understand why conversional development approaches have failed to generate the expected development outcome and benefits to target communities of development interventions (Nelson & Wright, 1995; p3; Michener, 1998). Feeney (1998) in a study discovered that a number of communities were failing, while their inhabitants struggled for survival as a result of poorly targeted government support and “ill conceived, internationally financed infrastructure projects” being implemented in such communities (p10). He further observed that it was as a result of the failure to integrate ideas and knowledge of beneficiaries of development interventions coupled with the limited opportunities opened for beneficiaries to participate in the development process as a result of the adoption of a “top-down” decision-making mechanism was responsible for failures in most beneficiary communities (Kotze & Kellerman, 1997; Nikkhan & Redzuan, 2010; Francis, 2002; Chambers, 1983, 1997; Panda, 2007).

Participation became a major feature in the development discourse in the 1960s. It was considered as a means for improving the living conditions of rural population (Chambers, 1983; 1997, Francis, 2002). Francis (2002) posits that participation as a concept is derived from two main sources. The first, he traced to a Latin American scholar, who observed that poverty could be eliminated in a community; if the community members were involved in

designing the strategies required to eliminate it. The second source he traced to an American organisational management scholar, who also argued that organisations could be more effective and profitable; if workers of the organisation are involved in the day-to-day decision-making processes at all levels of management.

Kotze and Kellerman (1997), Francis (2002), Chambers (1983; 1997) and other development scholars have observed that participation became a very important development tool in the 1960s and has since been employed as a means of improving living conditions of people particularly people living in rural and deprived communities. This tool (i.e. participation) ensured that all persons to be affected directly or indirectly by any development activity were allowed to participate in the design and implementation of the development activity. Bergdall, (1993) and Chambers (1997) revealed that participation as a development concepts gained increased usage and currency among development activist following a rural appraisal workshop organised by the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) of the University of Sussex where it was termed rapid rural appraisal (RRA). Since then, institutions and countries which worked towards improving living conditions of people living in rural communities held onto the basic principles of RRA as a means to achieving those aims. It became a bench mark for determining better ways for facilitators to gain better insights about the living conditions of rural people in other to integrate such insights into the planned interventions (Chambers, 1997). As McGee (2002) observed that RRA had some limitations, as the entire process was virtually hijacked by a few influential individuals, thus raising serious concerns about the balance of involvement of all categories of stakeholders in the development decision making process. This was identified as one of the major setbacks of the RRA, in view of which a search for better participatory approaches continued.





The concerns raised about RRA resulted in a shift to participatory rural appraisal (PRA) as a new paradigm of development which evolved from RRA. The aim of the PRA as a new development tool was to improve upon the RRA by addressing some of the setbacks associated with RRA (Chambers, 1994; Kabutha & Ford, 1988; Chambers, 1997). The overarching aim of PRA is “to enable poor people to define the sort of development they aspired to, and become empowered through the very methods and processes of PRA” (McGee, 2002; p100). PRA was also designed to address the phenomenon of few influential people hijacking the entire process of decision-making as pertained to the RRA. This was to ensure that local people had the opportunity to actively participate in their own development process. However, McGee further noted that, an analysis of development policies has revealed that local knowledge is found to be valuable and helpful in the process of formulating and modifying development policies and decisions to reflect the peculiar circumstances of the locality in question, but on the flip side, the PRA is faced with a lot of setbacks and resistance due to its capability of empowering marginalised or excluded social groups while at the same time disempowering those who are in control of normal decision making processes.

Over the last four decades PRA has significantly increased rural people’s involvement in development decision-making. It has made good use of community knowledge thereby enhancing community engagement processes which has resulted in improved development decision-making and practice (Blackburn & Holland, 1998). The desire to further extend the boundaries of participatory development to include economic growth, good governance and popular participation (Nelson & Wright, 1995) by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) was obviously articulated in its conference in Tanzania.



Chamber, however, observed that, the UNECA approach denied the poor the opportunity to diagnose their own situation and recommending solutions to those situations (Chambers, 1992; 1995), but rather emphasised promoting increased community involvement in economic growth and ensuring effective governance systems. The understanding and operationalisation of participation as a concept by development scholars and institutions is continually changing. In view of this continuous changes the concept of participation has been variously defined and interpreted.

There have been several efforts by development scholars and practitioners across the globe at operationalising participation in a manner that would ensure that participation enhances the quality of community development through increased involvement of the grass-roots in their own development. Due to the different operationalisation and application of the concept, there has been differences in how the concept of participation has been defined and interpreted. In view of which, there are still remarkable differences in how different development organisations and institutions define the concept. It is however argued by the scholarly community that, the differences in the interpretation of the concept do not really matter to the extent that the following questions continue to dominate the explanation of the concept of participation: who participates, how is participation to be practiced? when is participation necessary, who is the beneficiary of participation and in whose interest is participation, (Chambers, 1997; Agarwal, 2001; Open University, 2001; Datta, 2003; Clemente, 2003).

In the existing scholarly works, the concept participation has been explained in the context of Paulo Freire's work. Freire was known for his works in political pedagogy and his



works in the area of social and educational thought (Glass, 2001). Freire developed a pedagogical approach that put learners on equal footing with the facilitator. This change in learner-facilitator relationship motivated the poor to begin to think in “critical terms about their poor conditions, their oppression, and their exploitation” (Sseruwagi, 2012; p17). Freire (1994; p3) observed that “education is meaningful to the extent that it engages learners in reflecting on their relationship to the world they live in and provides them with a means to shape their world”. He further suggested that “one of the tasks of a progressive popular education, yesterday as today, is to seek, by means of critical understanding of the mechanism of social conflict, to further the process in which the weakness of the oppressed turns into a strength capable of converting the oppressor's strength into weakness” (Freire, 1994; p.125).

Freire’s ideas have gone beyond the dome of educational thought and has become central to human-centred development approaches which places a lot of valued on the importance of the channels for interpersonal communication in decision-making processes of economic development and politics (Siddiqui, 2003). Over the years, participation as a concept has been described by development scholars in various ways, including the use of phrases like; “people centred development” (Jennings, 2000; p. 3), “people first” (Chambers, 1992; p. 37), and “participatory development” (Roodt, 2001; Rahman, 1993; Chambers. 1992; and Conyers & Hills, 1990). This is could be due to the fact that participatory-development scholars view development as being synonymous with promotion of social change and empowering the marginalised in society (Mohan & Stokke, 2000). Even in large international development agencies like the World Bank, International Labour Organisation, United Nations Development Programme, the Asian Development Bank and many more,

participatory development approach remain central in their policy formulating process in order to promote and build local capacities to ensure policy sustainability. Specifically, The World Bank considers participatory development as “a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development vision, make choices, and manage activities” (Tufte & Mefalopulos, 2009, p. 6).

The underlying principle of participation is that every marginalized community or person has the right to participate in decisions or development interventions designed to improve their living conditions (Gaventa, 2006; Oakley, 1991). Participation, therefore, involves the involvement and/or full participation of target development stakeholders in the development decision-making process. Proponents of the participatory approach hold the view that every person in the target community is considered a partner or a stakeholder in the entire project planning circle (i.e. decision-making, design of intervention, implementation, and evaluation process) of development and that everyone is of equal importance under the participatory development approach (Cees, 2000).

In participation, the intervention stakeholders at the community level are expected to identify the development issues prevailing within their communities (Philips, 2009; as cited in Sseruwagi, 2012). Also, they are expected to propose workable solutions to the identified development issues. This process of open dialogue between and/or among stakeholders helps in obtaining different insights about a particular community’s development issues from the community members. Dinbabo (2003) and Dennis (1997) defined the process as “inclusion of all people: equal partnership, transparency, sharing power, and sharing responsibility” (as cited in Sseruwagi, 2012; p19). Similarly, all community stakeholders irrespective of status



have equal responsibility for decisions made, with clear responsibilities within the process and thus promotes mutual learning, empowerment, and cooperation among stakeholders (Sseruwagi, 2012).

Studies shown that this approach to participation is more effective for development as it emphasises the active involvement and voice of the people affected by the development issue in the community (Dodds, 1989; Roodt, 2001). Participatory development basically seeks to address inequalities in the development decision making space by creating development platforms to build the capacity of community members and also empower communities that are considered to be marginalised (Craig & Mayo, 1995). This focus also allows for the involvement of community stakeholders at all stages of development interventions from the initiation, implementation and evaluation. It also creates a sense of shared responsibility between and/or among all stakeholders within the community. This ultimately promotes capacity building, empowerment, and assurance of development projects sustainability (Sanoff, 2007).



Participation involves the inclusion of people in make decisions that affect their own wellbeing from the initiation, implementation and evaluation of development projects as well as sharing in the benefit of development the participated in initiating and implementing. Development scholars have emphasised the need to apply participatory approaches at every stage of development, especially, at the stage of decision-making as well as the stages of monitoring and evaluation (Chambers, 1997; Nelson & Wright, 1995). This represents a significant shift from the conventional and traditional approaches, which allowed involvement only at the stage of sharing the benefits or fruits of the projects, without initially

involving target beneficiaries to ensure that the project is responsive to the needs through actively engaging them.

The addition of a forum for open negotiating and collaborating was meant to ensure that community stakeholders played an active role in their own development as opposed to limiting themselves to being only passive beneficiaries of the outputs and outcomes of development (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1994). Also, the World Bank further broadened the scope of participation, which now transcends the poor and marginalised communities to include those endowed and are in developed communities (Tufté & Mefalopulos, 2009). The emphasis of participation is now focused on the community stakeholder involvement in the own development (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2006). The motive behind the expansion of the scope of participation could be as a result of the recognition of the fact that the effect societal problems are not limited to the affected groups but can affect even those who are not connected to the problem in anyway (Uphoff, 1985).



In conclusion, participation in development is viewed as a process where all stakeholders (i.e. directly affected or indirectly affected or not affected at all) are actively involved on equal terms in development decision and policy formulation; planning and strategy development; implementation and conduct of monitoring and evaluation of development programme interventions. Participation as an approach, is to both build the capacity and empower poor or marginalised communities as well as engaging all categories of stakeholders in a manner that will ensure that all stakeholders actively participate in the process of shaping destiny with either their internal resources or resources received from external sources or both on equal terms at all levels of the development process.



As participatory approaches are being accepted as alternative ways of achieving development with stakeholders and not for stakeholders, the approach is met with some sceptics and critics. Some development scholars like; Evans, Pilkington, and McEachran (2010) and Hickey and Mohan (2008), have queried the motives and effectiveness of development agencies in their application of the participatory approach to development. Specifically, Hickey and Mohan (2004) and Cooke and Kothari (2001) have “wondered whether the process is not a disguised top-down patronizing process” (as cited in Sseruwagi, 2012; p21).

The challenges associated with the operationalisation of participatory approaches to development are many and varied. The first is the manner in which donor agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have implemented it (Rahman, 2003; McGee & Norton, 2000). For instance, there were time where development agencies merely extracted information from communities in a hasty consultative process without the direct involvement of participants yet there were claims of adopting a participatory process (Talen, 2000; Nelson & Wright, 1995).

The second challenge is the question of how to involve all stakeholders, especially stakeholders in the intervention or project community (Cooke & Kothari, 2001). Some development experts opined that, the challenges of participation were due to some inherent bureaucratic tendency in some development institutions coupled with poor management of development initiatives (Shortall & Shucksmith, 2001; Botes & van Rensburg, 2000; Chambers, 1995; Lyons, Smuts, & Stephens, 2001; Haidari & Wright, 2001; Jackson & Kassam, 1998; Long, 2001 Nelson & Wright, 1995).



The third challenge is that the theoretical understanding of participation as well as its conceptualisation and operationalisation in the development cycle has been on a constant flux over time (Christens & Speer, 2006). As a result of the constant flux, participation has evolved to a stage where the stakeholders in the community are directly involved in development process from start to end. Participation today provides capacity building opportunities through various types of training offered by external stakeholders and also empowered marginalised stakeholders through a balanced power relationship between and among all categories of stakeholders (Dipholo, 2002; Rahman, 2002). It is through these external trainings and activities that needs and resources within the community are identified and capacities built, followed by implementation.

A number of scholars and development practitioners have made efforts at developing tools and instruments to measure the concept of participation. Arnstein's (1969) participatory ladder is perhaps regarded as an influential work in establishing the different levels of participation. Arnstein (1969) identified eight distinct levels of participation which she likened to climbing an eight-step ladder, where the level of participation increased as you move from lower rungs to upper rungs of the ladder. The lower rungs according to her are occupied by "non-participation", and middle rungs represent by "token participation". The upper rungs of the ladder represent "true citizen participation" characterized by "partnership," "delegated power and citizen control" (Arnstein, 1969; p.17).

In non-participation, decisions on development are made by external experts or stakeholders while ignoring internal stakeholders. In token participation, external stakeholders or experts only consult internal stakeholders on some specific issues but do not involve the internal



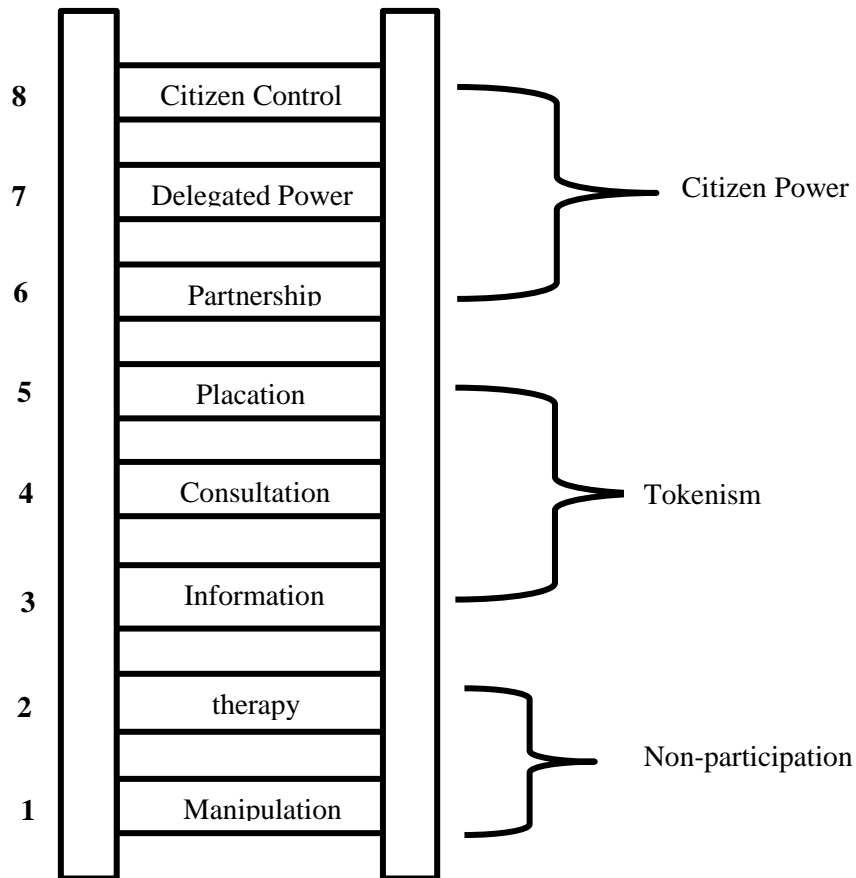
stakeholders in the actual decision-making process, or they may be allowed to participate in exchange for material incentives like; food, cash, soap and others. In delegated power and citizen control, the internal stakeholders are involved in the decision-making process, and through the entire stages of the programme development (i.e. planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation). This last participatory approach is considered the most effective as it involves the internal stakeholder having control over the activities of the entire developmental process unlike the first and the second discussed earlier where the internal stakeholder only becomes a passive recipients of development support. The World Bank and other development organisation such as ILO and UNDP have all suggested this form of participation (i.e. delegated power and citizen control) (Cornwall, 2008).

Arnstein (1969) has made immense contribution with her ladder of participation in enhancing the understanding and operationalising participation. The ladder depicts that involvement is function of the level of participation that is allowed or initiated during the development process. The ladder is an illustration that, participation is at different levels in society (see Figure 2.1). There is no clear difference between each stage in the ladder of participation, but the overall perception gleaned is that people can be living in the same community and be on totally different rungs of participation.

The ladder depicts that as one moves from the lower rack of the ladder there is a corresponding increase in the level of participation and this continues until the ultimate desire of full participation achieved as one proceeds to the top of the ladder. Arnstein (1969) defined participation as “the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in

the future. It is the strategy by which they can induce significant social reform which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society” (p. 216).

Figure 2.1: Arnstein’s Ladder of Participation



Source: Arnstein (1969)

Pretty (1995) based on Arnstein’s ladder of participation argued that participation could be considered on a continuum with different degrees or levels of participation located at various points of the continuum. Broadly Pretty’s categorisation has been re-categorised into four main types that is “non-participation”, (i.e. manipulative, passive, for information, and consultative), “participation for material incentives”, “functional participation” (still slightly coercive or token) and finally to participation for “intrinsic ends” (i.e. interactive participation and self-mobilisation). According to Pretty, self-mobilisation represents is akin





to the stage where citizens are empowered or emancipated and do not need to be prompted to participate at that stage participation become ingrained to the development process and that when a society get to that point of self-mobilisation it could be concluded that the participatory process is successfully implemented.

In addition to the above Pretty (1995) also introduced the concept of manipulative participation before passive participation. The choice of any type of participation is critical as it has a direct influence on development strategies. According to Mannigel (2008) and Namara (2006), participation can be achieved through a number of practices ranging from: “full information sharing, capacity building, benefit sharing, negotiations, and full empowerment or the transfer of powers as rights to the local people, rather than privileges”.

Participatory development has become a major feature in the developing world. This has resulted in increased demand for participatory evaluation in the developing world, where issues of marginalisation as well as poverty remain prevalent (McKie, 2003). There is consensus among development scholars and practitioners that to be able to properly gauge whether a community has achieved planned development goals, would require embracing participatory evaluation mechanism by all stakeholders (Chambers, 1992; Rifkin, 1985; Townsley, 1996). It is imperative to note that participatory evaluation has been part of the participatory development agenda from the outset concept of participation in the 1960s through the 1980s and supported from literature produced from community development programmes and projects. It is worthy to note that there are so far no universally accepted indicators for assessing the extent or level of stakeholder participation in development interventions.



Generally, evaluation may be monitored through the use of specific indicators to track the progress of a given event. Evaluating participation is important for development practitioners as the outcome of such evaluation enables practitioner of participatory development to learn from both what went wrong and what went well in order to improve and deepen their practice of participatory approach to development. Critics of participatory approaches to development have often pointed out that interventions which often target the poor, often ignore the voices and needs of the poor the project intends to affect (Banerjee, et al., 2010). It has been observed that there is great success in generating resources for participatory development programmes targeting the poor but the challenge has been the ineffectiveness in involving the poor at all stages of the programme (i.e. from initiation through to evaluation). The outcome of which is usually a low impact on the overall socio-economic development. In the earlier development of participatory approaches, Huizer (1983) defined participatory evaluation as: “self-evaluation by the groups of the entire process of planning and implementation: the rural people themselves (are to) discuss what progress they are making and how to overcome certain problems or constraints. The project beneficiaries as well as the project management at all levels should be involved in the designing and setting up of the system and subsequently in the interpretation and evaluation of the information gathered”, (p. 50).

Participatory evaluation is the active key stakeholder groups engagement and collaboration at all stages of a project evaluation cycle (including; designing, implementing, and interpreting the evaluation) (Williams, 2004). Stakeholder groups refers to all interested parties in programme. These interested parties also referred to vested interest groups may broadly include: the donor, the implementing agency, collaborating agencies, target

beneficiaries, the project operational area (project community). It is obvious that if all the key stakeholders with vested interest in a project closely monitoring and evaluation the projects it would facilitate attainment of the planned objectives of the projects and also acquire new insights for re-planning. Ngah (2012) suggested that, evaluators of community participation or involvement in development projects should ask the following questions:

*“Is/was the community involved in problem identification? Is/was the community involved in policies and goal formulation? Is/was the community involved in objective setting? Is/was the community involved in identification of project options and choice making? Is/was the community involved in implementation, monitoring, and evaluation? Is/did the community contribute/ing (in terms of labour, finance, and other materials)? Have/did the community share in the benefits that accrue from the process? and if the answer to any of the questions is **NO** then the outcome of the process is not participatory” (p. 33).*

The importance of evaluation in participatory processes cannot be over emphasised. Evaluation shows progress, provides opportunity of learning and also provides suggestions to enhance the attainment of maximum result. However, most participatory evaluation processes are limited to the extent that, they failed to integrate the cultural context of the project into the participator evaluation system. LaFrance et al. (2012) acknowledge that a good participatory evaluation must follow certain systematic steps. They opined that, the first step to be taken in the systematic process to ensure accuracy and respect for life experiences and perceptions and to establish relationships that would support honest communication. The second step is to base the design of the evaluation instruments and it guide for interpretation of evaluation findings on culturally relevant theories. The third step is the selection and implementation of culturally compatible and responsive design options

and measurement strategies. The final stem is to consider the internal and external externalities of the interventions.

2.8 POVERTY AND POVERTY REDUCTION

There has been a lot of policy and research interest in the subject of poverty reduction lately (Agénor, 2010). For one to delve into any discussion about the subject of poverty reduction, it is prudent to first discuss the concept of poverty and the various perspectives of its causes. Poverty is often explained in economic terms by associated poverty with lack of income (Olawale & Garwe, 2010; GSS, 2018). In keeping with income view of poverty, Olawale and Garwe (2010) observed that “Poverty is often defined in absolute terms of low income less than US \$2 a day”. This view of poverty is considered not to be comprehensive enough by most scholars since it fails define poverty is multidimensional terms (Berardi, 2012). Berardi (2012; p100) in a study of urban poverty in Lesotho found that poverty is characterised by “lack of social and cultural as well as economic means necessary to procure a minimum level of nutrition to participate in everyday life of society and to ensure economic and social production”. He argued further that “Poverty does not encompass only low income and consumption but also low achievement in education, health, nutrition and other areas of human development. It extends to powerlessness and voicelessness, vulnerability and fear” (Beradi, 2012; p100).

In corroboration with the view that poverty should be viewed from a multidimensional perceptive, Rahman and Rahman (2015), argued that poverty “...is the lack of social and cultural, as well as economic means necessary to procure a minimum level of nutrition, to participate in the everyday life of society, and to ensure economic and social reproduction”



(p249). This explanation of poverty is found to be similar to Sen (2001) who defines development as “freedom from want”. From the foregoing it implies that improving access to income only addresses one dimension of poverty which further implies that to address poverty requires that the other dimensions of poverty beyond income are addressed in an integrated manner. Following the recognition of poverty as a multidimensional issue, a number of scholars including Alkire & Foster, (2011a); (2011b); Bourguignon & Chakravarty, (2003); Tsui, (2002) have come up the Multidimensional Poverty Index as a tool for measuring or access the multidimensional nature of poverty. The tool measures poverty in areas of health, education and standards of living in a composite manner.

Theoretically, poverty is either conceived in “absolute” or “relative” terms. However, what remains critical is that “poverty is essentially a survival issue that hinges on the circumstances of life that a section of a society experiences, as they meet their daily challenges of survival” (Bilton et al., 1987; cited in Gasu, 2011; p221).



The proponents of poverty in absolute terms argue that, for any individual to enjoy a healthy living condition in a given social setting within a specific temporal framework, it will require meeting a certain minimum subsistence need. In this regard, the poor may be classified as those who are materially deprived and are unable to meet their minimum requirements for subsistence (Gasu, 2011). Simply put, absolute poverty involves “a lack of material resources to meet and access the basic physical needs for survival, which is characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs such as food, water and sanitation, health, shelter, education and information”. Absolute poverty is not only influenced by income but also by access to basic essential services (Loewen, 2009). Alternatively, absolute poverty is a term



used to describe a situation “where a person or a group of persons is/are unable to meet their minimum requirements for food, clothing and shelter” (Ofei-Aboagy, 2011; p129). The level of subsistence is usually objectively defined. For instance, the international measure of a dollar per day poverty line is considered a measure for absolute poverty and thus a measure of the level of subsistence.

The proponents of poverty in relative terms, on the other hand, perceive poverty “as a lack of resources to realise a certain standard of living that will enable one to become part of a given society to participate in relationships, play roles, and live a life that is deemed befitting of the society to which they belong” (Loewen, 2009; p5). Poverty, as a relative concept, employs the measure of “economic disparities as the basis for determining the poor from the better-off” (Galbraith, 1958; as cited in Gasu, 2011; p221). The relative view of poverty is generally based on “equating poverty to some fraction of the median income or below” (Townsend, 1979; as cited in Gasu, 2011; p221). Relative poverty is a function of the “social norms and standard of living of a particular society. It can include the ability to participate in activities or roles a society values even if they are not essential for survival” (Ofei-Aboagy, 2011; p129). Relative poverty therefore mirrors the nature of the overall distribution of resources in a given society.

The analysis of poverty in Ghana is officially focused on “consumption poverty, which classifies the poor as those who lack command over basic consumption needs, including food and non-food components”. In this approach, “the expenditure on a minimum consumption basket required by an individual to fulfil his or her basic food and non-food needs is calculated” and thus is used as a basis for determining “who is poor and who is non-



poor”. The expenditure determined in the process is “referred to as the poverty line”, based on which Ghana has determined two poverty lines: “the upper poverty line (which is referred to as the poverty line) and the lower poverty line (which is referred to the extreme poverty line)” (GSS, 2018; p5). Based on the foregoing Ghana determined two nutritionally poverty lines as follows:

“A lower or extreme or food poverty line of GH¢792.05 per adult equivalent per year: this focuses on what is needed to meet the nutritional requirements of household members. Individuals whose total expenditure falls below this line are considered to be in extreme poverty, since even if they allocated their entire budget to food, they would not be able to meet their minimum nutrition requirements (if they consume the average consumption basket). This line is 27.1 percent of the mean consumption level in 2012/13” (GSS, 2018; p8).

“An upper poverty line of GH¢1,314 per adult equivalent per year: this incorporates both essential food and non-food consumption. Individuals consuming above this level can be considered as able to purchase enough food to meet their nutritional requirements and their basic non-food needs. This line is 44.9 percent of the mean consumption level in 2012/13” (GSS, 2018; p8).

Based on the above understanding, the estimated poverty lines are determined and used to estimate “the poverty rates or the population below the poverty lines”.

In addition to the official view of poverty, the concept of poverty is understood differently by different people based on their respective worldviews and their specific context. Apusigah (n. d) observed that people from Northern Ghana “in their own ways and actions, ... explain their condition in ways that are sometimes consistent but many times removed from the institutionalized articulations” (p10). The most common understanding of poverty among people from Northern part of Ghana relates to “inadequacy of food supplies on a year-round

basis, especially in rural and peri-urban areas”. Inhabitants of rural communities identify “hunger as an experience characterising poverty (Korboe et al., 2011; p11). This was succinctly capture in Korboe et al (2011) from a focus group as “when you cannot feed your children without begging” (p11). In addition to the above, poverty is also understood as “the lack of other assets that are critical to farming”. Farming generally, is the major livelihood activity in most rural communities in Ghana and also serves as the primary sources of employment for the rural population in Ghana. Consequently, the “lack of access to year-round employment is another key indicator of poverty, as is de facto childlessness as households lacking labour have greater difficulty building up assets”. Poverty is also perceived as the inability to cater one’s household basic which include but not limited to financing education and healthcare needs of the household or bride-wealth needed for marriage or able to provide for funeral and other community contributions. Korboe et al. (2011) in their research discovered that wealth was categorised broadly into three which also reflect categorisation of poverty.



Table 2.1: Concept of Poverty and Well-being in Northern Ghana

Wealth Category	Sub-group	Attributes/Characteristics
Bun-dana (non-poor/flourishing) 1	E. Single group	Diverse assets and income sources. Dominated by men and are self-sufficient households
2. Wahala-dana (muddle through life) 2	D. Near-poor	Close to poverty line, easily fall into poverty (e.g. prim. Teachers). They have difficulty in building investments. They lack the capacity to cultivate large tract of land and the beg for food in the lean season.
	C. Fluctuating poor	Seasonally poor; the largely migrants and formal sector workers with very low levels of education. They fall back into poverty on a cyclic basis during the lean season,
1. Fara-dana (struggle to survive) 3	B. Majority Poor	Chronic poor able to work; experience hunger; school attendance is erratic; high school dropout among children; large proportion of out-of-school children; child labour

Wealth Category	Sub-group	Attributes/Characteristics
	A. So-called “living dead”	Chronic poor unable to work (indigent); abandoned widows; severely or multiple disabled, orphans, and the elderly (they lack the ability to do physical work)

Source: Korboe et al. (2011).

There are several theoretical explanations of the causes of poverty, as there are different notions of poverty. This lack of unanimity in the theoretical explanation of the causes of poverty could be attributed to social dynamics that have been continually changing the form, and the outward manifestations of poverty over the years. During the 1960s, when poverty attracted global attention, scholars devoted their time and attention towards understanding why the poor become poor and remained poor (Barkan, 2012). In the process, two competing explanations emerged with the basic debate focused on whether poverty was an innate attribute (i.e. emerged from within the poor themselves) or from the society in which they live (Rank, 2011). The first type of explanation fits into the functional theory of stratification and has been viewed as an individualistic explanation. The second type of explanation, on the other hand, fits into the conflict theory, which hinges on a structural explanation that focuses on problems in society that produce poverty (Bradley & Cole, 2002; Barkan, 2012; Rank, 2011; Davidson, 2009).

It is crucial to determine the explanation that makes more sense because, as Davidson (2009, p. 136) observes, ‘beliefs about the causes of poverty shape attitudes toward the poor’. To be more precise, the specific explanation favoured by a people influence their view as well as the kind of support government may provide to help the poor. However, for those who blame poverty on problems in the larger society are much more inclined to believing that government should do more to support the poor than those who blame it on deficiencies



among the poor themselves (Bradley & Cole, 2002). The explanation for poverty one is inclined to believe could influence the amount of sympathy or otherwise one may have for the poor. This could influence society's views about the government's role in supporting the poor (Barkan, 2012).

The individualistic explanation of why the poor remain poor stems from their belief that the poor have personal problems and deficiencies that are responsible for their state of poverty. In the past, the poor were generally considered to be biologically inferior. The notion of biological inferiority of the poor failing to stand the test of time has shifted slightly to a common belief that the poor lack the ambition and motivation to work hard and to achieve success (as cited in Barkan, 2012). Survey evidence revealed that the majority of Americans share in the belief that the poor lacks the drive to work hard or achieve success (Davidson, 2009). A more advanced version of the individualistic explanation of poverty is termed the culture of poverty theory (Banfield, 1974; Lewis, 1966; Murray, 2012). According to this theory, the poor are deemed to have certain unique deep-seated beliefs and values systems that are completely different from the beliefs and values systems held by the non-poor resulting in the poor remaining doomed in continued poverty. For example, they are said to live for the present rather than the future and are also impulsive in the actions and decisions.

According to the structural explanation, which is also referred to as a "blaming-the-system" approach, poverty stems from the failures of society due to lack of equal opportunity and a lack of jobs. These societal failures manifest in terms of (a) lack of good schooling and adequate health care opportunities; (b) age, gender, religious, and ethnic discrimination; and (c) structural changes in the economic system. These societal failures result in a situation





where the poor perpetuate the poverty status and the non-poor perpetuate their non-poverty status. Basically, what actually result from societal failure is fuelling the vicious cycle of poverty in which children of the poor are often destined to end up in poverty or near poverty themselves as adults.

As Rank (2011, p. 18) summarises, “... poverty is largely the result of failings at the economic and political levels, rather than at the individual level... In contrast to the individualistic perspective, the basic problem lies in a shortage of viable opportunities for all ...” Rank points out that there are fewer medium to high paying jobs and full-time jobs and jobs with benefits created in the US economy in the past few decades resulting in an increasing number of US citizens accepting more low-paying and part-time jobs as well as jobs without benefits. This clearly implies that most Americans are increasingly finding themselves in jobs that could perpetually keep them in poverty rather than lift them out of poverty. Fred Block and colleagues in affirmation of Rank’s exposition share this critique of the individualistic perspective: “... most of our policies incorrectly assume that people can avoid or overcome poverty through hard work alone. Yet this assumption ignores the realities of our failing urban schools, increasing employment insecurities, and the lack of affordable housing, health care, and child care. It ignores the fact that the American Dream is rapidly becoming unattainable for an increasing number of Americans, whether employed or not ...” (Block, Korteweg, & Woodward, 2006, p. 17).

On one hand most sociologists favour the structural explanation. As several structural factors (including ethnic and racial discrimination, lack of adequate health care and schooling, and other problems) have made it extremely difficult for the poor to rise out of poverty. On the

other hand, some ethnographic research in supporting the individualistic explanation argue that the poor actually have a certain belief and value system that guides practices in a manner that ends up augmenting their plight rather than it (Small, Harding, & Lamont, 2010).

In adopting an integrated perspective, some researchers say these beliefs, values and practices are ultimately the result of poverty itself and not exclusively the cause of poverty (Small et al., 2010). These scholars also acknowledge that the culture of poverty exists, but it exists as a coping mechanism for poor with the structural effects of being poor and that, if those effects results into a culture of poverty, then, poverty becomes self-perpetuating. There was however an agreement that, if poverty has both cultural and structural origin, then, the strategies to tackle that kind of poverty must include expanding structural opportunities for the poor and deconstructing some of the beliefs, values and practices that worsens the plight of the poor.

2.9 DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY

There is a lot of work on dimensions of poverty (GSS, 2013; UNDP-Ghana, 2018). However, scholars have not been conclusive as to the limits or scope of the dimension of poverty. This evident lack of consensus is as a result of examining the subject of dimensions of poverty from several perspectives rather than the limited economic perspective that usually limits itself to only quantifiable economic variables. This has accounted for the unusual level of vagueness on what constitutes the dimensions of poverty (GSS, 2013). Maliki (2011) categorised the dimensions of poverty into two broad categories he termed monetary and non-monetary dimensions and that these two complements each other in better appreciating the subject of poverty.



The monetary dimension of poverty, measures poverty in relation to how much an individual's level of income/consumption has fallen below some predetermined "minimum" level of resources (Laderchi et al., 2003). Measuring poverty by the monetary approach involves the use of monetary indicators that are quantifiable to the determination of the poverty line (Kwadzo, 2010). The approach is hinged "on the assumption that a uniform monetary unit of measurement can be used to control for the heterogeneity of all the individuals and their situations" (Sameti et al., 2012; p47). They also pointed out that, "in determining poverty with a monetary metric, it entails the choice of selecting an indicator, a unit of analysis, and a poverty line" (Sameti et al., 2012; p47).

The utility of the monetary approach is that it employs an indicator that provides a common unit for measuring comparability (Laderchi et al., 2003). This approach is widely used because it allows for easy approximation of aspects of "well-being" or poverty that, ordinarily, is difficult to measure in a common unit. Moreover, the monetary measure of poverty could serve as a standard homogenous basis for measuring poverty with the potential of easing the tension that exists between theoretical complexity and diversity of conceptualising and measuring poverty (Kwadzo, 2010). This approach of measuring poverty stresses on income or expenditure as the most important choice of indicator as a "proxy for consumption or as a proxy for permanent income".

The monetary approach emphasises the moral and physical attributes of the poor instead of rather going further to establishing the real causes of poverty (Laderchi et al., 2003). They added that the erroneous impression that poverty is an individual problem was yet another weakness of the approach, given that many of the underlying causes of poverty at the



individual level are traceable to the household. Following the above discussed weakness, it is recommended that the household rather than the individual should be considered as a unit of analysis in any poverty analysis (Laderchi et al., 2003). This will ensure that the results of any poverty analysis become relevant and applicable at either level (i.e. household or individual). The definition of what constitutes a “poverty line” is critical to how poverty is measured. A poverty line may be defined in absolute or relative terms as discussed earlier (Laderchi et al., 2003; Ravallion, 1998).

Although defining non-monetary poverty is generally considered to be challenging, studies on poverty in some countries have clearly shown that “poverty is multi-dimensional and that people may be classified as poor if their resources were found to be below the average individual or household resources such that they are unable to meet their basic needs and/or are excluded from society” (GSS, 2013; p8). Nolan and Whelan (2010) opined that poverty could be as a result of one’s “inability to participate” in a given social system either “partly or exclusively as a result of inadequate” access to or control over resources.

Notwithstanding the popularity of adoption of the income approach in most quantitative studies to determine the poor and the non-poor, this approach has been met with heavy criticism in relation to its comprehensiveness (Satterthwaite, 2004). The overall view is that the income measure fails to reflect the whole story of poverty as it failed to establish how the poor feel, how they became poor and how they have coped with this the condition (Nolan & Whelan, 2010). In corroborating with the above, Ringen (1988) draws a conclusion that income was more of an indirect measure and, as a result, it was an unreliable measure of

poverty. It is within this and other similar contexts that there is a shift from exclusively monetary measures to non-monetary measures of poverty.

The non-monetary poverty approach could be traced back to the work of Townsend in 1979, where he argued that, "... individuals, families or groups in a population could be considered to be poor or in a condition of poverty once they lack the ability or resources to attain the type of diets, participate in the activities, and have the living conditions and services which are customary, or at least widely encouraged and approved, in the societies to which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities ..." (Townsend, 1979; p. 15). An interrogation of the above account of poverty reveals that there are several indicators for measuring living conditions beyond income in order to be able to determine, with a high level of certainty, a "poor or non-poor" household.

Capability poverty has been described as "the inability of a person to attain given basic capabilities to sufficiently fulfil certain critical functions at an acceptable minimal level" (Laderchi et al., 2003; Saith, 2001; Sen, 1985). In the capability approach, "monetary resources are considered as a necessary, but not sufficient condition to prevent the causal chain of poverty" (Laderchi et al., 2003; as cited in Kwadzo, 2010; p35). Consequently, the approach adopts a more integrative perspective to developing or achieving capabilities by emphasising both monetary and non-monetary resources, in view of which Sen (1985) indicated that the monetary approach only highlights the utility of a commodity but falls short in providing a good proxy for measuring the well-being of people.





Social exclusion occurs when an individual is denied the opportunity to participate in the usual activities of a society. It is immaterial to say that the individual did not desire to participate once the person has been denied the opportunity (Silver & Miller, 2002). In view of this, proponents of social exclusion consider poverty as an interplay between falling access to resources and denial of participation in normal communal activities, which Bessis (1995) described as denying individuals or groups of individuals their social status. Socially excluded individuals normally do not have equal opportunities, neither do they have equal rights in either the labour markets or political arena, as they are normally denied these opportunities and rights even when they desire them (especially among women, racial and religious minorities groups) (Bessis, 1995).

The attributes of social exclusion were summarised as being dynamic, multi-dimensional, relational, relative, active, and contextual (Laderchi et al., 2003; Silver & Miller, 2002). The multi-dimensionality of social exclusion is a recognition of the fact that exclusion could be experienced in various varied forms. It could be in the economic, social or political form or a combination of two or all of these forms. It has likewise been observed that people become susceptible to poverty when they are denied the opportunity to participate in the normal activities of society (be it in the economic, social or the political space) (Olson, 1993; as cited in Jordan, 1996).

From the foregone is clear that any action to define poverty or reduce poverty ought to be based on a multi-pronged strategy targeted at addressing the multidimensional of poverty. In an expression of agreement with the multi-prong approach at addressing poverty Ali and Pernia (2003) contend that “Poverty reduction requires economic growth which, when



accompanied by sound macroeconomic management and good governance, results in sustainable and socially inclusive development” (p2). As a result of the increased awareness and acceptance of the multidimensionality of poverty reduction, scholars have through research explored poverty roles of various sectors in reducing poverty levels. Some of the sector explored include: tourism (Ashley & Mitchell, 2009), donor intervention (Humphrey & Navas-Alemán, 2010), economic growth (Haggblade, Hazell, & Reardon, 2010; Loayza & Raddatz, 2010; Montalvo & Ravallion, 2010), agriculture (Berardi, 2012; Cervantes-Godoy & Dewbre, 2010), and infrastructure development (Parker, Kirkpatrick, & Figueira-Theodorakopoulou, 2008; Lelethu & Okem, 2016; Ali & Pemia, 2003).

Poverty although, is present in all countries of world, developing countries seem to be the worst affected. In trying to reduce the rather high levels of poverty, governments of developing countries have encountered numerous challenges in coming up with suitable policies and strategies to tackle the multidimensional nature of poverty. A quick scan of the literature shows that generally government interventions in reducing poverty include: the provision of targeted safety nets strategies, human capital development (i.e. education and health) strategies, pro-poor/broad based economic growth strategies, resource and redistribution of assets strategies; sustainable livelihoods strategies; rights-based strategies and lately, a number of scholars including Ali & Pernia (2003) Calderón & Servén (2008) Hanjra, Ferede, & Gutta, (2009), Kurosaki (2012) Ogun (2010) and the UNDP (2015) have indicated that infrastructure could be considered as a strategy for poverty reductions.

2.10 POVERTY REDUCTION PROFILE OF GHANA

The series of Ghana Living Standards Surveys (GLSS) conducted from the first to the sixth round have revealed that poverty levels have been declining. A spatial analysis of the incidence of poverty in Ghana in 1991/92 revealed that out of the ten regions of Ghana, six regions had 52% or more of their people living in poverty (the six regions were Western, Volta, Brong Ahafo, Northern, Upper West and Upper East Regions with poverty profiles of 60%; 57%; 65%; 63%, 88% and 67% respectively) (Ghana-UNDP, 2007; GSS, 2014).

A similar analysis in 1998/99 revealed that, out of the 10 regions, five regions had 40% or more of their people living in poverty (the five regions were Eastern, Central, Upper West, Upper East and Northern Regions with poverty profiles of 44%; 48%; 84%; 88% and 69% respectively (Government of Ghana (GOG), 2003; Kessey, 2013).

In another analysis in 2005/06 it was found that, out of the 10 regions, five regions had 32% or more of their people living in poverty (the five regions were Brong Ahafo, Volta, Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions with poverty profiles of 34%, 37%, 56% 73% and 89%) (GSS, 2013). Even though income poverty had generally declined, the decline was however significant in the southern forest belt of cocoa and other cash crops production areas, and had actually increased in predominantly food crops producing areas and fishing communities of Ghana (UNDP & NDPC, 2012; GSS, 2014; UNDP-Ghana, 2018).

Again in 2012/13 an analysis of the poverty profile of Ghana revealed that, out of the 10 regions, five regions had 24% or more of their people living in poverty (the five regions were





Brong Ahafo, Volta, Upper East, Northern, and Upper West Regions with poverty profiles of 28%, 34%, 44% 50% and 70%) (GSS, 2014). The incidence of poverty and the poverty gap are not evenly distributed amongst the ten administrative regions. The Greater Accra Region had the lowest level (5.6%) of incidence of poverty, which constitute 18.6 percentage points lower than the national incidence of poverty (GSS, 2014). However, the incidence of poverty in the three northern regions of Ghana still remain highest in the country, with four in every ten persons in the Upper East (44.4%) being poor, increasing to one in every two in the Northern region (50.4%) and seven out of every ten in Upper West (70.7%) (GSS, 2014; UNDP-Ghana, 2018).

It was further observed that, apart from the three regions of northern Ghana (Upper West 45.1%, Northern 22.8% and Upper East 21.3%), which recorded rates of extreme poverty higher than the national average of 8.4, all the other regions in the coastal and forest areas had rates lower than the national average. The Northern Region alone contributes slightly over a quarter of the extreme poor in Ghana making it the largest contributor to the extreme poor. The three regions of northern Ghana together account for over half the population living in extreme poverty (52.7%) in Ghana. Although, the three regions of northern Ghana account for slightly less of the extreme poor in 2012/13 than in 2005/06, the pattern is generally similar to the findings in 2005/06 (GSS, 2015; GSS, 2014; UNDP-Ghana, 2018).

In recognition of the limited nature of the unidimensional poverty measure, an attempt was made by the GSS in 2013 to establish the poverty profile of Ghana with a Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) with data generated by the 2010 population and housing census. The result of the MPI revealed a 42.7% national incidence of poverty. This was found to be



higher than the national incidence of income poverty of 28.5% derived from the GLSS 5 in 2006. Correspondingly, the poverty incidence for each region was higher than the regional estimation from the incidence of income poverty estimates for each region (GSS, 2013).

The MPI, like the income poverty index, showed that Greater Accra Region was the least poor or the most developed region, while Northern, Upper West and Upper East Regions were the poorest or the least developed regions in Ghana. Apart from the Greater Accra Region, the incidence of MPI poverty was overwhelmingly higher in rural areas compared to urban areas. The contribution of rural deprivation to national poverty was estimated at 72.3%, the situation was even worse for three regions of the northern sector as the contribution to national poverty was higher: Upper West Region (92.6 per cent); Upper East Region (87.3 per cent); and Northern Region (80.8 per cent) (GSS, 2013).

