

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY,
KUMASI, GHANA**

**Evaluating Procurement Planning and its Effects on Accountable Procurement in
Public Sector Organisations (A Study of Ministry of Food and Agriculture)**

By

NAOMI ANNOR

A Thesis submitted to the Institute of Distance Learning, Kwame Nkrumah University of
Science and Technology, Kumasi in partial fulfilment for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN LOGISTICS AND SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGMENT

JANUARY, 2022

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my original work towards the MSc. in Logistics and Supply Chain Management, and that to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any degree of the University, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Naomi Annor

(Student, PG 4825220)

Signature

Date

Certified By:

Dr. Seth Nkrumah

(Supervisor)

Signature

Date

Certified By:

Prof. David Asamoah

(Head of Department)

Signature

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The undersigned would like to acknowledge some individuals for their contributions to this work. First of all, I want to thank Dr. Seth Nkrumah KSB of KNUST, who served as my supervisor, for the conversations and advice he provided throughout the entire assignment. Additionally, I would want to express my sincere gratitude to my family, friends, and loved ones for their enthusiasm, encouragement, and support.



DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to the Most High God in appreciation for His amazing mercies, protection and guidance in my lives and during the period of this research.

KNUST



ASBTRACT

The main goal of the study is to evaluate the relationship between procurement planning and procurement accountability in public sector organizations. The study was guided by three objectives: to establish the contribution of procurement planning on procurement accountability, to examine the procurement planning practices that contribute to effective procurement accountability, and to examine the value of procurement planning on procurement accountability.

A number of procurements were not carried out and were conducted outside the parameters of the procurement plan as a result of inadequate procurement planning and execution in government ministries, departments, and agencies, which also hampered the country's ability to hold procurement accountable.

The study is necessary since all procurement activities are based on procurement planning, and the primary objective of public procurement is to offer citizens efficient and effective services.

The study's primary goal is to assess how procurement planning affects procurement accountability in public sector organizations, with a particular focus on the Ghanaian ministry of food and agriculture in Kumasi.

The study used a survey questionnaire and a quantitative research methodology. The data analyses used SPSS version 23. It was discovered that the value of procurement planning and the procurement planning process have a positive and significant impact on procurement accountability.

Accountability, transparency, lower prices, accurate specifications, and increased quality were all made possible by the procurement planning process and its value.

It was discovered that the Kumasi Directorate had carefully thought out plans in place before acquiring works, goods, and services. The study comes to the conclusion that procurement planning affects performance and responsibility.

The study suggests that in order to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the procurement process, government departments, ministries, and agencies should actively adhere to all the principles, procedures, and standards involved.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ASBTRACT	iv
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Background	1
1.1 Basic Objectives of the Procurement Function	4
1.2 The Strategic Importance of Procurement	6
1.3. The Procurement Process	7
1.4 Problem Statement	12
1.1.1 Research Objectives	13
1.1.2 General Research Objective	13
1.1.3 Specific Research Objectives	13
1.1.4 Research Questions	14
1.1.5 Significance of the Study	14
1.2 Scope of the Study	14
1.2.1 Subject Scope	14
1.2.2 Geographical Scope	15
1.2.3 Time scope	15
1.2.4 Organization of the Study	15
CHAPTER TWO	16
LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2.0 Introduction	16
2.1 Theoretical framework	16
2.1.1 The Agency theory	16

2.1.2 Empirical Literature Review	17
2.1.2 Definition and Principles of Procurement.....	20
2.1.3 Procurement planning	24
2.1.4 Conceptual framework of the study	31
2.1.5 Procurement planning process	32
2.1.6 Procurement planning practices	36
2.1.7 Value of procurement planning	37
2.1.8 Procurement Accountability	40
2.2 QUALITY IN PROCUREMENT	47
2.3 DELIVERY TIME.....	49
2.4 TRANSPARENCY IN PROCUREMENT.....	50
2.5 VALUE FOR MONEY.....	53
2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE ACHIEVEMENT OF VFM	56
2.7 ACTS THAT MILITATE AGAINST THE ACHIEVEMENT OF VFM.....	57
2.8.1 Relationship between Procurement Planning andProcurement Accountability.....	62
2.9 TRANSACTIONAL COST.....	68
CHAPTER THREE.....	72
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	72
3.0 Introduction.....	72
3.1 Research Design.....	72
3.1.1 Research Population.....	72
3.1.2 Sample and Sampling Technique.....	73
3.1.3 Data and Research Instruments.....	73
3.1.4 Questionnaires.....	73
3.1.5 Data Processing and Analysis	74
3.1.6 Model Specification	74
3.1.7 Validity and Reliability of Constructs	75

3.1.8 Ethical Consideration	76
3.1.9 Profile of Ministry of Food and Agriculture – Kumasi Metropolis	76
CHAPTER FOUR	79
4.0 Introduction	79
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	79
4.1.1 Gender of Respondents	79
4.1.2 Age of Respondents	80
4.1.3 Qualification of the Respondents	81
4.1.4 Marital Status	82
4.1.5 Years of Service	83
4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Variables	84
4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Process	84
4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Practice	85
4.2.3 Descriptive Statistics of Value of Procurement Planning	86
4.2.4 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Accountability	87
4.3 Pearson Correlation Analysis	89
4.4 Model Summary	90
4.5 Regression Analysis	90
4.6 Chapter Summary	92
CHAPTER FIVE	93
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	93
5.0 Introduction	93
5.1 Summary of Findings	93
5.1.1 Procurement Planning Process and Procurement Accountability	93
5.1.2 Procurement Planning Practice and Procurement Accountability	94
5.1.3 Value of Procurement Planning and Procurement Accountability	94
5.2 Conclusion	94

5.3 Recommendations	95
5.5 Suggestions for Future Research.....	96
REFERENCES.....	97
APPENDIX.....	103

KNUST



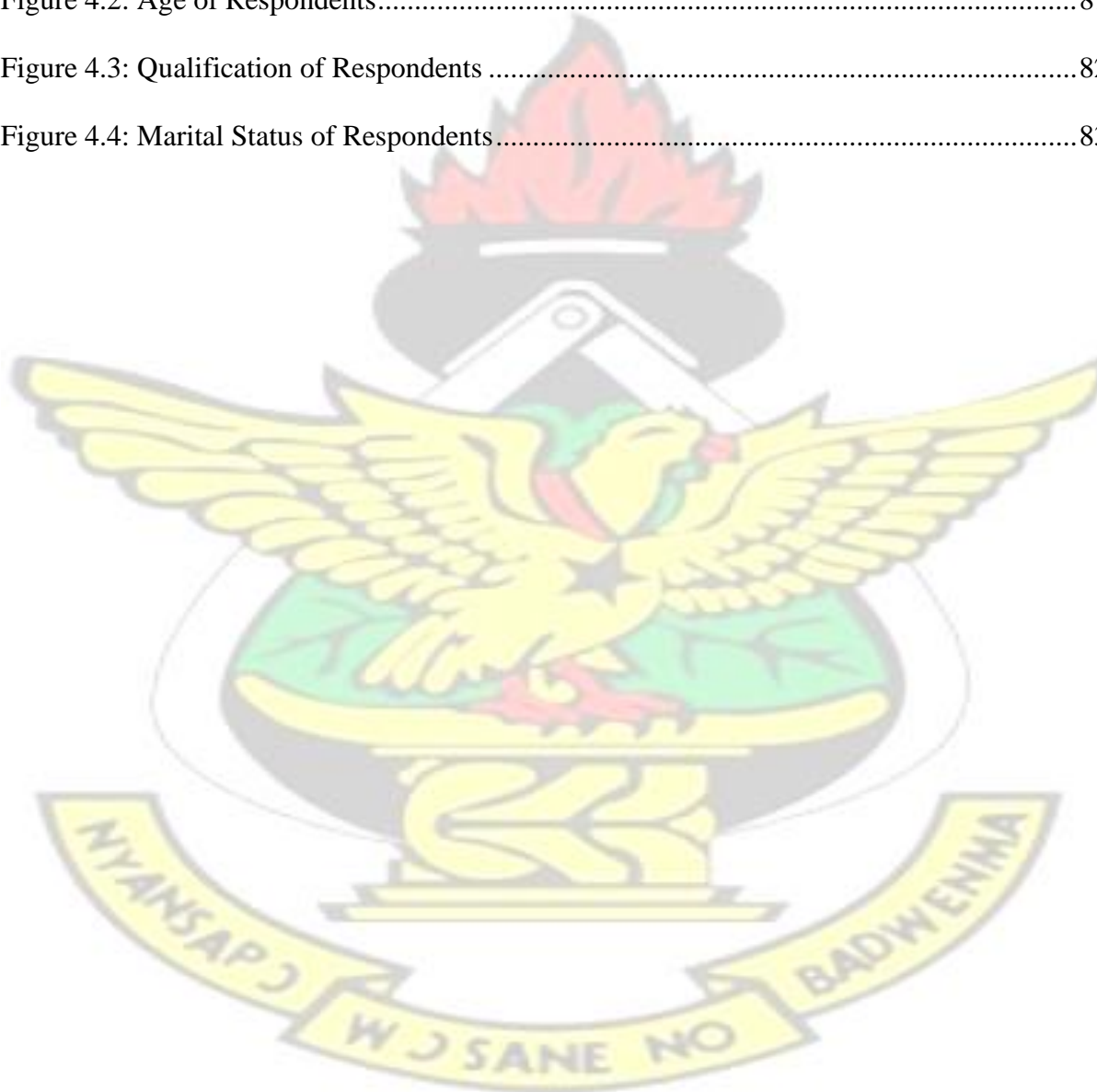
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Key Stakeholders in Procurement Planning and their Responsibilities in Public Sector Organizations	30
Table 2.1 Dimensions and Indicators Procurement Accountability	45
Table 3.1: Validity and Reliability Results	75
Table 4.1: Years of Service with the Ministry	84
Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Process	85
Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Practice.....	86
Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of Value of Procurement Planning.....	87
Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Accountability	88
Table 4.6: Pearson Correlation Analysis.....	89
Table 4.7: Model Summary	90
Table 4.8 Regression Results	91



LIST OF FIGURES

Fig 2.1The procurement context	22
Figure 2.2: conceptual framework of the study	31
Fig.4: procurement planning process	36
Figure 3.1 Map depicting Ashanti region with the position of Kumasi indicated	78
Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents.....	80
Figure 4.2: Age of Respondents.....	81
Figure 4.3: Qualification of Respondents	82
Figure 4.4: Marital Status of Respondents.....	83



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

Planning is the foundation for all management fields. It is a function that forms the foundation for the rest of the management functions (Hassim et al, 2011). When planning is properly conceived and implemented, it can serve as an important mechanism for extracting, distributing and allocating resources (James, 2004). Procurement has become one of the lead activities in the contemporary public administration. Extant literature (Kaaria, 2018; Leksono, 2020) suggests that approximately 70% of African countries annual budgets go into procurements of goods, services and public works. In Ghana, procurement planning and accountability has been articulated in the Public Procurement Act 2003 (Act 663) and the Amended Act 2016 (Act 914). These policies serve as guiding principles for procurement activities. Generally, planning enhances the gathering, evaluating and interpreting of foundation data and information in order to generate knowledge for good policy making in the public sector organizations. Procurement planning is the key function that sets the stage for procurement process.

It has been argued that planning is not concerned with future decision but rather with the future impact of decisions made today and thorough planning is critical as agencies are always facing budget constraints that cannot satisfy all capital acquisition needs (Drabkin& Thai, 2003 as cited in Basheka, 2008a).Public procurement entails the acquisition of materials, supplies and services of the right quality, in the right quantity, from the right source, at the right place, right time and at the right price in order to achieve the organization's objectives (Nyamai, 2018; Salim and Kitheka, 2019;Karanja, 2020; Awuah et al.,2022). Besides, procurement encompasses the entire business process, including ordering, delivery, storage and receiving processes in a company, and its main purpose is to improve the efficiency of the process.