In assessing the progress made in reducing the incidence of poverty in Ghana, it was observed that there has been a systematic and sustained progress reduction in the incidence of poverty in Ghana as reflected in the various rounds of the GLSS. The reduction in the incidence of poverty from 52% in 1991/92 to 40% in 1998/19 represented a percentage reduction of 23.1% in the incidence of poverty over the period. Likewise, the reduction in the incidence of poverty from 40% in 1991/92 to 32% in 2005/06 represented a percentage reduction of 20% in the incidence of poverty. Furthermore, the recorded reduction in the incidence of poverty from 32% in 2005/06 to 24% in 2012/13 represented a percentage reduction of 25% in the incidence of poverty. It is evident that the national interventions at reducing poverty have yielded positive results (GSS, 2014; GSS, 2015).

A mapping of the incidence of poverty in Ghana by the GSS in 2015 revealed a high concentration of poverty in the North Western part of Ghana with the incidence of poverty at the South Western parts being very low. There were, however, a few districts with relatively high incidence. The mapping further indicated that there was a greater concentration of poor persons in the northern districts of Ghana than the southern districts of Ghana where there was a very low concentration of poor persons (GSS, 2015; UNDP-Ghana, 2018).

2.11 INFRASTRUCTURE AND NON-INFRASTRUCTURE POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIES

Poverty reduction strategies are generally developed based on a broad conceptualization of poverty. Also, the way poverty is conceptualized or measured influences the type of strategy that could be adopted to address it (Schiller, 2008; Laderchi et al., 2003). For the purpose of this study the review was limited to two broad strategies of poverty reduction: infrastructure approach and Non-infrastructure approach (made up of broad based growth as a strategy for poverty reduction; resource and redistribution of assets as a strategy for poverty reduction; sustainable livelihoods as a strategy for poverty reduction; and rights and empowerment as a strategy for poverty reduction).

2.11.1 Infrastructure Delivery as a Strategy for Poverty Reduction

In respect of the relationship between infrastructure development and poverty reduction, the scholarly community is divided into two distinct schools (Ali & Pernia, 2003; Lelethu & Okem, 2016). The first school acknowledge that infrastructure development positively

affects levels of poverty. The key proponents of this school include; Parker et al., (2008), Ali and Permia (2003), Zulu and Richardson (2013) among others.

A number of scholars including Parker et al., (2008) contends that most developing countries have inadequate infrastructure required to support the provision of critical social services like; water, electricity, sanitation, education and health which directly limits the potential opportunities opened to the poor in particular to participate in productive economic activity. Lelethu and Okem (2016) also noted that the inability of developing countries to deliver critical public infrastructure directly affect the ability of such countries to adequately deliver critical public services like; transport, water, electricity, sanitation, education and health thereby limiting the opportunity that could open up to the poor to engage in productive economic activities. This limits the opportunity of the poor to improve their living conditions. The UNDP (2015) further observed that, the provision of critical public services through the provision of critical infrastructure enables the poor to focus their efforts on their core productive economic activities instead of being divided between the non-economic activities (like “collecting water, fuel wood, cooking, among others) and productive economic activities. The UNDP added that the provision of critical infrastructural services frees up the poor to focus on productive economic activities which could improve their living conditions instead of spending their time on the non-economic activities.

Studies have also established that there is a significant impact on poverty reductions as a result of growth credited to the provision of road infrastructure (Lelethu & Okem, 2016). Kwon (2000) in an analysis of a set of data from Indonesia established that there was a growth elasticity of -0.33 in the incidence of poverty in province with good road





infrastructure while in province with bad road infrastructure the incidence of poverty was - 0.09. The implication of which is that the incidence of poverty fell by 0.33% and 0.09% for every 1% growth in GDP. Kwo (2000) further observed that road infrastructure had also directly impacted on the wages and employment of the poor. He also held that every 1% increase in road investment could result into 0.3% reduction in the incidence of poverty over a five-year period. Consistent with the above argument, Balisaca, Parnia and Asra (2002) found that the average incomes of the poor are significantly affected by increased growth resulting from increased investment in road infrastructure.

Similarly, Bhattarai et al (2002) in a study found that irrigation significantly influence farm productivity and wage levels, poverty reduction and reduction in level of income inequalities. They explained further that a reduction in the levels of income inequalities is indicative of the fact that the poor are benefiting more than the non-poor. In Vietnam, Philippine, Thailand and India it was observed that poverty was significantly lower in irrigated areas than they were in non-irrigated areas. Bhattarai et al (2002) concluded that the success of any irrigation project in reducing poverty is mainly influenced by the magnitude of the project's ripple effect such as employment generation and the interlinkage with the different sectors of the economy. In concurring with the above Fan et al (2002) found that irrigation directly impacted growth in the agriculture sector positively which consequently resulted in a reduction in the levels of poverty as a result of an estimated elasticity of 0.41, which implies that for every 1% increase in irrigation, there is an associated 0.41% improvement in agricultural output per a unit of farm labour, accounting for 1.13% decrease in the incidence of poverty.



Just like road infrastructure, the delivery of electricity in rural communities is found to reflect positively in efforts of poverty reduction. Reliance on charcoal and fuel wood energy sources are found to have negative health and environmental implications on local communities (Zulu & Richardson, 2013). However, poor access to energy is barrier to engaging in certain productive economic activities. Dinkelman (2011) in a study indicated “that electrification significantly raised female employment within five years. This new infrastructure appears to increase hours of work for men and women while reducing female wages and increasing male earnings. Several pieces of evidence suggest that household electrification raises employment by releasing women from home production and enabling microenterprises” (p3078). It has also been strongly argued that electricity has significantly accounted for growth in the rural nonfarm sector in the People’s Republic of China (PRC) which has accounted for a reduction in the levels of poverty among poor households with an estimated elasticity of 0.42 (Fan et al., 2002; Ali & Pernia, 2003). Fan et al (2002) further observed that every 10,000.00 Yuan invested into the development of electricity, accounted for the poverty level of 2.3 persons reducing. This is considered a clear evidence of the relationship between electricity provision and poverty reduction. Evidence from a World Bank assisted rural electrification project in Asia showed that in India and Bangladesh the World Bank aided project accounted for an increase in usage of irrigation. This has resulted in more than a proportionate reduction in the level of poverty (Songco, 2002). A qualitative assessment of the projects also showed that beneficiaries felt there has been an improvement in the living conditions through a sense of diminished powerlessness and instability as a result of increased social and economic empowerment (Songco, 2002). This observation was found to be in line with observation made Ali and Pernia (2003) where the found that “electricity

improves the poor's access to productive activity, thereby lessening the vulnerability of shocks" (p9).

Ali and Pernia (2003) argue that, "there is now wider recognition, including in the international donor community, that if governance and institutional frameworks are strengthened, the linkage between infrastructure and reduction of poverty can become stronger" (p3). Furthermore, Calderón and Servén (2004) note that "the conclusion that infrastructure both raises growth and lowers income inequality implies that infrastructure development may be a key win-win ingredient for poverty reduction" (p26). According Lelethu and Okem (2016) it is so "because infrastructure, on the one hand, contributes to economic growth, and on the other hand, reduces poverty" (p12). There is a general consensus, that rural infrastructure investment has the capability of improving farm and nonfarm output, creation of jobs and income earning opportunities as well as increase presence and availability of wage goods, with a consequent result of reduction of poverty levels through increased average income and consumption (Ali & Pernia, 2003; Songco, 2002; Lelethu & Okem, 2016).

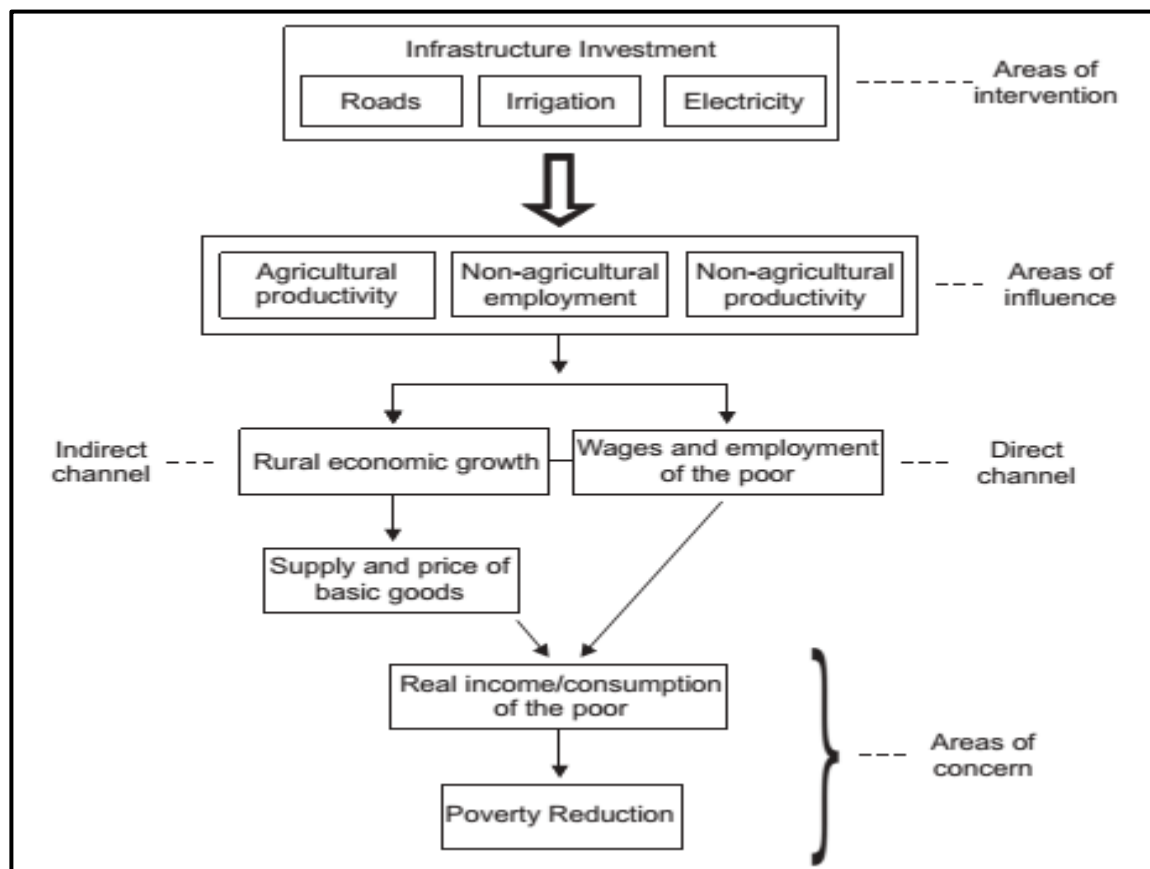
The Figure 2.2 presents a simplified relationship between infrastructure and poverty reduction. The figure indicates that the execution of infrastructure projects like provision of electricity, roads and irrigation positively influence agriculture and non-agricultural activities which has both direct and indirect impact on growth of rural economy as employment opportunities and income generating activities available to the poor also increases (Ali & Pernia, 2003). The lack of critical infrastructure facilities (such as roads, irrigation, electricity, etc.) is a major barrier to the growth of the rural economy as it inhibits



transportation of goods and services as well as both agriculture and non-agriculture activities (Lelethu & Okem, 2016). For instance, in communities considered to be dependent on farming as a major source of livelihood, the lack of roads in such areas would obviously become a major hinderance for poverty reduction. This is because farmers in such areas would have to spend a higher percentage of their income on evacuating the farm produce to the market centres (Lelethu & Okem, 2016). In a study by Zulu and Richarson (2013) it was found that rural transport is an important element required to increase agriculture productivity and for that matter achieve rural growth with a consequent effect of reducing levels of rural poverty.



Figure 2.2: Framework Showing the Links between Infrastructure and Poverty Reduction.



Source: Ali & Pernia (2003; p4).



There is a general scholarly consensus that strengthening governance and institutional framework could make the relationship between infrastructure and poverty reduction stronger (Ali & Pernia, 2003; p3). It is also argued that infrastructure development enhances growth and reduces inequalities in income (Calderón & Servén, 2004; p26). From Calderón and Servén’s argument, it can be inferred that infrastructure development remains an integral factor in any poverty reduction effort. It is so because infrastructure perform dual function; of promoting economic growth and at the same time reducing poverty. This perceived dual function only comes into play when the growth is broad-based or pro-poor in nature. Calderón and Servén (2008) argue that economic development is a function of the supply of adequate infrastructure. They further observed that infrastructure development is useful for African countries as a tool for stimulating economic growth and ultimately promoting equity and poverty reduction. This effect is considered plausible because of the existence of a positive correlation between the quantity and quality of infrastructure and the consequent decrease in income inequality resulting in a reduction in the levels of poverty among the poor.

Agénor (2010) made a strong case for the need to increase public spending on infrastructure given the positive link between infrastructure development and poverty reduction. He further explained that extensive public spending on infrastructure could help in addressing the critical barriers towards pro-poor productive economic activities which are integral to economic development and poverty reductions. It is important to note that in providing or maintaining infrastructure normally requires labour, in the process jobs are created and skills are developed which eventually impacts on the level of poverty. Olawale and Garwe (2010) on their part argued that “The quality of infrastructure can affect the growth prospects of

new Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) especially in developing countries such as South Africa. Many developing countries suffer from a deplorable state of basic infrastructures like transportation, telecommunication and electricity. Electricity supply in South Africa does not meet the demand leading to power cuts which affects the production and turnover of new SMEs” (p732). Generally, the poor state of infrastructure results in poor infrastructure service delivery which ends up impacting negatively on SME productive activities and their turnover.

Ali and Pernia (2003; p10) argued increase investment in rural infrastructure could result in reduction in poverty levels as a result of the effect of such investments on both farm and non-farm productivity. The implication of which is increased employment and increased income opportunities thereby raising average income and consumption. They further indicated that such investments will only impact on the poor if and only “if higher agricultural and non-agricultural productivity and increased employment directly benefit the poor more than the nonpoor, these investments can reduce poverty even faster by improving income distribution as well” (p9).

Unlike the above, the second school of thought argue against the view that the exist any link between infrastructure and poverty reduction. Proponents of this school hold that even where there seem to be any relationship between infrastructure and poverty reduction, it is weak to establish any causal relationship (Lelethu & Okem, 2016). It is also important to note that, although most of the scholars who disagree with the position that infrastructure positively influence poverty reduction outcomes do not discount the view that infrastructure is important for economic growth but that it had little or no effect on reducing the levels of



poverty (Ali & Pernia, 2003; p3). They also observed that proponents of the second school believe that the actual benefits from infrastructure were significantly lower than the planned benefits, which is partly due to poor governance and weak institutional arrangement coupled with corruption and disregard for value for prudent public investment choices as well as a poor culture of infrastructural maintenance, have all together negated the contribution of infrastructure to economic growth and diverting the anticipated benefits from the poor.

In corroboration with the above, Ogun (2010) suggests that investment in infrastructure has little or no influence on reducing levels of poverty. He explained that “weak governance coupled with corrupt public officials lowers the contribution of infrastructure growth and diverts to a few elites” (Ogun 2010; as cited in Lelethu & Okem, 2016; p13). It could be inferred from the above that infrastructural projects are often awarded to contractors with connections but lack the needed capacity to deliver value money outputs, the result is delivery of poor infrastructural facility with shorter life span than the expected project life span. In view of which such projects end up having insignificant impact on target beneficiaries in terms of improving their socio-economic conditions. Similarly, in a study in Mozambique and Vietnam to assess the impact of infrastructure investment, it was found that infrastructure hardly benefited the marginalised communities (Otsuki et al., 2016; p3). They further pointed out that there was limited consideration for local involvement in demanding fairness in the share the benefits associated with infrastructure development. In effect the poor and the marginalised are left out in planning of infrastructure delivery.

It is further observed that, the effect of infrastructure on poverty is further eroded due to corruption associated with the award of infrastructure projects. This is especially so when





the procurement processes are not transparent and result in the award of infrastructural projects to persons with relationships to persons at higher places of government. Also infrastructure projects, especially those externally funded, have become a guise through which money is paid illegally to consultants, middlemen and government officials as a result money meant to be paid to government as taxes to enable government provide safety net interventions and public services meant to be subsidized to the poor end up not paid (Bracking, 2012).

The argument that infrastructure development results in generating employment opportunities have been challenged by some scholars who argue that the employment opportunities created are often temporal with majority of the people employed (who are most the poor) become unemployed as soon as the project is completed at best a few low skilled jobs for maintenance is all that may be left. What is worse is that prestigious infrastructural projects rather worsen the plight of the poor as a result of the high cost of maintaining such facilities captures government attention at the expense of meeting the basic needs of the poor. Also, the poor lacks access to such prestigious infrastructure projects (like stadia, theatre, museum, etc.). Often such prestigious infrastructure facilities are exclusively accessed by professional like athletes even if such a facility were located in a very poor locality (Bracking, 2012).

Dam construction is often linked poverty reduction but failure to take into consideration the known effects of the construction of a dam on fish migration could negatively impact the food security of poor fishing communities and ultimately limit their livelihood choices (Dugan et al., 2010). They also found that that the construction of dams, often affect the



benefits derived from the prevailing ecosystem negatively with a consequent effecting on the livelihood of people living within the catchment area of such dams whose livelihood revolve depend on fishing as “part of the river’s fish production, and the economic, nutritional and social benefits of this ecosystem service will be lost in the coming decades” (Dugan et al., 2010; p346). Large scale dams have also been found to have serious health implication for people living in close proximity to them. All these cancels out the expected effects of constructing dams. Lerer and Scudder (1999) observed that large scale dam projects are associated with increased prevalence of health-related problems within close proximity of such dams. They specifically, cited the health-related problems like “schistosomiasis, malaria, encephalitis, haemorrhagic fevers, gastroenteritis, intestinal parasites, and filariasis (including onchocerciasis and bancroftosis)” (p144) among others as some of the cases cited after dam irrigation projects are executed. Given that the poor segments of the population generally have poor access to health care services largely as a result of economic barrier and in some cases spatial, the negative health outcomes accessioned by the construction of dams and irrigation projects only worsens the already poor living of the poor (Lelethu & Okem, 2016).

Related to the above is the negative effect of infrastructure projects on the environment. Daigle (2010), Laurance, Goosem, & Laurance (2009) and Andrews (1990) all observed that road construction impacts negatively on the environment. For instance, Andrew (1990) found that wild life population is disturbed when natural areas are divided into smaller areas. He further argued that the number of wild life species reduced dramatically as a result of restricting their ability to move freely in their in their environmental area. This Andrew attributed to partitioning the natural environment areas into smaller unnatural units which



ends up disturbing the population of wild life. On account of this Lelethu and Okem (2016) indicated that the question begging for an answer is “whether human mobility is more important than the mobility and life of wild life species” (p16).

Furthermore, large infrastructural projects often require resettlement of entire communities. Examples of such large infrastructure projects may include; construction of large dams for either irrigation or hydroelectricity projects and development of new settlements. Such resettlement schemes come with a lot of challenges including loss of community livelihoods coupled with lack of access to basic necessities of life (such as water, health care, basic education, sanitation and transports services (Lerer & Scudder, 1999; Otsuki et al., 2016). Additionally, resettlements are known to have accounted for the loss of social and national capital as well as the disorientation of the cultural and traditional institutional systems that underpin a community’s identity and heritage. The adverse effects of infrastructure development transcend the loss of income and livelihoods to include loss of culture and social identity.

The question of mitigating the effect of infrastructure development is a concession of both the potential and actual negative effect of infrastructure development on the environment (Haye, 2014). It is therefore imperative that the question of mitigating the environmental effect on infrastructure development should be a central component of the project design and not only considered as an afterthought and thus poorly integrated into project implementation. The increased quest to reduce the effect of infrastructure development have resulted in an increased recognition of the need to balance economic, social and environmental needs in infrastructural project implementation (Lelethu & Okem, 2016).

2.11.2 Non-Infrastructure Strategies of Poverty Reduction

a. Market Based or Pro-Poor Growth as a Strategies for Poverty Reduction

It has been projected that 35%-50% of the difference occurring in the incidence of poverty across countries is, to a greater extent, as a result of variations in Gross National Product (GNP) (Lipton, 1998; p138). Between 50% and 67% of poverty could be associated with policy related factors other than economic growth. Pro-poor growth strategy seeks to increase the poor's share of its economic benefits resulting from economic growth. The World Bank's 1990 two and a half prong strategy involving emphasising labour-intensive growth, social services, and safety nets is a typical pro-poor growth strategy (World Bank, 1990). Page (2005) observe in a study that most donors who provide development assistance to developing countries often ignore the 1990 World Bank prescriptions of the focal areas of intervention for poverty reduction and rather emphasis public infrastructure and social service provision. Unfortunately, most African leaders due to the scarcity of development resources subordinate their priorities to the donors' priority and turn to respond accordingly (Page, 2005). Since the World Bank's 2.5 strategy of 1990s, additional factors have been added including prioritising rural development and institutionalisation of pro-poor tax structure (Gerster, 1999).

In 2000, the World Bank broadened its strategy for poverty reduction to transcend economic domain of development to include other domains of development like; social, cultural governance, political and more. The World Bank recommended three broad areas of strategy formulation to engender pro-poor growth which included; promoting opportunities particularly of the poor, facilitating empowerment of the poor, and enhancing security



through institutionalisation of effective safety nets and reducing all forms of vulnerability (World Bank, 2000; Shaffer, 2008).

An assessment of 90 interventions for poverty reduction by European donors revealed “that objective targeting enhances the impact of the intervention on the poor” (Cox et al., 1999; p79-87). This finding is corroborated by IFAD’s experience (as cited in Gerster, 1999; p12) and by the Federal Ministry for Economic Development (2006; p2). The World Bank in an assessment of public social expenditure on education and health in Africa found that “these programmes did not favour the poor, but rather favoured those who were better off” (Castro-Leal et al., 1999; p49). As a result of the foregone, DAC (2000) recommended that “where there is no direct targeting and the universal provision of services approach is employed then at least complementary measures are essential to prevent the poor from being marginalised” (DAC, 2000; p125). The White Paper of the Blair Government makes the operationalisation of the pro-poor growth approach non-negotiable for the Department for International Development (DFID) (Goudie & Ladd, 1999), in view of which it was decided that “sound macroeconomic policies are only considered as a goal in their own right when they are explicitly justified against the goal of poverty reduction” (as cited in Gerster, 1999; p12).

Attributes of pro-poor growth has been extended to include elements of good governance. For instance, the United Kingdom (UK) has included a wide range of governance elements considered critical such as “democratic accountability, the protection of human rights and the rule of law” into conceptualisation of pro-poor growth or development (as cited in Gerster, 1999; p12). The UK specifically “relates Governance directly to poverty reduction and thus investigates issues of good governance from that perspective” (DAC, 1999; p25-



26). The poverty dimension of “good governance is not yet adequately explored” (DAC, 1999; p144).

A change to a more labour-intensive growth is a function of a change in the relative prices of other factors of production such as labour, capital, etc. This could be achieved through costs of non-labour production factors by imposing huge energy/carbon dioxide emission taxation. The pro labour effect could be more than doubled if additional tax proceeds were used to fund social insurance schemes for workers, thereby lowering the social costs for the employers. Oxfam, in its Poverty Report, established an agenda for change in which it was suggested, among others, “redesigning the taxation system to tax over-exploitation of resources, rather than employment and investment” (Watkins, 1995; p225).

There is a general acceptance of the World Bank approach to poverty reduction by donors as they have supported it and refine it in various ways. The wide acceptance of the pro-poor growth strategy could be based on the appreciation that it offered a technical answer to a political problem. Having said that, the astonishing criticism is the lack of clarity on the essence of pro-poor growth by most development practitioners. Bearing in mind that the macroeconomic framework the World Bank promoted during the 1990s was to reallocate a significant portion of public expenditure towards expansion of social services and safety nets. In addition to the irregular support to public works programmes, there are no clues on how labour-intensive growth could be built into a macroeconomic framework of a country. It is thought-provoking to note the World Bank’s initiative to deal with “important knowledge gaps that remain, including questions such as: What constitutes a labour-



intensive strategy in the context of rapid global integration? How can delivery of public services to the poor be ensured?” (World Bank, 1998b; p65).

b. Resources and Redistribution of Assets as a Strategies for poverty reduction

Studies have revealed that inequality is initially directly negatively related to economic growth. In the past three to five decades, countries with lower income inequality had higher economic growth. “A better distribution of assets to include the poor would not only increase their incomes, reducing poverty directly, but it would also increase aggregate growth by reducing the negative effect on growth of income inequality” (Birdsall & Londono, 1997; p23). David and Hopkins (2011) in a related study concluded that an effective tool for engendering pro-poor growth rest in “securing property rights.” This has the capacity of reducing income inequalities, thereby engendering pro-poor growth (David & Hopkins, 2011).

Apart from economic growth, assets (i.e. physical assets and human capital) distribution is another critical determinant of poverty reduction but it has been neglected in the scheme of things. Inequality works against efforts at reducing poverty (i.e. inequality slows poverty reduction) (UNDP, 1998; p42-47). Regarding human capital, the World Bank and the donor community have made significant changes since the 1980s, but the same cannot be said for physical assets as the evidence show that there is a clear neglect of redistribution of physical assets, such as land. “At least half of the rise of poverty in Latin America during the 1980s (i.e. about 50 million additional poor) was due to deterioration in income distribution” (Birdsall & Londono, 1997; p13). The World Bank has observed that asset and income



inequality could negatively affect growth and poverty reduction (Demery & Walton, 1998; p11-20).

Inequality within localities is observed to be both lower and more stable over time than inequality within a global perspective. “Measured by the Gini-Coefficient, Eastern European, high-income and South Asian countries are relatively equal, while Latin American and Sub-Saharan countries in Africa are relatively unequal; East Asia and the Middle East fall in between” (Demery & Walton, 1998; p9). Over a 30-year period up to the early 1990s, it was observed that income distribution for 45 countries did not show any trend of internal inequality. However, recent studies have shown an “overwhelming increase in inequality within countries” (World Bank, 1999; p25); for instance, as many as 49 countries have recorded increasing inequality, while 10 had decreasing inequality and 15 had no observable trends. Again, “poverty and income inequality have increased in all transition economies since the late 1980s. Some increase in income inequality in the region, even in the long run, is probably an unavoidable consequence of the introduction of market-based rewards” (World Bank, 1999; p25).

There is an overwhelming consensus that redistributive policies should be embedded into poverty reduction initiatives. The study of the Inter-American Development Bank puts it straightforwardly: “Policies aimed at reducing inequalities in the accumulation of assets should be at the centre of a new approach for poverty eradication and the acceleration of growth in Latin America at the start of the new century” (Birdsall & Londono, 1997; p3). A similar conclusion was gotten, from a different investigation in Africa. A major appraisal of World Bank intervention in Africa revealed that the World Bank’s approach “may have





limited impact on poverty unless it can manage to address and promote a reduction in asset inequalities” (Tionneland, 1998; p77). Redistributing land in favour of small holder farmers “is undoubtedly one of the most important weapons against poverty” (Lipton, 1998; p117). Raid El-Ghonemy (1998) expresses doubt in the ability of the favoured market-based land reform approach to orchestrate any change favourable to the landless and other rural poor. Oxfam (as cited in Gerster, 1999; p14) places real emphasis on “redistribution of assets: specifically, on land reform, Oxfam’s approach is driven by equity concerns and it criticises the World Bank approach as being oriented towards economic returns to the economy as a whole”.

Research by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) (Hanmer & Naschold, n. d; p10) reveals that “the growth rates needed to achieve the international development targets - in particular to halve extreme poverty by 2015 - greatly depend on asset distribution and pro-poor policies”. Based on a pro-poor growth model, it implies that Africa and Latin America will be expected to grow at 5% and 4% per capita per annum. On the other hand, if the growth is not based on the pro-poor growth model, with all other variables held constants, then the annual per capita growth rates could rise as high as 15% and 12%, respectively.

c. Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) as a Strategies for Poverty Reduction

The primary focus of the SL approach (Carney, 1999; Chambers, 1997) is people living in rural communities. It is estimated that “about 70% of the world’s poor live in rural areas” (Gerter, 1999; p15). The SL approach provides a framework for analysing: the causes of poverty, people’s access to resources; the diverse livelihood activities of people, and the

relationship between factors at various levels (i.e. micro, intermediate and macro) (Ludi & Slater, 2008).

SL approach involves putting people at the centre of development. A poor household may have command over stores such as “cash savings, food stocks and resources (such as tools, land, and intangible assets i.e. claims for moral/practical support), and access (i.e. opportunity to use information or a service). “Social capital or non-material wealth which encompasses values of trust, solidarity and reciprocity are an important part of the picture” (Gerter, 1999; p15). Again, the approach aims at increasing the sustainability of poor people’s livelihood by; “strengthening their assets to respond to opportunities and risks and minimising vulnerability and improving vulnerability” (Ludi & Slater, 2008; p1).

This approach discourages predetermined ideas and rather advocates the need “to listen”, “to observe”, “to understand”, and “to map”. The starting point of any analysis is the usually underrated complexity of rural life. The analysis goes further than formal employment to capture the multitude of ways to make a living. Reducing vulnerability is a priority under the approach, “helping people to develop resilience to external shocks and increase the overall sustainability of their livelihoods” (Carney, 1999; p4). The sustainable livelihood approach’s portrayal of rural life and poverty are much closer to reality, thus facilitating development of better interventions for poverty reducing. This remains the unique strength of the sustainable livelihood approach.

In order to avoid the traps of the integrated rural development approach that was threatened with an unmanageable number of activities and projects, this approach has recommended



proceeding with limited scope of interventions such as agricultural production, income diversification, or rural infrastructure are targeted. The SL approach reflects the cross-sectoral nature of strategies for survival. A major emphasis of the SL approach is on rural development that involves diverting interest and funds from agriculture. This remains the challenge for donors because they are organised along sectoral lines and some continue to prioritise particularly agriculture. UNDP (Gerster, 1999) supports SL programmes as an important area of interventions. IFAD's (Gerster, 1999) rejection of top-down processes and its strong respect for partners render its approach close to the sustainable livelihood principles.

Although pro-poor growth is considered an improved trickle-down model, the idea of SL is a drastic departure from economic growth. Resultant growth effects of interventions based on the SL approach are a mere by-product; they may have their merits on other grounds but in the end do not matter.

d. Rights and Empowerment as a Strategies for Poverty Reduction

The poor only become engines of development when they are recognised to have rights and choices. The rights-based approach to development and poverty reduction stresses “the rights of the individual to lead a decent life in dignity”. These rights are as embedded in international treaties, including: “rights necessary for survival and dignified living; rights and freedoms necessary for human dignity, creativity and intellectual and spiritual development; and rights necessary for liberty and physical security” (McGee et al., 1998).



Development is about the achievement of “entitlements and rights”. Meeting these basic rights are virtually binding on the duty bearer and are non-negotiable. It is not a question of charity, nor is it dependent on the discretion of the market; nor does it depend on economic growth. It would be inconceivable or even strange for universal access to social services to be frustrated under the rights-based approach on account of corruption or even given up in favour of a model centred on the ability to pay: simply put, this is not tolerated under the rights-based approach. The policies of the World Bank in this respect are of critical importance given that the Bank is one of the largest lenders for basic health and education. The World Bank has relaxed its earlier position on harsh cost-recovery charges for basic services to all categories of persons including the poor (Gerster, 1999).

A rights-based approach, as a “bottom-up” approach, emphasises participation and local ownership as well as quality delivery. Having rights is one thing, knowing those rights and taking advantage of them is yet another. The rights approach to poverty reduction is closely related to empowerment of people, given that empowerment opens up people to know they have certain rights and to equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills to demand such rights. In view of this, Gerster (1999) opined that there is “no achievement without empowerment” (p16): this clearly feeds into Jolly’s stance that “empowerment of the poor must be the starting point. Without empowerment, poverty eradication is not possible and even efforts of poverty alleviation may well not be sustainable” (Jolly, 1999; p7). And: “Empowerment is the process of gaining power, both control over external resources, and growth in inner self-confidence and capability” (Sen, 1997; p18). As a process, empowerment is considered a most suitable strategy for addressing the intrinsic multi-dimensionality of poverty.



There has been a gradual shift in orientation of donors' approaches in favour of the right's centred philosophy in their strategy papers. For instance, Oxfam's strategic change objectives (Gerster, 1999) is dedicated to the rights to sustainable livelihoods, protection and security, health and education, and the right to determines one's own future. The 1997 United Kingdom White Paper (Gerster, 1999) groups poverty in the context of social justice, civil and political rights and human rights as elements of a twin track approach where the rights are promoted as a matter of standard requirement; however, they are important instruments for poverty reduction as well. In the Swiss government's observation, development opportunities are intricately linked to access to economic resources and political participation. "A central concern of Swiss development co-operation is therefore to empower poor and disadvantaged population groups to safeguard their interests and rights in political, economic and social processes" (Gerster, 1999; p17). Norway (Gerster, 1999) contends that human rights should become part of all bilateral and multilateral policy negotiations. It considers education and health as a rights issue, not simply as a means to achieve better socio-economic returns but as one of the fundamental human rights, which is a departure from the World Bank approach.

2.12 WORLD BANK'S FRAMEWORK FOR POVERTY REDUCTION

Every poverty reduction strategy is anchored on "encouraging the productive use of the poor's most abundant asset (i.e. labour) and provision of basic social services to the poor as well as instituting transfer/safety nets mechanism for the most vulnerable and excluded groups" (World Bank, 1990, p 3). The current thinking of how to address the challenge of poverty does not contradict earlier approaches, but rather advocates for the broadening of the focus of poverty reduction to transcended the economic domain to include other domains



such as social, cultural, governance, political and more. In recognition of this, the World Bank has proposed a general framework for action in three areas to guide strategies for poverty reduction:

1. **Promoting Opportunity:** involves stimulating economic growth to expand economic opportunities for the poor and moreover build up the poor's most abundant assets and increasing the economic returns on those assets.
2. **Facilitating Empowerment:** involves state institutional accountability and responsiveness to the poor and promotion of participation in local political practices and decision-making and removing the social barriers that result in social exclusion on the basis of gender, ethnicity, race and social status.
3. **Enhancing Security:** involves putting in place a safety net mechanism that reduces the poor's vulnerability to economic shocks, ill health, policy induced dislocations, natural disasters, and violence.

Based on the above, Shaffer (2008) argued that there has been some change in the discourse on poverty. Although focus of both the 1990 and 2000 World Development Reports were on poverty, the 1990 report presented what is termed the 2.5-point strategy, which highlights labour-intensive growth, social sector investments and transfers/safety-nets for excluded groups. The 2000 report basically accepted and broadened the 1990 conceptions by employing terminologies like opportunity, empowerment and security.

It is imperative to acknowledge that the change in rhetoric has, as argued by Shaffer, obviously reflected in the broadening of the conception of poverty from a physiological conception of deprivation to a social conception; and, subsequently, the inclusion of



vulnerability, inequality and human rights as important issues to consider in the conception of poverty (Shaffer, 2008).

In corroboration with Shaffer, Maliki (2011, p. 5) argues that, until recently the standard analysis of poverty dynamics was largely based on “...economic and human capital, which formed the basis for the physiological conception of deprivation...” Maliki, in agreement with the broadened conception of poverty, observed that, in recent decades, additional forms of capital such as social, political, cultural and natural have come to constitute an important part of analysing/assessing deprivation or poverty.

2.13 THE DISTRICT ASSEMBLY AND POVERTY REDUCTION

2.13.1. The District Assembly System of Ghana

The District Assembly (DA) system of Ghana is viewed as a strategy for the realisation of change and development goals, which is underpinned by the basic principles of decentralisation that involves the devolution of responsibility for local planning and decision making as well as local administrative authority to local government authorities (in the case of Ghana to District Assemblies) from the central government (Rondinelli & Cheema, 1983). The increasing desirability for decentralisation has been supported by a number of scholarly works concluding that the centralised bureaucratic top-down administrative model has failed many nation states actualising their broad development goals. For instance, Ayee (2000), in a study of decentralisation in the global context, posits that centralisation, at best, could be described as a wasteful enterprise and, at worst, a primary instrument for perpetuating an urban biased political economy, which rests heavily on the rural dweller and the poor.



The sustained interest in decentralisation since independence in most Africa countries, including Ghana, is a clear indication that it holds considerable promise involving local stakeholders in the development process. Kyei (2008) observed that decentralisation could empower socially excluded groups (i.e. the minority and vulnerable groups) to participate in all local development activities. Furthermore, Crook and Sverrison (2001) argued that decentralisation ensures greater responsiveness of development interventions to the needs and aspirations of the poor on account of the virtues of decentralisation (i.e. democracy, popular participation, responsiveness, accountability and equity).

It is instructive to note that, with the inception and operationalisation of decentralisation and participatory governance in Ghana following the operationalisation of the 1992 constitution, DAs have become the rallying points of development as they were and still are responsible for the total development of their respective areas of jurisdiction. As part of their overall development roles, they were also responsible for programming for poverty reduction to improved quality of life among its citizenry (Manor, 1997).

The DA system of Ghana, according to most scholars, has positively influenced efforts at reducing poverty at the district level through its empowerment mechanism that creates room for the poor, minority, vulnerable and excluded groups to capture their priority needs for consideration and adoption by the district. This is made possible through the participatory decision-making mechanism of the DA system, which is in recognition of the fact that the destiny of the people lies in their own hands (Adjei & Kyei, 2011). Dinye and Ofei-Aboage (2002) observed that the local government system of Ghana (i.e. the DA) may encourage effective mobilisation, allocation and utilisation of resources to address local development

needs and aspirations of the people that include design and implementation of programmes that will result in poverty reduction.

Another group of scholars, including Conyers (1986) and Kyei (2008), have cautioned that decentralisation cannot be a panacea for poverty reduction especially so when the entire process is captured by the elites who could manipulate the process to suit their whims and caprices. Katsiauoni (2003), in corroborating Conyers and Kyei, argued that the whole process of decentralisation was endangered by a number of factors including macroeconomic mismanagement, corruption, bloated bureaucracy and worsened inequity between one region and the other. The ambiguity as to whether decentralisation benefits the poor or not lies in the fact that duty bearers (i.e. policy makers and bureaucrats) continue to control and dominate the process of setting the agenda for development. There is, however, an inclination towards limiting the involvement of the poor themselves in determining the trajectory of development that directly affects them (Kyei, 2008).



2.13.2. The District Assembly as a Tool for Poverty Reduction in Ghana

Under the District Assembly system, which was initiated in 1988, local authorities (i.e. the DA and its sub-structures) are given powers and tasks that have considerable potential for promoting socio-economic development including reducing levels of poverty in their areas of jurisdiction.

The Local Government Act of 1993 (Act 462) and amended to Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) indicates that the Metropolitan/Municipal/District Assembly (MMDA) is designated as the district planning authority. As a district planning authority, the district is

responsible for the overall development of the district, approval of the development plans and budgets, as well as mobilisation of resources (GOG, 1993; 2016). The MMDA is furthermore responsible for identifying and supporting productive activity, and the provision of basic socio-economic infrastructure including public and civic works. The Local Governance Act encourages the MMDA to enter into cooperation with public corporations, statutory bodies, NGOs and CSOs (GOG, 2016).

The National Development Planning (System) Act, 1994 (Act 480) prescribes that all MMDAs prepare a District Medium-Term Development Plans (DMTDPs) to guide the process of socio-economic development (poverty reduction) at the district level. Since 1996, DMTDPs have been prepared by MMDAs based on planning guidelines issued by the NDPC to ensure that MMDAs do not miss out on national development priorities. The DMTDPs capture all development efforts at the district level including projects and activities sponsored by the Assembly, central government agencies, development partners, local NGOs and CSO. These DMTDPs represent the MMDAs development agenda for the district and therefore becomes the MMDAs' blue print for development over the medium term (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011; GOG, 1994; 2010).

Again, the local government sub-structures (i.e. Unit Committees, Area, Urban and Zonal Councils) serve as rallying point for poverty reduction and local economic development. They support the assembly in the process of community mobilisation and animation to support plan preparation, implementation and monitoring of development programmes and projects as well as serving as a focal point for the discussion of local development problems (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).





Over the twenty and more years of efforts at poverty reduction, Ghana has enjoyed relative political stability but not comparable financial strength. There have been changes in the social, political and administrative environment in which poverty reduction programmes have been implemented. Some of the most important changes have been in the increasing participation of local and foreign development organisations, NGOs and the private sector alongside the government in implementing poverty reduction programmes. Other stakeholders are involved in advocacy for increased stakeholder involvement in development decision-making including increasing involvement of civil society organisations and project beneficiaries in programme and project monitoring (Adjei & Kyei, 2011; Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).

There are, however, mixed perceptions about the achievements of local authorities and the performance of District Assemblies in reducing poverty in their respective areas of jurisdiction. People can identify infrastructural developments and increased opportunities to development decisions at the local level. However, there are concerns about the capacity of assemblies for resource mobilisation and financial management. All these have implications for the efforts at reducing poverty levels in the medium to long term (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).

Generally, the MMDAs are clothed with powers under the Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) to assess their own conditions, determine their own priorities based on the outcome of their assessment, and make their own decisions on what specific actions to take to improve on their own living conditions, as well as mobilise both human and material resources at their disposal to implement the decisions they have settled on to address the development issues identified in order to improve the quality of life of the people. There is a clear mandate

for DAs, at least in principle, to reduce poverty through the participatory planning process (GOG, 2016).

Since the operationalisation of the decentralised planning system, MMDAs have executed various development projects such as construction and maintenance of classroom blocks, public toilets, clinics, markets, feeder roads, and provision of street-lights to improve access to socio-economic services in areas that were previously underserved (Ayee, 2003). In most cases, MMDA have collaborated with local and international stakeholders to execute some programmes and projects.

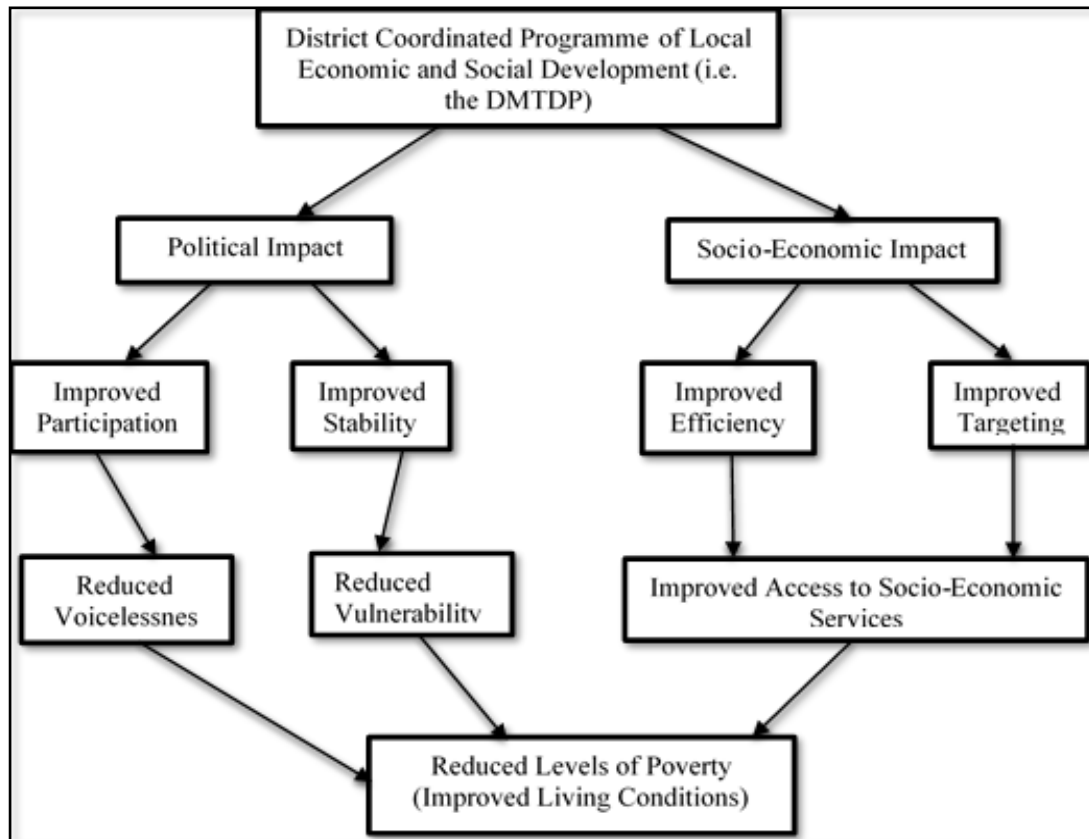
Again, the execution of such projects has helped to open up development opportunities in most MMDAs through the various forward and backward linkages resulting from the execution of projects. In addition to the aforementioned most MMDAs provide targeted support for various income generating activities through the provision of credit facilities, capacity enhancing training programmes and supply of material and equipment support to identifiable groups to enable them to take advantage of the opportunities resulting from improved access to socio-economic services (Adjei & Kyei, 2011).

Ghana's District Assembly system was premised on the institutionalisation of popular participation in decision-making and delivery of equitable development. A review of literature reveals that these ambitions are still as relevant today as they were in 1988, particularly for engendering pro-poor development. Experience from elsewhere, including the Asia Pacific region, reveals that effective popular-participation is key to addressing the problem of politicisation of decision making. To foster greater accountability to citizenry,



the link between Assembly members and the people ought to be strengthened in order to improve feedback, structured engagement of community groups, economic associations and civic unions by MMDAs that could be useful (Adjei & Kyei, 2011; GTZ & MOFEP, 2010).

Figure 2.3 Framework for District Assembly Poverty Reduction



Source: adopted from Jütting et al. (2004)

Figure 2.3 focuses on the basic channels through which the MMDA can influence the fight against poverty. Poverty, as it is known, is conceptualised as being multidimensional thus transcends the concept of “income poverty”. For the purpose of this research, the dimensions of poverty of interest are limited to only three, which could be influenced by MMDAs interventions; that is, voicelessness, vulnerability, and limited access to socio-economic services (Jütting et al., 2004). In order to unravel the various effects MMDAs could have on

poverty and living conditions of their citizenry, there is a critical need to establish a distinction between the political and socio-economic channels.

Politically, MMDAs provided the platform for grassroots and wide stakeholder participation in local decision-making processes at the local level, from which they were generally excluded due to inadequate representation or poor organisation. Improved representation in MMDAs' decision making processes is expected to increase opportunities and choices for the poor as a result of improved access to local public services and social security schemes, thus reducing vulnerability and insecurity.

Similarly, MMDA could facilitate power sharing between local ethnic minority and majority groups. If this is carefully done it could help establish better grounds for political consensus and stability (Jütting et al., 2004). A stabilised political situation at the MMDAs provides an opportunity for the poor and excluded groups to escape from the clutches of poverty as measures are put in place to reduce the poor's vulnerability to shocks.

With respect to the socio-economic channel, under the Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) MMDAs are tasked with the responsibility of the overall development of the district. The MMDAs are expected to ensure that the development delivered is pro-poor. This could be achieved through increased efficiency and better targeting of development interventions. An enhanced efficiency in socio-economic service provision could directly influence poor people's access to socio-economic services (such as education, health, water and sanitation and electricity). Devolution of power, functions and resources from the central government in Accra to the MMDAs at the district level impacts positively on the targeting of the poor



for development interventions. As a more localised framework for the project cycle management could, in addition to reducing costs of project management, ensure project benefits reach those most in need as a result of improved targeting and increased responsiveness to local development needs.

2.13.3 District Development Focus and Poverty Reduction

The district policy focus for development and poverty reduction is as determined by the Medium-Term National Development Policy Framework (MTNDPF) which is operationalised by guidelines provided by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) to guide the preparation of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) Medium Term Development Plan (MTDP) in accordance with Section 1(3, 4), Section 2 to 11 of the National Development Planning (System) Act 1994 (Act 480).

The NDPC's guidelines are normally designed to provide focus and direction on national development priorities and to enhance the process of harmonising and rationalising development programmes, projects and activities initiated from the community, district and national levels respectively (GOG, 2005, 2011). The MTDPs are required to; reflects the national thematic areas; adopt participatory mechanism for developing the MTDPs including having a multi-stakeholder planning team and organise a public hearing with public representation including civil society organisations and emphasis on MMDA level leadership in the entire planning process (Ofei-Aboagye, 2011).

The District Medium Term Development Plan (MTDP) is the policy focus for development and poverty reduction at the district level, as it represents the coordinated programmes and



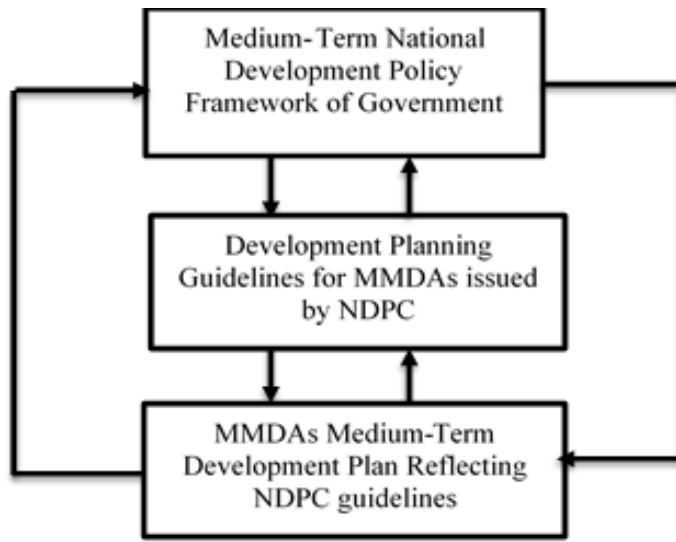


projects of local economic and social development. The MTDP is a result of inputs from communities, decentralised departments and Non-governmental Organisations (NGO), Civil Society Organisations (CSO) and interest groups operating within the district (GOG, 2010).

The country's development focus from the 1990s has been determined by seven Medium-Term National Development Policy Frameworks (MTNDPF) (i.e. Ghana Vision 2020-the First Step (1996-2000), Interim Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2000-2002), Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005), Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2006-2009), Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2010-2013) and Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2014-2017)), which have directly influenced MMDAs Medium-Term Development Plans (MTDP) due to the strict adherence to the planning guideline provided by the NDPC to ensure that all MMDAs' MTDPs were responsive to and reflects the MTNDPF.

Figure 2.4 presents the source of district level policy focus for development and poverty reduction. It depicts that NDPC prepares the development planning guidelines based on the MTNDPF to ensure that national development priorities are addressed at the MMDA level as a basis of enhancing the process of harmonising and rationalising development programmes, projects and activities initiated from the community, district and national levels respectively. Figure 2.4 also indicates that the MTNDPF is reflected at the MMDAs in their respective MTDPs, while at the national level the MTDPs reflect the operationalisation of the MTNDPF into implementable programmes, projects and activities at the MMDAs which represents the operational point of actualisation of the MTNDPF.

Figure 2.4: Source of District Policy/Development Focus



Source: Authors Construct, 2019 based on NDPC Guidelines

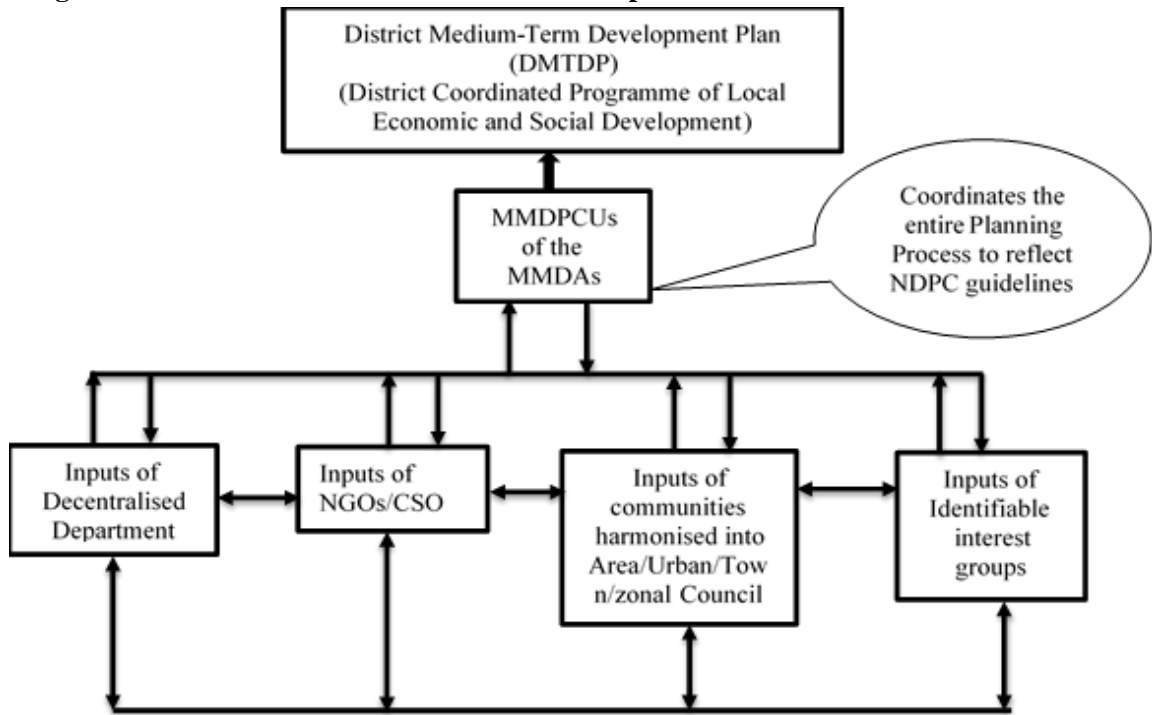
In order to effectively undertake poverty reduction activities, MMDAs are required to coordinate district level sectoral programmes and projects directed towards poverty reduction, with support of donors, Non-governmental Organisations and Community-Based Organisations and private sector enterprises to ensure increased impact of poverty reduction programmes (GOG, 1996; p77; as cited in Kyei, 2008).

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Figure 2.5 indicates that the MTDP is a coordinated programme of local economic and social development as inputs into the preparation of the MTDP are drawn from all local level actor/partners/stakeholders in the development efforts of the MMDAs and coordinated at the MMDPCU at the MMDA level to ensure that all inputs into the MTDP are organised in accordance with the NDPC guidelines to reflect the tenants of the MTNDPF of government. Figure 2.5 also depicts that a lot of consultative processes occur among the local actors of development and the MMDPCUs in other to arrive at a final input that reflects the general aspirations of the people and also remain responsive to the MTNDPF for incorporation into the MTDP.

Figure 2.5: Conceptualisation of the Process of Developing a District Coordinated Programme of Local Economic and Social Development



Source: Authors Construct, 2019 based of the Local Governance Act 2016 (Act 936)

2.14 REVIEW OF RELEVANT EMPIRICAL STUDIES

The review of relevant empirical studies as presented in this section attempted to review relevant empirical literature reflecting study objectives as follows:

2.14.1 Nature and Scope of Poverty Reduction Interventions

The Commonwealth Foundation (1999) found that every government (including local government) is responsible for providing for its citizenry three basic needs of life, which include: economic security needs (such as the provision of water for irrigation, employment creation); social needs (such as education, sanitation, water, health, etc.); and physical security and peace needs (such as safe society or a society with a low crime rate, etc.). Davey (1996), in corroborating the above, argued that the responsibility of local government (among several others) include: provision of infrastructure for efficient operations of cities

and towns; provision of social services to develop human resources and improve productivity thereby enhancing the standard of living of citizens; regulation of private activities that affects community welfare and the health and safety of people; and provision of services and facilities that allow private enterprises to operate efficiently (p.47).

In spite of the expensive nature of public works like construction and maintenance of road infrastructure, they remain critical enablers of socio-economic development and poverty reduction which governments must prioritise to ensure their delivery to facilitate social and economic development (Dalton, 2014). Kunafa et al., (2002) in an independent study found that the poor considered bad roads as a major hindrance for the pursuit of their livelihood activities. ODI (2008) also came to a similar conclusion as they observed that, the ability of the rural poor to access market and other basic socio-economic services is primarily dependent on the availability and quality of infrastructure facilities. Emran and Shilpi (2010; p13) observed that in countries with high road density, there is a corresponding higher access to socio-economic services compared with countries with lower road density.

Karley (2009) and Braimah and Adom-Asamoah (2011), in two separate studies, found that to sustainably reduce poverty and engender local development at the MMDA level requires adequate socio-economic infrastructure that ensures access to good roads, market centres, water and sanitation, energy services, housing, education and health services. These are considered critical elements required to catalyse development and induce poverty reduction among target beneficiaries (Karley, 2009; Braimah & Adom-Asamoah, 2011). According to UN-HABITAT (2009a), these elements of socio-economic infrastructural facilities are



important in shaping the spatial structure of MMDAs, and may result in certain sections of the population becoming spatially marginalised and excluded from access to opportunities.

Additionally, Jatoe et al. (2011) observed that reduction in poverty among the population of Ghana have favoured southern Ghana more so than it has northern Ghana. They furthermore observed that inequality was rising across the country and, like poverty, was higher in the northern sector than it was in the southern sector. Thorbecke (2013), in concurring, explained that the long period of neglect in investing in appropriate social and economic infrastructure in the north has resulted in the lower responsiveness of poverty to growth in Northern Ghana. A typical example is the neglect of small holder farmers who fall in the poverty bracket and depend exclusively on agriculture in favour of large-scale commercial farmers who are predominantly well-off and have other alternative livelihoods.

Furthermore, in a study in Ghana and Cote d'Ivoire where the majority of the poor are engaged in agriculture, it was found that expenditure on development tends to be sunk into physical infrastructures that has virtually no link or relevance to agriculture. The study also found that, where specific infrastructures is critically required to support the local economy (such as electricity, water and roads), local governments lack the capacity and legal authority to provide such infrastructure. In comparative terms this is not unusual, as it confirms the fact that most local government development outputs in Africa tend to be related to predominantly physical infrastructures, particularly small-scale construction and social amenity, educational or health projects (Crook, 2003).





Ironically, in a study in Nigeria it was observed that in most local governments with a predominant agriculture sector (i.e. 80% of the population depends on agriculture), most of the public expenditure was spent on urban infrastructure and recurrent costs, while the most promising sector of the local economy (i.e. agricultural sector) is neglected (Akpan, 1990). In concurring, Olowu (1989) concluded that, in sectors where substantial economic impact is possible, Nigerian local governments merely act as an agent of Federal government agencies (like the Federal Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure) to supervise implementation of such projects at the local government level.

Kuu-Ire (2009), in reviewing colonial and post-independence development strategies, observed that poverty and development strategies from colonialism through the post-independence period to date have been unsuccessful in addressing the poverty situation in northern Ghana. This, according to him, was due primarily to the lack of understanding of the poverty situation in terms of its nature and dimensions, thus the failure of programmes and projects to deliver equitable gains or benefits. In view of this, he advocated for a better analysis and understanding of northern Ghana's peculiarities; socially, politically, economically and even attitudinally as a basis for policy formulation and programming for poverty reduction.

It is reported in the District Assembly Common Fund (DACF) newsletter that "the DACF funded projects have, to a very large extent, catered for the socio-economic and infrastructure needs of the people", thereby impacting greatly on: teaching, learning and enrolment as a result of the provision of standard educational infrastructure; improved health care delivery as a result of increased access through the provision of better health facilities;

enhanced road connectivity and accessibility by opening up remote communities and improved movement of goods and services; enhanced local economic development by improving road and market infrastructure etc. (Common Fund Newsletter (Issue 5), 2016; p11).

2.14.2 Impact of Poverty Reduction Interventions

Eboreime and Njoku (n. d) in a study in Nigeria aimed at finding out whether the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) had contributed to reducing poverty among beneficiaries in Imo state of Nigeria. They found that, through using econometric analysis, the impact of NAPEP on the welfare of project beneficiaries was not statistically significant, which implies that NAPEP interventions have not led to a significant reduction in poverty among its beneficiaries. From the forgone, it is obvious that poor access by the target group to the intervention could have partly accounted for the poor outcomes of the intervention.

In another study in Nigeria by Dakyes and Mundi (2013) to assess “*the impact of poverty reduction programmes on the development of rural areas with particular reference to Plateau state in Nigeria*”, it was found that the NAPEP had a very low positive impact on the well-being of the people. A sample of 500 was studied and a simple percentage analysis was employed. The authors noted that the NAPEP programme failed to impact on the rural areas investigated because it was clear that there were diversions of benefits to urban centres originally meant for rural areas, for personal benefits and also for politically expedient reasons (Dakyes & Mundi, 2013).





In yet another study in Nigeria in 2012, Yakubu and Hassan assessed the impact of NAPEP in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna state. The study revealed that the programme failed to achieve its goal of reducing levels of poverty. This conclusion came about because it was found that only 17.2% of the population surveyed benefitted from NAPEP loans while a whopping 82.8% did not. Furthermore, only 11.2% of the population received training while 88.8% were not privileged to do so (Yakubu & Hassan, 2012). From the forgone, it is obvious that there was inadequate awareness of the intervention by the target group for the intervention. This could have partly accounted for the poor outcomes of the intervention.

Orji (2005) in a study on “assessing the impact of poverty reduction intervention in Nigeria as a development strategy between 1970 and 2005” found that 66.05% of the 717 respondents surveyed strongly agreed that poverty reduction programmes of government had not made any significant impact on the people while 33.05% strongly disagreed. Thus, based on percentage analysis as well as chi-square statistical technique, the study concluded that the poverty reduction interventions of government had limited impact on the poor.

In a study by Osei-Fosu (2010) in an “assessment of the economic impact of the use of the HIPC initiative for poverty reduction in Ghana”, it was found that per capita income of the households had significantly increased resulting in a decrease in the proportion of the people below the poverty line over the period of the programme implementation. He further added that, from the results of “Foster-Greer-Thorbecke” (FGT) Poverty Gap Index (PGI), the percentage of income needed to move the poor above the poverty line has considerably reduced over the same period. However, the study also found that the concentration of poverty (inequality among the poor) increased, which is reflective of the fact that HIPC was

not a pro-poorest intervention. This reflected the increase in the FGT squared poverty gap index from 2000 to 2008. This implies that there is an increase in the percentage of income needed over the period under investigation to move the very poor to catch up with the less poor. Hence the HIPC initiative was not a pro-poor intervention. Although the initiative had evidently contributed to poverty reduction, it favoured the less poor than it did the very/poorer.

Osei-Fosu in 2008 assessed “the impact of the HIPC micro-credit intervention on poverty reduction among 400 farm households in Nkoranza and Wenchi Districts in Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana”. The study measured poverty reduction in terms of increase in income. He found that incomes had increased in Nkoranza and Wenchi districts by an average of 26.72% and 25.50% respectively, which implies the intervention had contributed to poverty reduction. Furthermore, the study found that the people below the poverty line had dropped by 20.51 and 18.99 percentage point to 78% and 79% respectively for Nkoranza and Wenchi Districts (Osei-Fosu, 2008).

In a study by Adjei and Kyei in 2011 in which they assessed the impact of District Assemblies (DAs) on poverty reduction and community development in two sample districts (i.e. Sekyere East and Ahafo Ano North) they found that, despite the huge investment by MMDAs to address the problem of poverty, poverty still remains a major development issue as a result of the over emphasis on infrastructure and social service provision against the provision of interventions that affect beneficiaries’ livelihood. They therefore concluded that it was as a result of a perception gap in conceptualisation poverty and misplaced priorities,



which might have accounted for the reason why poverty reduction strategies suffer inadequate targeting of the poor in most MMDAs in Ghana.

Page (2005; p20) in a review of a study in Indonesia, observed that the country was quite successful in implementing a “twenty-five year policy of using a share of its petroleum revenues in supporting direct productive activities of poor small holder farmers, through targeted fertilizer subsidies and massive investment in rural infrastructure such as; roads, irrigation, market infrastructure and rural water delivery systems, etc.”. From Page’s observation, it is clear that, there is an urgent need to balance state investment in direct productive activities and investment in delivery of socio-economic infrastructure, given that any imbalance will skew development in favour of the rich at the expense of the poor.

In a study to assess participants’ views of the impact of projects aimed at alleviating poverty, it was found that the interventions had resulted in a significant increase in income levels of project beneficiaries (i.e. is from an average of about 90,000 to about 350,000 old Ghanaian Cedis per month). The study also revealed that 55% of the respondents ranked increases in sales and earnings first on the project’s positive impacts, while others (35%) cited reduced occupational stress associated with the projects compared to their previous mode of operation without the project (Asiedu, n. d).

A study in Brazil found that, despite the far-reaching self-government given to local authorities under the “1988 Brazilian Constitution”, most of the favourable poverty reduction outcomes were rather associated with either federally funded rural development programmes (most notably the North East Rural Development Programme) or state/city level



programmes initiated by progressive reforming parties (van Zyl et al., 1995; Tandler, 1997; World Bank, 1997; Heller, 2001).

Anger (2010), in analysing the “effect of eradicating poverty in Nigeria via the instrumentality of the MDGs, with specific reference to the implementation of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)” found that, despite establishing parallel institution (i.e. National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)) to lead in the implementation of NEEDS, it had very limited positive poverty reduction outcome as the majority of the citizens of the country lack access to primary health care, water and food. He therefore concluded that, for the core issues of poverty to be tackled, central and local levels of government must develop responsive poverty reduction interventions.

Tersoo (2013), in a study to examine “the impact of strategies adopted by the Federal Government of Nigeria through National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) on the beneficiaries in Benue State”, found the strategies had failed due to structural defects in implementation strategies adopted by the implementing agency (i.e. NAPEP). The study also revealed that inadequate and untimely release of funding, corruption, weak monitoring and evaluation, bad governance and corruption are the major problems affecting the successful implementation of poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria.

2.14.3 Effect of Beneficiary Involvement in Planning of Interventions

According to Inkoom (2011a), apart from the election of Assembly members to represents their interest in MMDAs, local participation in governance of development at MMDAs has





been very low resulting in a situation where the citizenry has lost confidence in the ability of MMDAs to deliver the services they require. The study likewise reveal that inputs of local residents were hardly ever considered in a more consistent, organised and coherent way as inputs into formulating development interventions.

In a study by King et al. (2001) on Urban Governance, Partnerships and Poverty: A Case Study of Kumasi, Ghana, it was revealed that, on several occasions, there was a serious mismatch between what communities and individuals saw as their priority needs as opposed to those expressed by leadership of MMDAs.

In a study in West Bengal, democratic decentralisation was found to be associated with a programme of radical agrarian reform, which over a period of more than 20 years has resulted in significant benefits for the poor in terms of increased participation, increased agricultural production and outputs and improved human development (Webster, 2000; Crook & Sverrisson, 2001).

In a study by Crook and Manor in 1992 of two districts, it was discovered that 70% of respondents felt that the district failed to meet their needs, while 22% felt it was better than the previous (unelected) system (Crook & Manor, 1998). In spite of the extra resources received by districts with the introduction of the District Assemblies Common Fund in 1994-1995, similar results were reported in other districts, including urban areas (Acheampong, 1995; Ayee, 1995; Kessey, 1995). A study of Kumasi City Council residents found that “the majority of respondents “strongly disagreed that the City Council was sensitive to residents’ needs” (Kessey, 1995, p 157), and Schiewer’s study of three rural districts in Brong-Ahafo

and Western Regions reported that “community level aspirations were completely ignored” in developing MTDPs (Schiewer, 1995, p 304).

In a study of urban governance in Kumasi, Inkoom (2011b) found that the constraints to effective participation in local governance of development could be attributed to four broad factors, which include: first, it is a not-fully functional sub-structure of KMA, hence their inability to articulate the needs and aspiration of the people; second, is the issue of limited funding, resulting in the inability of institutions responsible for the communities to implement their respective community needs; third, there is the issue of skills to operationalise effective local governance of development resulting in poor facilitation of participation; and the final issue is weak institutional linkages and poor collaboration among institutions of governance.

Braimah and Adom-Asamoah (2011), in a study of the provision of social service in KMA, posits that “...another constraint to local participation in local governances is that most residents of KMA prefer to spend their time on economic activities because most of them are employed in the informal sector. For this reason, KMA is challenged in its attempts to mainstream the views of their citizenry into the decision-making process as the citizenry do not yield readily to the participatory processes...” (p.170).

The relationship between participation and local governance is an important way of improving the effectiveness of service delivery as well as empowering the poor to participate in the processes determining the course of development. An empirical study of a district in Ghana, revealed that there were conceptualisation differences with respect to poverty and



poverty reduction strategies between the elite and rural poor. The study further showed that the poor are rendered nameless in the process of identification and design of poverty reduction interventions. The study also showed unanimity in the views of the poor that poverty reduction interventions under the District Assemblies (DAs) have hardly had a positive affected on them (Kyei, 2008).

2.14.4 Challenges in Implementing Poverty Reduction Intervention

In a Kenyan study it was found that most poverty reduction efforts failed due to non-existing/weak linkages among organisations engaged in poverty reduction interventions. More importantly, the study observed that ineffective sectoral collaboration among institutions has had a negative impact on delivery of poverty reduction, which was further exacerbated by the duplication of efforts, making it difficult for institutions to link their activities (Omiti et al., 2002). Moreover, institutions responsible for managing the implementation of poverty reduction programmes lacked the “requisite capacities as evidenced by less qualified personnel, weak physical infrastructure, ineffective networking within their areas of operation, weak management structures, and imposing ideas on the communities rather than deriving development strategies from them” (Omiti et al., 2002; p 4).

In an “assessment of poverty reducing policies and programmes in Ghana” it was discovered that most of the programmes designed to reduce poverty in Ghana had failed to achieve their goals due to a number of factors, including: inadequate involvement of the communities in programme identification and design; some of the programmes were so alien to the beneficiaries hence hindering community acceptance; inadequate support in terms of



resources and extension services; and increasing corrupt practices of the managers cause the benefits of the programme to go to the non-poor rather than to the very poor of the poor (Sowa, 2002).

Kessey (2013), in a study of “global poverty reduction policy and implementation strategies at the local level...” assessed the likelihood of Ghana achieving the MDGs targets by 2015 within the context of GPRS I & II. The study concluded that there were financial, economic, social, and institutional bottlenecks retarding the implementation of GPRS I & II in order to realise the MDG target by 2015.

The UN-HABITAT found that, although the provision of socio-economic service is the responsibility of local government, many of them struggle to deliver on this responsibility to their citizenry (UN-HABITAT, 2009a). The reasons for the struggle have been associated with: limited local government resources; management inefficiencies; insufficient central government allocations; corrupt practices; misuse of public funds, and lack of transparency in fund allocation by local government and central government alike; inexperienced institutional and human resources; limited investment in training/capacity building; low wages; and undue influence by higher level authorities over local affairs (UN-HABITAT, 2008).

Braimah and Adom-Asamoah (2011) argued that, despite sector specific challenges to sustainable poverty reduction interventions, the emerging issues that pose the greatest challenge to sustainable poverty reduction (including social service) are related to inadequate financial resources and low community participation.



In yet another publication by UN-HABITAT (2009b) on a “guide to municipal financing in Nairobi”, it was concluded that limited funding implies investment in interventions aimed at poverty reduction suffers, resulting in maintaining the difference between the rich and the poor. Consequently, the amount of funding available to local authorities is a key determinant of the quality and quantity of poverty reduction interventions they are able to implement including delivery of socio-economic services (UN-HABITAT, 2009b).

A study by Braimah and Adom-Asamoah (2011) revealed that poverty reduction intervention financing is heavily dependent on external support and this has accounted for the challenge in meeting poverty reduction demands by most MMDAs. Some of the support comes in the form of partnerships between MMDAs and external agencies to implement programmes that improves the living condition of the people through improved access to socio-economic services and direct livelihood activities (Braimah & Adom-Asamoah, 2011).

Ajolor (2013), in a study to “examine policy implementation and rural poverty reduction in Nigeria with particular reference to National Poverty Eradication Programme in Ado-Odo Ota Local Government Ogun State”, concluded that the failure of the poverty reduction policy stemmed from the fact that there were constraints in policy implementation in Nigeria as a result of: setting unrealistic goals; lack of participation of target beneficiary in policy decisions; lack of consideration of the socio-political environment; and increasing levels of corruption. NAPEP is constrained by these problems, which is why it could not make much impact in the rural areas.





In a study of “empirical reality and sustainable management failures of renewable energy projects in Sub-Saharan Africa” by Ikejamba et al. (2016), they discovered that, in spite of the differences in culture and understanding, the reasons for projects failure were found to be similar across the different countries: “... political agenda, process of awarding projects, stakeholder co-operation, planning & implementation, maintenance and public acceptance and inclusion...”. (Ikejamba et al., 2016; p1).

In a study by Ajei and Kyei (2011) to examine “the role and impact of DAs in poverty reduction and community development.” They discovered that there were several factors militating against the realisation of poverty reduction and community development objectives, among these the cited the following; inadequate funds resulting from delays in release of the DACF and lack of expertise to increase internally generated funds to supplement central government’s support; low level of education of Assembly Members resulting in poor quality of participation; and influence of planned decisions was yet another factor affecting the outcomes of poverty reduction interventions.

2.15 SUMMARY AND EMERGING ISSUES

The reviewed literature shows that, although poverty was a well-known concept and often identified with human deprivation such as “starvation, malnutrition and homelessness...,” it may not be difficult in comprehending the notion of poverty, its conceptualisation for the purposes of analysis may not be as straightforward as it seems. Whereas some of the studies examined poverty reduction trends from a purely income perspective, others examined it from an expenditure perspective (GSS, 2000; 2008; 2018) and its regional distribution in Ghana (GOG, 2005; 2006). Yet another group examined it from a multidimensional

perspective based on selected indicators (GSS, 2013; Maliki, 2010). Some studies have examined poverty reduction efforts from the impact of the implementation of a successive generation of neoliberal economic policies within a decentralised planning framework (Kessey, 2013; Dinye, 2002).

The empirical review revealed that scholars were not unanimous in respect of the impact of poverty reduction intervention on the levels of poverty of beneficiaries. On the one hand, a group of scholars argued that poverty reduction intervention had resulted in reduced levels of poverty. On the other hand, another group of scholars argue that the poverty reduction interventions had not resulted in poverty reduction among beneficiaries. What became apparent in the review of literature was that none of the studies reviewed specifically set out to study the impact of SNMA poverty reduction interventions on beneficiaries. It was further found that the closest some of the studies came was to study specific programmes/projects implemented through central government agencies at the local authority levels as well as donor or NGO funded intervention. Again, the review revealed that the level of examination of poverty reduction interventions was more at the central government or programme/project level but almost none of the scholarly works cited specifically examined the issue of poverty reduction intervention holistically from the local government/MMDA level. Also, most of the studies failed to examine the impact of the interventions from a beneficiary's perspective, the emphasis was rather on implementors perspective.

My study, however, answered the question of how MMDAs have played their poverty reduction role and how they have performed their role to influence the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions being implemented and how the implemented interventions



have affected poverty levels in MMDAs and to establish the factors affecting the implementation of planned MMDAs interventions for poverty reduction. The study also establishes whether beneficiaries of intervention were involved in the identification and planning of such interventions and how beneficiary involvement has affect the interventions. The next chapter will examine the methodology employed for the study. Specifically, the chapter examines the research strategy employed for the study, study location and sampling procedure used, data collection instruments and the methods of data analysis.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study assessed poverty reduction interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana with particular reference to the perspectives of beneficiaries in Savelugu-Nanton Municipality. To achieve this, the researcher employed the mixed methods research design, through a sequential explanatory approach, underpinned by the pragmatic philosophical assumption of the claim of knowledge. The chapter presents the methods and processes employed in investigating the research problem, answering the research questions, selecting analytical tools for analysing the problem and reaching the study's conclusions. The chapter also serves as a guide on how the research was conceived and executed. The methodology selected was in response to particular framework conditions and the specific context of the study area.



3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND DESIGN

3.2.1 Philosophy Assumption of the Study

Philosophical paradigms remain the bedrock for the conduct of social science research. There are several philosophical paradigms underpinning empirical social research, prominent amongst these are; interpretivism, pragmatism and, positivism (Kumar, 1999; Sarantakos, 2005; Scotland, 2012; Uddin & Hamiduzzaman, 2009). A given philosophical position adopted by a social science researcher influences the; ontology, gnoseology, axiology, epistemology and the claim of knowledge in the research endeavour. This suggests

that the philosophical paradigms are the building blocks of any social science research. Hence, they serve as the guide of the entire research process.

In pragmatic philosophy of social research, the claim of knowledge arises out of actions, situations and consequences rather than an antecedent condition. Pragmatist concern themselves with what works to generate solutions to problems rather than being procedural (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatist de-emphasizes the importance of method and places higher importance on the problem and thus advocates for the application of multiple approaches to addressing a problem. Pragmatists are not bound to any one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell, 2003; Yen, n.d.).

The pragmatists therefore, reject any form of dualisms and rather encourage methodological pluralism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). They believe in an external world that is independent of the mind as well as that which is embedded within the mind. Within this philosophical paradigm, researchers have the right to select the methods, techniques and procedures of investigation that appropriately address the issues of concern in a study (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This paradigm allows for the use of both statistical and non-statistical methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The pragmatic philosophical assumptions seem to align more with this study. Creswell (2003) asserts that central to the pragmatist paradigm is that there is multiple reality, it is responsive to changing circumstances and advocates that problems are solved in ways which best suits the presents condition rather than obeying fixed theories, ideas or rules and since this study is focused on assessing perspectives of beneficiaries of poverty reduction



interventions this paradigm was considered the most suitable for the realisation of the objectives of the study.

The researcher employed the sequential explanatory mixed method which was implemented through employing the cross-sectional survey method. The other survey method that could have been adopted was longitudinal survey. The researcher however, opted for the cross-sectional survey because of the limited time frame for undertaking this study, which renders longitudinal study out of the question.

3.2.2 The Sequential Mixed Research Design

In this study the researcher employed the mixed design, which allows the researcher to employ both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques and analytical procedures at the same time (parallel). This design is also referred to as descriptive research: “descriptive research employs instruments such as questionnaires and interviews to collect data from identifiable subjects or group” (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006; p31). It also allows the researcher to ask questions relating to people’s behaviour, opinions, beliefs, and characteristics. It also permitted the researcher to establish relationships between respondents’ characteristics (such as age, education, social class, etc.) and their current beliefs and attitudes towards an issue or issues (Creswell, 2003).

The design employed offered the researcher the opportunity of using multiple sources and/or methods of data collection, by that it enhanced the credibility and dependability of the data collected. This was so because the strength of a source and/or method compensated for the likely weakness of the other source (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This design allows the



researcher the opportunity of triangulating data sources to ensure convergence across quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2003).

The reason for adopting this design was also due to the fact that survey research does not make causal inferences, but rather describes the distribution of variables for large groups (Creswell, 2003). It is imperative to note that this design provided the researcher with an opportunity to collect targeted data to answer specific questions concerning the phenomenon under investigation. It also helped the researcher to describe the nature of existing conditions. It further enabled the researcher to investigate the relationship that existed between the events (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). An overview of the design, relative to the research questions is as presented in Table 3.1.

The mixed method approach also offered an opportunity to answer a complete range of research questions as it does not limit the researcher to just a given method. It is also worthy to note that the central focus of a mixed method is not limited to searching for corroboration, but rather expanding ones understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). That notwithstanding, corroboration reached by different approaches may enhance the confidence in conclusions reached in a study (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004 as cited in Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The specific mixed method employed was the sequential mixed method design. In the sequential approach, one data collection instrument is administered at a time and the result obtained is used to construct and administer the other instruments later on: in this particular case, the household questionnaire was administered and analysed and based on the emerging



results, opinion leaders' interview guide was developed; this was followed by the key informant interview guide, the MPCU focus group discussion guide and further a follow up of issues with duty bearers to establish clarity. This approach ensured that unexplained issues were followed up thus ensuring both internal and external consistency as each tool served as a check on the other. Although, the researcher used both questionnaires and interviews at different times during the study, the researcher integrated the resultant data into the interpretation of the results of the study (Creswell, 2003).

The mixed method, as adopted, ensured that the researcher used the responses obtained from both the questionnaires and the interviews guides to generate a comprehensive analysis of the issues raised by the research questions. The approach similarly offered the researcher the opportunity of using the results from one instrument to confirm or corroborate the results from the other.

3.2.3 The Cross-Sectional Survey Method

A cross-sectional survey is one that produces a “snapshot of a population at a particular point in time” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 213). Kumar (2009) corroborates the above by explaining that a cross-sectional survey is a kind of survey which is best suited to finding out the prevalence of a given phenomenon or problem by sampling a cross-section of the population. It was therefore appropriate to use this method of inquiry to collect data about current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or practices from beneficiaries of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention at one time to enable the researcher determine the effects of such interventions on levels of poverty (Creswell, 2012).

The survey design was employed because it sought the views of respondents about the effects of the SNM poverty reduction interventions outcomes as we as the perceived Municipal Assembly’s poverty reduction interventions have affected target beneficiaries.

Table 3.1: An Overview of the Study’s Design Framed against the Research Questions

Research Questions	Participants/ Respondents	Research Instrument	Type of Data Collected
1. What is the nature and scope of SNM poverty reduction interventions?	1 Households (n=353)	Questionnaire (structured and semi-structured)	Quantitative and qualitative
	2 Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit (MPCU) and MA management (focus group discussion)	Focus Group Discussion Guide (unstructured)	Qualitative
	3 Key Informant (n=4)	Interview (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)
	4 Opinion leaders (n=32)		
2. How has SNM poverty reduction interventions affected beneficiaries?	1 Households (n=353)	Questionnaire (structured and semi-structured)	Quantitative and qualitative
	2 Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit (MPCU) and MA management (focus group discussion)	Focus Group Discussion Guide (unstructured)	Qualitative
	3 Key Informant (n=4) and	Interview (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)
	4 Opinion leaders (n=32)		
3. How has beneficiary involvement in in planning poverty reductions affect poverty reduction outcomes?	1 Households (n=353)	Questionnaire (structured and semi-structured)	Quantitative and qualitative
	2 Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit (MPCU) and MA management (focus group discussion)	Focus Group Discussion Guide (unstructured)	Qualitative
	3 Key Informant (n=4) and	Interview (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)
	4 Opinion leaders (n=32)		
4. How has the challenges confronting SNMA	1 Households (n=353)	Questionnaire (structured and semi-structured)	Quantitative and qualitative



Research Questions	Participants/ Respondents	Research Instrument	Type of Data Collected	
in its efforts at poverty reduction affected implementation of interventions?	2	Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit (MPCU) and MA management (focus group discussion)	Focus Group Discussion Guide (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)
	3	Key Informant (n=4) and	Interview (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)
	4	Opinion leaders (n=32)		
How are beneficiaries influenced by their perceptions of SNMA poverty reduction interventions?	1	Households (n=353)	Questionnaire (structured and semi-structured)	Quantitative and qualitative
	2	Opinion leaders (n=32)	Focus Group Discussion Guide (unstructured)	Qualitative (interview transcript)

Source: Researcher’s Construct, November, 2016

3.3 BRIEF PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

Savelugu-Nanton District was carved out of the Western Dagomba District Council under the PNDC Law 207 in 1988. This Law was replaced by the Legislative Instrument (LI) 1450 under the Local Government Act 1993 (Act 462). In March 2012, the Assembly was upgraded to a Municipal status under the Legislative Instrument (LI) 2071. Savelugu-Nanton Municipal is located at the northern part of the Northern Region of Ghana in the savanna woodland ecological zone. SNM shares boundaries with West Mamprusi to the North, Karaga to the East, Kumbungu to the West and Tamale Metropolitan Assembly to the South. The altitude of the district ranges between 400 and 800 feet above sea level with an average annual rainfall ranging between 600-1000mm. The district also covers a total land area of about 2022.6 sq. km. with a population density of 68.9 persons per sq. km. (GSS, 2014).

The population of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal (SNM), according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, is 139,283 representing 5.1% of the region’s total population. Made

up of 48.5% Males and 51.5%. females. SNM is predominantly rural in character with 60% population and 40% of the population being urban. There two dominant ethnic group i.e. Dagombas (88.4%) and Frafra (nearly one percent). The other ethnic groups in SNM are Mampurises, Ewes and Gonjas. Islam is the dominant religion (95.4%) beside Christianity and other religions. Agriculture is the main sources of livelihood in SNM, with 89.3% of households in the district engaged in agriculture (GSS, 2014).



Map 3.1: Savelugu-Nanton Municipal



Source: GSS, 2014

3.3.1 Study Area Justification

In order to operationalise the research questions and objectives of the study, one administrative district out of the 26 in the northern region was chosen for the study. Specifically, I conducted the study in Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly (SNMA) in the Northern Region of Ghana. This relatively constrained sample might not be large enough to generalise to other districts in the regions, however SNMA was found to exhibit the characteristics of the three main categories of districts in the region. These three categories of districts include: metropolitan, municipal and district. The SNMA has both rural and urban characteristics but with dominantly rural characteristics, while other districts were either urban or rural. Again, SNMA has a better surface accessibility compared to other districts in the region (i.e. road network connectivity is quite extensive, with good inter-district connectivity). All surrounding villages are fairly accessible, and travelling expenses are relatively less costly than if I had conducted the study in another district (SNMA, 2012).

The Municipal Assembly (MA) is demarcated administratively into one urban/town Council (i.e. Savelugu, the district capital) and five Area Councils (i.e. Nanton, Diare, Pong-Tamale, Moglaa and Tampion). The municipality has a total of 149 communities out of which 143 are categorised as rural communities. Nearly 80% of the citizenry resides in rural communities and 20% in urban towns (SNMA, 2012).

More importantly, as contained in the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462), the National Development Planning Commission Act, 1994 (Act 479) and the National Development Planning (System) Act 1994 (Act 480) districts in Ghana shall formulate and execute plans, programmes and strategies for the effective mobilization



of the resources necessary for the overall development of the district. These provisions imply that districts are the basic development units that have planning and implementation authority on all issues related to development including programming for poverty reduction at the district level.

More so, a study of this nature demands micro level analysis to capture all the necessary factors that account for the phenomenon under study. The district therefore provides this opportunity. The selection of a district as a study area is also informed by the fact that the dynamics and nature of poverty differ in terms of spatial, socioeconomic and gender characteristics and therefore a research of this nature should, as much as practicable, avoid the tendency of treating the question of poverty and poverty reduction in Ghana, and for that matter in the Northern Region, as monolithic. The entire Northern Region was not considered to be a suitable alternative to a district for this study because, as argued above, the district is the basic development units that has planning and implementation authority: using the district as a case study area implies that the analysis could be within district development initiatives.

3.4 STUDY POPULATION

The primary target population of the study consist of all household benefiting from Savelugu-Nanton Municipal intervention in fifteen sampled communities as presented in Table 3.2. The beneficiary households are targeted because having experienced the interventions as a result they are better placed to share their perspectives on such intervention, in terms of the effect, level of beneficiary involvement, challenges involved in accessing interventions and their perceptions about the interventions.



The secondary target also consists of members of the Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit, Community Opinion Leaders, and identifiable key informants. These group of people are targeted because the provided relevant information in respect of the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions; the effect of the poverty reduction interventions; the influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction interventions; and the challenges involved in implementing poverty reduction interventions.

3.5 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The number of beneficiary households studied was determined through a mathematical sampling technique. The following model was used to determine the number of households to study out of an estimated total number of households of 2,983, which constituted the sample frame (N) of the study with a 5% margin of error (α) allowed for the study. Based on the above discussed parameters the Yamane (1967) sampling model was applied:

$$n_y = \frac{N}{1 + N(\alpha)^2}$$

Where:

- n_y = the Yamane sample size (?)
- N = the sample frame (2,983)
- α = the confidence interval (0.05)

Substituting the data above into the sampling model it generated the following as the sample size to be the studied.



$$n_Y = \frac{2,983}{1+2,983(0.05)^2} = 352.7$$

$$n_Y \approx 353$$

The total sample was further broken into two sampled categories made up of 89 LEAP household (representing 25%) respondent and 264 non-LEAP household (representing 75%) respondents. LEAP households constitute respondents who enjoy both targeted and untargeted interventions, while non-LEAP household respondents constitute beneficiaries of untargeted interventions. The rationale of considering these categories was to ensure that the view of LEAP beneficiaries are not drowned by those of non-LEAP beneficiaries. Furthermore, given that the objective of this study is to examine outcomes of poverty reduction, it is imperative to ensure that the voices of all categories of respondents are captured.

Table 3.2 indicates that the sample of 353 was distributed proportional to correspond with the estimated total number of households in each of the 15 communities where data was collected for analysis. Following the determination of the number of beneficiary households to be studied per community. The non-LEAP households were randomly selected and assigned to research assistants. In respect of the LEAP household respondent, a list of LEAP households for each of the sampled 15 communities was procured from the Municipal Department of Social Welfare and Community Development, based on which the LEAP household respondents were randomly selected for each community and assigned to research assistants before the actual data collection began, this was to enable them properly plan.