Procurement planning calls for early involvement of the purchasing office so that options and alternatives can be explored with the requesting user. Issues such as purchase estimates, product specifications, make or buy decisions, and outsourcing opportunities may be very well being on the agenda (Mathews, 2005). At the end of the day, projects and procurements

should be well planned for reasons other than exposure or reputational risks; they should be well planned to ensure the establishment of complaint and effective contract mechanisms that will ensure provision of qualified, capable and professional results to departments (Deme, 2009). However, if this stage is not properly governed, it is difficult to meet all the requirements and objective of public sector procurement. Thus, this could cause high risk to procurement planning accountability. Planning allows an organization to link its procurement objectives and identify ways of improving its purchases to meet its future needs (New South Wales treasury, 2004) Procurement is a process of buying products or services beginning from getting requirement from user until receiving the product or services from the supplier (Eyaa&Oluka, 2011). The procurement process seeks to achieve the best product with the highest quality; however, it does not necessarily mean to buy with the lowest cost.

Companies often develop procurement plans to reduce costs, maintain efficiency and transparency. Before ordering, management must take appropriate steps to ensure that the needs of the organization are understood, that resources are used according to identified needs and wants, and that procurement is improved. Procurement planning improves resource management and helps reduce waste (Mikalef et al., 2013; Chirchiret et al., 2015; Tzempelikos, 2015; Anane et al., 2019).

In Ghana, an estimated 34% of the government expenditure takes place at the local government level (Agaba& Shipman, 2007). Proper planning for this huge expenditure is therefore an essential element of good procurement in Local Government systems of the country. The procurement objective is to provide quality goods and services through open and fair competition in the exact quantity and proper quality as specified; and has to be delivered at the time and place where needed. Therefore, to secure such goods and services at competitive prices requires accurate planning and involvement of a number of stakeholders.

In both developed and developing countries, local governments are instituted as channels of ensuring effective planning and accountability. The powers of local authorities differ from country to country but in all cases, the powers include the procurement of certain types of goods and services necessary for providing the services they are responsible for (Jones, 2007). Generally, in Africa public procurement is generally managed and its planning in particular takes place in an increasingly complex political, economic, social,

cultural and technological environments, Ghana's procurement management cannot be an exception (Basheka, 2008).

In Ghana, procurement planning is part and parcel of the traditional planning already familiar in local governments specifically, development planning and budgeting. The mandate for planning in local governments is derived from Regulation 62 of the Local governments (PPDA, 2006): user department to prepare an annual work plan for procurement based on the approved budget, which shall be submitted to the procurement and disposal unit to facilitate orderly execution of annual procurement activities. It is also stated that a procurement plan should be integrated into the annual sector expenditure program and that a procurement and disposal unit is required to use the combined work plan to plan, organize, forecast and schedule the procuring and disposing entity's procurement activities annually. The combined work plan for the procuring and disposing entity will include details of activities of works, services or supplies to be procured; a schedule of procurement requirements in order of priority; a statement of required resources supported by a schedule of the projected funding; a plan of the likely method of procurement for each requirement and the likely time required for each stage in the procurement cycle. The procurement plan states that all government agencies, ministries and department are to prepare their annual procurement plan to be submitted to public procurement authority for approval. Procurement is one of the core functions critical for achieving this objective in all local governments and it has to be planned under this constitutional mandate (Basheka, 2008).

The literature on decentralization and local governance has long ignored the essential contribution of effective public procurement systems in ensuring effective service delivery, transparency, accountability, efficiency and effectiveness in local government management. The main objective of this study is to help fill this gap by focusing on procurement planning in relation to provision of effective delivery of goods and identify the key elements of procurement planning critical for effective procurement accountability. Whereas the management of public procurement may range from planning to its monitoring, this paper concentrated on the planning stages of procurement and its effects on procurement accountability in public sector organizations taking evidence from the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Ghana.

Procurement planning represents an important tool within municipal budget activities. Without an effective procurement planning process, municipalities often experience huge challenges towards determining what to buy, when, where and how. Municipalities often experience procurement planning related challenges with the blame leveled against a procurement planning process. The purpose of this study is to explore the current procurement planning process following indications that the ministry was experiencing serious procurement planning challenges. The study does make efforts to draw procurement plans which are not formally implemented. Failure to formally implement the procurement plans can lead to non-compliance, and unauthorized, irregular, wasteful expenditure. A similar study in other district municipalities is recommended, and further, there is need to conduct a repeat of the same study to assess improvements or deteriorations of the procurement planning process.

According to Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) procurement refers to the process whereby organizations buy goods and services from various suppliers. The goods would range from indirect goods such as stationery, equipment and machinery to direct goods such as manufacturing products. Procurement also involves the buying of temporary labour, energy, and vehicle leases to support work activities. Procurement thus, plays an integral part in an organization's overall strategy for reducing costs through discount negotiations. Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) reiterates that procurement always negotiates for discounts thereby saving a lot of money. According to Lysons and Farrington (2006) buyers ought to have an in-depth knowledge about the services and goods to be procured. It is equally essential that they must also be able to plan and oversee the entire procurement strategies that are conducive to organization profitability. According to Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) procurement refers to the process in which companies order goods and services from various suppliers outside the organisation. The standard Institute of Procurement Management (ISM) defines procurement as "the process of buying: learning the need, locating and selecting a supplier, negotiating price and other pertinent terms, and following up to ensure delivery.

1.1 Basic Objectives of the Procurement Function

In every organisation including government agencies, ministries and departments, the respective procurement units or departments must have clear objectives. Objectives help guide the entire procurement function. According to Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011)

objectives may vary from organisation to organisation. However, the following represents the most common objectives for a municipal organization's procuring unit:

- To improve the organization's competitive position
- To support the firm's operations with an uninterrupted flow of materials and services
- To buy competitively and wisely (achieve the best combination of price, quality and service)
- To minimise inventory investment and loss
- To develop reliable and effective supply sources
- To develop and maintain healthy relations with active suppliers and the supplier community
- To achieve maximum integration with other departments, while achieving and maintaining effective working relationships with them
- To take advantage of standardisation and simplification
- To keep up with market trends
- To train, develop and motivate professionally competent personnel
- To avoid duplication, waste, and obsolescence
- To analyse and report on long-range availability and costs of major purchased items
- To continually search for new and alternative ideas, products, and materials to improve efficiency and profitability; and
- To administer the procurement and supply management function proactively, ethically, and efficiently.

The procurement management policy within the Municipal Finance Management Act shows that procurement departments could save significant sums of money by developing standard procurement procedures that enable them to spend more valuable time on "non-routine" activities such as cost/value analysis, supplier development, and concurrent engineering. According to Sánchez-Rodríguez *et al.* (2006) standard procedures have the following features:

- They represent the best, easiest, and safest way to do an activity.
- They provide a method for managing knowledge through the preservation of "know how" and expertise.
- They can be used as a reference to evaluate performance.
- They provide a basis for both maintenance and improvement activities and

- They provide a basis for training, auditing, and diagnosis.

The use of standard procurement procedures should reduce the possibility of errors and ease the tasks involved in identifying the root causes of a problem in the procurement process. Once a problem has been fully identified, corrective action can be quickly implemented and the procedures may be rewritten to eliminate the problem. Within a municipal entity, the procurement department does not exist in isolation. Sánchez-Rodríguez *et al.* (2006) highlights that the procurement unit/department ought to co-exist and synergize with, in order to augment the administrative and managerial system with the organisation.

1.2 The Strategic Importance of Procurement

The strategic importance of procurement refers to the extent to which procurement thrives to meet organizational objectives. Indeed, procurement does play a strategic role, argues (Sánchez-Rodríguez *et al.*, 2006). In most cases no organisation, inclusive of the municipality, would achieve its objectives without goods and services. The goods and services must be timely procured and should be of the required quality. Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010) highlights that efficient procurement contributes immensely to the overall profitability and prosperity of an organisation in two major areas. Firstly, through reductions in operating costs - for example by buying materials at lower prices, comparisons of prices and other financial “terms” (for example discounts and periods of credit offered) and negotiations with new and existing suppliers. Secondly, savings through wise procurement creates profit for an organisation. For example, by buying materials of better quality and/or reliability without a corresponding increase in the costs. This might not at first sight appear to have the same “direct” and evident effect on profits as the first area we have described. But increased quality and reliability can result in fewer defects in products and rejects after processing, and so there will be fewer complaints by customers. Increased quality and reliability leads to increased “customer satisfaction”; which in turn leads to increased sales, which – without a corresponding increase in costs - results in higher profits being made. Reductions in costs - which might be “passed on” to customers in the form of lower prices and the increased quality/reliability of its products, give an organisation an “edge” over competitors, resulting in increased sales. Senior management of many organisations today have an increased awareness of the strategic importance of the procurement function to business profitability and prosperity. In today’s competitive and constantly changing

business world, it is no longer feasible to simply buy for the “needs of the moment”. Today, both long-term, strategic forecasting and planning are vital - and the identification of the current and the probable future needs of an organisation, and the potential suppliers of those needs - is essential. The fulfilment of those goals requires the procurement function to work effectively within and as part of the management team of the organisation. A procurement process is a set of activities that have a beginning and an end, occur in a specific sequence, and have inputs and outputs. A robust procurement management process must have structure and discipline. The basic procurement management process must be understood first, and then opportunities can be identified for technology applications to increase efficiency. The supply management process has a series of distinctive steps.

1.3. The Procurement Process

According to Sánchez-Rodríguez *et al.* (2006) standard procedures have the following features:

- They represent the best, easiest, and safest way to do an activity.
- They provide a method for managing knowledge through the preservation of “know how” and expertise.
- They can be used as a reference to evaluate performance.
- They provide a basis for both maintenance and improvement activities; and
- They provide a basis for training, auditing, and diagnosis.

The use of standard procurement procedures should reduce the possibility of errors and ease the tasks involved in identifying the root causes of a problem in the procurement process. Once a problem has been fully identified, corrective action can be quickly implemented and the procedures may be rewritten to eliminate the problem. Various procurement activities are performed for each procurement transaction. The literature indicates variations in the general steps required in the process. The procurement planning process has a series of distinctive steps with activities commencing once the need for procurement is identified and end when the transaction is completed. There are in total 9 consecutive steps intertwined in 4 major stages that explain the procurement planning process within local government. The steps are regarded as either inputs or outputs towards the attainment of a milestone within the procurement process with each step playing a key role.

Recognition of the Need: This is regarded as the first stage of the procurement process as it originates with the recognition of a definite need by someone or some system in the organisation. Recognition of the need to procure is a responsibility of the user departments. At the municipality, the respective departments, in view of their needs, will always recognize the need to procure with or without funds available.

Description of the Need: Harrison and Van Hoek (2014) highlights that the procurer needs to know exactly what the internal customers want. Thus, they ought to have an accurate description of the need, the article, the commodity, or the service requested is essential. The procurement planning personnel and user share responsibility for an accurate description (Pienaar and Vogt, 2012). Wisner *et al.* (2012) provides three common types of requisitions which include a standard requisition which contains information such as Date, Number (identification), originating department, account to be charged, complete description of material or service desired and quantity, date material or service needed, any special shipping or service, delivery instructions and signature of authorized requester. The municipality procurement unit is regrettably predominantly manned by clerical and procurement administrative staff who lack technical expertise.

Identification and Analysis of Possible Sources of Procurement: Coyle *et al.* (2008) argue that the supplier identification and selection forms a critical component of the organization's procurement function. Handfield *et al.* (2010) notes that the identification involves locating sources of procurement followed by an assessment of the probability that the agreement to procure would result in on time delivery of a satisfactory product and services before and after the sale. According to Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010) once the procurer has identified potential suppliers, the next step would be to formally request that the suppliers provide information about their goods or services.

Request for Quotation (RFQ): Handfield *et al.* (2010) reiterates that an RFQ is issued in situations where the procurer and internal user can clearly and unambiguously describe the need for instance using a grade of material. The RFQ will then bring the comparison to one of price. Standard inquiry forms are prepared, checked, signed, and mailed, faxed, or electronically transmitted to potential suppliers. When quotations are received, they will be entered on a quotation sheet, and then the procurer will select an appropriate supplier. Unfortunately, at the municipality the procurement process is often effected by corrupt tendencies where the buyer skips some of the critical activities.

Request for Proposal (RFP): According to Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) RFP includes a detailed package describing the needs of the buying organisation and providing potential suppliers with the opportunity to propose solutions to meet the requirements. RFP is more appropriate when the procurer has more complex requirements and wants to draw on the supplier's expertise and if the procurer is planning to use negotiation as the tool for determining price and terms. Tendering is a noble process that enables an effective selection of supplies provided the process is done professionally and ethically. However public sector organizations that include local government agencies are subject to tendering irregularities which may affect effective procurement.