A total of fifteen settlements were selected for the purpose of collecting data. The municipality was clustered into six areas, corresponding with the six Area/Town Councils (namely; Savelugu Urban Council, Nanton, Diare, Pong-Tamale, Moglaa and Tampoin Area Councils) out of which three Area Councils were randomly selected (namely; Nanton, Moglaa and Diare Area Councils) for data collection for the study. In each sampled administrative district, five settlements were randomly selected for data collection, which implies a total of fifteen (15) settlement were studied. A total of thirty-two (32) opinion leaders from the sampled communities were interviewed. Four key informants were purposively sampled based on their knowledge and length of time they had worked in SNM. The key informants included a Principal Development Planning Officer, a Deputy Director of Community Development, a Municipal Budget Analyst and a Coordinating Director. The details of the sample are as presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: List of Settlements, Sampled Households and Opinion Leaders

Sampled Area Council	Sampled Community	Pop. 2012	No of HH	LEAP HHs	Non-LEAP HHs	Sampled HH	Opinion Leader
				A	B		
Moglaa	1 Tarikpaa	1505	173	5	15	20	2
	2 Moglaa	1237	142	4	13	17	2
	3 Kanshegu	779	90	3	8	11	1
	4 Libga	671	77	2	7	9	1
	5 Duko	547	63	2	5	7	1
Sub-Total (A)		4739	545	16	48	64	7
Diare	6 Diare	10498	1207	36	106	142	10
	7 Zoosali	1002	115	3	11	14	1
	8 Tuunaayili	503	58	2	5	7	1
	9 Dipale	874	100	3	9	12	1
	10 Kukuobila	732	84	3	7	10	1
Sub-Total (B)		13609	1564	47	138	185	14
Nanton	11 Nanton	5604	644	19	57	76	7
	12 Kpachelo	708	81	3	7	10	1

Sampled Area Council	Sampled Community	Pop. 2012	No of HH	LEAP HHs	Non-LEAP HHs	Sampled HH	Opinion Leader
				A	B	A+B	
13	Gbumgbum	485	56	2	5	7	1
14	Sahakpaligu	413	47	1	5	6	1
15	Fazihini	394	45	1	4	5	1
Sub-Total (C)		7604	873	26	78	104	11
Grand Total (A+B+C)		25952	2982	89	264	353	32

Source: Field study, November, 2016

3.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

There are various instruments for collecting data. However, for the purpose of this study, the researcher employed an eclectic approach which involve the use of different instruments to collect needed data which addresses the research questions. This included the use of questionnaire, interviews guide and focus group discussion guide.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The research opted for the questionnaire as one of the instruments for this study, because the questionnaire is considered to be appropriate for this study due to its advantage of ease of reach. The questionnaire provides easy access to a large number of people at a minimum expenditure and within a short time frame (Ary et al., 2006). Also, it has the advantage of allowing a researcher to collect and measure a large number of variables with a single instrument and data collected with a questionnaire can also be put to several uses, as the data can be statistical manipulation during data analysis (DePoy & Gitlin, 1998). Thus, the questionnaire was used to gather information that revealed beneficiary perceptions of poverty reduction intervention of SNM poverty reduction interventions (see Appendix 1).

The questionnaire consisted of closed-ended and open-ended items. The closed ended items also included Likert-Scale items and pre-coded question items from which respondents selected the item that most fit their opinion or view. The opened-ended items allowed respondent the space to provide their own responses in the manner the choose to respond. The question items of the questionnaire were designed to fill the gaps identified during the review of related literature.

The questionnaire was made up of six sections. The first section sought to capture information on the socio-economic characteristics of respondents. The second section capture data on the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions. The third section was on the effect of poverty reduction intervention on beneficiaries. The fourth, fifth and sixth respectively captured data on; influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction intervention; challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction intervention; and beneficiary perceptions poverty reduction interventions.



3.6.2 Interview Guides

The interview guide was used to complement the questionnaire. The purpose of the interview guide was to fill in the gaps in data collected with the questionnaire at the household level. (see Appendix 2 & 3). The interview guide was also used because it had the potential of providing a deeper insight into how respondents experienced and thought about poverty reduction intervention of SNM, as it provided an opportunity to probe further for explanations of responses provided by respondents. Furthermore, the interviews provide additional insights that the questionnaire could not provide. The interview's appropriateness for this study stemmed from the fact that it allowed exploration of variables under

investigation in greater detail, thus complemented the survey design (Creswell, 2003). However, it was quite expensive and time consuming using this tool but with the cooperation of the key informants and opinion leaders the researcher was able to collect the data require for the study.

The interview time was short because it was designed to fill in gaps in the data collected via the questionnaires and to provide deeper insights into the issues under investigation. In addition to this, the themes around which participants were interviewed were not many. That notwithstanding, I was able to collect rich data that effectively complemented the data collected using questionnaires.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion Guide

The focus group discussion (FGD) guide was also employed in the study. Specifically, the FGD guide was use during the Municipal Planning Coordinating Unit FGD and SNMA management FGD (see Appendix 4). The FGD guide was also structured in line with the teams around which the questionnaire was designed. The FGD guide enabled the researcher to obtain in-depth understanding of the issues under investigation. As Nagle & Nichelle (n.d.) noted “focus group discussion provides insights into how people think and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomena being studied” (p.2). Focus groups discussion involves interviews held with a group of persons with common interest and insights into a given issue. The advantage of FGD guide is that it is more economical to collect deeper and relevant information much more economical relative to individual interviews (Appendix 1).



3.6.4 Note Taking and Audio Recording

The researcher adopted a combination of note taking and audio recording to capture the resultant data from the interviews and focus group discussions. Specifically, the note taking approach was adopted to capture opinion leaders' interviews, as the opinion leaders were generally not comfortable with an audio recorder.

However, the audio-recorder was used to capture the interviews with the key informant and during the focus group discussions. Each key informant interview lasted between 35 and 45 minutes and each focus group discussion lasted between one and one and half hours. The interviews were recorded to ensure that data collected was more reflective of respondents' responses thereby ensuring accuracy and validity of findings (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell & Alexander, 1995; Patton, 1990). Again, the audio recording of interviews enabled the researcher to pay undivided attention to the interviewee rather than stopping to take notes (Patton, 1990; Elliot, 2005).



3.6.5 Document Analysis

The researcher requested for the five sets of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal MTDPs which included: First Five-Year DMTD Under Ghana Vision 2020: *the First Step* (1997-2000); DMTDP Under the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I) (2001-2002 and later extended from 2003-2005); DMTDP Under the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (GPRS II) (2006-2009); DMTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA I) (2010-2013); and DMTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (GSGDA II) (2014-2017). These plans enabled the research examine the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions as captured in the MTDPs.



In addition to the MTDP, the researcher also examined the annual progress reports of SNM between 2006 and 2016, which enable the researcher to examine the primary sources of funding development interventions including poverty reduction interventions. Other documents examined were the Municipal education school mapping report of 2002, annual district/municipal education performance reports between 2011 and 2016; as well as the District/municipal health annual performance reports between 2014 and 2016 and other reports the researcher considered relevant for the study from other decentralised department of the Municipal Assembly.

3.7 VALIDATION AND PRE-TESTING OF INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire items were developed based on the insights gained from the review of relevant literature. They were further reviewed by my supervisors and peers. The instruments were then restructured to reflect the inputs from my supervisors and peers.

The instruments were tested in six purposively sampled community in SNM before the conduct of the main study. The researcher chose to pilot the instruments in three Area/Town councils (Tampion Area, Pong-Tamae Area and Savelugu Town Councils) because they provided similar characteristics when compared with the specific study locations. In all, 60 households agreed to take part in the pilot study of the questionnaire while five (6) opinion leaders, one from each pilot Area/Town Councils and one key informant took part in testing the semi-structured interview guide.

The selection of participants for the pilot was such that those who took part in the field test had similar characteristics as the study participants, which was in conformity with Ary et al.

(2006). The testing of the instrument enabled the researcher to determine the suitability of items in the instrument. It also further revealed that some of the items on both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview guide required further explanations.

The feedback from the pre-testing of the instruments served as important inputs into developing training programmes for the recruited research assistants to ensure that there was unanimity in the interpretation of all items on the data collection instruments. Furthermore, the research assistants were encouraged to administer household questionnaire in the language spoken and understood by the respondents and to also employ probing as a technique to ensure that respondents clearly understood the data item before responding to it.

3.8 RESEARCH ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Every research is faced with one ethical issue or another because research, as an activity, usually involves various stakeholders with different and varied backgrounds, beliefs, values and aspirations. However, the Graduate School of the University for Development Studies as at the time of the development of the data collection instruments and the subsequent collection of the field data had no ethical clearance procedures and system in place. It therefore became the researcher's responsibility to ensure that minimum requirement of research ethics was observed in this research. In view of this, a number of ethical issues were taken into considerations in planning and executing this study (i.e. both during data collection, analysis and presentation of the study results phases). As an entry point, all participants involved in this study were informed of the study objectives as well as the potential benefits of the study that may accrue to participants and the study area both directly



and indirectly. Their role, rights and responsibilities as participants in the research were clearly explained to them.

The purpose of the study, and thus data collection, was explained and what was expected from them was clarified. Respondents were also informed that they could at any time in the course of the interview withdraw or ask for the discontinuation of the interview (i.e. their right of withdrawal could be invoked at any stage of the research). Although this could affect the data collection schedule, it was important to communicate their basic rights in order to abide by the ethical rules of research.

The voluntary nature of participation in the study was emphasised. Specifically, research participants were informed that they could withdraw from participating in the study, and that their participation in the study was entirely voluntary. Given that it was unethical to collect any form of information without the knowledge and expressed consent of participants, the researcher ensured that the consent of each participant was sought with adequate notification given to them to enable them to independently take the decision to participate or not to participate in the study. Furthermore, participants were allowed enough time to enable them to comprehend the research objectives in order to take an informed decision about participating or not participating in the study. Efforts were also made to explain to participants the relevance of the study to the nation, district and sampled communities.

The researcher was not oblivious of the fact that the study participants had their own preferences and priorities, which could be different or similar to that of the research. Deliberate steps were taken to ensure that any possibility of intrusion into the private lives



of participants were avoided as much as possible. This was achieved through avoiding potentially intrusive questions that could wade into participants' privacy, and yet have no effect on the study objectives. Any issue that had the potential of causing emotional or physical harm to the participants (i.e. stressed, depressed or anxious) as a result of their involvement in the study at any stage was avoided.

To ensure that, as a researcher, my personal beliefs, values and norms did not influence the study outcomes I ensured that the data collected from participants were read back to each participant for their comments and eventual approval of the data, before finally collating the data for analysis. This, apart from ensuring that researcher's biases were avoided, it provided an avenue to obtain respondents' endorsement for the data that was shared with the public. The findings were reported in an objective manner devoid of any unethical interpretation of the data gathered to ensure that findings reflect the general state of affairs in the study area. Participant were moreover assured that no information obtained from them would be attributed to any named individual person.



3.9 METHODS OF COLLECTING DATA

The researcher relied on questionnaire, interview guides and focus group discussion guide to gather primary data from household, opinion leaders, key informants, members of MPCU and members of the SNMA management. The secondary sources of data included MTDPs of SNMA between 1997 and 2017, annual progress reports, decentralised departmental reports, from which secondary data was obtained. Multiple sources of data do not only ensure trustworthiness and validity of interpretations, but also ensures that a completed picture of the phenomenon under investigation is captures in a manner that ensure a deeper

understanding of the issues at hand. This in the case of this particular study relates to beneficiary perspectives of effect of SNM poverty reduction interventions (Glesne, 1999). These three techniques in combination made it possible to “elicit data needed to gain understanding of the phenomenon in question; contribute different perspective on the issue; and make effective use of the time available for data-collection” (Glesne, 1999; p.31).

In other to have a comprehensive impression of respondents, a reflective journal was kept. The journal was used to capture all conversations with respondents and other officers of the SNM whom the researcher had conversations with and they agreed that the researcher could take notes and also use such information in the research report should it become necessary as well as the observations made while collecting primary data.

The questionnaire was administered by 15 research assistants and supervised by the researcher. The researcher crossed checked every item on each administered questionnaire to ensure completeness, accuracy and reliable. The researcher also monitored the activities of the research assistants on the field and provided support when required. In view of the rigorous quality control measure put in place, there was a hundred percent coverage of the sampled respondents with over 95% representing 337 of the questionnaires fully completed out of 353 questionnaires administered.

The researcher undertook all the community entry protocol and identification of all the target household before the actual data collection was done by the research assistants. The researcher also identified the opinion Leaders during the observation of the community entry protocol and arranged with them when to have the interview based on the time the considered





to be convenient for them. In respect of the key informants, the research placed phone calls to arrange a day for the interview at their convenient time.

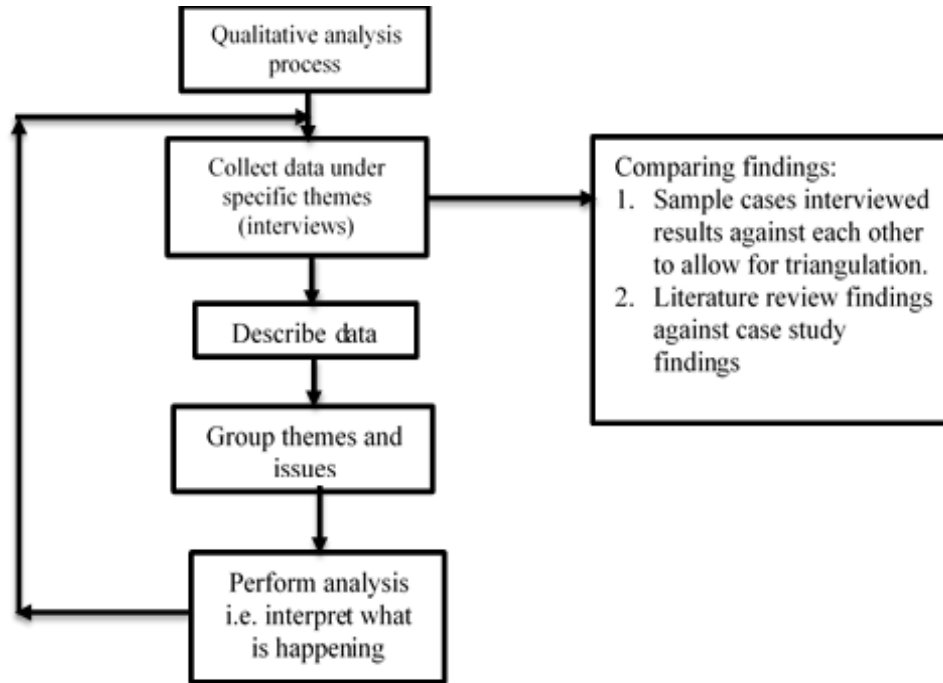
The actual interviews begun after the questionnaires were collated and analysed to obtain preliminary results, based on which the opinion leaders interview guide was developed and administered. This was followed by the key informant interviews. All the interviews (opinion leaders and key informant) were done by the researcher. The researcher organised the focus group discussion with support from two research assistant who helped with the recording of responses both through audio recording and note taking. The selection of groups of seven and eight was based on Krueger (2002) recommendation that for a focus group discussion to be effective it should have members between 5 and 10. He however recommended that between 6 and 8 members are much preferred.

3.10 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected from the field was processed to check for completeness, accuracy and uniformity of responses. The processed data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively responsive to each of the study objectives. The quantitative data was organised into statistical tables and charts for interpretation and discussion where applicable. The specific analytical tools for the quantitative data included descriptive statistical tools and an inferential statistical tool. The descriptive statistical techniques were used in analysing the data as presented in frequency and percentages; while the inferential statistical tool (i.e. the Chi-Square (X^2)) was to test the study hypotheses. The qualitative data, on the other hand, was grouped under specific themes and sub-themes reflecting the study objectives and interpreted. Cross analysis and triangulation were employed to compare findings from

households, opinion leaders and key informant interviews. The emerging themes and sub-themes from the above were compared with findings from the literature reviewed. Figure 3.1 presents the qualitative analytical procedure.

Figure 3.1: Qualitative Data Analysis Process Adopted for the Study



Source: adopted from Biggam, 2008

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3.10.1 Chi-Square (X^2) Analysis

Chi-square (X^2), as a method for testing differences, measures the reliability and significance of data to establish whether deviations of the actual observations (observed frequency) from the expected are significant so that it may lead to the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The chi-square test of independence is used “to examine the relationship between two discrete variables. In X^2 analysis, the null hypothesis generates expected frequencies against which observed frequencies are tested” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; p58-59).



The rationale for adopting the chi-square for this study stems from the fact that the chi-square test of independence could be used to examine the relationship between two discrete variables. Again, the chi-square as an analytical tool comes in handy when observations are classified into two or more variables from independent samples, each of which is categorized into Yes, No, Agree or Disagree type of responses.

When the measurement is nominal and the data is qualitative, a hypothesis test for qualitative data expressed as frequencies requires the use of the chi-square. It is also designed for use when the data is numeric, or the data is expressed in a Null form, meaning that there is no relationship between the two variables.

Finally, the data for this study was collated from the questionnaire and organised in frequency distribution tables that show the number of different responses to a particular question while percentages show the proportion of responses. All these conditions seem to favour the deployment of chi-square as an analytical tool to test the study null hypotheses.

Chi-square may be conceptualised as the sum of the ratio of the difference between observed and expected values (Webster, 1998). Statistically the Chi-Square is given as:

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Where:

X^2 = Chi-Square

O = is the frequency of observed events in the sample

E = is the frequency of expected events if the null is correct (frequency)

K = is the number of categories or classes

Computation of the Expected Value and Degree of Freedom (*df*)

In a two variable case the expected frequency E for each cell is given as:

$$E = \frac{(\text{Column Total}) * (\text{Row Total})}{\text{Overall Total}}$$

The degree of freedom (*df*) is given as:

$$df = (C - 1)(R - 1)$$

Where:

df = degree of freedom

C = the number of columns

R = the number of rows

Decision Rule

In employing the chi-square (X^2) as an analytical tool for analysis the decision rule is:

1. **If Calculated $X^2 \leq$ Critical X^2** ; it implies the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on a given issue **is not statistically significant**
2. **If Calculated $X^2 >$ Critical X^2** ; it implies the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on a given issue **is statistically significant**

Level of Significance

The tests of differences for this study were carried out at 5% (0.05) level of significance.

3.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter systematically described the methodology employed for this study. Specifically, the chapter examined the research design, study location and sampling procedure, data collection instruments and the methods of data analysis. The next chapter presents the findings under the following sub-headings: demographic characteristics of study population; nature and scope of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions; the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions; the effect of beneficiary involvement in identification and planning of poverty reduction interventions on poverty reduction outcomes in the municipality; and the factors affecting outcomes of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions in the study area.



CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSES OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings from both the questionnaires and interviews. The findings from both instruments were synthesised in an attempt to answer the initial research questions of the study. The findings are organised around six thematic areas, which include: the socio-economic characteristic of respondents; the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions; the effect of the poverty reduction interventions; the influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction interventions; the challenges involved in implementing poverty reduction interventions; and beneficiaries' perceptions of poverty reduction interventions.

4.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

This sub-section examines the socio-economic characteristic of respondents. The specific issues examined include: sex, age distribution, education attainment, occupation and length of stay in the study community.

The study begun by examining the distribution of respondents by sex and by category. The result shows that the proportion of male headed household respondents among the LEAP respondents was comparatively larger than the non-LEAP respondents (i.e. 82% compared to 64%). A reverse trend was observed in the proportion of female headed households, whereas the proportion of the non-LEAP female headed households was 36%, the LEAP



female households was 18%. In aggregate terms the survey showed that, out of 353 household heads who participated in the study, 242 (representing 68.6%) were male participants, while 111 (representing 31.4%) were female participants. The fairly low participation of females in the study was reflective of the regional and national situation where there are more male headed households than there were female headed households (GSS, 2014); in view of which the researcher considers the distribution to be satisfactory for analysis.



Table 4.1 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable		LEAP Households		NON-LEAP Households		Total Households	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%
Sex	Male	73	82.0	169	64	242	68.6
	Female	16	18.0	95	36	111	31.4
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100.0
Age Group	18-30	15	16.9	28	10.6	43	12.2
	31-43	41	46.1	101	38.3	142	40.2
	44-56	18	20.2	82	31.1	100	28.3
	57-69	14	15.7	49	18.6	63	17.8
	70+	1	1.1	4	1.5	5	1.4
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Level of Education	None	84	94.4	91	34.5	175	49.6
	Primary	1	1.1	29	11.0	30	8.5
	Middle/JHS	2	2.2	64	24.2	66	18.7
	Second cycle	2	2.2	62	23.5	64	18.1
	Tertiary	0	0.0	11	4.2	11	3.1
	Non formal education	0	0.0	7	2.7	7	2.0
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Primary Occupation	Crop farming	62	69.7	151	57.20	212	60.1
	Livestock farming	7	7.9	37	14.00	44	12.5
	Trading	11	12.4	55	20.80	66	18.7
	Artisan (specify)	9	10.1	11	4.20	20	5.7
	Public service	0	0.0	10	3.80	11	3.1
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
	None	9	10.1	12	4.5	21	5.9
	Crop farming	11	12.4	47	17.8	58	16.4

Variable		LEAP Households		NON-LEAP Households		Total Households	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%
Secondary Occupation	Livestock farming	39	43.8	117	44.3	156	44.2
	Trading	18	20.2	60	22.7	78	22.1
	Artisan (specify)	12	13.5	28	10.6	40	11.3
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Number of Years in Community	1-5 years	5	5.6	3	1.1	8	2.3
	6-10 years	6	6.7	11	4.2	17	4.8
	11-15 years	27	30.3	83	31.4	110	31.2
	16-20 years	2	2.2	36	13.6	38	10.8
	21-25 years	36	40.4	108	40.9	144	40.8
	26+years	13	14.6	23	8.7	36	10.2
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Secondly, the study looked at the age distribution of respondents. Table 4.1 reveals that the age group with the highest proportion (40.2%) of respondents is 31 to 43 years, while 70 years and above had the least proportion (1.4%) of respondents. This could be attributed to the fact that, in the Northern Region, most of the aged persons are catered for by their children, especially by the eldest son. Therefore, by age 70 years and above, it is rare to find households headed by such people. Table 4.1 further indicates that 44 to 56 years age group constitute the second highest (28.3%) proportion of respondents. The two age brackets with the largest participants fell within the productive labour force and economically active population group of the district as depicted in the Population and Housing Census District Analytical Report of Savelugu-Nanton Municipality (GSS, 2014).

Thirdly, the distribution of respondents by level of education was examined. The results as presented in Table 4.1 revealed that comparatively non-LEAP household respondents had better education attainment than the LEAP household respondents where as 94.4% LEAP household respondents had never attended school, only 34.5% non-LEAP household

respondents had never attended schools. Furthermore, the result showed that at all levels of education the proportion on non-LEAP households was far higher than the LEAP households as shown in the Table.

The aggregation of the LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents showed that majority of the respondents (i.e. 175 out of 354 respondents, which constitutes 49.6%) had never attended school. Furthermore, 18.7% of the respondents indicated they attained middle/JHS education. This reflects the general situation in the SNMA as reported in the Population and Housing Census Municipality Analytical report, which indicated that 59.2 of the population aged three (3) years and older in the district had never attended schools (GSS, 2014).

Fourthly, the study shed light on the distribution of respondents by occupation (i.e. primary and secondary occupation) as illustrated in Table 4.1. It was observed that the dominant primary occupation was crop farming for both category of respondents (that is 69.7% and 57.2% respectively for LEAP and non-LEAP households), which brings the aggregate to 60.1% of the total sample of 353 are engaged in crop farming as a primary occupation. Livestock farming, on the other hand, constituted the major secondary occupation among both categories of respondents (i.e. 43.3% of LEAP households and 44.3% non-LEAP household) which aggregated to 44.2% of all respondents interviewed were engaged in livestock farming as a secondary occupation. The kind of socio-economic activities people engage in could determine the scale and intensity of the impact of development or poverty reduction interventions in a given area. Table 4.1 reveals that a large proportion of respondents were engaged in both primary and secondary occupations. This phenomenon of



holding more than one job, according to Inkoom (1999), is a form of coping strategy in the absence of formal unemployment benefits and job security.

Fifthly, the distribution of respondents by the number of years respondents have been living in the sampled community was looked at. Table 4.1 reveals that a total of 144 respondents out of 353 representing 40.8% have been living in the community between 21-25 years, this result was found to similar to the result obtained in the case of respondents from LEAP (40.4% of 89 respondents) and non-LEAP headed households (40.9% of 264 respondents). The table also showed that 31.4% of LEAP household respondents and 31.2% of non-LEP household respondents have been living in the community between 11-15 years, which brings the total to 110 out of 353 respondents representing 31.2% living in the community between 11-15 years. From the foregoing, it is clear that a large proportion of the respondents have lived in the community for over ten years and thus are expected to have a fair idea of the issues being investigated.



4.3. THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

This sub-section analysis the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions as captured in the medium-term development plans (MTDP) of SNMA and complemented with the respondents' responses and further insights from officers of SNMA.

Intervention Captured in the MTDPs of SNMA.

A content analysis of the five sets medium-term development plans of SNMA namely: First Five-Year MTD Under Ghana Vision 2020: *the First Step* (1997-2000); MTDP Under the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I) (2001-2002 and later extended from 2003-

2005); MTDP Under the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (GPRS II) (2006-2009); DMTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA I) (2010-2013); and MTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (GSGDA II) (2014-2017) revealed that project interventions are organised broadly along eight areas as presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Major Intervention Areas as Captured in MTDPs of SNMA

Intervention Area	Goal	Indicator
Education	Improve access and quality education.	Number of new schools opened, Enrolment, Gross Enrolment Rate and Net Enrolment Rate
Health	Improve access to health delivery services	Number of Health facilities
Water	Improve access to good drinking in the district	Proportion of population with access to portable water facilities
	Eradicate guinea worm case in the district	Number of reported cases of guinea worm
Road	Improve access to production and points	Length of feeder road constructed/rehabilitated
Agriculture	Increase dry season farming and youth engaged in dry season farming	Number of small-dams facilities provided; Number of farmers doing dry season farming;
	Increase farmer outputs through provision of agriculture subsidies	Number of farmers provided with subsidies; percentage change in farmer outputs
Energy (Electricity)	Improve domestic and economic access to energy	Number of communities connected to electricity; Number of new businesses connecting to electricity.
Local Economic Development	Improve income levels of the people	Number of people with increased in income levels
Cross-cutting issues	Improve social inclusion of the vulnerable and excluded	Number of new LEAP beneficiaries; percentage of LEAP beneficiaries into productive activities; percentage of LEAP benefiting from free health insurance.





Intervention Area	Goal	Indicator
	Reduce youth unemployment through providing employable skills	Number of beneficiaries of training creating their own jobs or employed.

Source: Compiled from MTDPs of SNMA, November, 2016.

From the review of the MTDPs it was found that SNMA seeks to “reduce poverty through improving the quality of life of the people through accelerated access to quality education and health care delivery system, vigorous expansion in social, economic and political infrastructure and improve agricultural production in the context of a sound and sustainable environmental management practices and within a broader grassroots participation in decision making in the development process” (SNMA, 2006; p35). This was found to reflect in the specific activities and goals as captured in Table 4.2.

An interrogation of the district development goal through a content analysis showed that SNMA does not consider development interventions as captures in its MTDPs as ends in themselves but rather as a means to an end. For instance, in a focus group discussion with management of SNMA it was clearly indicated by participants at the discussion that the MA consider poor access to education, health and water as well as poor condition of roads, unemployment, etc., as critical dimensions of poverty that ought to be addressed, hence the delivery of socio-infrastructure facilities.

The key informants explained that all the MTDPs are poverty reduction focused, particularly the MTDP developed under second Medium-Term National Development Policy Framework dubbed “Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I)” which formed the basis for the preparation of the second MTDP. Every intervention under that plan was aimed at

reducing the levels of poverty which fed into the national development focus. Specifically, the key informants made comments like:

“...I think that, if you look at all the development frameworks that we have worked with, the issue of poverty reduction was a very important issue that the DAs pursued ...and even before the first nation development policy frameworks there are issues of poverty reduction in even the most uncharitable development in terms of our development paradigms that have been implemented in this country, talk about structural adjustment program (SAP) and all of that,... the issue of poverty reduction became a topical issue and that was why they brought interventions like PAMSCAD and the rest, they were meant to mitigate some of the effects that were witness during the implementation of SAP...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

“...when we come back to the DA you will notice that even the first national development policy framework that guided development of DMTDP captured issues of poverty reduction which got incorporated into the DMTDP for implementation for 1997 to 2000...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).



It is obvious from the above quotation from a key informant that the MTDPs are basically, the district's strategy for poverty reduction and thus every activity in the plan is geared towards poverty reduction. It also reflects the fact that poverty reduction remains an integral part of the development agenda of SNMA. A key informant also made the following observation:

“...The NPP came up with the second national development policy framework i.e. Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy one (GPRS I) in 2000 -2005 and like the name suggest it addressed a whole lot of issues on poverty reduction,... then from 2006 to 2009 GPRS II, even though GPRS II focused on growth but issues of poverty reduction were also very key, then came the NDC government with fourth and fifth national development policy frameworks i.e. GSGDA I and

GSGDA II, they were all concerned with the issue of poverty... Then you have the current national development policy framework we are working with i.e. the Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies: An Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunity for All... it has even taken the issues of poverty to another level because you look at the current development framework that we are working with there are issues of aged and a lot of social 'welfarism' activities. So, you see that all the national development policy framework that we are working with are all tailored towards poverty reduction/ reducing poverty at the district level” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

Regarding the poverty reduction interventions as capture in the medium-term development plan. The key informants explained that these intervention although appear remote to poverty reduction but they became relevant due to the inadequacy of basic socio-economic infrastructure resulting in poor access to critical social and economic service such as education, health, water and sanitation, transportation, markets, etc. and to improve this state of affairs the Municipal Assembly had to build schools, teachers' accommodation, clinics, market centres, roads, bridges and culverts, expand water delivery systems and provide boreholes, etc. in order to improve access to educational and health services, water services, surface accessibility, etc. Key informants made specific comment in respect of the above intervention, some of which are:

“...we looked at education and I have always said that education is the most effective and the most realistic poverty reduction tool and for me if you want to reduce somebody's poverty, you educate the person. The absence of education in itself is poverty. So, the definition of poverty also covered how the absence of education as a result of lack of classroom infrastructure, teachers' accommodation in deprived communities, etc. could also impact on poverty...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

This implies that improving access to education through the construction of school infrastructure is towards addressing education related poverty (education dimension of poverty).

“...then also we also looked at water and sanitation, water and sanitation have a bearing on poverty. You remember some time ago around 2007 Savelugu-Nanton District was the leading producer of guinea worm in world, we were producing guinea worm... In fact, we were the leading producers of guinea worm... I remember one day Prof. Badu Akusa the then Director General of GHS came to the district and commented that if he had the opportunity to remove Savelugu-Nanton District from the northern regional map he would have done so and the problem of guinea worm would have been disappeared from Ghana... So, you see how guinea worm impacted on poverty and other water related infections/diseases. If you have everything and yet you are sick, we cannot say you are not poor so the issue of water and sanitation became an issue for addressing poverty...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

The key informant by the above quotation consider the lack of access to good drinking water a critical dimension of poverty. Thus, any intervention that eases the difficulty and drudgery people go through (particularly women and children) is a major step towards addressing the problem of poverty.

“...we also looked at access to markets, taking Savelugu for an example we looked at market days and the number of people likely to benefit through the provision of markets in Savelugu alone..., sometimes they may not have anything to sell but the provide other complementary services in the market which in itself provide a means of livelihood for such categories of persons... As a result, we considered the markets as avenues for triggering exchange of goods and services and thus an intervention that helped address the issue of poverty...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).



Members of the MPCU, in explaining the contents of the MTDP indicated that the core function of the MA like any other MMDA is as outlined in Section 12 subsection (1) to (9) of the local government act, 1993 (Act 462) and amended to the Local Governance Act, 2016 (Act 936), which among others specifies that the MA shall be responsible for; “the local economic development as well as overall development of the district; mobilising resources require for the overall development of the district; promoting and supporting productive activity and social development in the district; initiating the provision of basic infrastructure and municipal works and services in the district; taking steps and measures that are necessary and expedient to execute approved development plans for the district; and coordinating, integrating and harmonising the execution of programmes and projects under approved development plans for the district and other development programmes promoted or carried out by Ministries, Departments, public corporations and other statutory bodies and non-governmental organisations in the district”.

The key informants on their part indicated that SNMA, like any other MMDA, is charged with the responsibility as a “planning authority” to plan and execute development programmes and projects to ameliorate the plight of the people in the municipality. They added that the MMDA is one of the three main planning authorities in Ghana with the mandate, among several others, to identify the key development challenges of the people “with” the people, identify their aspirations and desires and develop appropriate intervention to address the major development challenges of the MMDA with the ultimate objective of improving the living conditions of the people.

It is obvious from the above discussions that the core poverty reduction function of SNMA could not be over-emphasised given that, the SNMA is tasked with the responsibility of developing the entire municipality through ensuring an equitable spread of the benefits of development and ultimately reduce the levels of poverty through the implementation of MTDPs.

Focal Areas of Intervention in Medium-Development Plans Reviewed

A review of the five MTDPs implemented by SNMA between 1997 and 2017 revealed that the MTPs were organised around broad thematic areas (which are often referred to as the plan's "strategic direction"). In each of the plans it was observed that the section that dealt with the programme of action provided a summary of the entire plan for the planning period. The programme of action specified the policy goals and objectives, thematic area/development dimension, programmes and projects as well as implementation strategies and time frame for implementation of the plan. A physical count and categorisation of the activities as presented in Table 4.3 reveals that the proportion of activities which directly or indirectly targeted poverty reduction ranged between a minimum of 50% and a maximum of 88% of the total activities outlined in the programme of action of each of the plans reviewed. These proportions give an indication of the emphasis of the plan relative to reducing the levels of poverty in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality and its environs.

A review of the 1997-2000 MTDP under the Ghana Vision 2020: *The First Step*, it was found that 50% of the activities captured in the programme of action were poverty reduction related (see Table 4.3). This was found to be consistent with the development focus of the nation at the time which was to "create an enabling environment to improve both the





economic and social conditions of all Ghanaians through facilitating change in attitudes and institutional reengineering that favours private initiative and enterprise (i.e. micro and small enterprise development)” (GOG, 1996, 2000). It was further discovered that the national focus was to “first consolidate the foundations laid under the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) for accelerated national development to take-off and prepare the grounds for the ultimate transformation of Ghana’s economy, as envisaged under the National Development Framework” (Ghana-Vision 2020) (GOG, 1996). These could be the reasons for the comparatively low proportion of activities directly/indirectly addressing the question of reducing levels of poverty.

An assessment of the 2000-2002 MTDP revealed that there was comparatively higher proportion of poverty related activities compared with the 1997-2000 MTDP. Specifically, 60% of the activities captured in the programme of action of the plan were poverty reduction related, which implies the proportion of activities related to poverty reduction had increased from 50% in the 1997-2000 MTDP to 60% in the 2000-2002 MTDP. A further examination of the 2000-2002 MTD revealed that the focus of the plan was to meet a major eligibility criterion for accessing the benefits of the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative which represented a major source of funding the MTDP. This plan was informed by Ghana’s Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) which was derived from the NDPF developed in 1995 (i.e. Ghana-Vision 2020).

A study of the 2003-2005 MTDP showed that, it represented a review of the 2000-2002 plan to make it responsive to the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I) which represented Ghana’s medium-term development framework for the period 2003 to 2005, designed to



replace Ghana's I-PRSP, and to optimally utilise the benefits accruing from Ghana signing up to the enhanced HPIC Initiative as a result of the write-off of crippling debts of the country. The GPRS I was built on the gains of the I-PRSP to ensure that Ghana attained sustainable, equitable and inclusive growth resulting in accelerated poverty reduction with a safety net system that ensured vulnerable and excluded groups were protected and mainstreamed into the national development agenda within a decentralised democratic environment.

A comparative analysis of the 2003-2005 MTDP with its predecessor plan revealed that the proportion of poverty related activities capture in the programme of action of the 2003-2005 MTDP was 88% compared with 60% in the 2000-2002 MTDP. A further study of the plan revealed that the primary trust of the plan was to reduce the levels of poverty in Savelugu-Nanton District which was also found to be consistent with the goal of the GPRS I which was to achieve significant poverty reduction through; "ensuring economic stability for accelerated pro-poor growth based on: increasing production and creation of sustainable employment opportunities; facilitating human resource development; mainstreaming the vulnerable and excluded groups; ensuring gender equity; ensuring good governance and the increased capacity of the public sector to facilitate active involvement of the private sector as the engine of growth" (GOG, 2003; p30).

A review of the 2006-2009 MTDP revealed that the proportion of poverty reduction related activities were 82% compared with 88% in the 2003-2005 MTDP, which represents 12 percentage-points reduction. A comparative analysis of the development focus of the 2003-2005 and 2006-2009 revealed that while the 2003-2005 plan focused on poverty reduction,



the 2006-2009 plan focused on sustaining growth achieved under the 2003-2005 plan and furthermore supported wealth creation and poverty reduction. Again, during the period the national development focus had shifted from poverty reduction to attaining middle income status by 2015. This was to be achieved through “maintaining macroeconomic stability; accelerating private sector-led growth; pursuing vigorous human resource development; and promoting good governance and civic responsibility in the delivery of economic, social and administrative services” (GOG, 2005).

Table 4.3 shows that 79% of the 2010-2013 MTDP’s activities were poverty reduction related activities. In comparing the 2006-2009 plan with the 2010-2013 plan it was found that while the 2006-2009 plan contained 82% poverty related activities, the 2006-2009 plan contained 79% poverty reduction related activities. A further analysis of the 2010-2013 plan under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda framework revealed that, just like its predecessor plan, the 2010-2013 plan sought to continue with the pursuance of macroeconomic stability (GOG, 2010), which was found to be consistent with the national development focus of achieving and sustaining macroeconomic stability whilst placing the Ghanaian economy on a path to higher growth and accelerated poverty reduction (GOG,14).

It is also observed from Table 4.3 that 77% of the activities contained in the 2014-2017 MTDP were poverty related compared with 79% of its predecessor plan. A comparative analysis of the development focus of the 2010-2013 plan and the 2014-2017 plan revealed that the development focus had not change. Both plans were driven by the national medium-term development focus which was to pursue macroeconomic stability while placing the Ghanaian economy on a path to higher growth and accelerated poverty reduction.

The review of the MTDPs revealed that all the plans were developed based on guidelines provided by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) which are often designed “to provide focus and direction on national development priorities and to enhance the process of harmonising and rationalising development programmes, projects and activities initiated from the community, district and national levels respectively” (NDPC, 2006, 2011). In view of which all the MTDPs examined were found to be responsive to national development goals.



Table 4.3: Focal Areas of Intervention in SNMA MTDPs

MTDP	Time Frame	The Broad Areas of Intervention in MTDPs	% of Activities in MTDP	
			Poverty Reduction related Activities	other activities
First Five-Year DMTD Under Ghana Vision 2020: The First Step	1997-2000	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Human Development 2. Economic growth 3. Rural Development 4. Urban Development 5. Enabling environment 	50% of 213 activities	50% of 213 activities
DMTDP Under the Interim Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy 2000-2002 (<i>this was later reviewed into GPRS I</i>)	2000-2002	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Stabilise and Promote economic growth, 2. Promote integrated rural development, 3. Expand employment opportunities, and 4. Improve access to basic social and public services 	60% of 107 activities	40% of 107 activities
DMTDP Under the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I)	2003-2005	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Macro Economy 2. Production and Gainful Employment 3. Human Resource Development and Basic Services 4. Vulnerability and Exclusion 5. Governance 	88% of 198 activities	12% of 198 activities
DMTDP Under the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (GPRS II)	2006-2009	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Macroeconomic stability 2. Accelerated private sector-led growth 3. Vigorous human resource development 4. Good governance and civic responsibility 	82% of 211 activities	18 of 211 activities



MTDP	Time Frame	The Broad Areas of Intervention in MTDPs	% of Activities in MTDP	
			Poverty Reduction related Activities	other activities
DMTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA I)	2010-2013	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ensuring and sustaining macroeconomic stability; 2. Enhanced competitiveness of Ghana’s private sector; 3. Accelerated agricultural modernisation and natural resource management; 4. Infrastructure, energy and human settlements development; 5. Human development, employment and productivity; 6. Transparent and Accountable Governance 	79% of 189 activities	21% of 189 activities
DMTDP Under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (GSGDA II)	2014-2017	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ensuring and Sustaining Macroeconomic Stability, 2. Enhancing Competitiveness of Ghana’s Private Sector 3. Accelerated Agriculture Modernisation and Sustainable Natural Resource Management 4. Infrastructure and Human Settlements Development 5. Human Development, Productivity Decent Work 6. Transparent, Responsive and Accountable Governance 	77% of 172 Activities	23% of 172 Activities

PR: Poverty Reduction; **MTDP:** Medium-Term Development Plan

Source: Compiled from MTDPs of SNMA, November, 2016.

The findings captured in Table 4.3 was taken through a validation process, the first was with the MPCU (see Appendix 6) and the second was with the Municipal Assembly Management (made up of the; Coordinating Director, Municipal Finance Officer, Municipal Budget Analyst, Municipal Works Engineer, Municipal Planning Officer, Municipal Internal Auditor). The outcome of the validation meetings provided a deeper insight into the results obtained during the review and content analysis of the medium-term development plans implemented between 1997 and 2017. The results of the validation meetings confirmed the



results obtained during the review of the plans as captured in Table 4.3. At both validation meetings it emerged that the MTDP only reflected the national development focus as the plans were prepared to address the issues captured in the planning guidelines issued by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC). According to members of the MPCU and the Municipal Assembly Management, if the requirement of the guidelines is not followed, queries are raised during the NDPC review of the plan and such queries ought to be addressed by the MPCU before plans are approved by the NDPC for implementation. They added that, the first medium-term development plan emphasised rural and urban development, the second and third medium-term development plans emphasised poverty reduction, and the fourth, fifth and sixth medium term development plan emphasised growth as a basis for poverty reduction.

Organisations Providing Poverty Reduction Interventions

Three major organisations were identified to be providing poverty reduction interventions to respondents (i.e. the Municipal Assembly, NGOs and decentralised department). The study found that 312 respondents (representing 88.4%) out of 353 respondents indicated that they received poverty reduction intervention from the SNMA. While the remaining 24 and 17 respondents representing 6.8% and 4.8% respectively indicated that they received poverty reduction intervention from NGOs and decentralised departments. Given that, decentralised departments under the Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) form part of the Municipal Assembly it could be conveniently argued that 93.2% of the respondents received poverty reduction intervention from the Municipal Assembly. This implies that SNMA is the major stakeholder when it comes to improving the living conditions of its citizenry and all other agencies are merely partnering with the Municipal Assembly to discharge the role of

bettering the socio-economic well-being of its citizenry. A chi-square results revealed that there is no significant difference between the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households' opinions (calculated $X^2=2.472$, $df=2$, critical $X^2=5.991$, at 0.05 level of significance) regarding the organisations providing poverty reduction interventions (see Table 4.4 for disaggregated results).

Table 4.4: Organisations Providing Poverty Reduction Interventions

Type of Organisation	LEAP		Non-LEAP		Total Households	
	Households		Households		Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Savelugu-Nanton MA (SNMA)	79	88.8	233	88.3	312	88.4
NGOs	8	9.0	16	6.1	24	6.8
Decentralised Departments	2	2.2	15	5.7	17	4.8
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Kinds of Poverty Reduction Intervention Provided by SNMA

The kinds of poverty reduction intervention provided by SNMA to respondents are as indicated in Table 4.5. The results show that both the LEAP and Non-LEAP household respondents rated infrastructure as the highest intervention received from the SNMA (i.e. 50.6% and 62.9% respectively). The LEAP headed households rated direct cash transfer as the second highest (25.8%) while Agriculture support was rated second highest by non-LEAP headed households (14%).

Overall, the survey revealed that, out of 353 respondents, 211 respondents representing 59.8% indicated the intervention received were generally provision of socio-economic infrastructure (schools, health facilities, boreholes, roads, markets, dams, piped systems, etc.) in their communities; the next was 46 respondents constituting 13% had received



interventions in the area of agricultural improvement. This was followed by 26 respondents representing 7.4% who had received interventions in the form of micro credit/finance and the remaining respondents had received interventions in areas such as: skills acquisition/development (5.4%); capacity building (4.2%); provision of equipment and logistical support (3.1%); direct cash transfer (6.5%) and 0.6% giving a non-response. A chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between LEAP households' and non-LEAP households' opinions on poverty reduction interventions received (calculated $X^2=76.88$, $df=8$, critical $X^2=14.067$, at 0.05 level of significance). This implies the two categories of respondents differ in their opinions on the matter, which clearly reflects the large differences observed in between LEAP and non-LEAP responses. It therefore could be inferred that based on the foregoing, over half of the respondents (59.8%) cited provision of socio-economic infrastructure as the largest form of intervention provided by SNMA, which implies that SNMA devotes more of its resources towards the provision of socio-economic infrastructure than interventions that target beneficiaries' livelihood activities directly.