Supplier Selection: Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) highlights that supplier selection involves an analysis of the quotes, bids, or proposals and the selection of the supplier prior to leading to the order placement which uses tools such as simple bid analysis to complex negotiations.

Preparation and Placement of an Order: Placing an order usually involves the preparation of a procurement order form. In some situations, the supplier's sales agreement or a release against a blanket order is used. It is advisable to use written or computer generated orders at all times.

Follow up of the Order: After an order is issued to the supplier, the procurer may wish to follow-up or expedite the order. In some firms, procurement has full-time follow-up and expediting personnel. According to Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010) an order follow up represents a routine tracking of an order with an overall view to ensure that the supplier meets the promised delivery dates, quality and specifications. Thus, the follow up requires frequent inquiries of the supplier on progress and possibly a visit to the supplier's facility, this will usually be done only on critical large-rand value, and/or long lead-time. It may be done by phone or use of a follow-up form.

Receipting and Inception of Goods: The proper receipt of materials and other items are of vital importance. The prime purposes of receiving are to confirm that the order placed has actually arrived, check that the shipment arrived in good condition, ensure that the quantity ordered has been received, forward the shipment to its proper next destination, be it storage, inspection, or use, and to finally ensure that proper documentation of the receipt is registered and forwarded to the appropriate user department. In public municipalities that includes this

municipality, the procurement process has a control element that includes checks and balances to ensure that the practice of procurement is done above board. For instance, when goods or services arrive or start, there should be a system in place to acknowledge the receipt of the transaction.

Invoice Clearing and Payment: The invoice constitutes a claim against the procurer and needs to be handled with care. Invoices are commonly requested in duplicate and must show an order number and itemized price for each article invoiced. Procedures relating to invoice clearance are not uniform. The task of checking or approval of invoices is a critical procurement function. After checking and adjusting any necessary corrections, the original invoice is forwarded to accounting for payment. The duplicate invoice is retained by procurement department.

Quality: According to Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010) the quality of the products or services procured is a reflection of an effective procurement planning process as it leads to fewer operational interruptions and better working conditions, the quality of the final output of the organisation, better customer service and satisfaction, and eventually the competitive advantage of the organisation. Quality products or services influence the productivity of the organisation due to fewer operational interruptions and better working conditions.

Price and Cost of Goods and Services: Brahim *et al.* (2015) argue that price and costs of goods and services procured impact on the organization's performance. The determination of the cost structure of a supplier can be a lengthy process as it requires an understanding of a supplier's material costs as well as manufacturing costs and overheads. A careful cost analysis prepares a sound platform for any future price negotiations with a supplier. When suppliers achieve a higher productivity thereby reducing costs, they are in a position to offer lower prices than their competitors. Lower input costs for the procuring organisation could enable them to reduce prices, remain competitive, or increase market share. The determination of the cost structure of a supplier can be a lengthy process as it requires an understanding of a supplier's material costs, as well as manufacturing costs and overheads. A careful cost analysis prepares a sound platform for any future price negotiations with a supplier.

Delivery: As organizations move to reduce costs, there is always pressure to reduce inventories, and suppliers are often required to make smaller and more frequent deliveries

Brahim *et al.* (2015). Late delivery of the product or late performance of the service can have severe repercussions in some organizations.

Time: Organization's seek time reduction, with the aim of fulfilling the customer demand as quickly as possible in order to obtain a competitive advantage. Suppliers should be actively involved in analyzing and reducing cycle times (for example, single business processes or the entire order/replenishment process) (Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss, 2011).

Flexibility: Flexibility becomes significantly important, particularly when a supplier must be selected for an integrated procurement chain. The critical issue is, how quick a potential supplier can adapt to changing business conditions, different needs and developing new products or services.

Service: The procurement process should select suppliers that are capable of providing an effective, efficient service. To achieve this, they should select suppliers capable of proving effective service aspects of customer service, including the quick resolution of claims and complaints, providing early warning of any changes in delivery or disruptions in the procurement chain and giving a rapid response to customer queries from well-trained staff. Service would also include the supplier's attitude to managing the customer's inventory, Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010).

Financial Status and Risk Management: It is important to determine the financial health or condition of a possible supplier. Procuring from those who are financially sound reduces risk. It is unwise to select a supplier who is in difficult financial straits because of the increased likelihood of an interruption in the procurement of a product or the performance of a service (Kakwezi and Nyeko, 2010). Determining the financial status and risk assessments are the most important criterion for the initial screening of all possible suppliers and for the elimination of those suppliers that are considered to be at risk now or in the foreseeable future.

Supplier Selection Process: After the establishment of the selection criteria, the selection process moves on to the selection of a specific supplier or suppliers. This entails the search and identification of possible suppliers, the elimination of unsuitable suppliers, and the in-depth study and ensuing evaluation of shortlisted suppliers against the key criteria, which culminates in the selection of a supplier. Many organisations follow this up sometime later with a post-assessment (for example, through performance measurement) of the selected

suppliers in order to ascertain whether the supplier warrants a preferred supplier or certified supplier status. This is often carried out by formal supplier accreditation. Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss (2011) describe a three stage supplier selection process as follows:

- The exploratory stage (pre-evaluation phase)
- The selection stage (evaluation phase)
- The supplier management/ maintenance stage (post-evaluation phase)

These stages contain various steps and seven steps make up the supplier selection process. The exploratory stage refers to the identification of possible suppliers and a pre-screening to reject unsuitable ones with the purpose of creating a pool of potentially suitable suppliers (Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss, 2011). The evaluation stage includes in-depth research on potentially suitable suppliers. The depth of the investigation and the criteria used can vary widely depending on the product or service being procured. The supplier management stage comes after evaluation, selection, and approval of suppliers (Hugo and Badenhorst-Weiss, 2011). Supplier performance measurement can be done using the weighted point evaluation method together with a rating sheet. Many organisations base their on-going measurements on quality, cost reduction, on-time deliveries, technology and service.

1.4 Problem Statement

Procurement planning is at the core of modern business practices. Low level of efficiency, effectiveness and performance in an organization's procurement practices could be linked to the procurement planning processes (Doz et al, 2016). The sustainability, survival and growth of organizations are dependent on the quality of procurement planning. Most of the organizations are dependent on the quality of procurement planning. Most of the organizations struggle to identify and prioritize their needs (Carr et al, 2019). The planning procedure is participatory but majority of the organizations have made it an exclusive reserve of selected people (Cox & Lam ming, 2017). This has decreased transparency and the efficacy of the procurement process. All the functional areas in an organization should participate directly or indirectly in the procurement planning processes to have an all-encompassing overview of the needs of the organization (Cruz & Murphy, 2019). There is little or no adherence to a procurement plan since subjectivity takes the centre stage of the entire process.

The timing of procurement processes affects several key processes in the procurement functions. Public organizations fail to submit their procurement plans on time and with their price variation (Narasimhan, 2020). Most organizations especially in the developing countries are changing their procurement procedure with the context of the procurement functions, process and the structure of the organization (Drezner, 2020). Usually, poor procurement performance and corruption have been tagged to public organizations procurement planning processes (Ellram, 2019). The poor procurement performance of the public organizations is as a result of poor planning, staff competence, resource allocation, fairness and poor contract management (Prahala, 2019). This has resulted in low quality of goods and services, low level of competitiveness, high level of operational cost, inability to sustain productivity and high budget deficit (Corey, 2018).

The public organizations who are the buyers often times do not check the validity and accuracy of supplier's information in the procurement practices since there is an established information flow and an established relationship (Behara, 2016). Most public entities are often subjective in their procurement practices and do not follow the policies and regulations. This has affected the general performance of the organizations and the country at large (Spekman, 2019). Organizations should not be limited to the financial output as the only yardstick to measure performance but also consider other important aspects such as quality of goods and services, competency, delivery and satisfaction (Carr&Smeltzer, 2020). There is evidence of limited literature in the underpinned research topic.

1.1.1 Research Objectives

1.1.2 General Research Objective

The aim of the study is to evaluate procurement planning and its effects on procurement accountability in public sector organizations, taking evidence from the Ministry of Food Agriculture, Ghana.

1.1.3 Specific Research Objectives

The specific research objectives are:

1. To establish the contribution of procurement planning on procurement accountability.

2. To examine the procurement planning practices that contributes to effective procurement accountability.
3. To examine the value of procurement planning on procurement accountability.

1.1.4 Research Questions

The specific research questions that were asked included the following:

1. Can procurement planning process contribute to effective procurement accountability in public sector organization procurement systems?
2. How does a procurement planning practices contribute to effective procurement accountability?
3. How does the value of procurement planning affect procurement accountability?

1.1.5 Significance of the Study

The study generated knowledge that connects procurement planning and procurement accountability, and this will guide Policy makers in the planning for the effective implementation of public procurement in order to achieve its intended goals. The study is helpful to all academicians in procurement, management and other fields in the furtherance of their studies in form of future research and in the operations at their workplaces, and the study has contributed to the existing literature in the field of procurement.

While this study may be of value to any person interested in procuring goods and services in the Ghanaian public sector, it is hoped that the findings are beneficial to the Government and policy makers such as PPDA and the local government as it gives insight on the relationship between procurement planning and procurement accountability.

The study helped the researcher to acquire knowledge and understand the techniques of conducting research.

1.2 Scope of the Study

1.2.1 Subject Scope

The study is focused on procurement planning and procurement accountability in local government system in Ghana. Three dimensions of process, practice and value were

studied under procurement planning and three dimensions of quality, timeliness, efficiency and effectiveness were looked at under procurement accountability.

1.2.2 Geographical Scope

The study is structured into contextual scope, geographical scope and time scope. Contextually the study is limited to evaluating the effect of procurement planning and its effects on procurement accountability. The geographic scope is limited to some selected public agencies in the Kumasi metropolis of Ghana. Finally, the study uses a cross sectional descriptive design.

1.2.3 Time scope

The study covered procurement program implemented between 2006 and 2018. The period under study coincided with the introduction of the Local government amendment act 2005 and the enactment of the Local Government procurement regulations 2006 to guide the procurement of goods and supplies in a decentralized system in order to improve on procurement accountability.

1.2.4 Organization of the Study

The study will be organized into five chapters: Chapter one will include the study background, research problem, research objectives and questions, study significance, study limitation, and delimitation. Chapter two will document the theoretical background, the empirical literature on macroeconomic factors and bank performance, literature summary, research gaps, and the conceptual framework. Chapter three will include the research methodology, design, empirical model, sample population, sampling technique, data collection instruments, data analysis, and presentation. Chapter four will entail the results and analysis, while chapter five will include the research summary and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This section presents a basic survey of public procurement framework in Ghana, theoretical and empirical data in existing literature on both the independent variable which is procurement planning and the dependent variable which is procurement accountability under study. Information in this chapter was guided by the research question.

2.1 Theoretical framework

According to Mentzer et al (2008), a good research ought to be grounded in theory. This section explores the theory that was used to support the conceptual model developed in the previous chapter.

2.1.1 The Agency theory

The Agency Theory is the theoretical foundation upon which this study is built.

Agency theory commonly referred to as the Principal-Agent theory is an agency model developed by economists that deals with situations in which the principal is in position to induce the agent, to perform some task in the principal's interest, but not necessarily the agent's (Health and Norman, 2004) as cited by Sang & Mugambi, (2014). This theory explains that procurement managers and all civil servant concerned with public procurement in the public sector play a relationship role. In this research context, the public through the elected councillors are the principals on behalf of the citizens, while the district & municipal council employees are the agents. Several studies have contributed to the body of knowledge on agent theory (Banerjee et al., 2012; Eisenhardt, 1989; and Rokkan and Buvik, 2003). All these contributions share a common theme: the relationship between a principal and an agent.

Classical principal-agent theory is built on the assumption of the agent as a self-seeker. If the agent's goal differs from those of the principal and it is difficult or expensive for the principal to know everything the agent knows, then the agent will take advantage of the

situation to maximize his own utility. In conformity Trepte (2005) as quoted by Obanda (2010) opines that, the procurement agent is able to exploit his position and discretion given to him because he possesses greater information than his government principal on the products to be procured, the tenders offering to supply and the markets themselves. His ability to use or to conceal information enables him to act on his own benefit. To realign the interests of the agent with those of the principal, the government needs a method of administrative control, generally in the form of procurement regulation, which provides incentives for compliance, such as on how procurement planning should be conducted, procedures and steps.