Table 4.5: Poverty Reduction Interventions Received by Respondents from SNMA

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Micro Credit/Financing	3	3.4	23	8.7	26	7.4
Skill Acquisition/ Development (apprenticeship training)	3	3.4	16	6.1	19	5.4
Agriculture support	9	10.1	37	14.0	46	13.0
Provision of equipment and logistical support	1	1.1	10	3.8	11	3.1
Provision of basic Socio-economic Infrastructure	45	50.6	166	62.9	211	59.8
Capacity Building training	5	5.6	10	3.8	15	4.2
Direct Cash Transfer	23	25.8	0	0.0	23	6.5
No response	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.6
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Opinion leaders made the following specific statements to convey the form of PRIs received in their communities from SNMA;

“... without the Assembly’s interventions particularly in education and health most of our children would have to trek longer distances to school..., the sick would have been left to their own faith especially if ailment struck at night...” (Faziahini Community, 2017).

The above quotation shows that provision of basic social infrastructure such as schools and health facilities reduce distances covered to access such services thereby improving the physical access to such services.

“... the Assembly has also helped link up various youth and women groups to micro-credit/finance institutions: these have greatly helped in improving our livelihood and, to some extent, reduced the spate of youth outmigration...” (Kpachelo Community, 2017).

“...how do we thank the Assembly for the roads they have constructed, which has resulted in improved access to market for our farm produce and connectivity to other towns we trade with...” (Kukuobila Community, 2017).

“... some people in our community would have withdrawn their children from school or stayed home to die if they fell sick..., but with LEAP, school feeding programme and non-payment of school levies those families have their children in school and they are also able to access medical care...” (Zoosali Community, 2017).

In citing some specific examples of PRI delivered by SNMA, the opinion leaders, members of MPCU and key informants mentioned interventions like: provision of social infrastructure (such as schools, clinic, water and sanitation facilities, etc.) and economic infrastructure (such as construction and rehabilitation of roads, bridges & culverts, provision of markets,





storage facilities, etc.) as well as giving out credit facilities; training of people engaged in various income generating activities to help improve their businesses; provision of skills/apprenticeship training to provide employable skills to beneficiaries; provision of seed capital, equipment, materials and other logistical support to enable beneficiaries either to expand their businesses or start new businesses; provision of agriculture support in the form of inputs and technical support; other social interventions such as support for needy but brilliant pupils/students; and support for people with disability and people living with HIV/AIDs. These types of interventions they referred to as “individual support” to targeted identifiable individuals or groups.

An analysis of the data emanating from the interviews and the meetings showed a clear corroboration with household responses as captured in Figure 4.5. Generally, the interviewees (opinion leaders and key informants) and discussants (members of MPCU) lamented that over 65% of all PRIs implemented by SNMA over the last ten or so years have been infrastructure related. This state of affairs could be as a result of the overdependence of SNMA on external sources of funding development intervention that primarily focuses on capital investment. A typical example of such influences is the District Assembly Common Fund (DACF), with a primary focus of supporting MMDAs to provide basic socio-economic infrastructure that MMDAs are unable to provide from their own internal funding sources. Again, most of the donor partnered interventions were largely infrastructure oriented with less than 10% dedicated to non-infrastructure support targeted at improving individual’s or group of individuals’ livelihood activities.



From the foregoing, it is clear that all categories of respondents agreed on the kinds of poverty reduction support provided by SNMA to communities, identifiable individuals and groups. It is also imperative to note that it came out clearly from both the interviews and discussions that the kinds of support received were predominantly infrastructure compared to non-infrastructure support received. Respondents rationalised this observation by indicating that most of the resources used for such interventions came from donors and the DACF which are largely dedicated disproportionately to delivering infrastructure related interventions.

Categorisation of SNMA's Poverty Reduction Interventions (PRIs)

A review of the DMTDPs reveals that, the interventions in the plans could be broadly categorised into two, namely infrastructure interventions and non-infrastructure interventions. The non-infrastructure intervention as captured in the plans relate to all those interventions that go directly to a target beneficiary or individual or group of individuals. They also directly affect the livelihood activities of target beneficiaries. Examples of such interventions from the plans include; support for income generating activities, support for agriculture activities; direct cash transfer to vulnerable and excluded groups, etc.

The infrastructure interventions, on the other hand are meant to create an enabling environment through improving access to various socio-economic services (like; education, health, water and sanitation, etc.), the absence of which could result in limiting available opportunities and choices to the citizenry of SNMA. The infrastructure interventions are found not to be targeted interventions and, as a result, everyone living within the intervention area becomes an automatic beneficiary of such interventions. Thus, these interventions may

also be referred to as untargeted interventions since access to such interventions are universal in nature.

During a focus group discussion with members of the MPCU, it emerged from the discussions that SNMA in its quest to address the issue of poverty provides its citizens with three broad basic needs, which include: economic needs (provision of water for irrigation, creation of employment opportunities; provision of agriculture inputs; increased access to affordable investible credit, etc.); social service's needs (education, health, water, sanitation, etc.); and security needs (ensuring a safe society devoid of crime or with limited levels of crime). They further added that it was important to put on record that the PRIs of the municipality were developed along the national development focus/themes and also in line with government priority areas as captured by the various national medium-term development policy frameworks.

Regarding the “non-infrastructure interventions”, key informants pointed to interventions such as provision of investible credit, equipment and logistical support, provision of skills training, provision of extension services, etc. to enable beneficiaries grow their livelihood activities to levels that could catapult them out of the state of poverty. Specifically, key informants had this to say:

“...Under the implementation of GPRS I provision of investible credit was a critical intervention area. It was specifically referred to as the poverty alleviation fund. This fund was meant to provide some credit and basic support services to people. They however, took the loans and never paid-back. People into small scale supply of fuel such as patrol, diesel, kerosene, etc. were supported with basic logistical equipment and credit to enable them pick-up or improve upon the services delivery



and their livelihoods...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

The key informant also explained that the “safety net intervention”, which may also be regarded as part of the “non-infrastructure intervention”, are interventions targeting the vulnerable and excluded groups including orphans, people living with disability, poor minority groups, the aged, widows, etc. This intervention was meant to facilitate the integration and inclusion of such category of persons within the socio-economic space in the municipality through aiding them to move from their state of exclusion to inclusion. The key informants, specifically, cited interventions like: the people with disability fund; the people living with HIV/AIDS fund; support for school feeding programme from the DACF; and support to needy pupils/students in school, etc. Specifically, a key informant had this to say:

“...A lot of efforts are made to ensure that excluded and vulnerable groups are included in the development process of the DA through empowering them with basic livelihood support...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

“...If you look at NORPREP interventions the emphasis was on vulnerability..., the project insisted that if you went into a community to develop a CAP ensure that minority or marginalised groups were involved in the process even if it’s just one person from such a category..., such a person ought to be involved in the process to articulate their needs and aspiration...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

Opinion leaders, members of the MPCU and key informants pointed out that if SNMA really wants to address the issue of poverty then they must put greater emphasis on interventions that targeted identifiable individuals or groups of individuals. They also indicated that,



although PRIs that targets the entire citizenry of community or even the entire MMDA was good, the only issue to be worried about was that it ends up perpetuating the existing social order rather than changing it.

4.4. EFFECT OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

The analysis in this sub-section focuses on the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention on beneficiaries. In analysing the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions the researcher focused the analysis on the major intervention areas as captured in the MA's medium-term development plans since the first MTDP was prepared under the Ghana Vision 2020: the First Step (1997-2000) to the MTDP prepared under the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (2014-2017).

The analysis was organised around the MA's two broad poverty reduction interventions which include: Infrastructure intervention (provision of economic infrastructure (roads, dams and electricity); provision of social infrastructure (education, health and water)) and non-infrastructure interventions (Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP), subsidies for farmers and Employable skills development training for unemployed youth).

The effect of Economic Infrastructure Interventions on Poverty Levels

In examining the effect of economic infrastructure interventions of SNMA on poverty levels, the researcher is informed by the view that infrastructure such as roads, dams and electricity has both direct and indirect impact on poverty, which is corroborated by scholarly works such as; Lelethu and Okem (2016), Ai and Pernia (2003) and Bracking, 2016. The scholarly community explain that economic infrastructure is necessary for economic activities (as it



directly support economic activities) and also has direct economic returns on investment (Lelethu & Okem, 2016). Also studies have shown that, delivering infrastructural facilities directly impacts on economic growth (through its effect on the supply and prices of goods) and also provides opportunities for the poor to gain employment and earn income with a net effect of the poor's real income and consumption levels improving resulting in a reduction in the levels of poverty among the poor (Ali & Pernia, 2003).

A review of the development plans revealed that SNMA in delivery road interventions (construction and/or rehabilitation of roads) aimed at improving surface accessibility to socio-economic service and also to improve level of economic activity between and with communities in the municipality. An analysis of respondents' assessment of SNMA's roads interventions revealed (as shown in Figure 4.1) that a large proportion of the total respondents (60.3%) indicated that it had resulted in an improved surface accessibility with its attendant effect on increased economic activities (such as trading activities, improved access to and from farmgate) and improve access to social service. Figure 4.1 also shows that 18.1% of the total (353) respondents felt that road interventions had no effect on surface accessibility and level of economic activities in the Municipality, while 14.7% of 353 indicated that road interventions had rather worsened surface accessibility and level of economic activities and 6.8% of 353 indicated they had no idea about the effect of road interventions in the Municipality.

A comparative analysis of the responses from LEAP and non-LEAP households revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the impact of road interventions on socio-economic activities and service delivery



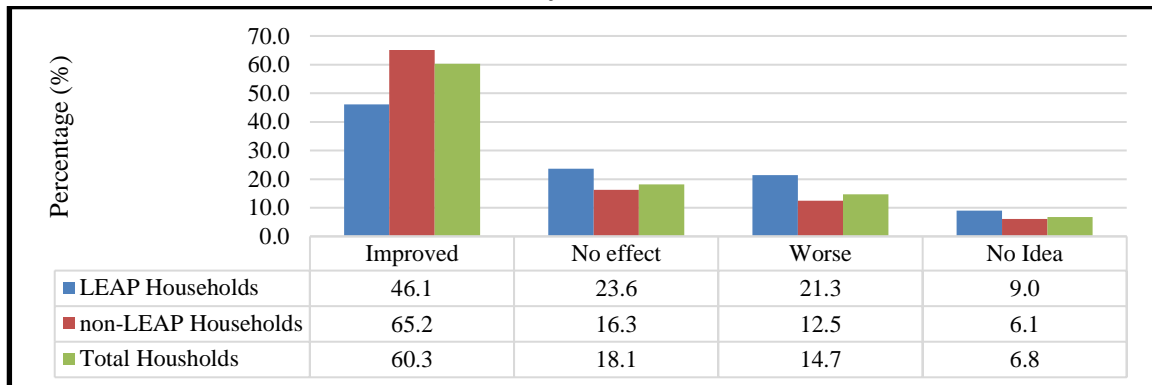


(calculated $X^2=10.355$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP households' responses on each of the items (as shown in Figure 4.1) were found to be generally large. For instance, while a comparatively lower proportions (46.1%) of LEAP households rated road interventions as having resulted in improvement in socio-economic activities (including improved trading activities, access to and from farmgate, as well as improved access to social and economic services), a larger proportion (65.2%) of non-LEAP households rated road infrastructure to have improved socio-economic activities in the municipality and its environs.

A further follow up with the MA revealed that as a result of the improved surface accessibility owing to increased road infrastructure interventions, revenue mobilisation along the arterial road leading and from Savelugu Township had increase from about 5% in 2005 of total IGF to about 15% in 2016 of total revenue. This gives credence to the argument that the improve road conditions had resulted into a corresponding increase in economic activities between and within communities in SNM.

The key informants, opinion leaders, Management of SNMA and the MPCU in agreeing with the above results, acknowledge that the massive feeder road infrastructure development witnessed in SNM as having had a significant impact on access to socio-economic services due to the ease with which people ca move within and between communities. They also mentioned that a number of storage facilities were strategically located and made accessible for farmers at reasonable cost to enable them to store the produce in a period of bumper harvest in order to sell when market prices were good.

Figure 4.1: Assessment of the Effect of Road Infrastructural Interventions on Socio-economic Activities and Service Delivery



Source: Field study, November 2016.

In respect of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly’s interventions in the area of providing small dams. The MA’s objective is to increase the number of farmers engaged in dry season farming and to create job opportunities for the youth during the lean season. The results as displayed in Figure 4.2 shows that 69.7% of LEAP households compared to 67% non-LEAP households indicated that the provision of small-dams had resulted in an improvement in the number of people engaged in dry season farming and the number of young men and women engaged in dry season farming. Subjecting the results to a chi-square test revealed that the differences between LEAP household and non-LEAP household responses were not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=0.464$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

A review of the annual progress reports of SNM between 2005 and 2016 revealed that between the period the functional small-dams increased from 21 to 45 dams. A further review of the report showed that the number of people whose livelihood activities depended directly on dams increased from total of 257 people to a total 683 people. These people are engaged in dry season agriculture activities.

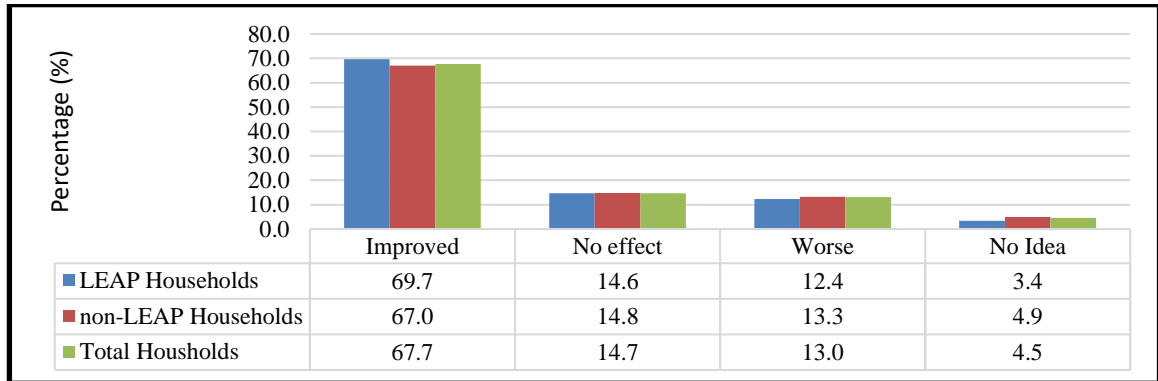




The members of the MPCU indicated that, due to the SNMA's deliberate investment in water delivery infrastructure over the years, the water situation in SNMA had improved significantly. They added, that once upon a time, the Municipality was known internationally for the wrong reasons (i.e. as a guinea worm prone area, as it led in the whole world in respect of reported cases of guinea worm). Today the Municipality is off the map for guinea worm infestation and has become a model for small-town water management systems attracting visits from all over Ghana and other countries from parts of Africa and beyond. This, according to the MPCU, clearly reflects a positive impact as a result of investing in the expansion of water delivery infrastructure. They concluded by indicating that guinea worm had been eradicated in the municipality and other reported cases of water related diseases had reduced significantly too.

The MPCU and key informants corroborated the household results by indicating that the provision of technical and economic infrastructure such as dams for irrigation, construction of market centres, construction of culverts and bridges as well as massive expansion of engineered feeder roads in the municipality had resulted in increased economic activities on all fronts. This, according to the key informants in particular, had resulted in improved living conditions of the beneficiaries of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions.

Figure 4.2: Assessment of the Effect of Small-Dam Interventions on Dry Season Farming and youth employment



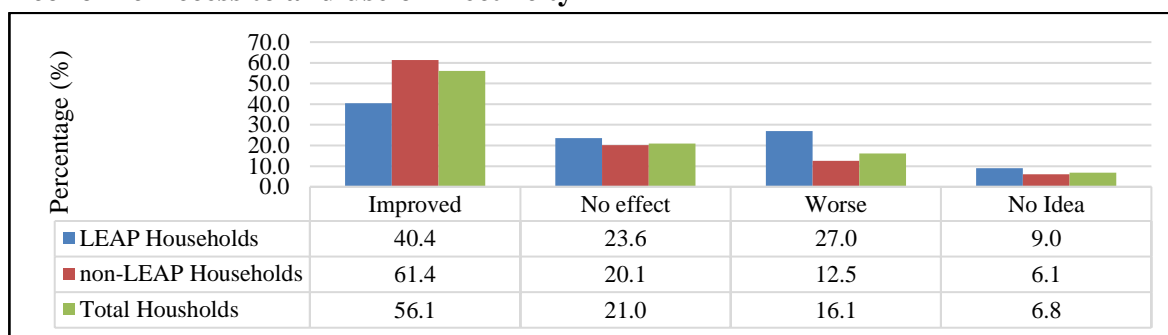
Source: Field study, November 2016.

The objective of electricity interventions of SNMA is to improve domestic and economic access to and use of electric energy. In addition, it is also expected result in creation of additional employment opportunities for the youth. Figure 4.3 presents a summary of the results obtained from respondents. Whereas a large proportion (67.7%) of non-LEAP households felt that electricity interventions had accounted for improvement in terms of access for electricity for domestic and for economic use, only 40.4% of LEAP households corroborated the position held by the non-LEAP households. Figure 4.3 also revealed that 20.1% of non-LEAP households compared with 23.6% of LEAP households felt that the electricity intervention had no effect in terms of domestic and economic access to electric energy. It is also observed from Figure 4.3 that 27% of LEAP household respondents indicated that electricity interventions had worsen both domestic and economic access to energy compared with only 12.5% non-LEAP household respondents. There were statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the impact of electricity connectivity to domestic and economic use (calculated $X^2=15.050$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).



The above results were corroborated with data from the Business Advisory Centre of SNM, which showed that as communities get connected to electricity new economic activities which are electricity dependent emerged in such communities. Specific mention was made of welding, fabrication, vulcanising and sale of iced water, iced Kenkey and operation of drinking joints. These activities generate both direct and indirect jobs for the inhabitants of such communities.

Figure 4.3: Assessment of the Effect of Electricity Interventions on Domestic and Economic Access to and use of Electricity



Source: Field study, November 2016.

The effect of Social Infrastructure Interventions on Poverty Levels

In assessing the effect of social infrastructure (such as education, health and water) interventions of SNMA on poverty levels, the researcher was informed by the scholarly argument that social infrastructure facilities although do not have direct economic returns, they promote and also enhance socio-economic activities and development with a consequent effect of reducing the levels of poverty among beneficiaries of such social infrastructural facilities (Lelethu & Okem, 2016; Ali & Pernia, 2003, Gianpiero, 1997). Again, social infrastructure is considered as critical infrastructure required for developing the human resource base of any country or locality (GOG, 2010; 2000), which are considered critical for sustainable poverty reduction.





Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly's infrastructural interventions in education were aimed primarily at increasing access to basic and second cycle education. Figure 4.4 indicates shows that majority of both LEAP (66.3%) and non-LEAP (67.8%) respondents felt that SNMA's interventions in education had resulted in improved access to basic education. This implies that a large proportion of the population within the school age are able to access basic education. However, a small proportion of the respondents (16.9% LEAP and 14.8% non-LEAP households) felt that the interventions had no effect on the level of access to basic. Also, 13.5% of LEAP and 14% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated that access to basic and second cycle education had rather worsen with SNMA's interventions. Subjecting the results to a chi-square test revealed that the differences between the responses was not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=0.225$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance), which implies that LEAP non-LEAP households did not differ in their responses.

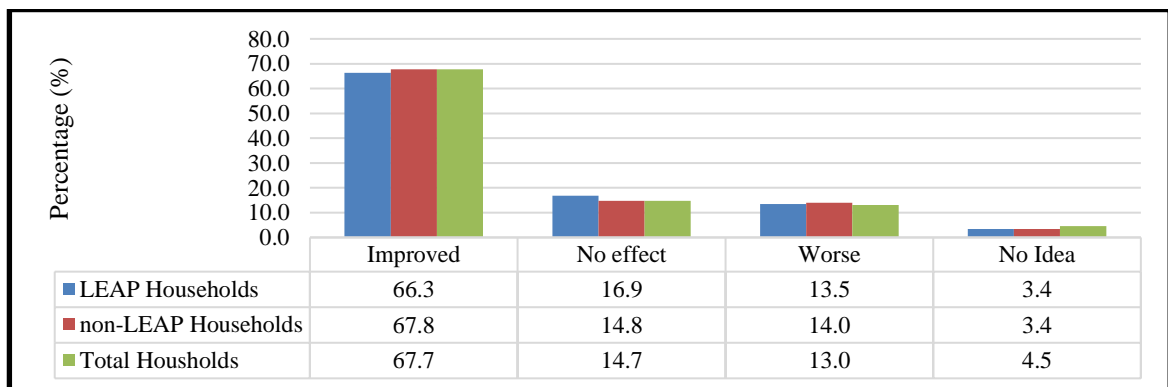
The results of the survey was corroborated with data from the Municipal Education Office (MEO) which showed that in the 2001/2002 academic year with a total of 120 schools (made up of 28 Kindergarten, 76 Primary Schools and 16 junior High Schools) accounting for an average Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) of 35% (made up of 12% Kindergarten, 58% Primary Schools and 35% junior High Schools) and an average Net Enrolment Rate of 22% (made up of 10% Kindergarten, 42% Primary Schools and 14% junior High Schools). Comparatively, access to education increased in 2015/2016 academic year as a result of the increased number of schools to 226 (made up of 95 Kindergarten, 95 Primary Schools and 36 junior High Schools) resulted in increased GER to 104.5% (made up of 138.9% Kindergarten, 99.5% Primary Schools and 75.2% junior High Schools) and increased NER

to 102.9% (made up of 135.5% Kindergarten, 99% Primary Schools and 74.3% junior High Schools) (DEO, 2002; MEO, 2016).

The MPCU, SNM management, key informants and opinion leader corroborated the finding from the households by indicated that in the area of education delivery the effect of SNMA’s poverty reduction interventions were too visible to miss. They sighted the massive provision of educational infrastructure at the basic and second cycle levels as a case in point and that it had contributed significantly to the increased access to education resulting in increased school enrolment.



Figure 4.4: Assessment of the Effect of Education infrastructure Interventions on Access to Basic Education



Source: Field study, November 2016.

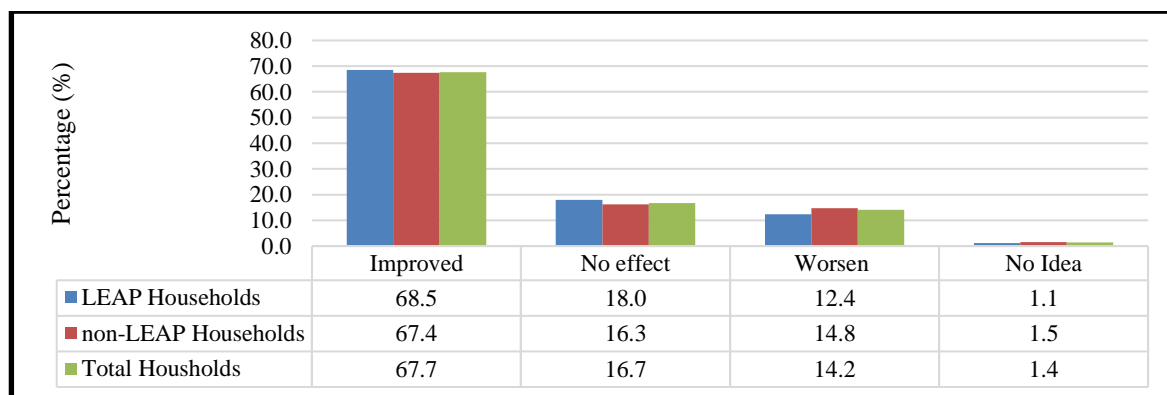
The objective of delivering health infrastructural interventions was to increase access to primary health care in SNMA. The results of the study (as presented in Figure 4.5) reveals that a comparably similar proportion of respondents for both LEAP (68.5%) and non-LEAP (67.4) households indicated that the infrastructural interventions in the health sector had resulted in improved access to health delivery services in SNMA. Figure 4.5 also shows that 18% of LEAP household and 16.3% non-LEAP household respondents were of the view that



the infrastructural intervention in the health sector had no effect on access to health services, while 12.4% of LEAP and 14.8% non-LEAP household respondents felt that the interventions had rather worsened access to health services. A chi-square test of the result revealed that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents was not statistically significant, significant (calculated $X^2=0.472$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). In other words, it implies that the LEAP and non-LEAP households did not differ in their responses.

The survey results were confirmed by data from the Municipal Health Directorate’s annual progress report which reveal that between 2005 and 2016 the number of health facilities excluding the Savelugu Hospital increased from 7 health facilities to 15 health facilities (made up of CHPS compounds, health centres and clinics). These facilities collectively resulted in an increase in physical access to health services from a population of 39,000 to 63,000, which represents 61.5% increase from 2005 to 2016 as a result of increased health infrastructure interventions.

Figure 4.5: Assessment of the Effect of Health Infrastructure Interventions on Access to Basic Health Care



Source: Field study, November 2016.



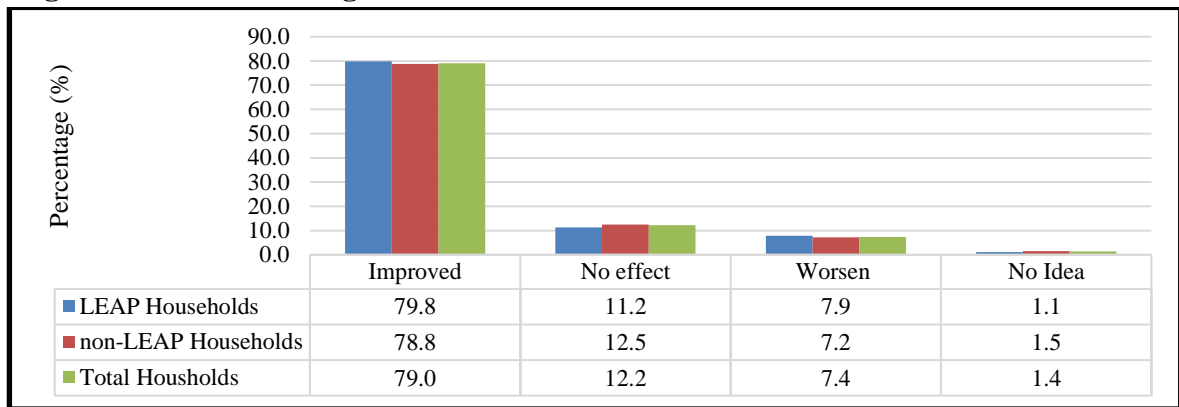
Increasing the proportion of the population in SNMA with access to good and safe drinking water is a primary goal pursued by SNMA through the provision of point sources infrastructure and piped systems all in an effort to increase access to good and safe drinking water for the inhabitants of SNMA. Figure 4.6 shows that majority of the respondents for both LEAP and non-LEAP households (i.e. 79.8% and 78.8% respectively) indicated that the water infrastructural interventions had resulted in improved access to good and safe drinking water with just a minority of both respondents thinking otherwise. A further analysis of the results using the chi-square test revealed a none statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses (calculated $X^2=0.208$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Evidence from the Municipal Works Department confirms that with an increase in the provision of water delivery infrastructure there has been an improvement in the general access to good and safe drinking water. Safe water coverage in SNM increased from 45% in 2005 (made up of a population of about 47,682) with 225 installed and functional safe water facilities (made up of 179 boreholes, 44 hand-dug wells fitted with pumps and 2 piped systems) to 75% in 2016 (made up of a population of about 120,516) with 440 installed and functional safe water facilities (made up of 224 boreholes, 212 hand-dug wells fitted with pumps, and 4 piped systems) (MPCU, 2017).

In confirming the above results, the MPCU and SNM management explained that the improved access to health services in the municipality was as a result of the massive investment in the provision of a community-based health delivery system and support for human resource development. These interventions have resulted in improved access to

health delivery centres and has marginally increased accessibility to professional health personnel.

Figure 4.6: Assessment of the Effect of Water Infrastructural Interventions on Access to good and safe drinking water



Source: Field study, November 2016.

Infrastructure interventions

The researcher with the aid of a four-point Likert Scale assessed respondents’ perceptions about the effect of infrastructure interventions on poverty reduction outcomes. This was done through gauging respondents’ degree of agreeing or disagreeing with the preposition that “Infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes”. Table 4.6 reveals that 55.1% and 61.8% of the respondents of LEAP household and non-LEAP households respectively either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. On the other hand, it was found that 49.1% and 38.2% LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents respectively disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. This reflected in the results obtained from a chi-square test which indicated that there are no significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP households’ opinions regarding the effect on infrastructure on poverty reduction outcomes (calculated $X^2=2.074$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).



In aggregate terms it was found that 60.8% of respondents agreeing with the statement (i.e. 212 respondents out of 353 respondents), while 39.9% of respondents disagreeing with the statement (i.e. 141 respondents out of a total of 353 respondents). Given that 60.8% respondents, representing majority of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the proposition, the drift is more toward the assertion that infrastructure interventions of SNMA have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes.

Table 4.6: Infrastructure Intervention have Positively Affected Poverty Reduction Outcomes

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Strongly Agree	22	24.7	76	28.8	98	27.8
Agree	27	30.3	87	33.0	114	32.3
Disagree	17	19.1	51	19.3	68	19.3
Strongly Disagree	23	25.8	50	18.9	73	20.7
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.



According to the opinion leaders, there was a noticeable improvement in access to basic social services such as education, health, good drinking water and, to a limited extent, electricity. They also cited improved surface accessibility as a result of massive road, bridge and culvert construction as well as improved access to markets for farmers as a result of the construction of standard markets at major marketing centres. In concluding their assessment of SNMA’s PRIs, they indicated that, if you placed the communal poverty reduction interventions side by side with the individual poverty reduction interventions, you will observe that the communal poverty reduction intervention has affected the people more. They were, however, quick to add that it was not because the communal PRIs were the most efficient or even most effective way of dealing with the issue of poverty, but it was because



the Assembly spent more than five times what it spent on individual intervention on communal interventions. This was a clear admission of the fact that SNMA's indirect support interventions have positively affected poverty reduction intervention outcomes only because SNMA paid more attention and resources to provision on indirect support interventions.

Similarly, members of the MPCU indicated that, the impact of SNMA's PRIs on beneficiaries cannot be under-estimated, as all sectors of the local economy of the municipality had been positively impacted by SNMA's PRI in one way or the other. They however, concluded by indicating that, on balance, the socio-economic infrastructure provision had been more impactful than the non-infrastructure intervention like; provision capacity building, extension services, subsidies, etc. However, members of the MPCU admitted that the two interventions were simply not comparable because infrastructure interventions had larger budgetary allocation than the non-infrastructure intervention. A member of the MPCU summarised the impact of the SNMA's PRI in the following words:

"...to get a sense of the impact of Assembly's interventions just walk into the communities and randomly speak to people..., and the responses you get will blow your mind or simply confirm what you've heard from us here today... especially, in respect of the provision of public goods..." (Opinion by a member of the MPCU at a Focus Group Discussion, 2017).

The key informants like the opinion leaders and member of the MPCU indicated that infrastructure driven interventions are more impactful than the non-infrastructure driven ones. They also acknowledged the fact that non-infrastructure intervention had received disproportionately high level of resource than the beneficiary driven interventions. The following comments by a key informant clearly illustrates how impactful the infrastructural

interventions had been in the process of reducing poverty through improving access to quality socio-economic services to all the citizenry of the municipality.

“...when it comes to the provision of education, health, water and sanitation facilities and provision of markets we have done a lot. The DA has done tremendously well to be able to provide these services to facilitate the process of transition from a state of poverty to a state of better living conditions by the people of the DA..., for that one we have done very well....” (Opinion Expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

From the above comments, it could be inferred that the key informants agreed with the first statement that *“infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcome”* as they argue that the infrastructural driven intervention had been in the process of reducing poverty through improving access to quality socio-economic services to all citizenry of the municipality.

The key informants once again indicated that the Municipal Assembly had been very effective in the delivery of infrastructure related intervention; more so than it was in the delivery of direct support and safety-net related intervention to beneficiaries. A comment like the following was made by a key informant:

“...when it comes to the infrastructural driven poverty reduction intervention (education, health, water and sanitation, roads, markets, etc.) you can give us thumbs up... as such infrastructural facilities had resulted in a remarkable improvement to access to socio-economic services... It is when we come to the software component such as the direct support and safety-net driven intervention that we are found lagging...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017)



Clearly, the above statement represents an admission of the fact that, SNMA had invested less in the delivery of non-infrastructure interventions compared with the level of resources invested in the delivery of infrastructure interventions.

Effect of non-Infrastructure Interventions on Poverty Levels

In assessing the effect of non-infrastructure interventions on poverty levels among target beneficiaries, the researcher was minded by the objectives of the specific intervention and how it has impacted levels of poverty among target beneficiaries from their own assessment. Three non-infrastructure interventions were assessed (such as LEAP, subsidies for farmers and employable skills development training for unemployed youth).

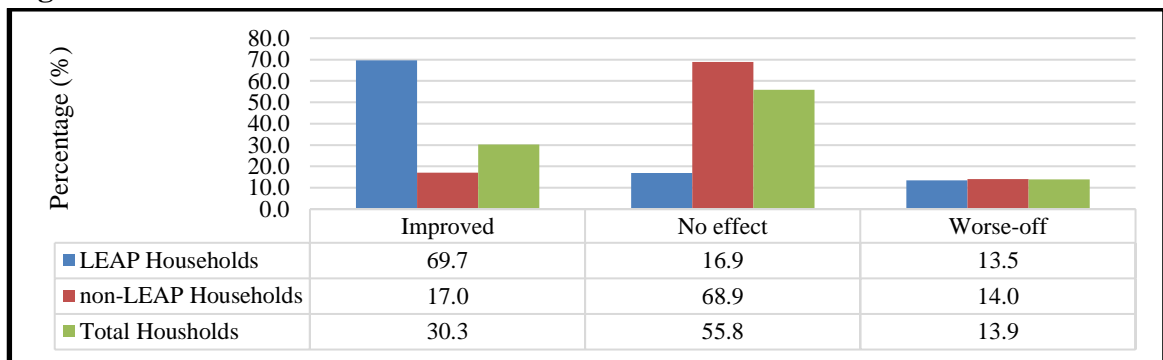
The primary objective of the implementation of the LEAP intervention is to increase the social inclusion of socially excluded groups (i.e. the extreme poor and vulnerable households with; orphan Vulnerable Children, Older Persons at 65 years or above, persons living with severe disabilities and pregnant women and households with children below two years) through strengthening and upscaling assistance, productive inclusion and social insurance.

Figure 4.7 presents the results of the analyses of respondents' assessment of the impact of LEAP on social inclusion. The Figure shows that while majority (69.7%) of LEAP household respondents compared with only 17% non-LEAP household respondents felt that LEAP as an intervention had resulted in improved social inclusion. Only 16.9% of LEAP household respondents compared with majority (68.9%) of non-LEAP household respondents felt that the intervention had no effect on social inclusion. It was however found that only a small proportion of respondents of both LEAP (13.5%) and non-LEAP (14%) household respondents indicated that the intervention had worsen the status of social



inclusion. A chi-square test of the result revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the impact of LEAP intervention on social inclusion (calculated $X^2=93.165$, $df=2$, critical $X^2=5.991$, at 0.05 level of significance), which implies that LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents differ in their assessment of the effect of LEAP intervention on social inclusion.

Figure 4.7: Assessment of the Effect of LEAP Intervention on Social Inclusion



Source: Field study, November 2016.

The subsidies for farmers was found to be an intervention (targeting extreme poor households) that sought to increase agriculture output and also create job opportunities for the teaming unemployed youth in SNMA. The collated results of respondents' perceptions of the impact of subsidies for farmers on lowering poverty levels among beneficiaries are as shown in Figure 4.8. The results show on one hand, that a comparably higher proportion of LEAP household (58.4%) than non-LEAP household (20.8%) respondents indicated that the intervention had resulted in lowering poverty among beneficiary farmers. On the other hand, it shows that a comparably smaller proportion of LEAP households (28.1%) than non-LEAP household (65.2%) respondents indicated that the intervention had no effect on lowering poverty levels among beneficiaries. The difference between LEAP and non-LEAP household assessment were statistically significant (calculated $X^2=47.430$, $df=2$, critical

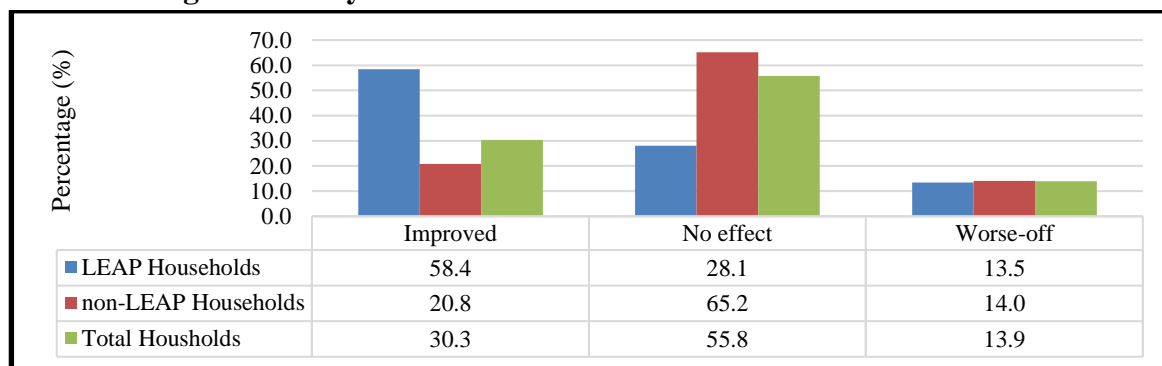


$X^2=5.991$, at 0.05 level of significance). However, a comparable proportion of respondents in both cases indicated that the subsidies intervention rather made them worse-off (i.e. 13.5% LEAP and 14% non-LEAP household respondents).

A documentary review of both the annual progress report of SNMA and the annual performance report of the Municipal Department of Agriculture revealed that between 2006 and 2016 beneficiaries of the subsidy for farmer intervention increased from 347 small-holder farmers to 745 small-holder farmers. The review of the reports further revealed that as a result of the subsidy, each farmer increased the acreage cultivated between 1 and 3 acres to between 6 and 10 acres, which signifies that there is an improved capacity of the small-holder farmers.



Figure 4.8: Assessment of the Effect of Subsidies for Farmers on lowering Poverty Levels among Beneficiary Farmers



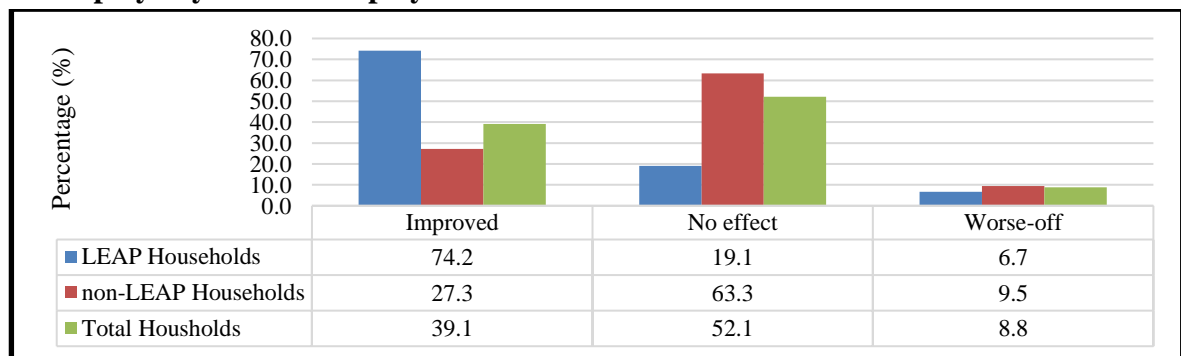
Source: Field study, November 2016.

The intervention on the provision of employable skills development for unemployed youth sought to reduce youth unemployment in SNMA. The collated results in Table 4.9 shows a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. While 74.2% of LEAP household respondents perceive employable skills development for unemployed youth have generally resulted in an improvement in youth employed with employable skills, only 27.3%



non-LEAP household respondents consider the intervention to have brought about some improvement. Also, as a small proportion (19.1%) of LEAP household respondents indicate the intervention had no effect, a comparably larger proportion (63.3%) of non-LEAP households held that the intervention had no effect in reducing unemployment among the youth. However, a smaller proportion of both LEAP (6.7%) and non-LEAP (9.5%) household respondents indicated the intervention had rather made them worse-off than they were. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents' assessment regarding the effect of employable skills development on employment were found to be statistically significant (calculated $X^2=62.888$, $df=2$, critical $X^2=5.991$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Figure 4.9: Assessment of the Effect of Employable Skills Development for Unemployed youth on Employment



Source: Field study, November 2016.

Non-Infrastructure Interventions

With the aid of a four-point Likert Scale, the effect of SNMA's non-infrastructure interventions were examined through asking respondents to rate their level of agreeing or disagreeing with the proposition that "Non-Infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes" in the municipality. Table 4.7 indicates that 80.2% of the total respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. The



proportion of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with preposition were smaller than the proportion who disagreed or strongly disagreed with the preposition, implying that SNMA’s non-infrastructure interventions have not positively affected poverty reduction intervention outcomes among target beneficiaries.

A chi-square test results showed that there are no statistically significant differences between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP households in respect of non-infrastructure interventions positively affecting poverty reduction outcomes (calculated $X^2=1.037$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). A comparison of responses of the two categories of respondents showed that 79.8% of LEAP household and 80.3% of non-LEAP households respondents either disagree or strongly disagreed that non-infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes.

Table 4.7: Non-Infrastructure Intervention have Positively Affected Poverty Reduction outcomes

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Strongly Agree	5	5.6	19	7.2	24	6.8
Agree	13	14.6	33	12.5	46	13.0
Disagree	50	56.2	139	52.7	189	53.5
Strongly Disagree	21	23.6	73	27.7	94	26.6
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

The result from the interviews with opinion leaders revealed that SNMA’s non-infrastructure interventions have had a limited effect on poverty reduction outcomes. This, they attributed to limited support for activities that directly affected the livelihood of beneficiaries compared to the provision of infrastructure. They, however, indicated that, by this, they were not

discounting the fact that there was some support that affected beneficiary livelihoods directly but the scale was too limited to yield the desired impact.

They (opinion leaders) explained further that, although the scale of poverty reduction interventions that impacted directly on beneficiary livelihood activities was limited, there were improvement in various income generating activities such as shea nut collection and marketing, shea butter processing, groundnut oil processing, and animal rearing due to various capacity building and training programmes organised for beneficiaries of interventions. Furthermore, they made reference to improved access to both formal and informal micro-credit/finance service and the direct cash transfer packages to destitute and indigents in the communities. They added that some farmers were provided with extension services and subsidised farm inputs with a consequent effect of such farmers increasing their acreages as their capacity had increased as a result of the support.

Like the opinion leaders, members of the MPCU acknowledged that the municipality had not done well in the area of provision of non-infrastructure interventions i.e. interventions that went directly to beneficiaries like the provision of credit, provision of equipment and logistical support, capacity building for people engaged in various income generating activities, apprenticeship training programmes for the youth, etc. The reasons for the rather low impact of these interventions were attributed to poor beneficiary identification and selection process, massive politicisation of interventions, poor orientation on the terms and condition of intervention, over-reliance on external sources of funding that came with guidelines that never favour direct support interventions, etc.





During the interaction with key informants, they expressed a high level of disappointment with the impact of SNMA’s direct beneficiary support with respect to PRI. They indicated that the poor performance of the direct support driven poverty reduction interventions could be attributed to factors like low budgetary allocations to such interventions, poor identification and selection of beneficiaries, poor beneficiary orientation on the terms of intervention, political and traditional influence and interference in the process of managing the intervention. The key informants further lamented that “beneficiaries of direct intervention, particularly the vulnerable and excluded groups (such as people living with disability, people living with HIV/AIDS, orphans, etc.) most often did not apply the support provided in productive activities... all they do is to engage in consumption activities, which ends up perpetuating their status of vulnerability and exclusion”. Specifically, the key informants put it that:

“...when you come to non-infrastructure interventions like the provision of credit facilities to complement the issue of infrastructure provision..., that is where the problems come... The credit facilities that were provided to the people were meant to be in a form of a revolving fund where people are given such credits to engage in productive activities and pay back the seed capital for another group of beneficiaries to enjoy... In this area the DA has not done well at all..., this is because of our attitudes..., particularly the attitude of beneficiaries of such schemes as they fail to recognise that such interventions were aimed at moving them from the present poor condition to a better condition in the future... They rather consider such a facility to be government property and simply end up mismanaging the fund and, as a result, the sustainability of the fund becomes questionable...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

“...non-infrastructure interventions such as the provision of small ruminants to beneficiaries to rear and repay through returning the number of ruminants given

out at the initial stage in order for others to benefit from the package. The objective was to enable households improve upon their livelihood..., but the sad thing was that on monitoring visits you observe that most beneficiaries instead of rearing the ruminants..., they sell them and report they died out of some infections... I think that, we as the officials of the DA have contributed to such a sad state of affair through the selection of beneficiaries which often is embellished with political influences resulting in wrong selection of beneficiaries as people are selected merely by virtue of the fact that they are sympathiser of a particular political regime or some other kind of consideration and all these tend to affect the results of the intervention in a negative way... ” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

Key informants, in explaining why the SNMA seems to be performing poorly in interventions that directly went to beneficiaries, cited issues like: some beneficiaries considered such intervention as their reward for their loyalty to the political party in power and thus never paid back the seed capital or credit advanced to them to enable other beneficiaries to access such facility (none payment rate was estimated to be about 68%); and unnecessary interference by political figures, traditional leaders and opinion leaders in the process of beneficiary identification and selection among several other reasons.