The Agent Theory is concerned with the situation that arises when one person or entity (referred to as the agent) acts on behalf of another (called the principal). The principal hires the agent to perform certain services on his or her behalf. These contracts necessitate the agent exerting effort and making decisions. With this relationship, the principal appoints an agent to act and make decisions on his or her behalf (Bergen et al., 1992). This Relationship works well when the agent is an expert at making the necessary decisions, but it does not work well when the principal's and agent's interests are significantly different. Sang & Mugambi, (2014) quoting from Soundry (2007) identifies this principal agent relationship among the possible risks whereby procurement managers show apathy towards principal preferred outcomes or even overriding of the principal's preferences thus resulting into noncompliance which eventually affects procurement accountability.

This theory constituted the road maps that guide this research from the formulation of research questions, through formulation of questionnaire, and data analysis and interpretation to the conclusions.

2.1.2 Empirical Literature Review

This section reviews literature on empirical research conducted in the area under research, specifically on evaluating procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement in public sector organizations.

Sakib (2022) asserts that "Procurement offices and their employees shall be held liable if their practices violate the rules and regulations outlined in the Procurement Act, the entity and management shall not use their own discretion in the procurement process but rather strictly adhere to the procurement law of the land. According to this Sakib (2022), the

procurement units in the various senior high schools, including Agogo Senior High School, is required to follow the rules and processes involved in the procurement of goods and services.

Akaninyene and Mark (2015) studied the effects of ethics and integrity on good public procurement in Nigeria. Their study utilized mainly primary data in the form of structured questionnaire solicited to 82 employees of Bureau for Public Procurement in Nigeria. The results of their study revealed accountability, ethics and transparency in the Nigerian procurement process. The study further recommended impartiality and fairness to be enshrined in the Nigerian Procurement Process.

Neupane, Soar and Vaidya (2014) conducted an empirical evaluation of the potential of public procurement to reduce corruption. The research was guided by the Agency Theory and collected the perceptions of 46 government officials of the potential e-procurement to reduce corruption in public procurement process. Using Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling, the study found that intent-to-adopt e-procurement has a significant positive impact on transparency and accountability, information asymmetry and monopoly power. The findings of this study is congruent with the studies carried out by Carayannis and Popescu (2005) and Kim, Kim and Lee (2009).

Boatema-Yeboah and Tamakloe (2019) investigated the challenges of public procurement in Ghana's Kwahu West Municipal Assembly. The study, which used a qualitative research design, showed that the Kwahu West Municipal Assembly's procurement process is not without difficulties and acknowledged that there are internal and external factors that affect procurement practitioners' ability to successfully accomplish the objectives of the procurement process, which essentially aim to achieve value for money on every cedi spent in acquisition, delivery of projects, and services. Professionalism, bureaucracy, political interference, and corruption were identified as significant challenges in the study. The researchers then recommend that community members use social accountability tools such as public expenditure tracking surveys, planning, and participatory budgeting to ensure procurement stakeholders become transparent and accountable in terms of monies spent and timely delivery of projects and services.

To achieve the desired goal, all public entities must have an adequate procurement system in place, operate it, and increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the use of state funds.

Yornu (2020) looked at the effectiveness of procurement systems in achieving quality of service in the public sector. The purpose of this study was to examine the elements that support effective procurement systems and to identify obstacles that stand in the way of developing such systems in order to provide services of exceptional quality. Despite the fact that the results showed that the application of procurement principles was, to a certain extent, satisfactory, it was discovered that the entire procurement operation did not produce value for money, which should be of great concern to the government, institutions, procurement practitioners, donors, and other stakeholders. The most common, preferred, and in some cases most effective procurement methods are centralized. Similarly, Similarly, using the TQM model, Dadzie, Kumadey, and Djaba (2021) evaluated the effectiveness of procurement systems in achieving quality service in a few public institutions in Ghana. The results showed that internal procurement structures are in place at all of the study's chosen institutions. The findings also indicated that while some of the procurement principles were successfully applied and achieved, the process did not result in good value for money.

AduSarfo (2011) sought to determine the effectiveness of the Public Procurement Act, the reasons behind delays in the procurement process, and the Procurement Act's effects on government spending. Geographically, the Ashanti Region was the study's main focus because there were many protests there against the lack of transparency in procurement processes and the protracted delays in paying contractors and suppliers. To explain and analyse the causal relationship between the Public Procurement Act and public financial management in Ashanti Region, an explanatory research design was used. The study found that procurement activities and procedures were transparent in the sense that decisions on procurement activities followed the Act's rules and regulations, and these decisions were available to the public. The study found that contractors were not paid on time after contract execution, which impacted their organizational management. It was concluded that the Procurement Act significantly reduced government expenditure in the sense that it reduced wastage and leakage of financial resources through effective auditing, expenditure monitoring, cost effectiveness, and competition, resulting in value for money.

Kaimbwa (2018) conducted a benchmarking exercise on accountability of local government authorities in public procurement in Tanzania. The essence of the study was to present the applicability of a benchmarking model as an instrument for improving accountability of procuring entities such as LGA's in procurement practices. The study acknowledged that the benchmarking model is a tool that can be used to improve LGA accountability in public

procurement practices. The case study reveals that monitoring compliance may benefit greatly from the methodological approach of benchmarking based on the scale of LGA purchases.

The benchmark assessment used in this case study provides a collective tool for local governments in developing countries to measure, compare, and learn how to improve public procurement practices. The model allows public procurement entities, such as LGAs, to learn from the performance and improvement of their peers.

Agaba, Basheka, and Mwesigwa (2010) conducted research on procurement planning as a tool for improved accountability in United Nations Development Program projects in Uganda. The study's objectives focused on the impact of procurement planning on accountability (administrative, financial, and managerial), as well as how institutional factors affected this relationship in a moderating way. It was discovered that the lackluster state of planning threatened and hurt managerial, administrative, and financial accountability. Additionally, it was found that institutional factors, such as internal organizational weaknesses, political sway, and donor pressure, were typically negatively correlated with project accountability and resource utilization. In conclusion, procurement planning and both financial and administrative accountability had a strong and statistically significant relationship with administrative and financial accountability. Managerial accountability was only weakly related to procurement planning, and institutional factors posed a threat to accountability and fund utilization.

2.1.2 Definition and Principles of Procurement

According to Lyson (1996), organizational procurement is the function responsible for acquiring equipment, materials, supplies, and services required by an undertaking for use in satisfying wants through purchase, lease, or other legal means. The overall procurement task is defined as obtaining materials, goods, and services of the right quality, quantity, and price from the right source and delivering them to the right place, at the right time, and at the right price in order to achieve an organizational goal. Public Procurement, according to the Public Procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663), is 'the acquisition of goods, works and services at the best possible total cost of ownership, in the right quantity and quality, at the right time, in the right place for the direct benefit or use of governments, corporations, or individuals, generally via a contract'. Again, according to Ghana Integrity Initiative (2020), public

procurement is the purchasing of goods and services for the direct benefit or use of governments, organizations, or individuals at the lowest possible total cost of ownership, in the right quantity and quality, at the right time, in the right place, typically through a contract. The main goals of procurement are to provide the organization with a steady supply of goods and services to meet its needs, to purchase effectively and wisely, to obtain the best value for every dollar spent using moral means, to manage inventory so as to provide the best service to customers at the lowest cost, and to safeguard the government's cost structure (Aliu, 2020)). There are numerous competing interests within the complex structure of public procurement (Kiawa, 2012). This necessitates the adoption of solid procurement norms and principles in order to boost public confidence in the processes used and guarantee the fair and equal treatment of everyone involved in the procurement system. According to Sinaga et al. (2021), good procurement is grounded on the following principles:

- **Efficiency and Effectiveness:** All procurement functions should strive for the best quantity and quality at the lowest possible cost.
- **Ethical approach:** All procedures that can result in a potential conflict of interest should not be used in the procurement process.
- **Competitiveness:** The procurement procedure should guarantee some level of competition between the competing parties.
- **Transparency:** In order to prevent giving competitive bidders an advantage over other bidders, the procurement process should be transparent enough.
- **Fairness:** Every procurement should strive for fairness and ensure that all interested bidders have an equal chance to submit a bid.
- **Value for Money:** This principle is critical for determining the effectiveness of the procurement process (inputs and outcomes). It is the best method for determining the total cost of ownership and the quality of procurement that meets users' expectations or needs.

Value for money is expected of organizations for all items procured or in their procurement processes.

These principles are consistent with the World Bank's procurement policies, and every procurement must follow these guidelines. Any procurement that does not adhere to these principles and objectives is not a good procurement and is not in the best interests of the

nation, as all forms of procurement adhere to these principles (Chepkesis, Keitany and Kiplel, 2018).

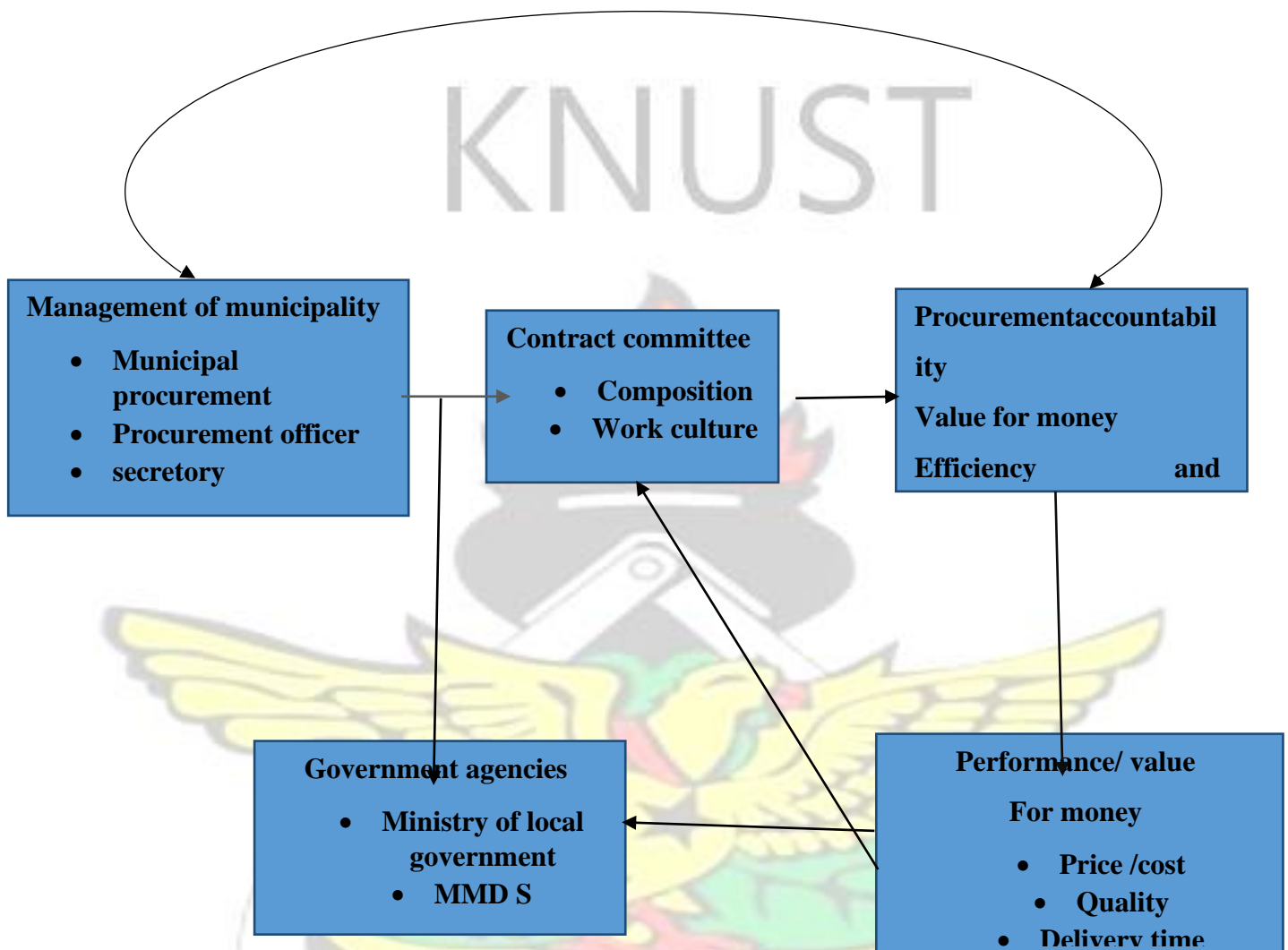


Fig 2.1The procurement context

Source: Obanda, (2010).