It is quite instructive to note that the interview revealed that the non-infrastructure interventions had a limited effect on poverty reduction outcomes due to the limited emphasis placed on provision of such interventions by the MA as reflected in the generally low budgetary allocation to non-infrastructure interventions as a result of the heavy reliance of on external sources of funding development intervention in the municipality which is normally skewed in favour of delivering of socio-economic infrastructure.



The researcher observed that opinion leaders generally held a contrary view from the views held by household respondents. A large proportion of the opinion leaders (i.e. 28 out of 32) were of the view that SNMA's poverty reduction interventions could, at best, be described as "*God sent*" giving that the greatest challenge in their respective communities was low living conditions and with the Assembly's interventions, living conditions had improved to some extent since, through the various interventions, beneficiaries are able to meet their basic socio-economic needs. However, a small proportion of the opinion leaders (4) interviewed expressed some fears that the current benefits of PRIs were short term as changes in political administration have always impacted negatively on poverty reduction interventions. They therefore suggested that the Municipal Assembly's (MA) implemented programmes should, as much as practicable, be insulated from the political system.

The interviews (i.e. opinion leaders, members of the MPCU and key informants) also revealed that, although interventions by SNMA were far from being perfect, they were helped in addressing some critical issues of poverty (like poor access to some basic social and economic services) and has also empowered beneficiaries both economically and socially.

They cited a few examples to buttress their point: they indicated that beneficiaries of agricultural support had consistently increased their acreages of land cultivated with a corresponding increase in outputs; they also cited improved road conditions as having contributed towards improving access to markets and connectivity to major towns due to the ease with which farm produce are transported to market centres; they also cited increased access to good drinking water resulting in reduced water related diseases; mention was also

made of increased numbers of children attending schools due to availability of school facilities as well as increased number of cases reported at community health centres. They also highlighted increased access to affordable investment credit from both formal (banks, registered saving and loans institutions, registered micro-finance/credit institutions, MASLOG, etc.) and informal (“susu” groups, village savings and loans associations) sources.

SNMA’s Poverty Reduction Interventions are Successful in Reducing Poverty

In respect of whether or not poverty reduction interventions in SNMA have succeeded in reducing poverty, Table 4.8 revealed that there were clear differences in opinions of LEAP households and non-LEAP households. Specifically, 53.9% LEAP household respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the view that “poverty reduction interventions in SNMA have succeeded in reducing poverty” compared with 20.1% of non-LEAP household respondents who agreed or disagreed with the statement. The study also discovered that 46.1% of LEAP households compared with 79.9% of non-LEAP households disagreed or strongly disagreed with the proposition that “poverty reduction interventions in SNMA have succeeded in reducing poverty”. From the foregoing it is obvious that whereas LEAP household respondents generally agreed with the statement, the non-LEAP households on the other hand generally disagreed with the statement. This differences in opinion was further affirmed by a chi-square test result which indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households (calculated $X^2=72.249$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance) in respect of the statement that “poverty reduction interventions in SNMA have succeeded in reducing poverty”.



An examination of the aggregate responses revealed that 20.1% of 353 respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, while on the other hand 79.9% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that “poverty reduction interventions in SNMA have succeeded in reducing poverty”. Closer examination of the proportion who disagreed or strongly disagreed reveal that the large number of the non-LEAP household respondents influenced the outcome with the larger number compared with the LEAP household respondents.

Table 4.8: SNMA Poverty Reduction Interventions are Successful in Reducing Poverty Levels

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Strongly Agree	27	30.3	24	9.1	31	8.8
Agree	21	23.6	29	11.0	40	11.3
Disagree	28	31.5	129	48.9	177	50.1
Strongly Disagree	13	14.6	82	31.1	105	29.7
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Management of Poverty without any Intervention from SNMA

The results of the analysis of responses from households on how they managed the problem of poverty without any intervention from SNMA are as presented in Table 4.9. which indicates that majority of LEAP households (66.3%) and non-LEAP households (69.7%) respondents indicated that they poorly managed their poverty situation. On the other hand, 29.2% LEAP household respondents compared to 28.4% non-LEAP household respondents indicated they averagely managed their poverty situation. A very small minority of LEAP household (3.1%) and non-LEAP (1.1%) respondents indicated they manage the poverty situation well. When the results were subjected to a chi-square test, it emerged that there were no statistically significant differences between the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respect of how they manage their poverty situation in the absence



of SNMA's interventions for poverty reduction (calculated $X^2=2.187$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Table 4.9: Management of Poverty without any Intervention from SNMA

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Poorly	59	66.3	184	69.7	243	68.9
Fairly well	26	29.2	75	28.4	101	28.6
Well	3	3.4	3	1.1	6	1.7
None Response	1	1.1	2	0.8	3	0.8
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

A further interrogation of how respondents managed poverty without any formal support revealed as presented in Table 4.10 that 22.5% of LEAP household dependents relied on friends compared to 27.3% non-LEAP households, 43.8% LEAP household respondents relied on benevolent organisations compared to only 1.9% non-LEAP household respondents. It was further found that 29.2% LEAP household compared with 42.4% of non-LEAP respondents relied on extended families. However only 4.5% LEAP household self-manage compared with 28.4% non-LEAP households.

After subjecting the above results to a chi-square test, it emerged that there were statistically significant differences in the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households in respect of what they relied on in coping with the challenges of poverty (calculated $X^2=114.437$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). From the foregoing, it is obvious that the non-LEAP household respondents had a stronger extended family support system than the LEAP household respondents. Furthermore, it is also observed from the analysis that non-

LEAP household respondents are more capable of self-managing their poverty situation than the LEAP household respondents.

Table 4.10: How Poverty was Management without Formal Support

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Support from Friend	20	22.5	72	27.3	92	26.1
Benevolent Organisation	39	43.8	5	1.9	44	12.5
Extended Family Members	26	29.2	112	42.4	138	39.1
Self-Managed	4	4.5	75	28.4	79	22.4
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

4.5. INFLUENCE OF BENEFICIARY INVOLVEMENT ON POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

This sub-section assesses the extent of beneficiary involvement in: problem identification; goal formulation; objective setting; identification of project options and choice making; implementation, monitoring, and evaluation; as well as contributing (in terms of labour, finance, and other materials) and share in the benefits that accrue from the process the intervention.

In examining the extent to which beneficiaries were involved at the problem identification stage of interventions. The study revealed that 33.7% of LEAP households compared to 28.4% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated they were involved. On the other hand, majority of LEAP (66.3%) and non-LEAP (71.6%) of LEAP household respondents indicated that they were not involved at the problem identification stage. A chi-square test of the above result revealed that there is no statistically significant differences in the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households regarding beneficiary involvement in problem



identification stage of planning (calculated $X^2=0.894$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance).

The result (Table 4.11) also shows a very low involvement of beneficiaries in goal formulation. This is evident in the proportion of respondents (i.e. 79.8% LEAP and 72.7% non-LEAP household respondents) indicating that they were not involved in formulating goals. When the results were subjected to chi-square test, the resulted (calculated $X^2=1.741$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance) showed that the was no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household opinions in respect of beneficiary involvement in goal formulation.

The question of whether beneficiaries of interventions were involved in objective setting revealed that 48.3% LEAP household respondents compared with 50.4% non-LEAP household respondents indicating they were involved. However, 51.7% LEAP household and 49.6% non-LEAP household respondents indicated they were not involved in the objective setting. A chi-square test revealed that the differences between the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households was not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=0.113$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance). The differences between the two categories of respondents on both sides of the item was large as evident in the foregoing analysis.

When respondents were asked whether they were involved in the identification of project options and choice making in respect of which project to implement, it was discovered that 30.3% and 45.1% of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents respectively indicated



they were involved. However, it was discovered Majority of the respondents in both cases (i.e. 69.7% LEAP household and 54.9% non-LEAP household respondents) indicated they were not involved in the project identification phase. The observed differences in the responses from LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents was found under a chi-square test to be statistically significant (calculated $X^2=5.962$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Regarding beneficiary involvement in the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of interventions, it was observed that 59.6% of LEAP household respondents indicated they were not involved compared with 50% of non-LEAP households. On the other hand, 40.4% of LEAP household respondents indicated they were involved compared with 50% of non-LEAP. Although, there are observed differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household opinions, the differences were rather not statistically significant as revealed by a chi-square test results (calculated $X^2=2.434$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance).



In examining whether beneficiaries contributed (in terms of labour, finance, and other materials) towards project execution, it was found as shown in Table 4.11 that majority of the respondents (96.6% LEAP households and 90.9% non-LEAP household) in both cases indicated they made no contribution towards project execution. A chi-square test result revealed that the differences between opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents was not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=3.083$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance).

The study also revealed that beneficiaries shared in the benefits that accrue from the implementation of planned interventions as the result show, 77.5% of LEAP household and 75% non-LEAP household respondents all indicated they shared in the benefits accruing from the implementation of planned interventions. The closeness of the results was reaffirmed by a chi-square test result which indicates that the observed differences were not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=0.231$, $df=1$, critical $X^2=3.814$, at 0.05 level of significance).



Table 4.11: Beneficiary Involvement in Planning Interventions

Programming Stages	Response	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Involved in problem identification	Yes	30	33.7	75	28.4	105	29.7
	No	59	66.3	189	71.6	248	70.3
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Involved in goal formulation	Yes	18	20.2	72	27.3	90	25.5
	No	71	79.8	192	72.7	263	74.5
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Involved in objective setting	Yes	43	48.3	133	50.4	176	49.9
	No	46	51.7	131	49.6	177	50.1
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Involved in identification of project options and choice making	Yes	27	30.3	119	45.1	146	41.4
	No	62	69.7	145	54.9	207	58.6
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Involved in implementation, monitoring, and evaluation	Yes	36	40.4	132	50.0	168	47.6
	No	53	59.6	132	50.0	185	52.4
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
Contributed (in terms of labour, finance, and other materials) towards	Yes	3	3.4	24	9.1	27	7.6
	No	86	96.6	240	90.9	326	92.4
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
community share in the benefits that accrue from the intervention	Yes	69	77.5	198	75.0	267	75.6
	No	20	22.5	66	25.0	86	24.4
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.



Opinion leaders in concurring with the results from the household survey, indicated that, to the best of their knowledge, they were not involved right from the identification of the project stage through to the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages. They did, however, acknowledge that they were involved at some stages but in a rather passive way. Specifically, they explained that some officials from the Assembly came into the community to interact with them in respect of a project yet to be brought into the community. Likewise, in cases where a project involves the need for acquisition of land, the MA normally will rely on influential people and opinion leaders to facilitate the process. Other times, officials from the Assembly only come into the community to tell us that a project has been allocated to our community and what our responsibilities are under the terms and conditions of the project.

Majority of the opinion leaders, indicated that they were only contacted by official of the Assembly when they expect some officials from Accra or some “white men”. They added that the assembly officials rush into the communities to coach them on what to say and what not to say to ensure that the intervention is not withdrawn and also increase the chances of further extension of the programme to cover more beneficiaries. Specifically, statements like those below were made by some opinion leaders:

“...my son if you were in my place and officials of the council (MA) came to inform you that some official from Accra in the company of some ‘whites’ will be visiting your community to find out whether the programmes and projects being implemented reflected community needs and aspirations and the consequence of saying no was outright withdrawal of the programme from your community what will you do?...” (Tarikpa Community, 2017).



The above quotation clearly demonstrates the extent to which communities are coerced into giving responses that favour officials of the Assembly. It also implies that most often interventions provided by state agencies do not actually reflect the felt needs of the people.

“...mostly we as community members are only brought into the picture after project implementation has started or completed... what is normally done in most instances is to tell us that, due to the urgent nature of the identification and design of the programme, the Assembly did that on our behalf to ensure that the project was not taken elsewhere and that we needed to know what we were expected to do during the identification and design and assume we did as expected and that any official who visits should be given such an impression...” (Daire Community, 2017).

“...how can you sit in Savelugu Assembly Office and know what my problems are and what can solve those problems, but officers of the Assembly seem to do that so well...” (Moglaa Community, 2017).

The implication of the above quotations is that all the steps involved in programme design through implementation to monitoring and evaluation is often done at the office and imposed on target beneficiaries. The only effort made was to painstakingly take beneficiaries of intervention through all the protocols of community involvement and engagement associated with intervention to ensure that some minimum requirements from donor are met when such communities are visited. The quotation below clearly shows that beneficiaries are only involved by way of providing information in order to design interventions for such beneficiaries but not to influence the kind of intervention to provide.

“...you are contacted by an assembly member who informs you that officers from the Assembly will be visiting to collect some information about the community

in order to bring some intervention... and because the development of your community is in your own interest you oblige” (Nanton Community, 2017).

According to members of the MPCU, it was during the implementation of UNICEF’s Community Based Development Project, the Northern Region Poverty Reduction Programme (NORPREP) and Community Based Rural Development Programme that community members took a leading role in project identification and planning, while officials of the MA played a facilitating role. They however, indicated that, with the ending of the above-mentioned interventions, funding for community involvement in development planning had reduced and, as a result, SNMA on its own could only partially support beneficiary involvement in programme identification and planning.

Key informants shared a similar view with members of the MPCU, as they argued that the level of beneficiary involvement was very high during the implementation of donor funded programmes and projects like the UNICEF Community Based Development Project and CBDRP/VIP II and, to a lesser extent, NORPREP. According to the key informants, during the implementation of the aforementioned project every community was supported technically and financially to develop their respective CAPs that were harmonised at the AC level into ACPs, which served as a critical input into the MTDP of the MA. The situation however changed in the mid-to-late 2000s (specifically, from 2008 to 2013) when there was no donor support for community involvement resulting in very low beneficiary involvement in programme identification and development.

They further argued that, even at the periods when there were extensive community involvement in the identification and planning of interventions as a result of donor support,



the quality of beneficiary participation emerged as a major concern as most people were merely present because they had to be there and virtually brought nothing to the table for consideration or interrogation. Comment like those below were made by key informants:

“...I think that, in terms of involving beneficiaries..., we’ve been able to do our best..., especially between 2004 to around 2007/2008 the DA facilitated the preparation of CAPs..., this was funded by donors once again... The CAPs issue was championed by donors under the UNICEF community development programme, CBRDP, NORPREP, etc.... In our planning and programming we make use of the CAPs by going to the communities to facilitate the process of reviewing and prioritising their proposed activities in the CAPs after which we facilitate the process of harmonising the CAPs at the AC level to come out with the ACPs..., this process brings together members of the ACs and representatives of the community to prioritise proposed activity at the AC level resulting in developing or reviewing ACPs..., so the ACPs become one source of input into the DMTDP..., even at the DA level representatives from the community, ACs, identifiable groups and traditional leaders are also invited to participate in the various stakeholder engagement sessions...” (Opinion expressed by a key Informant, 2017).



From the above quotation it is clear that although the planning process recognises stakeholder involvement, its operationalisation is dependent on the availability of donor funding as clearly articulated by key informants.

“... I can say to a large extent that in terms of involvement we have involved beneficiaries of intervention in the process of developing such interventions... However, we may talk about the quality of involvement as we have different levels of participation, as some may participate by merely providing information, by mobilising the community, etc. for engagement, we have engaged them but the issue is the quality of the participation and perhaps this is what we should interrogate... for instance you invite representative of the community for a CAP planning session and all they do is to be present not actively involved in

the discussions and decisions taken...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

It could be inferred from the above quotation that in terms of physical involvement, beneficiaries have been involved to a very great extent but in terms of the involvement influencing the quality of development decision, it has been quite limited.

The 32 opinion leaders, in discussing the causes of low beneficiary involvement, referred to two or more of the following: low awareness of the planning cycle of the assembly; high illiteracy level among community members; inadequate funding for community involvement in planning activities; poor timing of community participation activities; and high level of apathy among community members. Below are a few of the statements made to articulate the causes of the low beneficiary involvement in project identification and planning:

“...because they (MA) are not interested in our inputs we are not told when they will begin collating community needs and development of strategies to tackle those needs..., they only spring it as a surprise on everybody at which point you do not have well thought through issues to present or discuss as a result you simple endorse whatever the official of the Assembly proposes...” (Gbumgbum community, 2017).

“...when they come to us instead of bringing themselves to our level by speaking our language or presenting issues in very simple term, they make issues very complex and difficult to follow... In the end it is only the few educated ones amongst us appreciate what is going on... which ends up discouraging community participation...” (Sahakpaligu community, 2017).

“...You imagine all communities under an area council are called to converge at the centre of the area council to harmonise all community action plans into an Area Council Action Plan and yet no provision is made for transporting



participants to and from the venue..., is it therefore surprising to have very low participation from participants?” ...” (Tuunayili community, 2017).

“...those official from Assembly have made it a habit of scheduling public participation activities during periods we are either preparing our land for farming or harvesting... how then, do you expect us to abandon our primary source of livelihood at such a critical period to participate in such fora...” (Duko community, 2017).

“... in the olden days when we were youth how dare you refuse to avail yourself to a council organised programme... today the councils are so weak they call for meetings and people simple stay at home or blatantly refuse to avail themselves for such meetings and nothing happens to them...” (Diare community, 2017).

Effect of Beneficiary Involvement in Planning of Interventions

On a four-point Likert Scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree the study established the level of respondents' agreement with the statement that that “*beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have affected poverty reduction intervention outcomes positively*”. This assessment was premised on respondent's actual involvement as at the time the data was collected and their valued judgement of how it has affected PRI outcomes, the results are as presented in Table 4.24. A cursory assessment of Table 4.12 show that although majority of both categories of respondents (i.e. LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents) generally disagreed with the assertion that “*beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have affected PRI outcomes positively*”, there appear to be some differences in the opinions of the two categories of respondents. The outcome of subjecting the results to a chi-square test results revealed that the was no statistically significant differences (calculated $X^2=5.005$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance) in



the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents regarding the statement that “beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have affected PRI outcomes positively”. This may be due to the fact that in both cases majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement (i.e. 61.8% LEAP and 50.4% non-LEAP household respondents) and minority agreed with the statement (i.e. 38.2% LEAP and 49.6% non-LEAP household respondents).

From the analysis, it is observed that the aggregate proportion of respondents who disagreed or strongly disagreed (53.3%) were found to be greater than the proportion who agreed or strongly agreed (46.7%) with the statement, implying that beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have not affected PRI outcomes positively.

Table 4.12: Beneficiary Involvement in Planning have positively affected PRI Outcomes

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Strongly Agree	11	12.4	57	21.6	68	19.3
Agree	23	25.8	74	28.0	97	27.5
Disagree	28	31.5	62	23.5	90	25.5
Strongly Disagree	27	30.3	71	26.9	98	27.8
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Influence of Beneficiary Involvement on Outcomes of PRI

The study established what respondents considered to be the influence of beneficiary involvement on the outcome of PRI as captured in Table 4.13. Comparatively, the results show some differences in the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. For instance, 76.4% of LEAP household respondents rate the influence of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of PRI to either be poor or very poor compared with 62.5% non-





LEAP household respondents. Similarly, while 12.2% LEAP household respondents rated the influence of beneficiary involvement as having an average influence on outcome of PRIs, non-LEAP household respondents rated it at 19.7%. The differences were also, observed where they rated the influences of beneficiary involvement on the outcome of PRI as either good or very good (i.e. 11.2% LEAP compared to 17.8% non-LEAP household respondents). When the results were subjected to a chi-square test it emerged that there was statistically significant differences in the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respects of the influence of beneficiary involvement on the outcomes of PRIs (calculated $X^2=11.574$, $df=4$, critical $X^2=9.488$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Table 4.13: Respondents’ view on the Influence of Beneficiary Involvement on Outcomes of PRI

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very Poor	39	43.8	81	30.7	120	34.0
Poor	29	32.6	84	31.8	113	32.0
Average	11	12.4	52	19.7	63	17.8
Good	3	3.4	33	12.5	36	10.2
Very Good	7	7.9	14	5.3	21	5.9
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

In corroborating the above, opinion leaders indicated that limited involvement of beneficiaries in the project identification and planning has a negative effect on project outcomes. In transmitting their sentiments, some opinion leaders had the following to say, which generally reflected the views of all opinion leaders:

“...imaging you were just seated and a borehole springs up in your community overnight... compared with the case where you make a request for a borehole and agreed to abide by all conditions involved in the provision of the borehole...”

my son, which of these will you be committed to?, ... my son your guess is as good as mine...” (Nanton community, 2017).

“... officer, listen carefully, where beneficiary participation is low, most often than not resultant interventions do not address felt needs and aspiration of the people... but rather they address perceived needs and aspirations as assumed by Assembly officials...” (Diare community, 2017).

From the above extracts it is obvious that limited or no involvement of beneficiaries of intervention in project identification and planning could affect the sense of ownership and commitment to the project success and sustainability. It could thus be inferred from this that, if beneficiary involvement is increased, it could result in improved project outcomes, all other things being equal.

In discussing the effect of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of interventions, the MPCU members indicated that the periods between the late 1990s to the mid-2000s where beneficiary involvement was relatively high as a result of donor support, there was an increased sense of beneficiary ownership of interventions that resulted in increased commitment by beneficiaries and, as a result, the planned objectives of such interventions were realised. This cannot be said for the period after the mid-2000s to date as a result of decreased level of beneficiary involvement.

Level of Beneficiary Involvement

The researcher examined the level of beneficiary involvement in planning of poverty reduction intervention and the results are as presented in Table 4.14. A closer look at the table shows that there are clear differences in the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP



household respondents. However, what was common in both cases was that the level of participation can at best be described as being “tokenistic” in nature. Specifically, 40.4% of LEAP household respondents compared with 28.8% non-LEAP household respondent cited provision of information to the officials of the MA as their level of involvement. Also, 29.2% of LEAP households compared to 17.4% non-LEAP households cited being “told what their roles and responsibilities are under the intervention” by official of the Assembly as their level of involvement. However, 7.6% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated that their involvement in the process was self-initiated without the prompting by the MA compared with none in the case of the LEAP household respondents. When the results as captured in Table 4.17 were subjected to a chi-square test, it showed that the differences between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respect of the level of beneficiary involvement in planning PRIs were statistically significant (calculated $X^2=18.352$, $df=4$, critical $X^2=9.488$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Table 4.14: Level of Beneficiary Involvement in Planning of Interventions

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Provide information	36	40.4	76	28.8	112	31.7
Answered questions	14	15.7	56	21.2	70	19.8
Awareness creation on projects	13	14.6	66	25.0	79	22.4
Told what our roles and responsibilities were under the intervention	26	29.2	46	17.4	72	20.4
Through self-initiative	0	0.0	20	7.6	20	5.7
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

4.6. CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

This sub-section is devoted to reviewing the challenges confronting implementation of SNMA poverty reduction interventions.

Sources of Funding Development and Poverty Reduction Interventions

The SNMA like any other District Assemblies have three blocks of revenue inflows which include “decentralised transfers which the assemblies own but do not control (examples of which include the District Assembly Common Fund DACF, grants-in-aid from the central government, and any other transfers from central government); donations and grants (i.e. donor transfers directly to DAs) which the assemblies do not own and do not also control (examples are; RING, UNICEF, FOAT/DDF, etc); internally generated revenue or fund which the assemblies own and also control (examples of which are licences; fees and miscellaneous charges; taxes; investment income; and rates)” (Government of Ghana, 2016; p64-65).

Broadly, the three blocks of revenue inflows can be regrouped into two broad categories namely external sources (made up of the decentralised transfers and donations and grants) and internal sources (made up of the internally generated fund). A content analysis of SNMA’s medium-term development plans, annual progress reports and composite budgets shows that, the MA relies on two main sources of revenue (namely internal and external sources) for funding its socio-economic development programmes (including intervention in the area of poverty reduction).

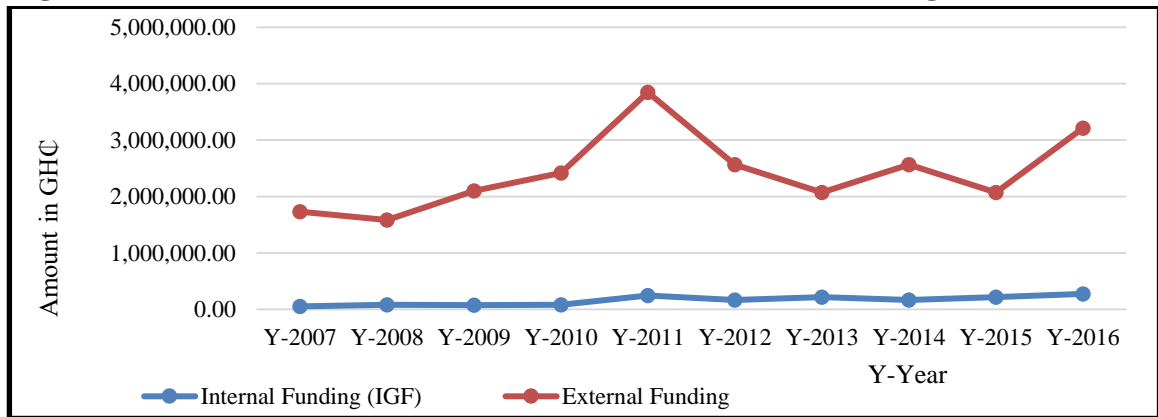




Figure 4.10 presents the performance of internal and external sources of funding over a ten-year period. The external funding source shows an erratic trend, implying that it is quite difficult to predict how much inflows to expect from external sources to fund the implementation of the DMTDPs of SNMA. A closer study of the 10-year trends show that the highest external inflow valued as GHC3,847,087.50 occurred in 2011, while the second highest external inflow valued at GHC3,212,463.12 occurred in 2016. However, the worst external inflow valued at GHC1,583,446.44 occurred in 2008 compared with an internal funding inflow over the 10-year period reviewed, SNMA had failed to mobilise up to GHC300,000.00 a year. Specifically, the highest internal funding inflow valued at GHC274,242.83 occurred in 2016, while the second highest inflow valued at GHC244,684.38 occurred at 2011. The least internal funding inflow valued at GHC55,729.77 occurred in 2007 (see Appendix 5, Table A5.2).

A further analysis of the relative contribution of the internal and external funding sources to the total envelop of resources available for implementation of development interventions captured in the DMTDPs of SNMA revealed that, the external funding source on average contributes 94% of the total revenue for execution of development interventions compared with an average of only 6% contribution to the total revenue through internal funding sources. The trend analysis also revealed that the highest contribution to the total revenue envelop by the internal funding sources was 9.6% which occurred in 2015. The implication of which is that SNMA is largely dependent on external funding for the socio-economic development of the municipality.

Figure 4.10: Performance of Internal and External Sources Funding Interventions



Source: Based on MPCU (2010; 2015; & 2017) Annual Progress Reports

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The content analysis further revealed that, SNMA performed poorly in mobilisation of internally generated funds (IGF) as the MA has consistently missed its revenue mobilisation targets. A follow up with key informants, members of the MPCU and management of the MA revealed that the poor performance in internal revenue mobilising is due to a number of reasons including; inadequate number of revenue collectors, non-payment of rates especially basic and property rates; revenue leakages due to poor supervision and monitoring, among others.



The key informants and management of the MA further indicated that the importance of IGF towards the attainment of the development goals of the assembly cannot be overemphasised as it can enable the MA become self-reliant/dependent thereby reducing the assembly’s reliance on central government and donor agencies for funding its development activities. They add that due to the small size of the IGF, the MA spends a greater percentage of the IGF on recurrent expenditure such that very little IGF is spent on capital expenditure.



The external sources of revenue according to the key informants and the SNMA's management is gotten from donor/NGO interventions and also from central government transfers like DACF which is one of the regular Government of Ghana (GOG) sources. They added that the quantum of IGF mobilised directly influences the size of DACF allocated to the assembly. They indicated that due to the Assembly's poor performance in mobilising IGF over the years there is a corresponding effect on the size of the DACF allocate to the assembly. It was further observed that over 90% of the MA's revenue has often been made up of the external components. This implies that implementation of the Assembly's MTDPs depends on grants received from development partners and central government and not much on internal funding given the small size of internal funding relative to the external funding sources.

The over-reliance on external funding sources for the implementation of interventions, according to the key informants, raises the question of the capacity of MMDAs' to be self-dependent and, with their benefactors determining what their priorities are. They also added that, more often than not, most of the high impact projects are donor funded and it raises questions of project sustainability, as the withdrawal or ending of donor funding could result in a complete relapse of all the gains of such intervention. The following are some specific comments made by key informants:

"...the key issue is the sustainability of interventions and the gains of interventions..., what we haven't been able to do at the Assembly level is to be able to sustain the important gains of intervention. For example, you implement an intervention and you have considerable results, we fail to sustain such gains..." (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017)

“...all area councils were supported to develop ACPs guiding them to identify projects for implementation... CBRDP provided direct funding for each Area Council (AC) to implement their planned projects... in this way their capacity was built and all we needed to do was to sustain this because while some ACs did well others did not..., but since then we have not pursued it again to ensure that the capacities built were sustained and even improved upon...” (Opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

Perceptions of Level of Reliability of Source of Funding

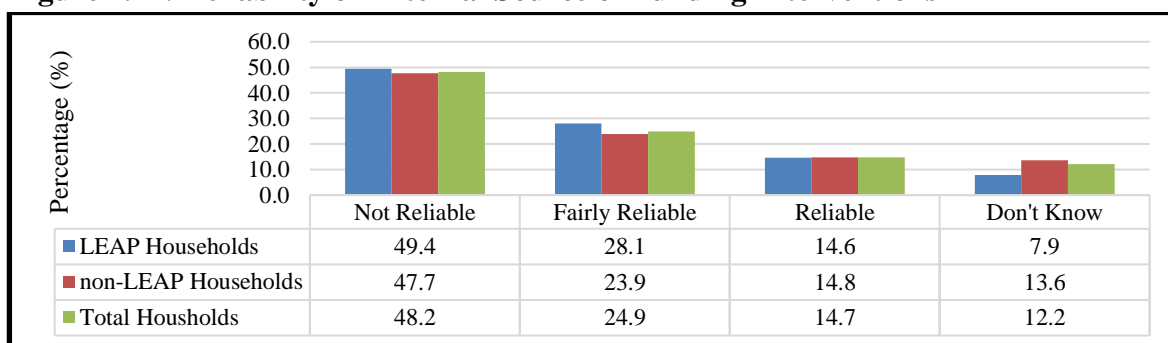
The study also gauged respondents’ perceptions of the level of reliability of the two main sources of funding interventions of SNMA. Specifically, respondents’ perceptions in respect of the reliability of the internal and external sources funding was examined. The results obtained from 89 LEAP household respondents and 264 non-LEAP household respondents were compared. Figure 4.11 shows that 49.4% of LEAP household compared with 47.7% of non-LEAP household respondents felt external sources of funding poverty reduction interventions was not reliable. Also, 28.1% compared with 23.1% of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents respectively indicated that external sources were fairly reliable. In terms of the external sources being reliable, the results revealed that 14.6% of LEAP household compared to 14.8% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated that external sources were reliable sources for funding poverty reduction interventions. However, a small proportion of respondents for both categories of respondents indicated they do not know whether external sources was reliable or not idea (i.e. 7.9% LEAP compared with 13.6% non-LEAP households).

From the foregone analysis, it is quite clear that a comparatively larger proportion of the respondents held the view that external sources were not reliable for funding poverty



reduction intervention. This is so because SNMA do not have control over the external sources and as a result cannot on its own determine how to utilise such funds independently without the say so by the provider of the funds. Upon subjecting the results to a chi-square test, it was found that the differences between the LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents' opinions were not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=2.339$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Figure 4.11: Reliability of External Source of Funding Interventions



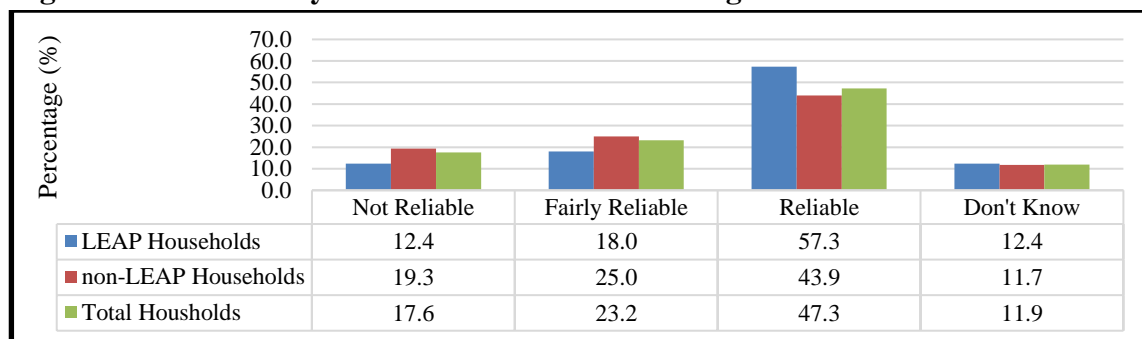
Source: Field study, November 2016.

The internal sources in this study refers to internally generated funds (IGF) for development activities by the SNMA. In other words, the MA has absolute control over this source of funding and is able to determine how to utilise such funds independently without any undue external influences. Figure 4.12 show that, 57.3% of LEAP compared to 43.9% of non-LEAP households find internal sources of funding to be reliable. The figure also shows that 18% of LEAP household compared to 25% of non-LEAP household respondents rated internal sources of funding to be fairly reliable. However, 12.4% of LEAP household compared with 19.3% of non-LEAP household respondents rated internal sources not to be reliable, while 12.4% of LEAP household compared with 19.3% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated they did not know whether internal sources were reliable or not.



From the foregoing, it could be observed that there is comparatively larger proportion of the respondents who held the view that internal sources were reliable since SNMA has absolute control over the internal sources of funding and is able to determine independently how to utilise the fund. A chi-square test of the result revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respects of the reliability or otherwise of the internal sources (calculated $X^2=5.782$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Figure 4.12: Reliability of Internal Source of Funding Interventions



Source: Field study, November 2016.



Figure 4.11 and 4.12 revealed substantive differences between respondents' perceptions about internal and external sources of funding. While internal sources of funding were found to be more reliable, the external source of funding were found to be less reliable. This basically gives an indication that SNMA has very limited control over interventions funded with external sources of funding. Apart from that, the external sources of funding are already assigned to specific projects and cannot be varied no matter the circumstance without recourse to the funding sources for approval.

According to the opinion leaders interviewed, SNMA's PRI were affected by several factors, the most critical being the sources of funding and regularity of flow of funds as well as the

reliability of the source of funding. Some opinion leaders specifically made the following observations:

“...because most of the projects were funded by the “white man” they had to be delivered on time before the white man decides to visit the project...” (Libga community, 2017).

“...for the Assembly, if they promise to give you a project and you sit in your room waiting for it... you’ll wait forever, that is why in this community we put together a team of elders and community elite to follow up on every project and promise made by the MCE...” (Dipale Community, 2017).

“...look when a project is brought to a community and the money to execute the project is from the assembly or the common fund then we are sure it will never be completed for beneficiaries to benefit on time... but if the money is from the white man then within a short time the project will be completed and on time for beneficiaries to use...” (Kanshegu Community, 2017).

Adequacy Sources of Funding Interventions

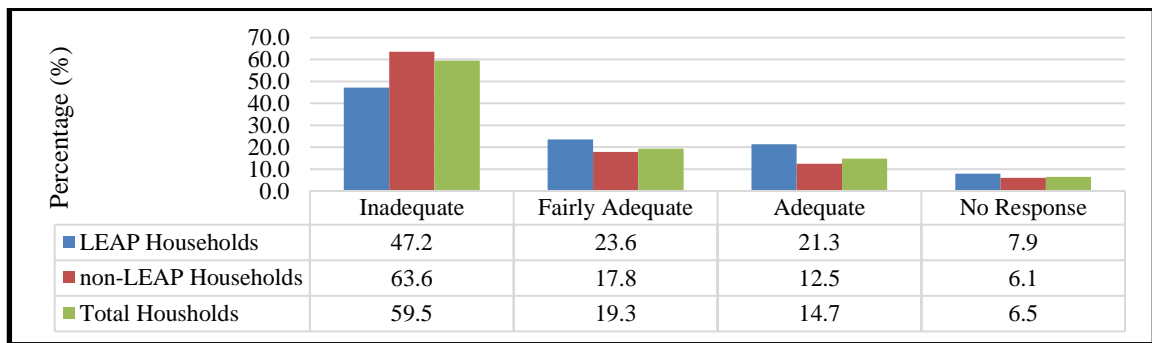
The study assessed the respondents’ views about the adequacy of funds from the internal and external sources for implementation of interventions. Respondents views were examined in the context of sources of funds in which projects are more likely to be completed on schedule once implementation starts. Figure 4.6 presents the summary of results in respect of respondents view of the adequacy or otherwise of internal source of funding interventions in the municipality.

Figure 4.13 shows that comparatively majority of the respondents rated internal sources to be inadequate (made up of 47.2% of LEAP compared with 63.6% of non-LEAP households respondents). This implies that projects funded by internal sources are more likely to delay.



This is reflected in the percentage of respondents who rated internal sources as adequate (21.3% of LEAP and 12.5% of non-LEAP household respondents). There were statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the adequacy of internal sources of funding interventions (calculated $X^2=8.056$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). Differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on all items was quite large signifying that they differ on each item.

Figure 4.13: Adequacy of Internal Sources of Funding Interventions

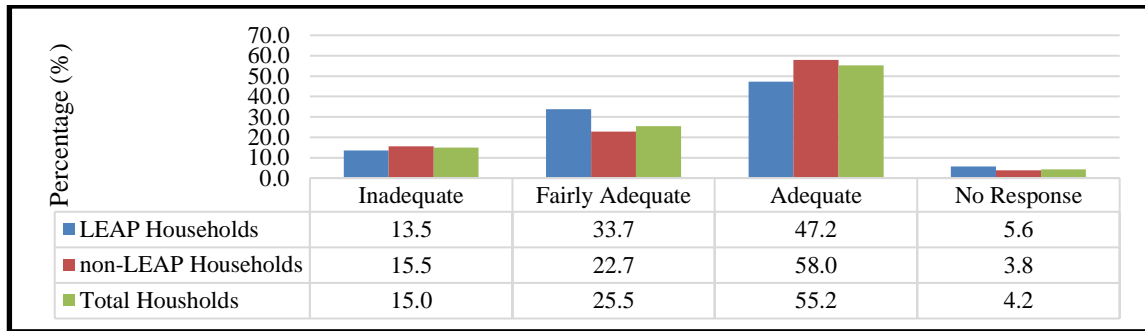


Source: Field study, November 2016.

Figure 4.14 presents collated responses from respondents in respect of their opinions on the adequacy of external sources of funding interventions. The Figure shows that, a large proportion of non-LEAP household (58%) than LEAP household respondents (47.2%) indicated that external sources of funding was adequate. From Figure 4.5, it is also observed that large proportion of LEAP households (33.7%) than non-LEAP households (22.7%) rated external sources of funding to be fairly adequate. However, 13.5% of LEAP household compared with 15.5% of non-LEAP household respondents rated external sources to be in adequate. Although, at a glance at Figure 4.5 one may be tempted to conclude that there are some differences between the views expressed by LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents, but a chi-square test of the results revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in the views of LEAP and non-LEAP households in respect of the

adequacy of external sources of funding interventions (calculated $X^2=5.254$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Figure 4.14: Adequacy of External Sources of Funding Interventions



Source: Field study, November 2016.

Figure 4.13 and 4.14, reveals some differences between internal and external sources of funding in terms of the level of adequacy of funding source for funding interventions. Specifically, the results show that 59.5% of the total respondents (353) ranked internal sources of funding as being inadequate on one hand, while on the other hand 55.2% of the respondents (353) ranked external sources of funding as being adequate for implementation interventions. The implication of this is that, the external funding sources enable the MA to delivery development interventions on schedule.

The result from the analysis of the focus group discussion with members of MPCU and interviews with key informants revealed that they shared similar views with households in respect of their perceptions about the adequacy of the internal and external sources of financing interventions in the municipality. Specifically, they indicated that projects charged against external funding sources are always executed to their logical conclusion but unfortunately the same cannot be said about internally funded projects. That was because projects funded from external sources always have the funds for the entire project cost lodged



into a project account and as and when project execution certificates are raised payments are done. To clearly illustrate their point, they shared the following experience:

“...my brother, we went to a community to hand over a project site for the construction of a three-unit classroom block with ancillary facilities to a contractor... and the community chief asked what funding source the project was charged against... when I indicated it was being funded from the MA’s internally generated funds... the chief told me in that case he will not live to see the completion of the project... this typifies the impression of people about projects funded from internal sources...” (an Opinion expressed by a member of MPCU, 2017).

Challenges in Accessing Poverty Reduction Interventions

The challenges encountered by beneficiaries in accessing poverty reduction interventions assessed. Table 4.15 presents a summary of the major challenges. Subjecting the results to a chi-square test revealed statistically significant differences between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents (calculated $X^2=21.601$, $df=4$, critical $X^2=9.488$, at 0.05 level of significance). The difference between LEAP household and non-LEAP household responses on each of the issues quite large. For instance, comparing responses on lack of information reveals that 55.1% of LEAP household compared with 30.3% of non-LEAP households considered it as a major challenge hindering access to PRIs. Again, while only 7.9% of LEAP household respondents cited politicisation, as large as 22.3% of non-LEAP households cited politicisation. Also, 11.2% of LEAP households compared with 19.3% of non-LEAP households indicated that discrimination was a hinderance in accessing PRIs. However, in respect of corruption and bureaucratic procedures the differences between responses from LEAP and non-LEAP households appear not to be large enough as 14.6% and 11.2% LEAP household compared with 16.7% and 11% non-LEAP household respondents cited corruption and bureaucratic procedures respectively.



Table 4.15: Challenges Encountered in Accessing Poverty Reduction Interventions

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Discrimination	10	11.2	51	19.3	61	17.3
Lack information	49	55.1	80	30.3	129	36.5
Politicisation	7	7.9	60	22.7	67	19.0
Bureaucratic procedure	10	11.2	29	11.0	39	11.0
Corruption	13	14.6	44	16.7	57	16.1
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100.0

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Perceptions of Implementation Challenges of Poverty Reduction Intervention

Regarding respondents perceptions of implementation challenges of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions, the study revealed as shown in Table 4.16 that 55.1% of LEAP household respondents compared with 48.9% of non-LEAP household respondents cited over-reliance on donor driven interventions, 20.2% LEAP household respondents compared with 19.3% of non-LEAP household respondent cited inadequate funding, and respectively 11.3% and 13.3% of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents cited inadequate beneficiary consultation. The remaining challenges raised by respondents were ineffective targeting of beneficiaries, mismanagement and financial indiscipline and politicisation of interventions. A chi-square test of the results indicates that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses were not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=1,885$, $df=5$, critical $X^2=11.070$, at 0.05 level of significance).



Table 4.16: Perceptions Implementation Challenges of SNMA's Poverty Reduction Interventions

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Inadequate Funding	18	20.2	51	19.3	69	19.5
Overreliance on donor driven interventions	49	55.1	129	48.9	178	50.4
Ineffective targeting of beneficiaries	5	5.6	20	7.6	25	7.1
Inadequate beneficiary consultation	10	11.2	35	13.3	45	12.7
Politicisation of Interventions	3	3.4	10	3.8	13	3.7
Mismanagement and financial indiscipline	4	4.5	19	7.2	23	6.5
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100.0

Source: Field study, November 2016.