From the schematic diagram above, the public sector organizations affect procurement and overall delivery of services. On the other hand, the procurement officer shall, according to the public procurement act 2006 as amended coordinate the procurement processes in all public sector organizations and among other functions with public procurement authority the procurement authority regulates the efficiency and effectiveness of procurement accountability in the public sector organizations in Ghana.

The Contracts Committee is the intervening entity in as far as the schematic diagram of procurement management in the public sector organization is concerned. For example, according to the Public Procurement Act, 2006 94A (1), as amended A municipal council shall establish a municipal Contracts Committee to serve the municipality. In addition, as a consequence of an amendment of section 24 of the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Act, 2003 the Tender Boards are substituted with Contracts Committees.

Also a procurement and disposal unit as a new structure is provided for. Hence, whereas the management of the Municipality is mandated to ensure accountability and effective planning within its area of jurisdiction, the specific role of supplier selection and award of tenders is the preserve of the Contracts Committee. The PDU is synonymous with the procurement department. It is mandated to serve both the internal and external customers in the local government.

Government agencies act as oversight bodies and are the moderating variable. They moderate the relationship between the local government management and the Contracts Committees impacting on procurement accountability. With the passing of the PPDA Act (2003), the Local Government (Amendment) Act (No.2) 2006 and the supporting Local Government (Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets) Regulations (No.39) (2006), local governments in Ghana are mandated to comply with the policies, rules, regulations and practices stipulated therein. Compliance is enforced through the audit function of the PPDA. Hence it is expected that enhanced supervision of the procurement practices of the Contracts Committee & PDUs in public sector organisations in Ghana by the PPDA will ensure consistency in accountability and delivery of value for money services. Further, the Local Government Act, 1997, section 96 mandates the Ministry of Local Government with the coordination of and advocacy for Local governments.

Local Governments Amendment Act, 2005 Section 55 1(a) provides for the appointment and disciplinary control of Accounting officers by the Public Service Commission. Hence, tactical procurement in the local governments is moderated by a number of Government agencies for which none could be said to be directly responsible. Procurement Accountability is the dependent variable, that is, the output in the study context. It is dependent on the management of the local government procurement system (procurement planning). The services, that is, the procured works, goods and services are evaluated in terms of quality, price/cost and the delivery time by the various stakeholders who include the end users, public/clients (individually or in groups) who are the intended beneficiaries

and suppliers. An effective public procurement planning system will allow suppliers to provide satisfactory quality, service and price within a timely delivery schedule. The basic tenet of public procurement is to acquire the right item at the right time, and at the right price, to support government actions (Obanda, 2010). The context above shows the manner in which procurement is conducted in the Public sector organisations in Ghana. It provides the logical description of the interrelationships of the entity (local government) in the study.

2.1.3 Procurement planning

Planning both as a concept and function is probably one of the extensively talked about concepts in the management literature. It is a function that forms the foundation for the rest of management functions (Hassim et al, 2011). Planning is the foundation for all management fields. When planning is properly conceived and implemented, it can serve as an important mechanism for extracting, distributing and allocating resources (James, 2004). Planning generally enhances the gathering, evaluating and interpreting of essential data and information in order to produce knowledge relevant to good policy making. In management literature planning implies that managers think through their goals and actions in advance and that their actions are based on some method, plan or logic rather than on a hunch (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 1995).

The planning function encompasses defining an organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals, and developing a comprehensive hierarchy of plans to integrate and coordinate the activities (Robbins, 2001). While it has also been argued that, planning is not concerned with future decisions but rather with the future impact of decisions made today and true planning is critical as agencies are always facing budget constraints that cannot satisfy all capital acquisition needs (Drabkin & Thai, 2003).

In both developed and developing countries, local governments are instituted as channels of ensuring effective accountability and delivery through the procurement of certain types of goods and services (Jones, 2007). At every stage of public procurement, there are risks of integrity which all concern the function of procurement planning, and should local government's procurement system fail to manage these risks, accountability and eventual service delivery is seriously threatened (Basheka, 2008). According to PMBoK (2004) as

cited in Hassim et al, (2011), procurement planning involves determining whether to acquire outside support, if so what to acquire, how to acquire it, how much is needed, and when to acquire it, while Mullins (2003) has argued that, procurement planning is the process of determining the procurement needs of an entity and the timing of their acquisition and their funding such that the entities operations are met as required in an efficient way.

According to Agaba and Shipman, (2007), procurement planning is the process used by companies or public institutions to plan purchasing activity for a specific period of time. This is commonly completed during the budgeting process. Each year, departments are required to budget for staff, expenses, and purchases. This is the first step in the procurement planning process. Economic commission of Africa (2003) defines procurement planning as the purchasing function through which organization obtain products and services from external suppliers. Procurement Planning is seen to be important, and even more so in large and complex, multiyear and/or multi-million dollar requirements, where people will change over time or requirements will evolve and where risk and scrutiny increases (Kovacs, 2004). Procurement Planning is supported and encouraged by project management experts and government departments because the procurement/resulting contract can lead to dissatisfaction and time consuming detours when it is not done; and its absence is usually the causal factor identified when auditing the entrails as to what went wrong in the procurement process and government departments (Agaba and Shipman, 2007).

According to Mullins (2003), procurement planning is a process of determining the procurement needs of an entity and the timing of their acquisition and their funding such that the entities operations are met as required in an efficient way. As a function, procurement planning endeavour's to answer the following questions: (a) what do you want to procure? (b) When do you want to procure it? (c) When are you to procure and when will you use the procured goods, services and works? (d) Where will you procure them? (e) When will resources be available? (f) Which methods of procurement will you use? (g) How will timely procurement or failure affect the user of the item(s) and the public procuring and assets disposal entity? (h) How can you be more efficient in the procurement process? And (i) who will be involved in the procurement? (Basheka, 2008b)

Annual procurement plan is the procuring entity's indicative plan of what, how and when to procure goods, works and services for a particular financial year. It is a tool that facilitates early and smooth procurement process and draws businesses' early attention to

procuring entity's planned procurement of the forthcoming financial year (Basheka, 2006). A good procurement plan will go one step further by describing the process you will go through to appoint those suppliers contractually (Lewis and Roehrich, 2009). Whether you are embarking on a project procurement or organizational procurement planning exercise, the steps will be the same. First, define the items you need to procure (Arminas, 2002). Next, define the process for acquiring those items. And finally, schedule the timeframes for delivery. Procurement is thus one part of the commissioning process. It refers to a specific method of purchasing services which involves tendering for a contract. Sometimes it is more appropriate for a public body to fund a service through the provision of a grant, but then it will have less control over the precise outcomes to be delivered (Lawino, 2009). Procurement planning calls for early involvement of the purchasing office so that options and alternatives can be explored with the requesting user. Issues such as purchase estimates, product specifications, make or buy decisions, and outsourcing opportunities may be very well being on the agenda (Mathews, 2005). At the end of the day, projects and procurements should be well planned for reasons other than exposure or reputational risks; they should be well planned to ensure the establishment of compliant and effective contract mechanisms that will ensure provision of qualified, capable and professional results to departments (Deme, 2009). However, if this stage is not properly governed, it is difficult to meet all the requirements and objective of the public sector procurement. Thus, this could cause high risk to procurement planning and procurement accountability. Planning allows an agency to link its procurement objectives to service delivery objectives and identify ways of improving how it purchases to meet its future needs (New South Wales treasury, 2004).

Procurement planning is the primary function that sets the stage for subsequent procurement activities. It 'fuels and then ignites' the engine of the procurement process. A mistake in procurement planning therefore has wide implications on public sector organizations, measured from the two indicators of accountability and participation. Procurement Planning is a legal requirement in all local governments in Ghana under Section 34 (2) of the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Act, 2003 and Local Government Regulation 62 of 2006. In number of cases, people do assume that planning procurement is a onetime event. But it is not. In fact, it is a function much longer and complex to understand. Government entities are required to prepare procurement plans based on approved annual budgets. They are also required to start their procurements early at the beginning of each Financial Year and not wait for funds release from Ministry of

Finance, Planning and Economic Development. However, the common mistake by most government entities is that they delay to commence the procurement process giving the excuse that they are waiting for release of funds from Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (PPDA annual Procurement & Disposal Audit Report, 2012).

The ideals of planning suggest that development and public infrastructure can be implemented in an atmosphere of complete harmony and that environmental, social and economic disruptions can be minimized and this assumes that there is full knowledge of the social, economic, political and physical systems within which such development is operating (James, 2004). In a developed or developing country, public procurement practitioners have and will face many challenges but each country has its own economic, social, cultural and political environment; and each country's public procurement practitioners face different types of challenges (Thai, 2001). Governed by a complex set of laws and regulations, local government procurement systems are designed to achieve three goals: (1) ensuring the best price; (2) providing open and fair competition among local vendors; and preventing favouritism and corruption (Duncombe & Searcy, 2007). In Ghana, procurement is a fundamental function that impacts on effective or 'ineffective' planning, delivery and accountability. There is no part of local government service delivery that does not depend on procurement of goods, services and works; and yet the area remains a neglected field of research. Procurement in local government in Ghana has not been corruption-free. Public procurement, at the local government level, is believed to be one of the principle areas where corruption in Ghana takes place (National Public Procurement Integrity Baseline Survey, 2006). Corruption is disastrous to the well-functioning of any government department. Corruption has been an intractable problem in many developing countries; especially where it has become systematic to the point where many in government have a stake. It diverts decision-making and the provision of services from those who need them to those who can afford them (Langseth, Kato, Kisubi & Pope, 1997).

According to Agaba and Shipman (2007), procurement planning is the process used by companies or public institutions to plan purchasing activity for a specific period of time. Historically, Dobler & Burt (1996); Mangesho (2003) noted that, institutional and governmental purchasing departments have not been particularly successful in enlisting the assistance of operating departments and personnel in planning and scheduling procurements. As a result, urgent needs often had to be addressed through emergency rather than standard procurement procedures. The effect has been disrupting, resulting in inefficient use of

purchasing staff and delays in providing other needs, goods and services. Mlinga, (2006) states that, all public essential goods/services are required on around the clock basis and government ability to deliver them can be severely crippled by a shortage of needed goods or services. Some services may be needed infrequently but if and when the institution or government must provide them, it must provide them and it has to be equipped and supplied. In such cases the public has no tolerance for lack of preparedness. Procurement is one of the core functions critical for achieving this objective in all local governments and it has to be planned under this constitutional mandate (Basheka, 2008a). Therefore, the requirement for procuring entities to prepare annual procurement plan is a mandatory one under the Public Procurement and disposal Act 2003 (PPDA, 2003).

According to Mapulanga (2015), successful procurement has to be based on effective planning. Effective and detailed planning can ensure that the procurement is in line with the organizational needs. This is because organization is at risk of losing money when its planning is poor as it would mean that not “urgent” items would be procured while necessary items would be starved out of cash. One of the best procurement planning strategy is the use of budgets. According to Fisher and Corbalán (2013) and according to the above-mentioned strategy, each department should indicate what is needed as well as the estimated cost of the item, which should be procured. Procurement budget should correspond to the revenues, which the company has set aside for the procurement activities. Brochner, Camén, Eriksson and Garvare (2016) agree that budgeting is very important aspect of procurement. This is because it ensures that all the details of the items to be procured are identified in advance, before the procurement process begins. Successful budgeting process not only involves the procurement department, but also other departments that require having items and equipment. Rolfstam, Phillips and Bakker (2011) noted that proper specification of the equipment and items required by each department is necessary in procurement planning. The departments have to provide budgets, which indicate the equipment and the quality standards for suppliers to ensure that proper equipment is being acquired.