The opinion leaders explained that, although the intent of SNMA's interventions were good, they were affected by a number of challenges including; poor targeting resulting in the wrong people benefiting from the interventions; inadequate stakeholder consultations during the identification and planning of interventions resulting in a situation whereby programmes failed to address the felt needs of the people; and interventions appeared to be imposed on beneficiaries. Reference was also made to irregular flow of resources to support various interventions as a result of the Assembly's over-reliance on central government or the donor community. Also mentioned was undue interference in the operations of the Municipal Assembly by political figures, traditional leaders and opinion leaders.

In discussing the challenges affecting the successful implementation of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions, all the categories of respondents (i.e. key informants, member of the MPCU and opinion leaders) highlighted; over-reliance on external funding sources especially from central government (i.e. DACF), which had almost always failed to come on





time and even when it came on time a number of conditions and deduction at source resulting in the MA's inability to execute planned project on time. Comments like the following were made by key informants:

"...One other challenge is a result of some of the guidelines that come from the DACF administrator in respect of how to spend the DACF..., you'll realise that one of the major sources of funding development projects as a result of our inability to raise funds at the district level is the DACF..., the DACF come with guideline..., generally the emphasis of the DACF is on infrastructural projects. The DAs are usually allowed to use only 20% of the fund to cater for recurrent expenditure and the remaining 80% is spent on provision of infrastructural facilities according to the guidelines it came with..., thus the DA has no free hand to determine how to apply such funds..." (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

"...the DA's hands are tied in terms of what interventions to apply the DACF to. We are not able to apply the funds on interventions that have greater impact because of the guideline the DACF comes with. If you deviate from the guidelines you have a lot of explanations to give when auditors come to audit the DA's books. These auditors are normally interested in finding the proportion of the fund used for physical projects..." (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

Donor driven interventions was identified by key informant as another important challenge that affects the implementation of poverty reduction intervention of SNMA. They explained that when you examine SNMAs plans you would observe that the activities that eventually got implemented were activities under donor funded programmes and projects whereas activities charged against internally generated funds and the central government transfers (DACF) remain unimplemented.



They also highlighted limited beneficiary involvement in planning intervention as yet another hindrance to the success of MMDAs' intervention. Furthermore, it was obvious that most often planned interventions reflect perceived needs and aspiration rather than actual needs and aspiration of beneficiaries, the result of which is often failure of interventions to have the desired impact. Closely related to this is the high level of political intervention in the process of identifying development needs and aspiration as well as systems put in place to select beneficiaries for an intervention.

The MPCU, opinion leader and key informants agreed there were some implementation challenges. Particular mention was made of the following: over-dependence on funding from outside the municipality; over-reliance on donor-driven interventions; neglect of planned intervention in favour of politically expedient intervention; limited beneficiary involvement in programme identification and planning; and poor monitoring and evaluation system.

In addition to the challenges highlighted, members of the MPCU and key informants argued that there are some opportunities which could facilitate implementation of interventions. According to them if those opportunities are properly harnessed, they could facilitate the successful implementation of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions. The following were highlighted as some of the existing opportunities that could facilitate the implementation of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions: increased government collaboration with development partners to directly support the MTDP, which formed the blue print for poverty reduction; and the overall development in the municipality as one of the critical factors. They added that, without such collaborations, the municipality could not implement even up to 50% of its MTDP due to inadequate financial resources. They also raised the issue of donor



insistence on integration of their funded programmes and projects into MMDAs' MTDP as yet another factor accounting for the success of MMDAs' poverty reduction interventions.

They also pointed to the increased collaboration with local and international NGOs in programming and implementation of poverty reduction programmes in a manner that ensures that duplication of efforts was avoided to the barest minimum. This was done through keeping a comprehensive register of NGOs, their focal area of intervention and location of operation in the municipality. Again, they added that all major NGOs had their programmes and projects incorporated into the MMTDP through a process of stakeholder mapping and planning sessions.

Challenges of Beneficiary Involvement in Planning of Poverty Reduction Interventions

In discussing the challenges hindering beneficiary involvement, a number of issues emerged as being responsible for the poor beneficiary involvement at all stages of planning development interventions (including; identification, planning, implementation as well as monitoring and evaluating stages). Specifically, Table 4.17 presents the challenges hindering beneficiary participation. The opinions of LEAP and non-LEAP households appear to differ. For example, whereas 55.1% of LEAP household respondents indicated that Poor timing of community participation activities as a major challenge, only 12.5% non-LEAP household respondents cited it as a challenge. Also, while 40.9% non-LEAP household respondents cited lack of transparency in operations of the MA as a challenge, only 18% LEAP household respondents considered it a challenge. The differences in LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents was also observed where 30.7% of non-LEAP respondents cited authorities deliberately do not involve beneficiaries compared with only 4.5% among

LE AP household respondents. A chi-square test revealed that they were statistically significant differences in the opinions expressed by LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respect of the challenges hindering beneficiary involvement (calculated $X^2=82.603$, $df=4$, critical $X^2=9.488$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Table 4.17: Challenges of Beneficiaries' Involvement in the Identification and Planning of SNMA's PRI

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Authorities deliberately do not involve us	4	4.5	81	30.7	85	24.1
Lack of awareness	11	12.4	21	8.0	32	9.1
Lack of transparency in operations	16	18.0	108	40.9	124	35.1
Poor timing of community participation activities	49	55.1	33	12.5	82	23.2
Bureaucratic bottlenecks	9	10.1	21	8.0	30	8.5
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016. Based on Table 4.21

4.7 BENEFICIARY PERCEPTIONS OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

As part of the objectives of this study, it sought to examine beneficiaries' perceptions of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions. This sub-section focuses on these perceptions.

Relevance of Poverty Reduction Interventions

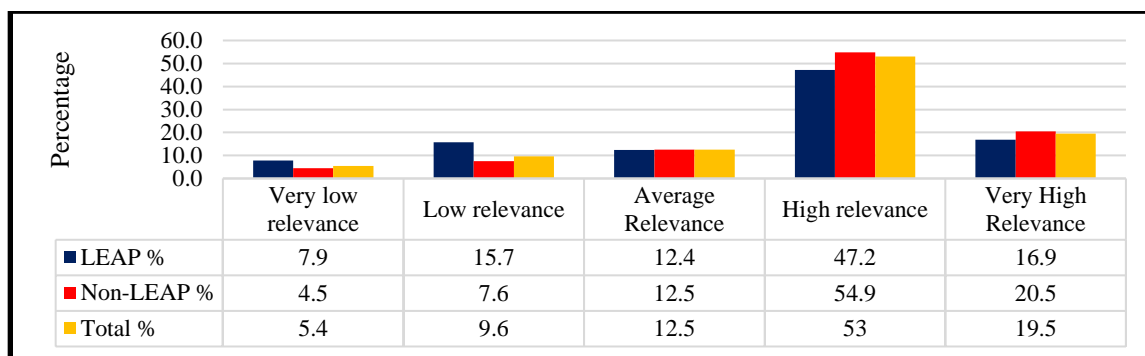
The perceptions of respondents on the relevance of SNMA's PRIs relative to their own poverty reduction need is as illustrated in Figure 4.15. Responses were ranked on a five-point scale (*from 1 to 5*) with 1 being the least relevance and 5 being the highest relevance. It is observed that the majority of the respondents (187 respondents representing 53%) ranked the level of relevance as four (4), this was followed by 69 respondents (19.5%)





ranking it at five (5). From the foregoing the average ranking was four (4), which meant that SNMA’s poverty reduction intervention were considered very relevant to respondents’ own poverty reduction needs. This implies that SNMA poverty reduction interventions were generally relevant to beneficiary poverty reduction need. The aggregate responses are similar to the disaggregate responses (i.e. for LEAP and non-LEAP households made up of 89 and 264 respondents respectively) as shown thin Figure 4.2. A chi-square test result revealed that there are no statistically significate differences between the opinions of LEAP and Non-LEAP household perceptions in respect of the degree of relevance of SNMA’s interventions with their respective poverty needs (calculated $X^2=7.152$, $df=4$, critical $X^2=9.488$ at 0.05 level of significance).

Figure 4.15: Relevance of SNMA’s Interventions to Beneficiaries Poverty Reduction Needs



Source: Field study, November 2016.

Opinion leaders, members of the MPCU and key informants agreed with the households that SNMA’s PRIs were relevant. The justified their response by indicating that SNMA’s PRIs generally mirrored the poverty reduction needs of the people in the municipality. Members of the MPCU and key informants indicated that once the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) issued planning guidelines, which was meant to ensure that all MMDA plans reflect the Medium-Term National Development Policy Framework (MTNDPF) at the

MMDA level to facilitate easy harmonisation at the regional and national levels. Again, they added that, the Municipal MTDP reflects community poverty reduction needs and aspiration as Community Action Plans (CAPs) and Area Council Action Plans (ACPs) served as primary sources of input into the preparation of the MMTDP. Some of the specific comments made by key informants include:

“...I can say that when it comes to the issue of the DA’s programmes and interventions that were planned, they were all done in line with the national development policy framework..., in terms of coming up with programmes i.e. planning, our plans have been very responsive to the development framework, ...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).

“...community needs and aspiration are also capture through the CAPs, which are harmonised at the Area Council (AC) level into ACPs..., the ACP becomes a critical input into the preparation of the MMTDP in addition to various fora that bring members from communities, ACs, interest groups, traditional leaders, minority groups, vulnerable, etc. to make inputs for incorporation into the MMTDP...” (an opinion expressed by a Key Informant, 2017).



Poverty Reduction Interventions Address Needs of Beneficiaries

The study was also interested in establishing whether intervention of SNMA targeted as poverty reduction actually address the needs of beneficiaries. The results from the field as presented in Table 4.18 indicates that majority of respondents (79.8%) from LEAD households agreed with the statement that “most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries” compared with 46.6% non-LEAD household respondents indicating that the either agreed or strongly with the statement. On the other hand, while 20.2% of LEAP household respondents indicated that they either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, a little over half (53.4%) of non-LEAP

respondent households either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. The observe difference in the opinions of the two categories of respondents has been confirmed by a chi-square test results which revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP households in respect of “most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries (calculated $X^2=49.867$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

In aggregate terms, it was observed from the table that 55% of 353 respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that “most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries”, while 45% of 353 respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Based on the foregoing, the drift is more toward the assertion that “most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries”.



Table 4.18: Most Interventions of SNMA Targeted at Poverty Reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries

Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Strongly Agree	48	53.9	109	41.3	157	44.5
Agree	23	25.8	14	5.3	37	10.5
Disagree	7	7.9	102	38.6	109	30.9
Strongly Disagree	11	12.4	39	14.8	50	14.2
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

The interaction with opinion leaders revealed that, most often interventions targeted at poverty reduction do not address the actual needs of their target group because most of such interventions are not even designed at the district level. The MA is a mere recipient of such

interventions and tasked by central government Ministries, Department and agencies to enrol beneficiaries of such interventions based on a given criteria. The opinion leaders mention examples like the LEAP programme, the people with disability fund, and subsidies for farmers.

Rating of Poverty Reduction Intervention

In order to determine whether SNMA's poverty reduction interventions had succeeded in addressing the problem of poverty among the beneficiaries of interventions, respondents were asked to rate PRIs of SNMA in terms of whether there were successful or not success based on the valued judgement of respondents and where respondents were not sure of what rating to give, they opted for undecided. The results are as shown in Table 4.6, which indicates that 186 respondents (52.7%) indicated that PRIs of SNMA was not success in addressing the issue of poverty, while 51 respondents (14.4%) indicated that PRIs of SNMA was successful in combating poverty. However, 108 respondents (30.6%) were undecided.



What came out clearly from the analysis was that over half of the respondents from LEAP households (66.3%) rated the interventions as not being successful, while a little under half of the non-LEAP household (48.1%) also rated the interventions as not being successful. This brought the aggregate rating of all respondents to 52.5% indicating that the interventions were not successful of the respondents felt SNMA's PRIs were partially successful in addressing the phenomenon of poverty. It was a bit curious to observe that the proportion of respondents who indicated they were undecided across the two categories of respondents was fair larger than the proportion who rated the PRIs of SNMA as being successful. A chi-square test results clearly confirmed the differences observe from the

frequencies collated as it revealed that there were statistically significant differences in LEAP and Non-LEAP household rating in respect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions (calculated $X^2=12.278$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).

Table 4.19: Respondents' Rating of Poverty Reduction Interventions of SNMA

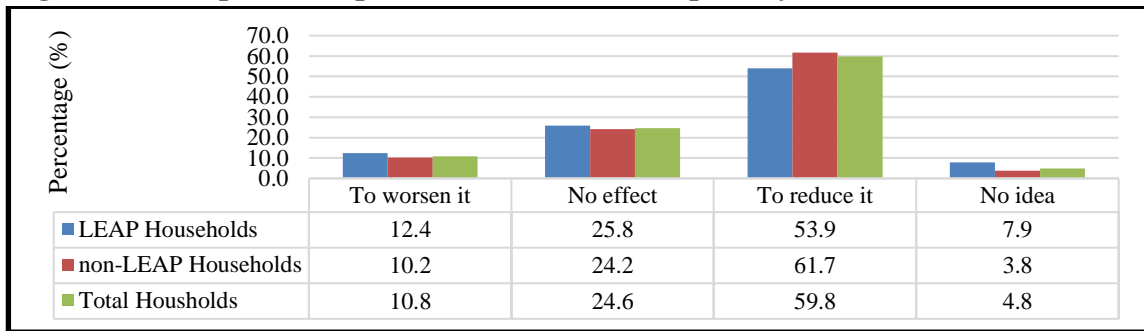
Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Not Successful	59	66.3	127	48.1	186	52.7
Undecided	24	27.0	84	31.8	108	30.6
Successful	6	6.7	45	17.0	51	14.4
None Response	0	0.0	8	3.0	8	2.3
Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.

Figure 4.16 shows that 53.9% of LEAP household compared with 61.7% of non-LEAP household respondents anticipate that SNMA's interventions will reduce poverty levels. It was also observed from the Figure 4.7 that 25.8% of LEAP household compared with 24.2% of non-LEAP household respondents felt that SNMA's interventions would have no effect on poverty levels. However, 12.4% and 10.2% respectively of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents felt that SNMA's interventions would rather worsen poverty level. Subjecting the results to a chi-square test reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household perceptions in respect of the expected effect of interventions of SNMA on poverty levels among beneficiaries (calculated $X^2=3.327$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).



Figure 4.16: Expected Impact of Interventions on poverty level

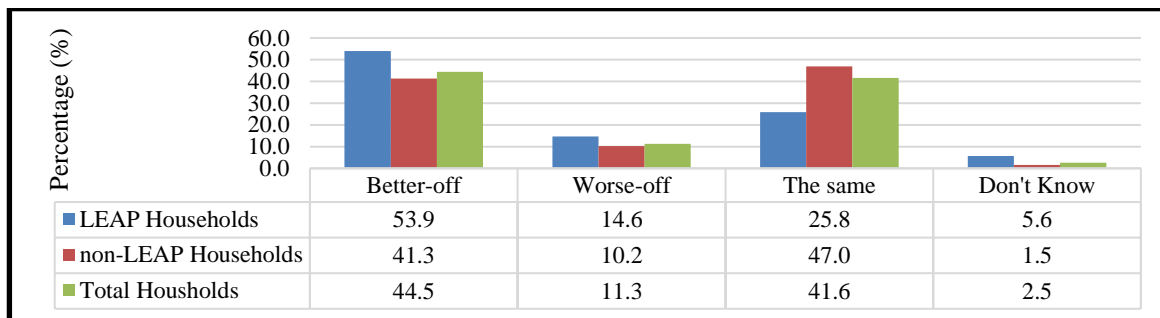


Source: Field study, November 2016.



Figure 4.17 presents the results on respondents’ perceptions of actual impact of interventions on poverty levels with the implementation of poverty reduction interventions. Figure 4.8 reveals that majority (53.7%) of LEAP household respondents held the view that they were better-off with the implementations of poverty reduction interventions compared 41.3% of non-LEAP household respondents. Figure 4.8 also indicates that majority (47%) of non-LEAP household respondents indicated that poverty situation remained the same compared with only 25.8% of LEAP household respondents. However, a small proportion of the respondents indicated that poverty situation had worsened with the implementation of poverty reduction interventions (i.e. 14.6% LEAP and 10.2% non-LEAP household respondents). There were statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the subject of respondents’ perceptions of the actual impact of interventions on poverty level (calculated $X^2=185.931$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance). The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on each of the item’s show clear differences between the two as demonstrated in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.17: Perceptions of the Impact of Interventions on Poverty Level of Beneficiaries



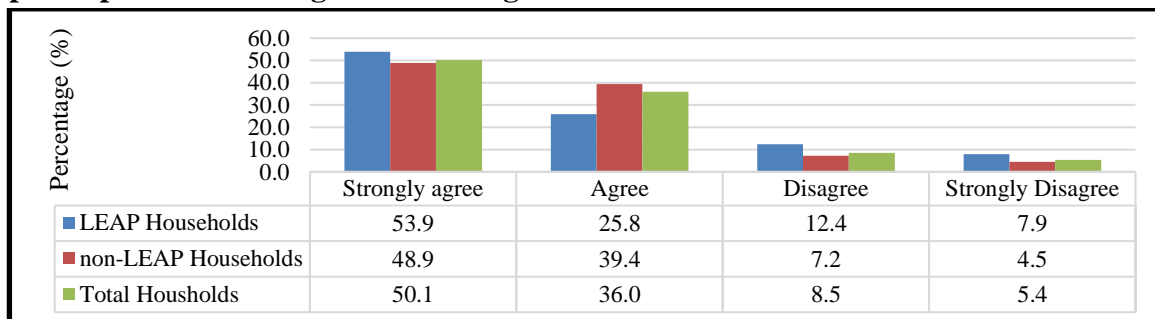
Source: Field study, November 2016.

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Figure 4.18 reveals that 79.8% of LEAP household respondents compared with 88.3% of non-LEAP household respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that “outcome of interventions would have been better with their full-participation at all stages of planning interventions” while 20.2% of LEAP household and 11.7% of non-LEAP household respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. When the results were subjected to a chi-square test, it emerged that from the test that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household opinions in respect of the statement that “outcome of interventions would have been better with their full-participation at all stages of planning interventions” (calculated $X^2=7,189$, $df=3$, critical $X^2=7.815$, at 0.05 level of significance).



Figure 4.18: Outcome of Interventions would have been Better with your full-participation at all stages of Planning Interventions



Source: Field study, November 2016.

Assessment of Poverty Situation from Respondents' Own Perspective

In examining respondents' poverty situation, the researcher relied on respondents to recall their poverty situation before and after poverty reduction intervention of SNMA under its first to fifth DMTD, the result of which is presented in Table 4.20.

Prior to the introduction of SNMA's PRI, the table indicates that the majority of the respondents of LEAP and non-LEAP households (64% and 69.3% respectively) rated the poverty situation to be either bad or very bad. while only 18% and 18.9% respectively for LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents indicate their situation was satisfactory. The table also shows that 16% LEAP and 9.1% non-LEAP household respondents rated their poverty situation to have either reduced or highly reduced. A chi-square test indicates that the differences were not statistically significant (calculated $X^2=5.694$, $df=5$, critical $X^2=11.070$, at 0.05 level of significance). This may be as a result that similar proportion of respondents from both LEAP and non-LEAP households rated their poverty situation in a very similar manner as discussed above.

The reverse trend of the above narrative for the situation before was observe after implementation of various poverty reduction interventions under the first through to the fifth DMTDPs. Similar to the situation before, a chi-square test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household opinions in respect of their view on their poverty situation after interventions (calculated $X^2=9.050$, $df=5$, critical $X^2=11.070$, at 0.05 level of significance). When responses of LEAP and non-LEAP households were compared less than 30% of each group rated the poverty situation to either be bad of very bad, while 13.5% LEAP households compared with 24.6% of non-



LEAP households indicated that their situation was satisfactory. Also, comparing respondents rating of the poverty situation as reduced or highly reduced it was found that 52.8% of LEAP households compared to 47% non-LEAP households rated the situation to have either improved or highly improved.

Table 4.20: Respondents’ view of their Poverty Situation before and After Interventions

Period	Responses	LEAP Households		Non-LEAP Households		Total Households	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Before Intervention	Very Bad	37	41.6	114	43.2	151	42.8
	Bad	20	22.5	69	26.1	89	25.2
	Satisfactory	16	18.0	50	18.9	66	18.7
	Reduced	5	5.6	5	1.9	10	2.8
	Highly reduced	10	11.2	19	7.2	29	8.2
	None Response	1	1.1	7	2.7	8	2.3
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100
After Intervention	Very Bad	7	7.9	28	10.6	35	9.9
	Bad	19	21.3	43	16.3	62	17.6
	Satisfactory	12	13.5	65	24.6	77	21.8
	Reduced	32	36.0	76	28.8	108	30.6
	Highly reduced	15	16.9	48	18.2	63	17.8
	None Response	4	4.5	4	1.5	8	2.3
	Total	89	100	264	100	353	100

Source: Field study, November 2016.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter focuses on discussing and interpreting the data presented and analysed in the last chapter. It provides a basis for the next chapter. The chapter is organised under the following headings:

- Nature and scope of poverty reduction intervention;
- Effect of poverty reduction interventions;
- Influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction intervention;
- Challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions;
- and
- Beneficiary perceptions poverty reduction interventions.



5.2 NATURE AND SCOPE OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTION

The results of the study showed that, a multifaceted approach was adopted for tackling the problem of poverty in Saveugu-Nanton Municipal (SNM). This was evident in all the SNMA medium-term development plans (MTDPs) reviewed (between 1997 and 2017). The MA's strategy for poverty reduction considered improving access to basic social service (such as education, health, and good and safe drinking water), improving surface accessibility (through improving roads conditions), improving access to electric energy, a buoyant local economic with capacity to absorb skilled manpower and creating a highly inclusive society as critical ingredients for tackling the problem of poverty in. This was found to be consistent



with the position held by the Commonwealth Foundation (1999) and Davey (1996) in respect of the responsibility of central/local government. The Commonwealth Foundation holds the view that, the central/local government is responsible for providing for its citizenry three basic needs of life: economic security needs (such as the provision of water for irrigation, employment creation); social needs (such as education, sanitation, water, health, etc.); and physical security and peace needs (such as safe society or a society with a low crime rate, etc.). Similarly, Davey (1996), concludes that local government is responsible for the: provision of infrastructure for efficient operations of cities and towns; provision of social services to develop human resources and improve productivity thereby enhancing the standard of living of citizens; regulation of private activities that affects community welfare and the health and safety of people; and provision of services and facilities that allow private enterprises to operate efficiently (p.47).

Regarding the categorisation of intervention, a review of the five sets of medium-term development plans of SNMA revealed that there were broadly two categories of interventions delivered, which included; infrastructure (i.e. education, health, water, road, dam, etc.) and non-infrastructure (i.e. support for income generating activities, capacity building, LEAP and other social protection interventions) interventions. In terms of the total annual expenditure expended on each, it was found that over 74% of the total annual expenditure of the MA was spent on infrastructure interventions, while about 20% was spent on non-infrastructure intervention and a little over 6% was spent on administrative expenditure. The above finding corroborates with a study by Adjei and Kyei (2011), who found that District Assemblies largely over emphasised infrastructure and social service provision against the provision of non-infrastructure interventions which affect

beneficiaries' livelihoods directly. The result of this study also agrees with Crook's observation that, most local government development outputs in Africa tend to be related predominantly to physical infrastructure provision, particularly small-scale construction and social amenity, educational or health projects (Crook, 2003).

In respect of the kind of poverty reduction intervention provided by Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly, the study found that a greater proportion (59.8%) of the respondents identified the provision of basic socio-economic infrastructure as the largest form of intervention received from Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly. It was however observed from a chi-square test result that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of poverty reduction interventions delivered by SNMA was statistically significant. This seem to be anchored by a provision in the Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) Section 12 subsection 3 (e) which indicates that the MA shall initiate programmes for the development of basic infrastructure and provide municipal works and services in the district. The result is also found to confirm Adjei and Kyei (2011) who asserted that DAs over emphasised infrastructure and social service provision against the provision of non-infrastructure interventions.

Also, the review of the five set of medium-term development plans of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly also revealed that between 50% and 88% of the activities outlined in the plans were responsive to addressing the problem of poverty. This finding was found to be entirely consistent and possibly influenced by the content of the National Development Planning Commission guidelines which are usually designed to provide focus and direction on national development priorities and to enhance the process of harmonising and



rationalising development programmes, projects and activities initiated from the community, district and national levels respectively (NDPC, 2006, 2011).

Moreover, majority of the respondents indicated that SNMA was the main organization that provides poverty reduction interventions to them (i.e. over 88% of both LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents). A chi-square test result revealed there was no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses, which implies that LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents do not differ in their responses in respect of which organisation provides poverty reduction interventions. This finding was consistent with results of similar studies which concluded that local government authorities in line with their have the overall responsibility of seeing to the total development of their respective local government areas (Karley, 2009, Braimah & Adom-Asamoah, 2011; Davey, 1996; Commonwealth Foundation, 1999). This was further amplified by a provision in the Local Governance Act of 2016 (Act 936) Section 12 subsection (3 a & 5) of the Act which respectively indicated that the MA shall be responsible for the overall development of the district and co-ordinate, integrate and harmonise the execution of programmes and projects under approved development plans for the district and other development programmes promoted or carried out by Ministries, Departments, public corporations and other statutory bodies and non-governmental organisations in the district towards the overall development of the municipality. Again, from the literature it was clearly articulated that donor funded/supported projects and programmes were integrated into District MTDPs and implemented as MMDA projects (GOG, 2010; 2013).



5.3. EFFECT OF SNMA'S POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTION

The results of the study showed that majority (60.3% out of 353 total respondents) of the respondents indicated that road infrastructure interventions had impacted positively on socio-economic activities and services deliver. However, when the data was disaggregated there was observed sharp contrast between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP households. While 65.2% of non-LEAP household respondents felt that road interventions had resulted in improved socio-economic activities and service delivery, only 46.1% of LEAP household respondents assessed road interventions to have had a positively effect on socio-economic activities and services. A further interrogation of the result with a chi-square analysis revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAN and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the effect of road investment on socio-economic activities and service delivery, which implies that the two categories of respondents differ in their views, hence it is appropriate to rely on the disaggregated results rather than the aggregated result in making any judgement. This support studies by; Emran and Shilpi (2010; p13) who observed that “in countries with high road density, there is a corresponding higher access to socio-economic services compared with countries with lower road density”. Lelethu and Okem (2016) also argued that there is significant impact on poverty reductions as a result of growth credited to the provision of road infrastructure; Dalton (2014) on his part was of the view that, in spite of the expensive nature of public works like construction and maintenance of road infrastructure, they remain critical enablers of socio-economic development and poverty reduction which governments must prioritise to ensure their delivery to facilitate social and economic development.





It was also found that majority (67.7% of 353) of the respondents felt that small dam investment had positively impacted on dry season farming. A disaggregation of the result revealed close similarity between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. A chi-square analysis of the results revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the effect of small-dam interventions on dry season farming. This result is found to be consistent with a study by Bhattarai et al (2002) in Vietnam, Philippine, Thailand and India they observed that poverty was significantly lower in irrigated areas than they were in non-irrigated areas. They also observed that irrigation significantly influence farm productivity and wage levels as well as poverty reduction and reduction in level of income inequalities. Similarly, Zhang and Zhang (2002) found that irrigation directly impacted growth in the agriculture sector positively which consequently resulted in a reduction in the levels of poverty.

The study further found that a greater proportion (i.e. 56.1% out of 353) of respondents felt that electricity interventions had positively affected domestic and economic access to and use of electricity. An assessment of the disaggregate responses showed a contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. For instance, while majority (61.4%) of non-LEAP households respondents indicated that the electricity interventions had resulted in improved access to and use of electricity, only 40.4% of non-LEAP households confirmed that electricity interventions have resulted in improved domestic and household access to and use of electricity. A chi-square analysis of the result revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household opinions on the effect of electricity interventions on domestic and economic access to and use of electricity. This finding is consistent with the observation made by Ali and Pernia (2003) in a study in which the found

that “electricity improves the poor’s access to productive activity, thereby lessening the vulnerability of shocks” (p9). Similarly, Dinkelman (2011) in a study indicated “that electrification significantly raised female employment within five years. This new infrastructure appears to increase hours of work for men and women while reducing female wages and increasing male earnings. Several pieces of evidence suggest that household electrification raises employment by releasing women from home production and enabling microenterprises” (p3078).

It evident from the study that there was a high level of unanimity in among LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respect of the effect of education infrastructure interventions on access to basic education. Generally, 67.7% out of 353 respondents indicated that education infrastructure interventions had resulted in an improve access to basic education. A percentage and chi-square analysis of the results showed there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses regarding the effect of education infrastructure intervention on access to basic educations.

This result was found to be consistent with results inferred from the 2002 school mapping report of Savelugu-Nanton District, 2016 annual progress report and the Education Management Information Systems report of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal which revealed that in 2000/2001 with a total number of basic school of 120 (made up of 29 kindergartens, 76 primary schools and 16 junior high school) the cumulative enrolment was 13,949 pupils, with the total number of basic schools increasing to 226 (made up of 95 kindergartens, 95 primary schools and 36 junior high school) in 2015/2016 school year as a result of increased education infrastructure intervention partly accounted for an absolute increase in enrolment by 30,998 pupils bringing the cumulative basic school enrolment to 44,947 pupils (District



Education Office, 2002; Municipal Education Office, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2006; 2016).

It also emerged from the study that a fairly large proportion (67.7% of 353) of respondents indicated that interventions in health infrastructure had positively affected access to basic health care services in Savelugu-Nanton Municipal. A percentage and chi-square analysis of the disaggregated results showed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the effect of health infrastructure intervention of access to basic health care services. This result speaks to the observed percentage increase in access to health services as a result of the increased health infrastructure intervention from seven (7) health facilities to fifteen (15) health facilities (made up of CHPS compounds, health centres and clinics) which contributed to 61.5% increase in access to health delivery in Savelugu-Nanton Assembly (MPCU, 2017, 2006; Municipal Health Directorate, 2016).

The survey also showed that majority (i.e. 79% out of 353) of the respondents felt that water infrastructure interventions had resulted in improved access to good and safe drinking water. A percentage and chi-square analysis of the results showed that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses were not statistically significant, which implies that the LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents did not differ in their responses. The existing evidence from the SNMA corroborated the above finding. The safe water coverage in Savelugu-Nanton increased from 45% in 2005 (made up of a population of about 47,682) with 225 installed and functional safe water facilities (made up of 179 boreholes, 44 hand-dug wells fitted with pumps and 2 piped systems) to 75% in 2016 (made up of a population of about 120,516) with 440 installed and functional safe water facilities (made up of 224



boreholes, 212 hand-dug wells fitted with pumps, and 4 piped systems). This increase in coverage represents an additional population increase of 72,831 which translates to 152.7 percentage increase (MPCU, 2017).

Regarding infrastructure interventions having positively affected poverty reduction outcome, the study found that a large proportion (60.1% out of 353) of respondents indicated that infrastructure interventions have had a positive effect on poverty reduction outcomes. A chi-square analysis of the disaggregated result showed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents' responses in respect of the effect of infrastructure intervention on poverty reduction outcomes. This implies LEAP and non-LEAP households do not vary much in their responses. This finding agrees with result of studies conducted by Karley (2009), Braimah and Adom-Asamoah (2011), in which they concluded that, to sustainably reduce poverty and engender local development at the MMDA level requires adequate supply of socio-economic infrastructure which enhances access to economic and social opportunities.

The study revealed a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of their assessment of the effect of LEAP intervention on social inclusion. A chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses regarding the effect of LEAP interventions on social inclusion in SNMA. A percentage analysis also showed that, although a large proportion (55.8% out of 353) of the aggregate respondents indicated the LEAP intervention had no effect on social inclusion. However, an analysis of the disaggregated responses showed that while majority (69.7%) of LEAP household respondents indicated LEAP intervention had an effect on





social inclusion, only 17% of non-LEAP household respondents indicated LEAP intervention had improved social inclusion. On the other hand, while 68.9% of non-LEAP household beneficiaries argued that LEAP intervention had no effect on social inclusion, only 16.9% of LEAP household respondents shared in that position.

Evidence from the study showed that a larger proportion (55.8% out of 353) of the total respondent felt that subsidy for farmers had no effect on lowering poverty levels among beneficiaries, while only 30.3% (out of 353) of respondents indicated the subsidy for farmers had an effect on lowering poverty levels among beneficiaries. However, when the results were disaggregated to their respective components (i.e. LEAP and non-LEAP household responses) and analysed using a chi-square test, it was observed that, the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses was statistically significant. This therefore explains the large differences observed between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. Whereas 58.4% of LEAP households indicated that the subsidy for farmers intervention had lowered poverty levels among beneficiaries, only 20.8% of non-LEAP households corroborated. Also, the study showed that majority (65.8%) of non-LEAP households respondents compared with only 28.1% of LEAP households indicated that the subsidy for farmer intervention had no effect on lowering poverty. Ironically, in a study in Nigeria it was observed that in most local governments with a predominant agriculture sector, most of the public expenditure was spent on urban infrastructure and recurrent costs, while the most promising sector of the local economy is neglected (Akpan, 1990).

It also emerged from the study that out of a total of 353 respondents, 52.1% indicated that employable skills development for unemployed youth had no effect on their employability.



The disaggregated data however, showed some degree of differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. The result showed that, a comparably higher proportion (74.2%) of LEAP households, than non-LEAP (27.3%) respondents indicated the intervention on the provision of employable skills development for unemployed youth had improved the employability of the youth unemployed. The observed difference was confirmed by a chi-square test results which showed that there statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. Records obtained from the 2007 and 2017 annual progress reports of SNMA reveals that 25.2% of the youth trained were gainfully employed, which increased to 48.6% in 2016, which implies the proportion of youth trained gaining employment increased by 48.1% over the percentage recorded in 2006.

In respect of non-infrastructure interventions, the study found that an overwhelming majority (80.2% out of out of 353) of the respondents indicated that non-infrastructure interventions of SNMA have not positively affected poverty reduction outcomes. A further analysis of the result using the chi-square test, showed that there was no statistically significant difference in LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. However, the qualitative analysis revealed that the limited effect of the non-infrastructure interventions was due to the fact SNMA invested more than five times the resource it invested into delivering infrastructure related interventions. The qualitative data further revealed that other factors including; low budgetary allocation, political and traditional interference, poor beneficiary identification and selection mechanism, over-reliance on external funding source among others accounted for the limited effect of non-infrastructure interventions in the SNM. It is in view of this that Adjei and Kyei (2011) pointed out in a related study that poverty remained endemic in



Sekyere East and Ahafo North District as a result of the over-emphasis on infrastructural interventions at the expense of non-infrastructure interventions which directly impacts the livelihood activities of beneficiaries of such interventions. This clearly corroborate the World Bank's position that public expenditure on socio-economic services usually do not favour the poor but rather favoured the better off and thus recommended that targeted interventions should be provided to support productive activities of the poor (World Bank, 1999; 2000).

The study found majority (i.e. 79.9% out of 353) of respondents disagreed with the statement that "SNMA's poverty reduction intervention are successful in reducing poverty". However, the disaggregated data showed a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the statement. This was clarified by a chi-square test analysis, which revealed a statistically significant difference between responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household views on the statement. Whereas 53.9% of LEAP household respondents agreed with the statement, 79.9% of non-LEAP household respondents disagreed. This result was also found to be in line with Orji (2005), Dakyes and Mundi (2013) and Yakubu and Hassan (2012) who in in their respective studies concluded that most government poverty reduction intervention have failed to impact positively on poverty levels largely due to the failure to tailor such interventions to address the specific livelihood needs of target beneficiaries.

In corroborating the above finding, the result from the analysis on how respondents managed the problem of poverty without any intervention by SNMA revealed that majority (68.9% out of 353) of respondents indicated they poorly managed the problem of poverty. A percentage and chi-square analysis of the disaggregated responses according to the two

categories of respondents revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses, implying that the aggregated results are representatives of the disaggregated results.

5.4 INFLUENCE OF BENEFICIARY INVOLVEMENT ON POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

The result of the study in respect of beneficiary involvement in planning interventions found that majority of the respondent on six indicators indicated they were not involved in planning interventions (which include; problem identification 70.3%, goal formulation 74.5%, objective setting 50.1%, identification of project options and choice making 58.6%, implementation, monitoring and evaluation 52.4% and contribution in terms of labour, finance and other material 92.4%). However, on one indicator (i.e. community share in benefits that accrue from the intervention) majority (75.6%) of the respondents indicated they shared the benefits. A chi-square analysis of the disaggregated responses in respect of all the seven beneficiary involvement indicators assessed showed that apart from the indicator on the identification of project options and choice making which showed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses, all the remain six indicators (as indicated earlier) revealed no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. Based on Ngah (2012) suggested that, evaluators of community participation or involvement in development projects should ask questions on the seven examined indicators of beneficiary involvement in planning interventions (as presented in Table 4.12) and that if the answer to any of these questions is **NO** then the outcome of the process is not participatory” (p. 33), it could be concluded that there is limited beneficiary involvement in the planning of interventions.





In respect of whether beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have affected poverty reduction outcomes positively, it was found that a large proportion (53.3%) of the aggregate respondents and opinion leaders felt that beneficiary involvement in planning interventions had not affected poverty reduction outcomes positively. A chi-square analysis of the results revealed that there were not statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the effect of beneficiary involvement in planning interventions on outcomes of such interventions. This implies that the two categories of respondents do not differ much in their responses on the effect of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of poverty reduction interventions. Also, members of the MPCU and key informants agreed, to a very large extent, with households and opinion leader by explaining that with the ending of donor support for community participation activities coupled with limited local budgetary allocation for participatory planning activities accounted for the current state of affairs. This corroborate Kyei's finding in a related study which showed unanimity in the views of the poor that poverty reduction interventions under the District Assemblies (DAs) have hardly had a positive affected on them as their inputs were hardly considered in the design of interventions (Kyei, 2008).

The study further revealed that beneficiary involvement had very poor influence on outcomes of poverty reduction interventions. Comparatively similar results were observed from LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. A large proportion of LEAP (76.4%) household and non-LEAP (62.5%) household respondents indicated that the influence of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of interventions was poor compared with an aggregate response of 66% out of the total (353) respondents. Notwithstanding, the observed similarity between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses, a chi-square analysis showed that the



differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the influence of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of interventions were statistically significant. On the contrary a study in West Bengal, democratic decentralisation was found to be associated with a programme of radical agrarian reform, which over a period of more than 20 years has resulted in significant benefits for the poor in terms of increased participation, increased agricultural production and outputs and improved human development (Webster, 2000; Crook & Sverrisson, 2001).

The study also revealed that a number of challenges hindered beneficiary involvement in planning. Three main challenges emerged with relatively large proportion of respondents citing them. Specifically, out of the total (353) respondents, 35.1% cited lack of transparency in the operations of the MA, 24.1% indicated the authorities of the MA deliberately do not involve them, and 23.2% blamed the low involvement of beneficiaries on poor timing of beneficiary participation activities. Similar reasons were advanced by opinion leaders but key informant, MPCU and management of the MA on the contrary indicated that the MA within its limited resources still ensure that beneficiaries of interventions are involved in planning of intervention as much as is practicable. However, with a chi-square analysis of the disaggregated results, it emerged that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents on the three top challenges were found to be statistically significant, which implies that an equal amount of importance should be placed on the disaggregated results.

The result of the study on the level of beneficiary involvement revealed a “tokenistic” nature of beneficiary involvement which was limited to merely; providing information to officials

of the MA or taking information from officials of the MA. A percentage and chi-square analysis showed statistically significant difference between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of their respective levels of involvement in planning intervention. This finding is strictly in line with Arnstein's view of token participation, in which external stakeholders or expects only consult internal stakeholders on some specific issues but do not involve the internal stakeholders in the actual decision-making process (Arnstein, 1969).

5.5 CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

A documentary analysis showed that the MA relies heavily of external funding sources to implement its development interventions. External funding sources alone constitute an annual average of 94% of the total resource envelop for implementing all its development interventions, with internal funding sources constituting an average 6% per annum. This implies that the MA is largely donor dependent and thus its development agenda becomes subordinated to donor priorities. This is found to be at variance with the central pillars of ED which indicated that ED should; favour local control of the development process; take cultural values seriously; find a balance between traditional and external resources; and knowledge to manage change (social progress) in ways that are cultural relevant and appropriate (Millar et al, 2008; Boonzaaier and Apusigah, 2008). Principally, ED is “built on local initiatives, institutions, resources, strategies and values” (Millar, et al, 2018; p5; Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; p10). This by extension implies that, the development “needs, priorities and criteria”. However, if a district's development depends exclusively on external funding, it implies that the development focus and priority are mostly dictated by the donor. Just like ED, self-reliance development also advocates for maximisation of the





use of local resources and local values as well as striking a balance between local and external resources in a manner that allows self-determination of how to develop and what constitutes development within the local context.

The study further discovered that 47.3% of the respondents considered internal source of funding poverty reduction intervention to be more reliable than 14.7% in the case of externals source. On the other hand, 48.2% of the respondent consider external sources of funding not to be reliable compared with only 17.6% of respondents considering internal sources not to be reliable for funding poverty reduction interventions. The result was found to be informed by how reliability was defined during the data collection. Reliability was defined “as having control over the source of funding and being able to determine how to utilise the funds independent of any external influence”. A chi-square test results showed that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents’ responses on both the reliability of internal and external funding sources were not statistically significant, in view of which their respective aggregate responses are reflective of the disaggregated responses. This finding was also found to be consistent with the basic principles of ED as articulated Millar et al, (2008) and Boonzaaier and Apusigah (2008) and self-reliant development which aims at; providing basic human needs; maximisation of the use of local resources and local values; involvement of the poor in the development process; and finally encourages interdependence or collective self-reliance among nations with similar circumstances as articulated by Uma (1975), Jacques (1983) and Kempe (1983).

The study also found that beneficiaries of interventions encountered a number of challenges in accessing poverty reduction intervention. key among these were lack of information on

interventions, politicisation of interventions, discrimination and favouritism, unnecessary bureaucratic procedure and corruption among official were cited as some of the key challenges encountered in accessing interventions. A percentage and chi-square analysis of the results revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on all the items of challenges encountered examined. The implication is that LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents varied in terms of the importance they placed on each of the issues examined.

5.6 BENEFICIARY PERCEPTIONS OF POVERTY REDUCTION INTERVENTIONS

The study found that the MA's poverty reduction interventions were relevant in addressing beneficiary poverty reduction needs (as 72.5% out of 353 respondents rated the intervention to either be generally relevant to the poverty reduction needs of beneficiaries). A chi-square test result of LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the relevance of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions revealed that the difference between the responses were not statistically significant, which implies LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents did not differ on their responses on the relevance of SNMA interventions towards addressing the poverty reduction needs of beneficiaries. This finding was corroborated by opinion leaders, members of the MPCU and key informants. A scan of the literature showed that what was found in the study could be attributed to the fact that the NDPC provides planning guidelines to inform planning to ensure that all programmes and projects developed by MMDAs dovetails into the achievement of the broader national goals while, at the same time, addressing local development needs and (NDPC, 2009; 2013 & 2017).





The study further revealed a contrasting view in respect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions actually addressing needs of beneficiaries. It was discovered from the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents that whereas 79.7% of LEAP households respondents agreed with the view that SNMA's poverty reduction interventions actually address needs of beneficiaries, 53.4% of non-LEAP households disagreed with that view. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses on the subject was found to be statistically significant following a chi-square test result. However, an examination of the aggregate responses revealed that a greater proportion (55%) of the respondents held that most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction actually addressed needs of beneficiaries, based on which the drift is towards the assertion that SNMA interventions actually addressed needs of beneficiaries.

An analysis of respondents' expectation of the effect of intervention of SNMA on poverty levels showed that a greater proportion (59.8% of 353) expected the interventions to reduce the levels of poverty among targeted beneficiaries. The disaggregated results also show that larger proportion of both the LEAP (53.9%) and non-LEAP (61.7%) household respondents expected the interventions to reduce their level of poverty. This result show that beneficiaries of interventions have confidants in the ability of SNMA to address the problem of poverty. A chi-square analysis of the results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the expected effect of interventions of SNMA on poverty levels.

There was a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household rating of poverty reduction intervention of SNMA. While 66.3% of LEAP household respondents rated



poverty reduction interventions as not successful, 48.1% of non-LEAP household respondents also rated the intervention as not successful. However, an examination of the cumulative responses showed that 52.7% of the respondents felt that SNMA's poverty reduction intervention were not successful. A chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant difference between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. This implies that the two categories of respondents differ in their opinion on the subject matter. However, opinion leaders were unanimous in their believe that SNMA's poverty reduction interventions were successful. This position was also shared by key informant. The finding supports Orji (2005) study on the "impact of poverty reduction in Nigeria as a development strategy between 1970 and 2005" in which he concluded that the poverty eradication initiatives of government have no significant positive impact on the poor.