Procurement must take a thoroughly professional view of its role in business as a whole and that must include planning (Bailey, Farmer, Jessop & Jones,1998).Any such procurement begins with the planning decision to make the purchase and this will involve in the first place, deciding whether there is a need for the particular goods or services, ensuring that the purchaser has the legal powers to undertake the transaction, obtaining any

relevant approvals within the government hierarchy and arranging the necessary funding (Arrowsmith, Linarelli & Wallace, 2000). But it is again not surprising that many procurement entities at both the central and local government levels have not taken planning a serious activity. The reasons for lack of procurement planning by such entities have been the actual lack of understanding of the value of procurement, proper enforcement of rules relating to planning (CPAR Report, 2004). It could also relate to lack of capacity due to limited procurement professionals and lack of commitment and support from management of those organizations. In fact, Thai, (2004), maintained that forms and procedures may be convenient and useful tools, but the planning effort will succeed only with the complete commitment and involvement of top management, along with appropriate personnel that have a stake. This implies that, without thorough procurement planning, the subsequent procurement processes will not yield substantial benefits. The consequences of poor or lack of procurement planning can never therefore be amusing. The World Bank Country Procurement Assessment Report, (2004 p.42) summarized these consequences as; 1) procurement failing to timely meet the actual needs of user departments, 2) advantages of scale and bulk purchasing are not achieved, 3) packaging and timing are not utilized to achieve value for money. The importance of procurement reform in almost all country's settings can be demonstrated based on its scale and role in terms of service delivery, the amount of money wasted by existing practices, reduced competition, higher prices due to market perceptions of risk, as well as the demonstrated ability of countries to capture enormous savings through concerted efforts to strengthen their procurement function (Harmonizing Donor Practices for Effective Aid Delivery, 1999).

Basheka (2008b) states that, procurement planning is part and parcel of the traditional planning already familiar in local governments: - notably, development planning and budgeting. The mandate for planning in local governments is derived from Regulation 62 of the Local governments (PPDA, 2006): user department to prepare an annual work plan for procurement based on the approved budget, which shall be submitted to the procurement and disposal unit to facilitate orderly execution of annual procurement activities. It also stated that a procurement plan should be integrated into the annual sector expenditure program to enhance financial predictability, accounting and control over procurement budgets and that a procurement and disposal unit is required to use the combined work plan to plan, organize, forecast and schedule the procuring and disposing entity's procurement activities for the financial year. The combined work plan for the procuring and disposing entity will include details of activities of works, services or

supplies to be procured; a schedule of procurement requirements in order of priority; a statement of required resources supported by a schedule of the projected funding; a plan of the likely method of procurement for each requirement and the likely time required for each stage in the procurement cycle.

Article 190 of the Ghanaian constitution states that district councils shall prepare comprehensive and integrated development plans incorporating the plans of lower level governments for submission to the National Planning Authority and Article 194 of the constitution mandates the central government to transfer funds in form of grants to local governments in order to implement decentralized services. Procurement is one of the core functions critical for achieving this objective in all local governments and it has to be planned under this constitutional mandate. Different stakeholders play different roles (Table 1) in the next page.

Table 1: Key Stakeholders in Procurement Planning and their Responsibilities in Public Sector Organizations

NO	STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSIBILITIES
1	User department	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recognizes needs/demands - Describes and initiate procurement requirements - Prepares an annual and quarterly procurement work plan based on the approved budget - Submits procurement work plan to the procurement and disposal unit for implementation - Seeks technical assistance in procurement planning activities where necessary - Recommends statement of requirements to the PDU(Regulations 26)
2	Procurement and disposal unit (PDU)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Advises user departments on individual procurement methods and practices - Consolidates procurement work plan for the entity - Implements procurement plan - Advises on procurement lead time and costs- Carries out market survey on technological trends, availability and price trends- Updates the Procurement plan
3	Technical planning unit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formulates the Districts Corporate needs - Consolidates work plans/strategic plan - Costing procurement requirements
4	Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Approves planning framework, budget & procurement plan upon which procurement plans are prepared by users
5	Finance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides budget ceilings to facilitate development of procurement work plans - Confirms budget availability - Advises on cash flow over a period of time

Source: Public Procurement and Disposal regulation (2006).

2.1.4 Conceptual framework of the study

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a conceptual framework refers to a conceptualization of the relationship between variables in the study and it is shown diagrammatically. Other than showing the direction of the study, a researcher can also be able to show the relationships of different constructs that he/she investigates.

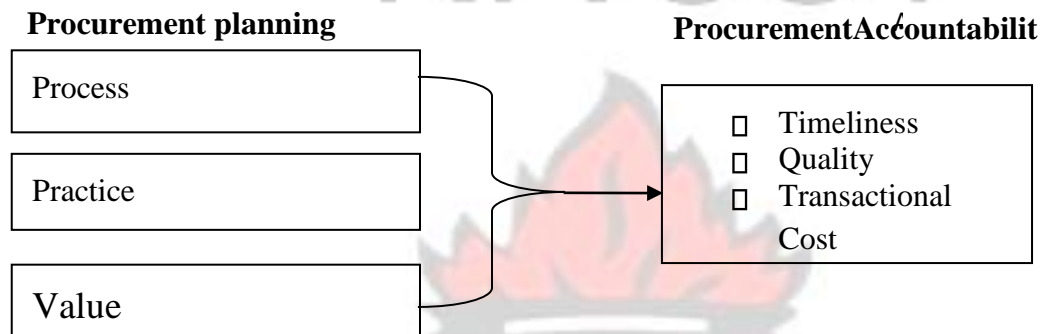


Figure 1: conceptual framework of the study

Source: Adopted from Basheka (2008)

A conceptual framework above linked the three elements of procurement planning (procurement planning process, practices, and the value or importance of procurement) with effective service delivery (quality, cost and timeliness). Procurement planning is the independent variable which in this study influences the depended variable which is service delivery. Three dimensions of process, practice and value was studied under procurement planning and three dimensions of cost, quality and timeliness were looked at under service delivery.

Pinto and Slevin (1994) argued that an organization is only successful to the extent it satisfies the needs of intended users to efficient and effective measures. The efficiency measures correspond to the organizational and internal structures such as adherence to schedule, budget and specifications while effectiveness measures refer to user satisfaction. This view is supported by Atkinson et al (1997) who reveal that clients will not be satisfied if the end product fails to meet their price, quality, time frame functionality and desired performance standards. This therefore, requires the organization to design, manage and

specify the requirements for the supplier to meet the desired standard. If the specifications are not clearly defined, the supplier may continue to deliver goods to client who fails to give them an opportunity to earn reasonable return on their investment of time capital and time. As a result, the end-user will not be happy if the end product does not meet the requirements in terms of quality of service.

From the above information provided in the background, problem statement, study scope and the conceptual framework, it can be concluded that the information provided in chapter one necessitated a study in this topic.

2.1.5 Procurement planning process

Procurement is divided into a number of processes which are clearly distinct. The processes are at initiation, intermediate and execution levels. At initiation level one has to plan base on the needs, assess availability of resources and budget for the needs, then clearly state what goal of the organization the deliverables will be able to fulfill or contribute in order to be more meaningful. Therefore, a professional procurement process can be incredibly beneficial if one is aiming at streamlining purchasing. It can ensure that one pays the best price for goods or services, save time by choosing the most reputable vendors, and minimize order delays and mistakes. The process of procurement does not end at the selection of service providers but rather continues up to point of delivery and also goes up to when retention period is finalized. It is the work of the procurement departments to schedule all activities involved as part of the terms of reference for the service providers to ensure deliverables are timely, involve as many stakeholders as possible and puts in place mechanisms for quality assurance including monitoring and evaluation. The planning process in procurement is associated with timely deliverables and quality outputs that meet expectations of the clientele. Procurement planning is a process whereby procurement practitioners sketch out in advance an arrangement with a diagram plan as to what, which, when and how purchases are to be conducted in a given period. Study findings have indicated that one of the major setbacks in public procurement is poor procurement planning and management of the procurement process which include needs that are not well identified and estimated, unrealistic budgets and inadequacy of skills of procurement staff responsible for procurement and this leads to shoddy works and delays in public sector organizations. According to Robbins, 2001 the planning process function encompasses defining an organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals and

developing a comprehensive hierarchy of plans to integrate and effectively coordinate the activities in public sector organizations. Procurement planning provides a framework for the execution of the requirement and user departments usually expect their requirements to be delivered within the shortest time possible. Procurement processes require timely completion of the project. Despite this standard, most entities accumulate arrears as a result of poor procurement planning. Unplanned activities normally lead to spending outside the budget. All the expectations of stakeholders need to be studied and assessed so that they are feasible and implementable by the procurement units. The budgets for all the departments are then reviewed, and in an organization that is committed to procurement planning, the accountants spend the time to find common purchasing requirements (Caldwell, Roehrich, and Davies, 2009). Based on the budgets submitted, they may direct departments to work with central purchasing to combine their planned spending for specific commodities. This process works best in an organization that is committed to reducing costs. Issues surrounding delivery dates, contract compliance, and customer service issues must be resolved internally before going out to contract (Lewis and Roehrich, 2009).

According to Caldwell, Roehrich, and Davies, (2009), concept of procurement is that advanced planning, scheduling, and group buying will result in cost savings, more efficient business operation, and therefore increased profitability. There are four steps that form the basis of procurement planning: group buying, just in time delivery, negotiated bulk pricing, and reduced administrative overhead. Group buying is the process of combining the total resource requirements for different departments and creating one purchase order. The departments can be physically located in a range of buildings, with the delivery dates, quantities, and conditions listed in the purchase order. This practice is increasingly common in government and public sector firms, where the same item can be purchased for a range of different institutions (Caldwell, Roehrich, and Davies, 2009). In risk assessment risks associated with the procurement of goods are identified and strategy is developed to manage them, contingent plans are also formulated. Sometimes risks are transferred to the contractor when he is considered most appropriate to manage them. However, sharing of risks between both the parties in all the stages of procurement process is considered to be the best possible approach in managing risks (Caldwell, Roehrich and Davies, 2009).

In the approval mechanism, the Procurement Agency provides clear authorization and delegation of powers for different categories of procurement. Procurements are initiated once approval of the competent authorities, as per authorization and delegation of powers, is accorded (Lewis and Roehrich, 2009). When selecting the method of procurement, open

competition is considered to be the best basis for efficient public procurement to ensure that accountability and value for money has been obtained. Various methods of procurement are provided in the relevant manuals, rules and regulations and policy guidelines issued by the Governments and international institutions (Caldwell, Roehrich and Davies, 2009). Kovacs (2004) defines procurement methods and procedures as the guidelines for or means of acquisition of appropriate goods and/or services at the best possible cost to meet the needs of the organization in terms of quality, quantity, time, and location. Thus, procurement methods and procedures must be appropriate to circumstances. Methods and strategies commonly used by institutions and governments to plan purchases more effectively include consolidation of requirements, term contracting, delegation of purchasing authority and value analysis. By consolidating their requirements internally and sometimes with other entities institutions and government increase their buying power and thus, obtain better pricing and services (Mangesho, 2003). By delegating to operating departments, the authority makes small purchases, certain emergency purchases and specialized purchases in institutional and governmental purchasing departments to provide operating departments with greater flexibility and reduces the cost of acquisition process. In addition, Vehicles must be in place to ensure that plans are realistically linked to resource constraints, and that, once developed; plans are effectively incorporated into sub-national budgets (Mullins, 2003).

The procurement planning process is provided for under Sect.58 of the PPDA, 2003 (Procurement and disposal planning) and states:

- (1) In accordance with the budget preparation procedures issued by the Minister, a procuring and disposing entity shall in each financial year, by a date determined by the Secretary to the Treasury, prepare and submit to the Secretary to the Treasury and to the Authority, its annual procurement plan for the following financial year.
- (2) A procuring and disposing entity shall plan its procurement and disposal in a rational manner and in particular shall—
 - (a) Aggregate its requirements where possible, both within the procuring and disposal entity and between procuring and disposal entities, to obtain value for money and to reduce procurement costs;
 - (b) make use of framework contracts wherever appropriate to provide an efficient, cost effective and flexible means to procure works, services or supplies that are required continuously or repeatedly over a set period of time;

- (c) Not split procurement or a disposal to defeat the use of the appropriate procurement or disposal method;
 - (d) Integrate its procurement budget with its expenditure programme; and
 - (e) Integrate the disposal of assets, both listed and unlisted, in its assets register as well as in its income and expenditure budget.
- (3) The Authority shall issue guidelines in respect of the format of the procurement plan to be prepared under this section.
- (4) A procuring and disposing entity shall, on a quarterly basis and in any other case, wherever necessary, review and update its procurement plan.
- (5) A procuring and disposing entity shall notify the Secretary to the Treasury and the Authority of any changes made to its procurement plan and submit the updated and approved plan to the Authority.
- (6) A procuring and disposing entity shall display its procurement plan and the updated and approved plan on its procurement and disposal notice board or using any other method as may be prescribed, for not less than twenty working days.
- (7) Procurement shall not be carried out outside the procurement plan except in cases of emergency situations.

While, Sect.34 (2) states that, The User Department shall prepare a procurement plan based on the approved budget, which shall be submitted to the Procurement and Disposal Unit for implementation when required. Procurement planning process as provided by the PPDA, 2003 has five steps as in figure 4 below;



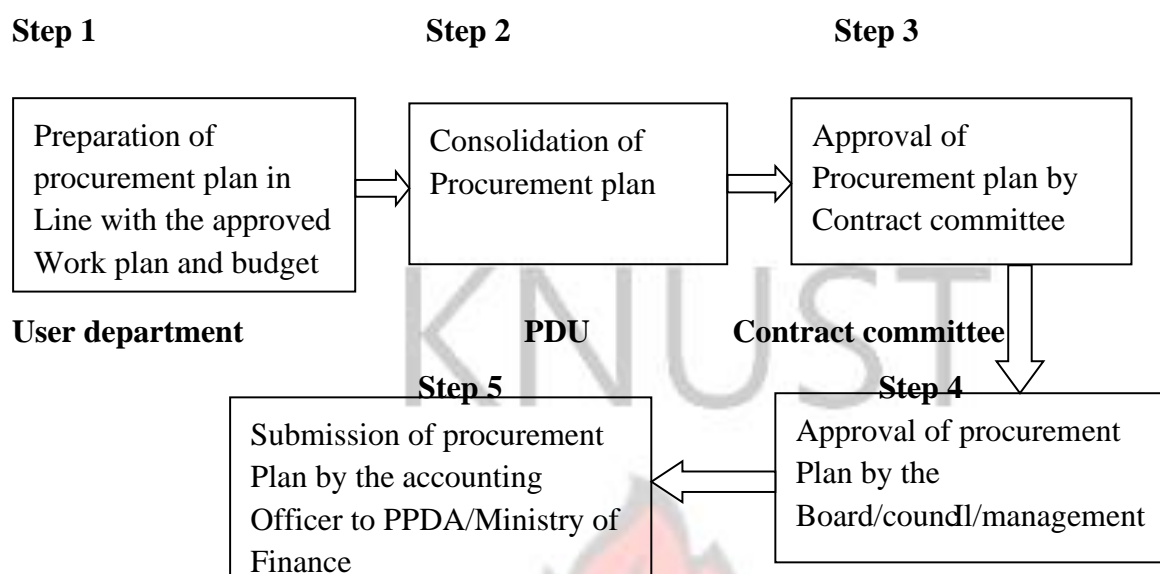


Fig.4: procurement planning process

Source: PPDA, 2003 accounting officer Board/council/management

2.1.6 Procurement planning practices

The Local Government (Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets) Regulations of 2006 identifies about 20 steps that should be followed by public sector organizations in the process of procurement planning. But contrary to this perception, a study by Basheka (2008b) and Basheka (2008a) identified only 14 of the steps that government agencies, ministries and departments should follow in their procurement planning. This implies that the remaining 6 steps (consulting key stakeholders, Making budgetary proposals and seeking approval, Identifying sources of funding for the procurement, Clear assignment of responsibility, Making clear term of reference (TOR) or statement of work (SOW) of requirements; and Determining the departmental work plans) that the law considers to be stages are actually planning practices, that is, the critical success factors for public sector organizations procurement planning in Ghana.

Proper and detailed specification is critical to procurement of goods of right quality and need. It identifies what is required from the contractor and he is expected to bid against the specifications given in the bid document. Specifications can be simple or complex depending on the nature of procurement (Caldwell, Roehrich and Davies, 2009). In order to ensure fair and impartial competition the specifications should be defined in such a manner that it allow widest possible competition and should not favour any single contractor or supplier nor put others at a disadvantage. Specifications should be generic

and should not include references to brand names, model numbers, catalogue numbers or similar classifications (Caldwell, Roehrich and Davies, 2009).

Procurement practices aim at ensuring that organizations get value for money when committing their expenditure. This involves the firm meeting its strategic objectives by purchasing the required goods and services from the right suppliers in an efficient manner. Timeliness, user integration and process efficiency are used as indicators to measure green purchasing. Procurement plans in the long run helps organizations save costs and organizations that purchase items without a procurement plan in the end incur a lot of costs. Money spent to boost service levels in the long run increases market share and business performance. Cost savings are achieved through procurement of quality goods and services, economies of scale and the reduction of products in stock. Establishing the relationship between organizational performance and procurement best practice can be measured through customer satisfaction, efficiency and effectiveness, quality, profitability and market share. Additionally, a procurement workforce with adequate skills underpins the efficient and effective delivery of desirable procurement outcomes.

For any organization to change its focus and become more competitive Amaratunga & Baldry (2002) suggest that performance is a key driver to improving quality of services while its absence or use of inappropriate means can act as a barrier to change and may lead to deterioration of the purchasing function. Organizations which do not have performance means in their processes, procedures, and plans experience lower performance and higher customer dissatisfaction and employee turnover (Artley & Stroh, 2001, Amaratunga & Baldry, 2002 and CIPS Australia, 2005). Measuring the performance of the purchasing function yields benefits to organizations such as cost reduction, enhanced profitability, assured supplies, quality improvements and competitive advantage as was noted by Batenburg & Versendaal (2006) Until an organization measures purchasing performance they will never know how well they are performing and why they should measure purchasing performance

2.1.7 Value of procurement planning

The value of procurement planning contributes greatly towards facilitating an effective and efficient performance of public sector organizations and is generally undisputed in both developed and developing countries. Whenever there is accurate forecasting of what goods, services and works local governments should procure (through procurement planning), the benefits of efficient utilization of resources are obvious. The officials who are involved in the acquisition process will be aware of the items that are required, the time when they are

required, the methods that will be used, the people who are to be involved, the approval levels, this will make all the processes transparent. It cannot create serious room for corrupt tendencies as it would have been the case where planning was lacking (Basheka, 2008b). Procurement Policy Manual (2009), procurement planning drives different expected results which are different from business as usual such as: reduction in the number of overall contract awards, understanding and managing total cost of ownership, more purchasing options (lease vs. buy), data-driven decision making, improved risk mitigation prior to award, more identification of opportunities where suppliers can add value, improved relationships with suppliers which leads to improved service delivery and enhance accountability and transparency in government agencies, ministries and departments.. Mawhood (1983) further adds that effective procurement planning is an important route towards securing the right service to be delivered to the public, and also maximizing the level of service provision which can be achieved within the local Supporting People. A procurement plan helps Procuring Entities to achieve maximum value for expenditures on services to be delivered and enables the entities to identify and address all relevant issues pertaining to a particular procurement before they publicize their procurement notices to potential suppliers of goods, works and services. Procurement value aim at anticipating requirements, sourcing and obtaining supplies, moving supplies into the organization, and monitoring the status of supplies as a current asset (Leenders& Lisa, 2000). According to Saunders (1997), the contribution of procurement planning is perceived in terms of quality, delivery, cost and flexibility, which has an impact on the competitive capability of the firm to meet customer requirements.

The value of procurement planning helps an organization in cutting down cost. It reduces their costs without damaging their profit margins. This is achieved by sourcing suitable suppliers, procurement staff who actively help reduce their company's outgoing costs and operational risks.

Additionally, the value of a procurement plan increases the efficiency, effectiveness and transparency of the procurement process. It specifically describes how products or services will be acquired and how vendors will be managed during the project. Procurement plans allow organizations to compare real-world performance with the planned project activities and timeline and alert departments to adjust processes that are off track.

However, Procurement plan provides an opportunity for all stakeholders to meet and discuss the requirements they feel are needed. It further allows organizations to estimate how much time will be required to complete the procurement process and close contracts.

The value of procurement plays significant role by increasing the transparency and predictability of the procurement process. It helps organizations collect similar requirements under one contract, as well as divide complex requirements into multiple contract packages to maximize cost savings.

It allows organizations to determine any additional staffing needs upfront, including external assistance that might be necessary to set up the products or services.

Industry Manual, (2008) counsels that a procurement plan is an instrument for implementation of the budget and should be prepared by the user departments with a view to avoiding or minimizing excess votes in the entities' budgets and to ensure that procurements do not proceed unless there are funds to pay for them. This implies that all procurement plans must be well integrated into the budget process based on the indicative budget as appropriate and in compliance with the procurement law.

Procurement planning is the process used by companies or institutions to plan purchasing activities for a specific period of time, this is commonly completed during the budgeting process, and the primary concept of procurement planning is that advance planning will result in cost savings, more efficient business operations, and therefore increased profitability. Planning is a process that consists of many steps and the bottom line is that planning is not concerned with future decisions but rather with the future impact of decisions made today (Thai, 2004).

Mamiro (2010), in his findings underscores these facts and concludes that one of the major setbacks in public procurement is poor procurement planning and management of the procurement process which include needs that are not well identified and estimated, unrealistic budgets and inadequacy of skills of procurement staff responsible for procurement. Similarly, Kakwezi and Nyeko (2010), argue that procurement performance is not usually measured in most Public entities as compared with the human resource and finance functions. They conclude in their findings that failure to establish performance of the procurement function can lead to irregular and biased decisions that have costly consequences to any public procuring entity. Procurement planning is the primary function that sets the stage for subsequent procurement activities; it fuels and then ignites the engine of the procurement process. It is the process of determining the procurement needs of an entity, their funding and timing of their acquisition such that operations are met as required in an efficient manner, Arrowsmith & Hartley (2002)

Whenever; there is accurate forecasting of what goods, services and works local governments should procure (through procurement planning), the benefits of efficient utilization of resources are obvious. The officials who are involved in the acquisition process will be aware of the items that are required, the time when they are required, the methods that will be used, the people who are to be involved, the approval levels, etc. This will make all the processes transparent. It cannot create serious room for corrupt tendencies as it would have been the case where planning was lacking (Basheka, 2008b). Procurement Policy Manual (2009), procurement planning drives different expected results which are different from business as usual such as: reduction in the number of overall contract awards, understanding and managing total cost of ownership, more purchasing options (lease vs. buy) , data-driven decision making, improved risk mitigation prior to award, more identification of opportunities where suppliers can add value, improved relationships with suppliers which leads to improved service delivery and enhance accountability and transparency in government agencies, ministries and departments.. Mawhood (1983) further adds that effective procurement planning is an important route towards securing the right service to be delivered to the public, and also maximizing the level of service provision which can be achieved within the local Supporting People. A procurement plan helps Procuring Entities to achieve maximum value for expenditures on services to be delivered and enables the entities to identify and address all relevant issues pertaining to a particular procurement before they publicize their procurement notices to potential suppliers of goods, works and services.

2.1.8 Procurement Accountability

For public procurement specialists, accountability encompasses the idea of conducting public procurement in a manner that can be traced and defended, is transparent and consistent, satisfies and manages stakeholders' expectations, is fair and equitable, and follows ethical norms set within organizational and societal contexts in order to maximize the benefit obtained from spending public funds. This manner of defining accountability fits within the dimensions offered by Shafritz: accountability: 1. The extent to which one must answer to authority legal or organizational—for one's actions in society at large or within one's particular organizational position.

Accountability refers to the level to which an individual or organization is held responsible for all aspects of the procurement process over which they hold authority. Trepte (2005),

relates the role of such officials in the procurement process, to that of an agent who has a lot of discretion in defining procurement needs, designing the procurement process and making decisions consistent with budgeted responsibilities. A failure to hold someone accountable for procurement decisions can present an opportunity for corruption.