The evidence of respondents' perception of the impact of poverty reduction intervention on poverty levels revealed a statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. While 53.9% of LEAP household respondents felt that they were better-off with the implementation of poverty reduction intervention, 41.3% of non-LEAP household respondents shared in that perception. However, a comparably larger proportion of non-LEAP (47%) household than LEAP (25.8%) household respondents felt that the interventions had no impact on poverty level.

Prominent among respondents' perceptions of implementation challenges of poverty reduction intervention of SNMA was overreliance on donor driven intervention (i.e. made up 50.4% out of 353 respondents). An examination of the disaggregated data showed that a large proportion of both LEAP (55.1%) and non-LEAP (48.9%) household respondents also

cited overreliance on donor driven intervention. This finding further corroborates the result obtained from the content analysis which revealed that about 94% of the total development funding per annum comes from external sources and thus becomes inimical for the pursuance of self-reliant development or endogenous development (Millar, et al, 2018; Boonzaaier & Apusigah, 2008; Jacques, 1983; Kempe, 1983).

The study also showed that respondents generally felt that if they were involved in the process of planning interventions, the outcome of such interventions would have been more impactful than they are currently. The evidence showed that 50.1% of 353 respondents constituting both LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents felt that if they were involved in planning intervention, outcomes of such interventions would have been better. An analysis of the disaggregated result with a chi-square test showed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the outcome of interventions with their full involvement.



It was discovered from a comparative analysis of respondents' assessment of their poverty situation before and after interventions of SNMA, while majority (68% of 353 respondents) of the respondents rated the poverty situation to be bad before the interventions, only 27.5% rated their situation to be bad after the intervention. This is an indication that the interventions could be partly considered to have contributed to such a reduction. Similarly, it found that while a minority (11% of 353) of the respondents indicated that they had experienced a reduction in their poverty level before the intervention, 48.4% indicated they had experience a reduction after the interventions, which is indicative of the fact that SNMA's poverty reduction interventions are contributing one way or the other to reducing

levels of poverty. When the results were disaggregated into LEAP and non-LEAP household responses and subjected to a chi-square analysis it was found that the differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of the poverty situation before and after the interventions of SNMA were not statistical significant, hence the aggregated responses are representative of responses of both categories of respondents.



CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an overview of the research process and a summary of the research findings of the study. The chapter also presents the research conclusions and recommendations. It concludes with suggestions for further research and a reflection on the study's contribution to knowledge.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The overall objective of this study was to assess the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions on beneficiaries from their own perspective in Savelugu-Nanton Municipal. Specifically, the study focused on: the nature and scope of poverty reduction interventions; the effect of poverty reduction interventions; the influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction intervention; the challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions and beneficiary perspectives of poverty reduction intervention. The study was guided by five research questions, which include the following:

1. What is the nature and scope of SNMA poverty reduction interventions?
2. How has SNMA poverty reduction interventions affected beneficiaries?
3. How has beneficiary involvement in planning poverty reduction interventions affected poverty reduction outcomes?
4. How has the challenges confronting SNMA in its efforts at poverty reduction affected implementation of interventions? and



5. How are beneficiaries influenced by their perceptions of SNMA poverty reduction interventions?

This study draws its identity from two theories; the theory of Self-Reliance and the Freire and the Freirean Dialogical Approach. The emphasis however, is on the theory of self-reliance. The self-reliance theory provides a new orientation in the development discourse. The focus of this theory is to meet the basic needs of the poor and to also ensure that the poor fully participate in the development process (Kempe, 1983). The theory emphasises “autonomy of decision-making and full mobilisation of society’s own resources under its own initiative and direction (Kempe, 1983; p455). The selection of this theory was based on the belief that SNMA invariably affect levels of poverty and eventually leads to the overall development of SNMA.

Anyanwu (1992) and Galtung et al (1980) argues that, self-reliance is “development derived from a country’s own resources, involving its population based on the potentials of its cultural values and traditions” (as cited in Amakye, 2017; p8 and Kim & Isma’il, 2013; p586). Bloom (1988), Ikoku (1980), and Mansour (1979) submit that self-reliance is a development strategy that depends of indigenous socioeconomic engineering, with an underpinning philosophy of “improvement from within”. This is not equated to a return to the past nor is it a dismissal of some advantages of international relations. The emphasis is on involving beneficiaries of development in planned programmes to enable them gain skills that could enable them cope more with their everyday life challenges (Charles & Lotsmart, 2003).





The study was underpinned by the pragmatic worldview, and employs both quantitative and qualitative strategies of inquiry. The study employed the sequential mixed survey using a cross-sectional study design, which allowed the researcher to employ both qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques and procedures sequentially. For the purpose of this study, 353 households were sampled (made up of 89 LEAP and 264 non-LEAP household respondents) randomly sampled, and 32 opinion leaders and four (4) key informants were purposively sampled as well as two focus group discussions with the MPCU and SNM management. Questionnaire, interviews guide and focus group discussions guide were used in the collection of data. Methods of data analysis employed were both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to measure the magnitude of occurrence of the phenomenon being measured while the inferential statistics, such as Chi-square (X^2), was used to determine whether or not there existed any significant difference between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. This was because the variables were largely measured on both the ordinal and nominal scales. The qualitative data, on the other hand, was grouped under specific themes and sub-themes reflecting the study's objectives and was interpreted. Cross analysis and triangulation were employed to compare findings from households, opinion leaders and key informant interviews.

6.3 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The summary of findings of the study were discussed under the following sub-headings: nature and scope of poverty reduction intervention; effect of poverty reduction interventions; influence of beneficiary on poverty reduction intervention outcomes; challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions and

perception of beneficiaries of poverty reduction interventions. These reflects the study's research questions and objectives.

6.3.1 Nature and Scope of Poverty Reduction Interventions

The first research objective dealt with the nature and scope of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention. The principal findings that emerged were:

1. In general, a multifaceted approach was adopted for tackling the problem of poverty in Savelugu-Nanton Municipal. Specifically, the MA's strategy for poverty reduction focused on addressing problem of poor access to socio-economic services.
2. The study also revealed that broadly SNMA's poverty reduction interventions were categorised into two name infrastructure interventions (i.e. education, health, water, roads, dams, etc) and non-infrastructure interventions (i.e. support for skills development training, subsidies for farmers and other social inclusion interventions). The study further discovered that over 74% of total annual expenditure was devoted to delivering socio-economic infrastructure with only about 20% devoted to non-infrastructure interventions and a little over 6% on administrative expenditure.
3. The dominant kind of intervention provided by SNMA towards tackle the problem of poverty was providing socio-economic infrastructure. The was in keeping with the objective of SNMA to improve access to basic socio-economic infrastructure as a basis of address access related poverty.



4. It also emerged that between 50% to 88% of the activities captured in Savelugu-Nanton MTDPs between 1997 and 2017 were responsive to addressing the problem of poverty in SNMA.
5. By and large, most (88%) of the respondents, irrespective of the Category (LEAP or non-LEAP household respondents) identified SNMA as the primary organisation that provided interventions to address the problem of poverty. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP responses were found not to be statistically significant when subjected to a chi-square analysis.

6.3.2 The Effect of SNMA's Poverty Reduction Intervention

The second research question and objective dealt with the effect of Sevelugu-Nanton Municipal Assemblies poverty reduction intervention. The main findings that appeared were the following:

1. With respect to the effect of road infrastructure intervention on socio-economic activities, it was discovered that majority (60.3%) of the respondents indicated socio-economic activities had improved. But the disaggregated results showed that less than half (46.1%) of the LEAP household respondents compared with the over half (65.5%) of the non-LEAP household respondents indicated that the intervention had improved socio-economic activities in SNMA. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses was also found to be statistically significant under a chi-square test.
2. The study discovered that majority (67.7%) of the respondents observed that small-dam interventions had improved dry season farming and youth employment. A chi-square analysis revealed that the difference between LEAP and non-LEAP



household responses was not statistically significant, in view of which the aggregate response is considered to be reflective of the position of the two categories of respondents.

3. The study found a contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents on how they assessed the effect of electricity intervention on domestic and economic access to and use of electricity. While over half (61.4%) of non-LEAP households respondents found electricity intervention to have improved domestic and economic access to and use of electricity, only 40.4% of LEAP household respondents consider the electricity intervention to have resulted in improved domestic and economic access to and use of electricity.
4. Majority (67.7%) of the respondents comprising more than half LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents indicated that education interventions had resulted in improved access to basic education. Statistically significant differences were not observed between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses with a chi-square test.
5. The study also revealed that majority (67.7%) of the respondent observed that access to basic health care services had improved with increased health infrastructure interventions by SNMA. Statistically significant differences were not found between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses with a chi-square test.
6. In respect of respondents' assessment of the effect of water infrastructure investment on access to good and safe drinking water, it was found that majority of LEAP (79.8%) and non-LEAP (78.8%) household respondents had indicated that the water infrastructure interventions had resulted in improved access to good and



safe drinking water. Statistically significant differences were not observed between LEAN and non-LEAP household responses when subjected to a chi-square test.

7. The study revealed that majority (60.1%) of the household respondents indicated that Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly's infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes. A chi-square analysis revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses. The was evident in the disaggregated result that more than half of LEAP (55.1%) and non-LEAP (61.8%) household respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that infrastructure intervention have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes in Savelugu-Nanton.
8. Regarding respondents' assessment of the effect of Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) on social inclusion, the study discovered that minority (30.3%) of the aggregate respondents indicated that it had improved social inclusion. However, the results showed a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in respect of the effect of LEAP intervention on social inclusion. While majority (69.7%) of LEAP household respondents indicated that the LEAP intervention had improved social inclusion, only 17% of non-LEAP households indicated the intervention had improved social inclusion.
9. The study also found that only 30.3% of respondents indicated that the intervention on subsidies for farmers had improved poverty levels among beneficiary farmers. The disaggregate result revealed a sharp contrast between the responses of LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. While a large proportion (58.4%) of LEAP household respondents indicated that the subsidy for farmer intervention had



lowered poverty levels, only a small proportion (20.8%) of non-LEAP households indicated the intervention had lowered poverty levels among beneficiaries.

10. It emerged from the study that 39.1% of respondents indicated that the employable skills development training intervention had improved youth access to employment. The disaggregate result revealed a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. While majority (74.2%) of LEAP household respondents felt that the employable skills development for unemployed youth intervention had improved youth access to employment, only minority (27.3%) of non-LEAP households indicated the intervention had improved youth access to employment.
11. Majority (80.2%) of the respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that non-infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes in Savelugu-Nanton. a chi-square analysis of the results showed that the difference between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents on the issue was not statistically significant.
12. The results of the study showed a sharp contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses in respect of whether they agreed or disagreed with the proposition that “SNMA’s poverty reduction interventions are successful in reducing poverty”. While majority (79.9%) of non-LEAP household respondents disagreed with the proposition, less than half (46.1%) of the LEAP household respondents agreed with the proposition. It was further discovered from a chi-square test that there were statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses.



6.3.3 Influence of Beneficiary Involvement on Poverty Reduction Intervention

The third research objective was on the influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction intervention outcomes. The significant findings were the following:

1. Regarding the seven stages of beneficiary involvement in intervention planning as recommended by Ngah (2012), the result of the study showed that majority (ranging between 58% and 92%) of the respondents indicated they were not involved in six of the stages which included; problem identification, goal formulation, objective setting, identification of project options and choice making, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and contribution in terms of labour, finance and other materials. However, 75% of the respondents indicated they were involved in the stage that has to do with community sharing in the benefits that accrue from the intervention.
2. A large proportion (53.3%) of the respondents indicated that beneficiary involvement in planning interventions had not affected poverty reduction outcomes positively. A chi-square result showed that there was no statistically significant differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses regarding the effect of beneficiary involvement in planning interventions on poverty reduction outcomes.
3. It was also evident from the result of the study that beneficiary involvement in planning had no influence over outcomes of poverty reduction interventions. A large proportion (66%) of the respondents indicated that beneficiary involvement had very poor influence on outcomes of poverty reduction outcomes. Specifically, more than half of both LEAP (76.4%) and non-LEAP (62.5%) household



respondents assessed beneficiary involvement to have had very poor influence on outcomes of poverty reduction interventions.

4. Regarding the level of beneficiary involvement, the results of the study revealed that the level of involvement could at best be described as “tokenistic” in nature. Respondents made reference to the following as how they were involved in planning interventions: they provide information to officials of the MA, received information on their roles and responsibility in respect of projects to be or are being implemented, among others.

6.3.4 Challenges of Implementing Poverty Reduction Interventions

The fourth research objective was to examine the challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions. The following constitute the major findings that emerged:

1. The results of the study showed that SNMA rely heavily on external funding to implement its development interventions as captured in its MTDP. The result showed that an average of 94% of the total development funding comes from external sources.
2. It was also found that external sources of funding development interventions were less reliable compared with internal sources of funding interventions. This finding was premised on the fact that reliability was operationalised to mean a source of funding in which the MA has control over and is able to determine how the funds are utilised independent of any external influence or control.
3. The study further found that there were a number of obstacles encountered by people in their efforts to access poverty reduction interventions. Key among such



obstacles include: lack of information on interventions; politicisation of interventions, discrimination and favouritism, bureaucratic procedure and corruption among official.

4. The study revealed a number of challenged hindering beneficiary involvement in planning interventions to include; lack of transparency in the operation of the MA, authorities of the MA deliberately do not involve beneficiaries of interventions, poor timing of beneficiary involvement activities, and bureaucratic bottlenecks.

6.3.4 Beneficiary Perceptions of Poverty Reduction Interventions

With reference to the fifth research objective, the study sought beneficiary perceptions of Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly's poverty reduction interventions, the resultant findings were the following:

1. Regarding the relevance of SNMA's interventions with beneficiary's poverty reduction needs, it was found that 72.5% of the respondents rated the intervention to be generally highly relevant with beneficiary poverty reduction needs.
2. The results of the study showed that over half (55%) of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that most interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction actually addressed beneficiary needs. the disaggregated results showed clear contrast between LEAP (79.7%) and non-LEAP (46.6) household responses in respect of the targeted interventions of SNMA actually addressing beneficiary needs.
3. The result showed that a large proportion (59.8%) of the respondents indicated they expected SNMA's interventions to reduce the level of poverty among targeted



beneficiaries. This reflected the confidence beneficiary of intervention have in the capability of SNMA to address the problem of poverty through its interventions.

4. It emerged from the results that over half (52.7%) of the respondents rated SNMA's poverty reduction interventions as not successful. The disaggregated result showed a contrast between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents. Whereas 66.3% of LEAP household respondents rated SNMA's poverty reduction interventions as not successful, less than half (48.1%) of non-LEAP household respondents rated the interventions as not successful. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household responses was found to be statistically significant following a chi-square test of the results.
5. The study also found that a comparably more (53.9%) LEAP household respondents, than non-LEAP (41.3%) felt that there were better-off with the implementations of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions.
6. Prominent among respondents' perceptions of the challenges SNMA encounter in the implementation of poverty reduction intervention was overreliance on donor driven interventions. Other challenges include; inadequate funding, ineffective targeting of beneficiaries, inadequate beneficiary involvement and politicisation of interventions.
7. In respect of beneficiaries' opinion of how their involvement would have impacted on outcomes of intervention, about half (50.1%) of the respondents felt that outcome of interventions would have been better than they are if they were fully involved.
8. A comparative analysis of respondents' perception of their poverty situation before and after SNMA's intervention revealed that respondents experienced a reduction



in levels of poverty after intervention than before intervention. The differences between LEAP and non-LEAP household assessment of the poverty situation before and after interventions were found not to be statistically significant following a chi-square test.

6.4 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

This sub-section presents a number of conclusions based on the study's findings regarding the nature and scope of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention; effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions; influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction intervention; challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions and beneficiary perceptions of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions.

Savelugu-Nanton poverty reductions interventions are largely infrastructure (i.e. education, health, water, roads, dams, etc) and non-infrastructure interventions (i.e. support for skills development training, subsidies for farmers and other social inclusion interventions). The total expenditure on infrastructure per annum is over two-quarters of the total expenditure compared with less than a fifth of the total expenditure expended on non-infrastructure interventions. Furthermore, SNMA's MTDP reflected the needs and aspirations of the people and also found to be responsive to the national development focus and priority. Specifically, the MTDPs implemented between 1997 and 2017 had over half the activities captured being responsive to poverty reduction. The infrastructural interventions are designed to target the entire populace of a community or the municipality. The infrastructure interventions are largely designed to create an enabling environment or served as a catalyst for further local economic and non-economic activities to thrive



withing the Municipality and its environs. The non-infrastructure interventions on the other hand are targeted interventions which target individuals' or identifiable groups and their livelihood activities.

In addition, the poverty reduction interventions have had varying degree of effect on poverty levels of beneficiaries of interventions. Comparatively the infrastructure interventions have had a greater effect on poverty levels than the non-infrastructure interventions. Specifically, the infrastructural interventions largely addressed accessibility issues relative to socio-economic activities and services delivery. Between the economic and social infrastructure interventions, there were contrasting views on the effect of economic infrastructure interventions examined (i.e. road, small-dams and water infrastructure). The contrast was even sharper for roads and electricity between LEAP and non-LEAP household respondents in terms of the level of improvement or reduction in the level of poverty. However, there is a high degree of unanimity in respect of the effect of social infrastructure interventions (like provision of educational facilities, health facilities and water delivery facilities) across all category's respondents. The social infrastructure interventions have specifically resulted in improved access to basic social services such as education, health and safe drinking water which are considered to be critical issues to address in any poverty reduction mechanism. In respect of the non-infrastructure intervention, the effect was limited to the direct beneficiaries of such interventions compared with the infrastructure interventions which affects anyone within the intervention area. The non-infrastructure intervention examined (LEAP, subsidy to farmers and employable skills development training for unemployed youth) showed that targeted



groups experienced improvement in their livelihood activities which directly affected their poverty situation positively.

Moreover, it is evident that beneficiary involvement in planning interventions was limited to extracting information from beneficiaries and providing information to beneficiaries on interventions. In view of which there is virtually non-existent influence of beneficiary involvement on nature of intervention or even the outcome of interventions. Beneficiaries are reduced to mere takers of whatever intervention is available without making any inputs into even refining interventions. It is in this respect that the level of involvement of beneficiaries have been described in the study as being “tokenistic” rather than consultative. This clearly implies the SNMA is planning “for the people” and not planning “with the people”.

However, certain challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions tend to restrict the desired effect of the interventions. Some of these challenges are inadequate funds, inadequate information on interventions; politicisation of interventions, external interference, discrimination and favouritism, low involvement of beneficiaries, and bureaucratic procedure. Critical among these challenges is the issue of inadequate funding resulting in heavily depending on external funds to implement poverty reduction interventions. This overreliance on external development funding has resulted in subordinating local development priorities to donor priorities, which represents a travesty to the principles of endogenous development and self-reliance.





Finally, the perceptions of beneficiaries of SNMA were mixed and varied. The interventions were considered to be relevant to beneficiary's poverty reduction needs. It was also perceived that the poverty reduction interventions delivered by SNMA actually addressed beneficiary poverty reduction needs. beneficiaries of interventions were confidence that SNMA was capable in addressing the problem of poverty. Notwithstanding, the expressed confidences in the capability of SNMA to address poverty, the interventions were considered not successful on one hand and other, there are claims that SNMA's interventions have made beneficiaries better-off. It was further observed that outcomes of interventions would have been better with a high level of beneficiary involvement.

The overall conclusion of the study is that, Savelugu-Nanton Municipal will only be effective at reducing levels of poverty among its target beneficiaries to the extent that it become financially self-reliant. This conclusion was partly attributed to SNMA's overreliance on external sources to funding to fund most of its interventions, which has accounted for a situation in which SNMA ends up subordinating it development priorities to the donor's priorities. This is evident in the SNMA's emphasis in the implementation of infrastructure interventions as most of the donor funds emphasis infrastructure delivery than non-infrastructure intervention delivery.

6.5 RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are proposed for the consideration of development practitioners, local government policy makers and implementers.

1. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development which has oversight over MMDAs should on behalf of the Government of Ghana enter into bilateral agreement with the donor community to consider increasing the share of non-infrastructure intervention component of their funding. At the local level, the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development should as part of the indicators for assessing MMDAs performance include an indicator on the percentage increase in funding for non-infrastructure interventions per annum.
2. Deliberate steps should be taken to ensure that infrastructural interventions which often has an indirect effect on poverty levels begin to directly on levels of poverty reduction. This could be done through adopting appropriate labour-intensive technologies in delivering basic socio-economic infrastructure. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development which has oversight responsibility on MMDAs should in collaboration with relevant agencies develop labour-intensive infrastructure delivery manual and train key officers from MMDAs on the operationalisation of the manual in delivering socio-economic infrastructure at the local level. The objective of this recommendation is to ensure that at least 60% of the total project cost goes into the payments of the daily wages of labour.
3. Increase stakeholder and beneficiary involvement. The study recommends that MMDAs should work at ensuring increased participation of key local stakeholders and beneficiaries of interventions in all the key stages of planning interventions.



Specifically, it is recommended that no poverty reduction interventions of any MMDA should be initiated or implemented without proper consultation with key stakeholders and beneficiaries of interventions. Beneficiaries, community members and vulnerable groups should be made an integral part of the processes involved in identifying and planning interventions.

4. The MA should shift from its over-reliance on external funding to its own sources of funding (local). Almost all the MMDAs in Ghana rely heavily on external funding sources (such as the central government transfers and donor support) to fund local development and poverty reduction interventions, which implies any delay or withdrawal of such funding could negatively affect implementation of planned interventions. In view of this potential danger of over-relying on external funding sources, it is recommended that all MMDAs should institute measures to increase the mobilisation of Internally Generated Funds (IGFs) to support the implementation of planned interventions. It is further recommended that assessment of Metropolitan/Municipal/District Chief Executives (MMDCEs) and Metropolitan/Municipal/District Coordinating Directors (MMDCD) should be linked to the ability to increase mobilisation of IGF substantially. Again, development support to MMDAs should be linked to performance and not just limited to deprivation status of MMDAs. This will motivate management of MMDAs to adopt innovative strategies to work towards financial independence.
5. The study further recommends that a transparent and objective beneficiary targeting and selection mechanism should be instituted. This system should be developed through a broad stakeholder consultative process. The process should involve identifying the key variables to include in the beneficiary targeting and selection



system. The process should involve assigning weights to the various agreed upon variables during the consultative process. The output of the consultative process should be placed before the development planning sub-committee for consideration and recommendation to the executive committee of the MA to be tabled at the General Assembly for consideration and adoption.

6.6 SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Although the study was carried out in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly, there are other MMDAs in Ghana or elsewhere in the developing world where similar investigation could be done to assess beneficiaries' perspectives on the effects of MMDA poverty reduction interventions. The MMDAs and poverty reduction has been investigated at different levels (i.e. at local, national and international levels) through academic and non-academic studies, projects evaluation, seminars, and conferences among others. Yet, a lot still needs to be done in terms of research to better understand how the District Assembly system of Ghana have impacted beneficiary's poverty levels. Such investigations could go a long way to help in contributing to the body of existing knowledge in local governance of development and poverty reduction.

This research has set the tone by helping to open up doors into other areas that could be investigated to improve local governance of development as well as local governance of poverty reduction. The following topics have been suggested for future research:

1. This study used a cross-sectional survey, which assessed poverty reduction interventions by SNMA and how they have affected poverty reduction outcomes. The findings emanating from this cross-sectional survey, only describe what SNMA did at the time the data was collected and may not necessarily represent the



true picture of what it has been doing over a period of time A longitudinal study could be used to allow for generalisation of the findings.

2. What are the prospects and challenges of MMDAs improving the livelihoods of the poor with their interventions? A comparative study. This study could help establish whether the livelihood of the poor is improving or worsening with the operationalisation of local governance since 1993 with the passage of the Local Government Act of 1993 (Act 462). It would also help to established whether communities that adopt participatory planning approaches can make or are making better progress than their counterparts who have failed to employ a participatory planning approach. This will help provide much needed empirical evidence, which has, over the years, been lacking in the local governance of development discourse. It could also challenge practitioners of local governance, civil society organisations and the donor community who argue in favour of beneficiary participation in every development activity that directly affects them as the only way through which true local development could occur.



There could be several other ways in which the theme: ‘MMDAs and Poverty Reduction’ could be investigated. The above suggestions could serve as an entry point to help future researchers and students who are interested in exploring new ways of understanding local governance of poverty reduction and its application for local development policy and practice in MMDAs.

6.7 REFLECTION ON CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

This study is unique for a number of reasons. First, this study has contributed in filling the gap in the literature by answering the question on: how MMDAs play their poverty reduction role and how they have performed their roles to influence the nature and scope of interventions that have been implemented and how the implemented interventions have affected poverty levels in MMDAs. The study has further uncovered the major challenges encountered in the implementation of poverty reduction interventions; the influence of beneficiary involvement on poverty reduction outcomes; and beneficiary perspectives of poverty reduction intervention.

In addition, this study unlike most poverty reduction studies, approached the subject from two main perspectives, i.e. infrastructure and non-infrastructure interventions and how they affect poverty. The infrastructure interventions impact poverty indirectly and are untargeted intervention. on the other hand, non-infrastructure intervention are targeted interventions with direct impact on poverty. Furthermore, the study has shifted emphasis from implementers' perspectives to beneficiaries' perspectives.

In addition, the study has attempted to approach the topic from a holistic perspective by examining the relationship between and among the responses from household heads, opinion leaders, key informant and members of MPCU. Previous studies have tended to investigate only the impact of MMDAs on participatory decision making or the impact of MMDAs on delivering social infrastructure without examining its effect on poverty levels as well as the impact of specific programmes and projects on poverty reduction outcomes to satisfy a given interest.





Furthermore, a scan of the literature on the impact of MMDA's PRIs on beneficiaries show that it was quite limited and most of the cited empirical studies carried out so far on this subject had focused more on regional and national level poverty reduction interventions, with very few of such studies focused on beneficiaries' perspectives. This study represents a shift in emphasis from national and regional level poverty reduction interventions to district level poverty reduction interventions. This study also focusses primarily on capturing beneficiaries' perspectives in detail unlike the usual focus of other studies on the perspectives of implementing and donor agencies or programme/project objectives. In which case the emphasis is simply placed on input output relationships without recognising the fact that programmes/projects affect their environment just as their environment affects them.

Moreover, this study discovered that besides the challenges militating against the successful implementation of interventions, there were some opportunities if properly harnessed could enhance implementation of interventions towards the reduction of poverty.

Key among these opportunities are: government-donor collaboration to directly support the MTDP; integration of donor funded programmes and projects into MTDP based on local priorities; collaboration with local and international NGOs in programming and implementation of poverty reduction interventions in a manner that ensures that duplication of efforts is avoided or reduced to the barest minimum.

Finally, this study serves as an entry point into the process of building literature on MMDA's poverty reduction interventions and how they affect their target beneficiaries. Moreover, the study draws greater attention to MMDAs' role in reducing poverty amongst

its citizenry and the extent to which the process of achieving the MMDAs' poverty reduction objectives will be done in a participatory manner.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

Respondent’s Consent

Please, as part of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), I am carrying out a study on the topic: *“Assessing Poverty Reduction Interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana: The Perspectives of Beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality.”* I would therefore be most grateful if you could assist the process by providing answers to the following questions. This study is strictly an academic exercise and all information obtained from you will be treated with utmost confidentiality as your identity will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

I appreciate your acceptance to be part of this study even after your rights have been declared to you. Thank you.

Kindly tick or answer where appropriate.

A. General Background

1. Name of settlement:
2. Name of Area/Town/Urban Council: *1-Diare, 2- Moglaa, 3- Nanton, 4- Pong-Tamale, 5- Savelugu, 6- Tanpion*
3. Category of Respondent: 1=LEAP household 2=Non-LEAP Household

B. Personal Information: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

4. Sex of respondent: 1=Male 2=Female
5. Age: 1=(18-30); 2=(31-43); 3= (44-56); 4=(57-69); 5=(70+)
6. Level of education attained. 1-None, 2-Primary, 3-Middle/JHS, 4-Second cycle, 5-Tertiary, 6-Non formal education but literate (i.e. can read & write)
7. Primary occupation. 1-None, 2-Crop farming, 3-Livestock farming, 4-Trading, 5-Artisan, 6-Public service, 7-Other (specify)





8. Secondary occupation 1-None, 2-Crop farming, 3-Livestock farming, 4-Trading, 5-Artisan, 6-Public service, 7-Other (specify)
9. Hometown: 1= *studied community*; 2= *not studied community but community within studied district*
10. Name district:
11. Name of region: 1= *UER*; 2=*UWR*; 3=*NR*; 4=*BAR*; 5= *ASR*; 6=*VR*; 7=*WR*; 8=*ER*; 9=*CR*; 10 *GAR*
12. Length of stay in settlement: 1=1-5yrs; 2= 6-10yrs; 3= 11-15yrs; 4=16-20yrs; 5= 26-26yrs; 6=26+
13. Religious affiliation. 1-None, 2-Christian, 3-Moslem, 4-Traditional, 5-Other (specify)
14. What is your main sources of income? 1-None, 2-Crop farming, 3-Livestock farming, 4-Trading, 5-Artisan (specify), 6-Public/civil service, 7-Remittances, 8-From household members with particular jobs, 9-Other (specify)

C. The Nature and Scope of Poverty Reduction Interventions

15. Have you benefited from any poverty reduction intervention? 1=Yes () 2=No ()
16. If your response to the question above is “YES”, kindly, indicate the organisation that provided such an intervention. 1=SNMA; 2=NGOs; 3=Decentralised Departments; 4=don’t know; 5=Political Parties
17. If the SNMA, indicate the nature of the intervention provided by the SNMA. Micro Credit Financing (); Socio-economic infrastructure (); Skill Acquisition (); Self-Employment (); Agriculture Support Programme (); Capacity Building (); Others (please specify)
18. How will you categorise the intervention provided by SNMA? Could you explain the rationale behind your categorisation of the interventions?

D. Effect of Poverty Reduction Interventions

19. Please assess the effect of the following interventions of SNMA. You may score each indicator on a scale ranging from *1 to 4*; *where: 1=Improved, 2= No effect, 3=Worse-off 4= No idea*

Assess the following intervention	1	2	3	4	Additional Comments
Assess the effect of road infrastructural interventions on socio-economic activities and service delivery					
Assess the effect of small-dam interventions on dry season farming and youth employment					
Assess the effect of electricity interventions on domestic and economic Access to and use of electricity					
Assess the effect of education infrastructure Interventions on access to basic education					
Assess the effect of health infrastructure interventions on access to basic health care					
Assess the effect of water infrastructural interventions on Access to good and safe drinking water					
Assess the effect of Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) intervention on social inclusion					
Assess the effect of Subsidies for farmers on lowering poverty levels among beneficiary farmers					
Assess the effect of employable skills development for unemployed youth on employment					



20. Infrastructure Intervention have Positively Affected Poverty Reduction Outcomes.
Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree
21. Non-Infrastructure interventions have positively affected poverty reduction outcomes.
Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree
22. SNMA Poverty Reduction Interventions are Successful in Reducing Poverty Levels.
Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree
23. How have you managed the issue of poverty without any Intervention from SNMA?
Indicate your extent managing on the following scale: 1=Poorly, 2=Fairly Well, 3=Well.

24. Indicate in specific terms how you actually coped/managed with the poverty situation without any support or intervention from SNMA. a) support from Friend b) Benevolent Organisation c) Extended Family Members d) Self-Managed e) Other (Specified)

E. Influence of Beneficiary Involvement on Poverty Reduction Outcomes

25. Indicate whether you were involved in the following stages of planning intervention you are benefiting from.

No	Programming Stages	Yes	No
1	Involved in problem identification		
2	Involved in goal formulation		
3	Involved in objective setting		
4	Involved in identification of project options and choice making		
5	Involved in implementation, monitoring, and evaluation		
6	Contributed (in terms of labour, finance, and other materials) towards execution/implementation		
7	Community share in the benefits that accrue from the intervention		

26. Beneficiary involvement in planning of interventions have affected poverty reduction intervention outcomes positively. Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree

27. How do you judge the influence of beneficiary involvement on outcomes of poverty reduction interventions? 1=Very Poor, 2=Poor, 3=Average, 4= Good, 5=Very Good

28. Indicate how you have been involved in planning interventions.
.....

29. What are the challenges you face in an effort to get involved in planning of interventions by SNMA?

F. Challenges of Implementing Poverty Reduction Interventions

30. Perceptions of Level of Reliability of internal and external sources of Funding interventions. You may score each indicator on a scale ranging from **1 to 4; where: 1=not reliable, 2= fairly reliable, 3=Reliable 4= Don't know**



Category/type of Funding Source	1	2	3	4	Further Comment
Internal Sources					
External sources					

31. Perception of adequacy of sources of funding interventions. You may score each indicator on a scale ranging from *1 to 3*; where: *1=Inadequate, 2= fairly adequate, 3=Adequate*

Adequacy of:	1	2	3	Further comment
Internal Sources				
External sources				

32. Indicate the challenges encountered in accessing poverty reduction interventions in SNMA

.....

33. What do you perceive as the major challenges of implementing poverty reduction interventions by SNMA?

.....



G. Beneficiaries Perceptions of SNMA’S Poverty Reduction Interventions

34. Indicate the relevance of SNMA’s Interventions to beneficiary’s poverty reduction needs. Use a scale of 1 to 5, (with 1 being the least relevant and five having the highest relevance)

35. Most Interventions of SNMA targeted at poverty reduction do address actual needs of beneficiaries. Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree

36. How would you rate SNMA’s poverty reduction interventions? a) Not successful b) Successful c) Undecided

37. What did you expect the impact of SNMA’s Interventions to be on your poverty level? 1=to worsen it, 2=no effect, 3=to reduce it, 4= no idea.

38. What are your perceptions about the impact of SNMA's interventions on your poverty level? 1=to worsen it, 2=no effect, 3=to reduce it, 4= no idea.
39. Outcome of Interventions would have been Better with your full-participation at all stages of Planning Interventions. Indicate your extent of agreement with the using the following rating: 1=Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4 Strongly Disagree
40. How do you assess your own poverty situation before benefiting from any intervention from SNMA? a) very bad, b) bad, c) satisfactory, d) reduced e) highly reduced
41. How do you assess your own poverty situation after benefiting from any intervention from SNMA? a) very bad, b) bad, c) satisfactory, d) reduced e) highly reduced

Thank you for your responses.



APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR KEY INFORMANT

Respondent's Consent

Please, as part of the requirement for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), I am carrying out a study on the topic: *“Assessing Poverty Reduction Interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana: The Perspectives of Beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality.”* I would therefore be most grateful if you could assist the process by providing answers to the following questions. This study is strictly an academic exercise and all information obtained from you will be treated with utmost confidentiality as your identity will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

The information about the purpose of this study have been read to me. Any questions I have about the research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agreed to take part in this research voluntarily. By answering the question posed to me, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I have been made aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details that may personally identify me by the research.

I have read that; I reserve the right at any stage of the interaction to withdraw my consent to participate in this research; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I have also read that the researcher will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law and that no information that can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

I have also granted my permission, to the researcher to record the proceedings of the interaction with the aid of a voice recorder.

Thank you for your understanding and agreeing to have this interview recorded.





1. Please, how long have you worked in MMDA level? From: _____ to _____
2. What is your designation(s) while working at the various MMDAs?
3. Apart the current District you work in, which other districts have you served? _____ and in what capacity have you served in those districts?
4. What is the nature of the poverty reduction interventions you have implemented in the last two decades to date?
5. Could you share with me some of the Core Functions of SNMA in relation to its efforts at poverty reduction?
6. When did the issue of poverty or poverty reduction become a critical development issue in the Municipality?
7. How responsive were SNMA's poverty reduction interventions to the beneficiary poverty reduction need?
8. What specific poverty reduction interventions have been implemented by SNMA since the issue of poverty and poverty reduction became a central development issue?
 - Were they different from the national priorities?
 - If they were, could you mention each and demonstrate how different they were?
9. How will you describe the effect of MMDA's poverty reduction programmes/interventions on target beneficiaries or communities?
10. How relevant are MMDA's interventions towards meeting local poverty reduction needs?
11. How effective have MMDAs been in delivering on their core functions in relation to the fight against poverty/poverty reduction?

12. How are MMDA poverty reduction interventions funded?

- Do you consider the funding sources to be reliable for timely implementation of projects? Could explain why you responded the way you did?
- Do you consider the funding sources to be adequate for execution of intervention? Could you explain why you responded the way you did?

13. How are beneficiaries of MMDA's poverty reduction intervention involved in planning the interventions?

14. Could you share with me some of the factor implementation challenges of faced by SNMA in the implementation of interventions? (Hint: both positive and negative)

15. How will you assess beneficiary perceptions about SNMA's poverty reduction intervention?



APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR OPINION LEADERS

Respondent's Consent

Please, as part of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), I am carrying out a study on the topic: *“Assessing Poverty Reduction Interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana: The Perspectives of Beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality.”* I would therefore be most grateful if you could assist the process by providing answers to the following questions. This study is strictly an academic exercise and all information obtained from you will be treated with utmost confidentiality as your identity will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

The information about the purpose of this study have been read to me. Any questions I have about the research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agreed to take part in this research voluntarily. By answering the question read to me, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I have been made aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details that may personally identify me by the research.

I have been also informed that, I reserve the right at any stage of the interaction to withdraw my consent to participate in this research; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I have been informed that the researcher will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law.

I have further been told that no information that can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

Thank you for accepting my request to have this interview with me to address the under listed issues:



1. What is your impression about SNMA's poverty reduction interventions?
2. How responsive are SNMA's poverty reduction interventions to the felt needs of the people in your community?
3. What specific poverty reduction interventions were implemented by SNMA in your community?
4. How would you describe the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions on beneficiaries on such interventions and on the community as a whole?
5. What were some of the factors affecting implementation of SNMA's poverty reduction intervention in your community? (**NB:** Probe for both positive and negative factors)
6. How would you describe beneficiaries' involvement in panning poverty reduction interventions?
7. Would you say the poverty reduction interventions implemented by SNMA had been a success/failure?
 - How would you justify your response to the above question? (hint: factors accounting for the success/failure of municipal poverty reduction programmes/interventions).
8. How would you assess beneficiary perceptions about SNMA's poverty reduction intervention?

Thank you for your time.



**APPENDIX 4: MUNICIPAL PLANNING COORDINATING UNIT (MPCU)/
MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY MANAGEMENT FOCUS GROUP
DISCUSSION GUIDE**

Respondents' Consent

Please, as part of the requirement for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), I am carrying out a study on the topic: *“Assessing Poverty Reduction Interventions by District Assemblies in Ghana: The Perspectives of Beneficiaries in the Savelugu-Nanton Municipality.”* I would therefore be most grateful if you could assist the process by providing answers to the following questions. This study is strictly an academic exercise and all information obtained from you will be treated with utmost confidentiality as your identity will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

I have read the information about the purpose of the study. Any questions I have about the research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agreed to take part in this research voluntarily. By being part of this meeting, I have given my consent for the results to be used in the research. I have been made aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details that may personally identify me by the research.

I have read that; I reserve the right at any stage of the interaction to withdraw my consent to participate in this research; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I have also read that the researcher will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law.

I have read that no information that can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

Thank you for accepting my request to have this meeting with me to address the issues that follow:





1. What specific poverty reduction interventions have you being implementing?
2. Since when did the issue of poverty and for that matter poverty reduction become a critical development issue in this municipality?
3. How responsive were SNMA's poverty reduction interventions to the poverty reduction needs of your target beneficiaries?
4. What is the nature of the poverty reduction interventions you have implemented in the last two decades to date?
16. How would you describe the effect of SNMA's poverty reduction interventions on target beneficiaries or communities?
17. How relevant are SNMA's interventions to the poverty reduction need of its target beneficiaries and communities?
18. How are MMDA's poverty reduction interventions funded?
 - Do you consider the funding sources to be reliable for timely implementation of projects? Could you explain why you responded the way you did?
 - Do you consider the funding sources to be adequate for execution of intervention? Could you explain why you responded the way you did?
19. How are beneficiary of MMDA's poverty reduction intervention involved in the planning of the interventions?
20. Could you share with me some of implementation challenges encountered during the implementation of poverty reduction interventions? (Hint: both positive and negative)
21. How would you assess beneficiaries' perceptions about SNMA's poverty reduction interventions?

APPENDIX 5: ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table A5.1: Main

FUND TYPE	Y-2008	Y-2009	Y-2010	Y-2011	Y-2012	Y-2013	Y-2014	Y-2015	Y-2016	
DACF	0.94	342,946.16	452,392.34	520,251.40	1,465,935.32	1,020,206.23	768,506.93	1,020,206.23	768,506.93	1,191,185.74
IGF	9.77	79,869.99	76,189.67	80,001.48	244,684.38	165,408.71	219,394.26	165,408.71	219,394.26	274,242.83
HIPC FUNDS	0.00	20,000.00	50,000.00	57,500.02						
DDF				577,868.00	697,938.16	1,075,920.92	697,938.16	1,075,920.92	1,667,677.43	
GOG GRANT	1.05	499,851.20	724,857.34	833,586.27	601,398.42	418,948.40	120,317.00	418,948.40	120,317.00	186,491.35
DONOR GRANTS	3.99	720,649.08	873,284.38	1,004,277.43	1,201,885.76	427,761.71	107,812.00	427,761.71	107,812.00	167,108.60
TOTAL REVENUE	5.75	1,663,316.43	2,176,723.73	2,495,616.60	4,091,771.88	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	3,486,705.94

Source: C

Funding Interventions in Saveugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly (all figures are in Ghana Cedis)

FUND TYPE	Y-2008	Y-2009	Y-2010	Y-2011	Y-2012	Y-2013	Y-2014	Y-2015	Y-2016	
DACF	0.94	342,946.16	452,392.34	520,251.40	1,465,935.32	1,020,206.23	768,506.93	1,020,206.23	768,506.93	1,191,185.74
IGF	9.77	79,869.99	76,189.67	80,001.48	244,684.38	165,408.71	219,394.26	165,408.71	219,394.26	274,242.83
HIPC FUNDS	0.00	20,000.00	50,000.00	57,500.02						
DDF				577,868.00	697,938.16	1,075,920.92	697,938.16	1,075,920.92	1,667,677.43	
GOG GRANT	1.05	499,851.20	724,857.34	833,586.27	601,398.42	418,948.40	120,317.00	418,948.40	120,317.00	186,491.35
DONOR GRANTS	3.99	720,649.08	873,284.38	1,004,277.43	1,201,885.76	427,761.71	107,812.00	427,761.71	107,812.00	167,108.60
TOTAL REVENUE	5.75	1,663,316.43	2,176,723.73	2,495,616.60	4,091,771.88	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	3,486,705.94

SNMA's Annual Progress Reports

Note: Y - Year

Table A5.2: The

Internal and External Sources of Funding Interventions in Saveugu-Nanton Municipal Assembly (all figures are in Ghana Cedis)

FUND TYPE	Y-2008	Y-2009	Y-2010	Y-2011	Y-2012	Y-2013	Y-2014	Y-2015	Y-2016	
Internal Funding (IGF)	9.77	79,869.99	76,189.67	80,001.48	244,684.38	165,408.71	219,394.26	165,408.71	219,394.26	274,242.83
External Funding	1,733,045.98	1,583,446.44	2,100,534.06	2,415,615.13	3,847,087.50	2,564,854.50	2,072,556.85	2,564,854.50	2,072,556.85	3,212,463.12
TOTAL REVENUE	1,785,775.75	1,663,316.43	2,176,723.73	2,495,616.60	4,091,771.88	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	2,730,263.21	2,291,951.11	3,486,705.94

Source: Computed based on SNMA's Annual Progress Reports

Note: Y - Year

APPENDIX 6: PARTICIPANTS OF FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

Members of MPCU Who Participated in Focus Group Discussion

1. The Municipal Planning Officer (MPO)
2. Municipal Budget Analyst (MBA)
3. Municipal Director of Health Services
4. Municipal Director of Education Service
5. Municipal Director of Agriculture
6. Municipal Director of Social Welfare and Community Development
7. Municipal Works Engineer

Members of Municipal Assembly who Participated in Focus Group Discussion

1. Municipal Coordinating Director (MCD)
2. The Municipal Planning Officer (MPO)
3. Municipal Budget Analyst (MBA)
4. Municipal Finance Officer
5. Municipal Engineer
6. Municipal Director of Agriculture
7. Municipal Director of Social Welfare and Community Development
8. Municipal Internal Auditor (MIA)