It is instructive to note that, Section 17(1), provides that the head of procurement entity and any other officer to whom responsibility is delegated are responsible and accountable for actions taken with respect to the Act. Similarly, Section 18 (2) provides among others that notwithstanding the grant of concurrent approval by a tender review committee, the head of entity will be ultimately held accountable for a contract that may be determined to have been procured in a manner that is inconsistent with the Act. These provisions should be of interest to heads of entities of public institutions particularly, as they could be prosecuted for any proven wrongs in line with section 92(1). This section prescribes the penalties for any contravention of the provisions of the law and puts the penalty at 5 year's imprisonment or 2500 penalty units or to both. Also, it should be in the interest of heads of entities to engage qualified procurement professionals to manage procurements within their entities. Where procurement professionals have no capacity to manage that complex procurements, qualified external consultants should be engaged. Romzek and Dubnick, stated that "accountability involves the means by which public agencies and their workers manage the diverse expectations generated within and outside the organizations" (1987, p. 228). Much the same was stated by Scott, who defined accountability as "the obligation to give an account of one's actions to someone else, often balanced by responsibility of that other to seek an account" (2006, p. 175). Accountability depends on the time frame, the environment, and constraints they are facing. (2) Competing and contradicting prerogatives are omnipresent in their decision-making processes. (3) While everyone agrees that the procurement process and procurement specialist need to be responsive and responsible to the stakeholders, be fair and equitable, and maximize the benefit obtained by spending public funds, there are great differences on how each of these key elements is delineated. Accountability is the 'mechanism that make individuals or agencies answerable or responsive to their particular publics. Vian and Kohler (2016) point out that accountability makes reference to the mechanisms that make institutions responsive to the publics they serve. They write that accountability matters because it helps to ensure that relevant entities answer to those who will be affected by decisions or actions taken by them. Accountability can reduce corruption and other abuses, assure compliance with standards and procedures, and improve performance and organizational learning. It also demands that institutions explain and justify

their results to internal and external monitors or stakeholders and impose sanctions when performance falls short or corruption is found. Described differently, the concept of accountability involves the proper documentation of all the activities that take place in the procurement process and the responsibility to demonstrate that acquisition, works, services has been executed in accordance with the articulated rules and standards and the officer reports fairly and accurately on performance results vis-à-vis mandated roles and or/plans (Adegite, 2010). It means doing things transparently in line with due process and the provision of feedback. It shows the extent to which a person can be answerable to whoever has invested some amount of trust, faith and resources on them (Onuorah & Appah, 2007). Public accountability is an essential component for the functioning of our political system, as accountability means that those who are charged with drafting and/or carrying out policy should be obliged to give an explanation of their actions to their electorate (Johnson, 2004). This mechanism allows the openness of the process and brings defaulters to book Okafor and Modebe (2005) opine that when activities are recorded accurately in the various stages of the procurement procedure, accountability become feasible, and enable appropriate audit trail of procurement decisions for controls, and serves as the official records in cases of administrative or judicial challenges and provide the avenue for citizens to monitor the use of public fund and the ascertainment of the procurement cost. Accountability is very important in determining the rationale behind all procurement decisions. Accountability guarantees accurate written records (including computer records) which are essential in demonstrating that proper ethical standards have been observed. Hence, appropriate records should be maintained throughout the procurement process. These records should provide an audit trail of the reasons for making a particular procurement decision. The type and detail of information that is recorded should be specified in local procedural guidelines and will depend on the complexity or sensitivity of the particular purchasing issue Nadi (2009). Maintaining integrity in public procurement is one of the most important pillars of modern national procurement systems (Arrowsmith, Lineralli & Wallace, 2000; Kelman, 1990; Schooner, 2002). The accountability of procurement officials is not only important from a public or administrative law perspective, but also has economic implications. These economic implications have three main dimensions. Firstly, on the procuring side, a lack of accountability on behalf of procurement officials may lead to additional costs, as non-commercial criteria, such as corruption, favoritism or nepotism, replace the objective commercial criteria, which enable contracting authorities to cut the deal with the best possible terms. Secondly, on the business community side, in the absence of accountability, potential

suppliers are less encouraged to value government business and provide high quality goods and services. This, in turn, distorts incentives in the market place as less efficient suppliers are chosen at the expense of efficient suppliers, who go unrewarded, and are thus unable to remain viable and productive. The third economic dimension of accountability in public procurement concerns the rest of the society, which is affected by the actions of both the government and the business community. The problem of accountability in the context of public procurement stems from the fact that achieving professionalism requires the delegation of decision-making authority from elected representatives to procurement officials. This is necessary because procurement officials have greater experience and superior knowledge as to what kind of goods, services or works are best suited for the public authority's purposes and how to obtain these requirements on the best possible terms (Trepte, 2004).

With the trend towards decentralization of government functions, it puts the decision-making on procurement in the hands of those responsible for delivery of services. It has been argued that in such a scenario, accountability is established, and at the same time, public visibility into how public funds are being spent is enhanced (African Development Bank, 2000). Proper planning for this huge expenditure is therefore an essential element of good procurement in Local Government systems of the country. The procurement objective is to provide quality goods and services through open and fair competition in the exact quantity and proper quality as specified; and has to be delivered at the time and place where needed. Therefore, to secure such goods and services at competitive prices requires accurate planning and involvement of a number of stakeholders. The literature on decentralization and local governance has long ignored the essential contribution of effective public procurement systems in ensuring accountability in local government management. The objective of this paper is to help fill this gap by focusing on procurement planning in relation to creating accountable local government systems and identify the key elements of procurement planning critical for accountability. Upon the results of the study, the paper concludes that procurement planning significantly contributes to accountability but this depends upon how the entire planning process is managed by all stakeholders. The paper recommends that local governments must ensure that the core steps of procurement planning are managed exceptionally well, the core procurement planning practices are embedded in all local government procurement systems, the core departments are carefully involved in procurement planning, and the importance of procurement planning must be rigorously shared among the multitude of stakeholders taking into account the prevailing political,

social, economic and cultural circumstances. It is only then that full benefits of accountability in the local government procurement systems can be achieved and improved. Local governance and poverty reduction could then be achieved at minimum costs, the paper argues.

Within the public sector, there is a broad range of accountabilities (Heeks, 1998) including managerial accountability to senior managers within the organization: - political accountability to those institutions that provide legitimacy of the organization, financial accountability to those institutions that provide the financing for the organization and public accountability-to citizens outside the organization. Interestingly, the decentralization literature posits three general forms of decentralization; which inherently mirror the types of accountability above-political decentralization, administrative decentralization and fiscal decentralization (Braun & Grote, 2000; Gurger& Shah, 2000, Rondinelli, 1999). But the same literature indicates that only a few developing countries have adopted comprehensive political, fiscal and administrative decentralization (Elhiraika, 2006). Accountability of the local government procurement system could thus also take the three dimensions but emphasis is normally given to financial accountability. The above writings do not offer any steps on how a careful procurement planning exercise can help enhance accountability of the local government procurement system. Meanwhile, a significant number of African countries have over the years adopted measures aimed at decentralization of government, together with development planning and administration; a fashion that became popular in the 1980s (Livingstone & Charlton, 2001).

By the late 1990s the failure of the existing procurement systems in Africa to cope with the expansion in government procurement requirements and to deliver value for money had become generally accepted among government and donor partners (Agaba& Shipman, 2007). But the 1990s saw a wave of procurement reforms which were aimed at creating a sound public procurement regime that was to be accountable, transparent, encouraging open competition, non-discriminative, and one which emphasized value for money.

Table 2.1 Dimensions and Indicators Procurement Accountability

No	Dimensions	Indicators
1.	Quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Conformance• Durability• Reliability• Performance• Serviceability
2.	Price/Cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Bid for lowest price
3.	Delivery Time	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Offers prompt services to customers• Readily respond to customers' request• Inform customers when services will be performed
4.	Efficiency & Effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Value for money• Transparency• Mitigate supplier risk

Source: Author's Own Construction (2022)

Overview of the Regulatory Framework of Public Procurement in Ghana

In order to improve the nation's overall public financial management, the government introduced the Public Financial Management Reform Program (PUFMARP) in 1996. To oversee the creation of a comprehensive public procurement reform program, the government established the Public Procurement Oversight Group in 1999. The Public Procurement Bill was written in 2002 and became law on December 31, 2003 as the Public Procurement Act of 2003, Act 663 (Senzu and Ndebugri, 2017). The Public Procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663) defines the Procurement Structures in relation to the Public Procurement Board and provides procurement administration and institutional arrangements in relation to Tender Committees, Tender Evaluating Panels, and Tender Review Boards. Each of these

structures has a specific purpose in ensuring the proper operation of the procurement processes.

The Public Procurement Act is divided into 99 sections and nine parts, each of which addresses a different issue. With the exception of parts one and two of the Procurement Act, the remaining parts specify the rules, procurement methods, tendering procedures, techniques and procedures for hiring consultants, complaints and administrative review, store disposal, and finally, the various required conducts, as well as other issues related to how to deal with offenses. The Board of Public Procurement in Ghana has the mandate to harmonize public

Procurement processes in the public sector in order to ensure the prudent, economical, and efficient use of state resources in public procurement, as well as to ensure that public procurement is carried out in a fair, transparent, and non-discriminatory manner. The Board is a body corporate with perpetual succession and common seal and may sue and be sued in its corporate name. The board may acquire, hold, manage or dispose of any movable or immovable property in connection with the discharge of its functions and may enter into contracts and transactions that are reasonably related to its function. In the year 2016, Act 914, was passed to amend the Act 663 and also to complement Act 663 to further strengthen the procurement process.

The Public Procurement Act refers to procurements sponsored entirely or partially by public funds, including purchase of products, works, services, and contract management. There is also mention of the disposal of public inventories and equipment, as well as procurements sponsored by cash or loans obtained by the Ghanaian government, including international aids. The application of the Public Procurement Act is subject to two key exceptions:

- ☐ The Minister of Finance shall direct the use of a different procurement procedure apart from the one provided by the Act, where the Minister is able to determine that it is in the national interest to do so. Where the Minister makes such a determination the procurement method shall be published in the gazette.
- ☐ The procurement of goods, works and services financed by loans taken or guaranteed by the state and or aid granted under an international agreement which prescribes the Procurement procedures to be employed shall not apply the procedure as outline by the Act.

2.2 QUALITY IN PROCUREMENT

Quality is an important factor in the value-adding process involved in the production and delivery of products along the supply chain.

According to ISO 9000, and ISO 9000: 2005, ISO 9001: 2008, ISO 9004: 2009 standards, an organization can achieve sustainable success by implementing a quality management system designed to continuously improve performance, considering the most important expectations, those of the customers, shareholders, suppliers and those of the community. Part of the organization's management system, the quality management system aims at streamlining the organization's processes, adding value, lowering costs and increasing adaptability to the needs of the customer.

According to Deming Quality is continuous improvement through reduced variation. For Taguchi quality is the loss imparted to society from the time the product is shipped. Crosby mentions quality as “conformance to requirements”. He also stresses that the definition of quality can never make sense unless it is based on what consumers want – that is, a product is a quality product when it matches the customers’ requirements. Joseph M. Juran defines quality as “fitness for use”. This definition implies quality of design, quality of conformance, availability and adequate field services.

Due to a dynamic and competitive environment, in which prices are subject to ever-increasing pressure, quality becomes a determining factor in the competitive struggle. Among the key processes of the quality management system, the process of procurement and management of material resources directly affects the quality of the final products, and therefore the performance of the organization. An efficient process of procurement and management of material resources based on good relationships with the suppliers will help increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization and achieving lasting success by meeting the expectations of all stakeholders.

Reeves and Bednar (1994) suggest a four-way taxonomy of quality definitions that incorporates excellence, value, conformance to specifications and meeting and/or exceeding customer requirements, and where the gurus’ quality definitions fit. The American Society for Quality explicitly recognizes in the definition of quality the subjective nature of the term, and it considers that, “in technical usage, quality can have two meanings: (1) the characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs; (2) a product or service free from deficiencies”. The Juran and Crosby’s quality

meanings are mentioned in the quality definition proposed. It seems that they emphasized on two different quality perspectives (ASQ, 2010).

According to Deming and Juran, the definitions of quality fall within the “Customer led” category proposed by Ghobadian et al. (1994). Here, the focus is external. This approach relies on the ability of the organization to determine customers’ requirements and then meet these requirements. A “customer-led” definition implicitly encompasses the “Supply-led” approach. This is because customers’ requirements are built in the service at the design stage, but it is at the transformation stage that the degree of conformance is determined. Garvin’s approach to define quality seems to be one of the first classifications of quality that appears in the literature (Soltani et al., 2008). His classification is very similar to the categories mentioned above. He distinguishes five definitions of quality: (i) Transcendental: quality is absolute and universally recognizable. The concept is loosely related to a comparison of product attributes and characteristics (ii) Product-based: quality is a precise and measurable variable. Differences in quality reflect differences in the quantity of some product characteristics; (iii) User-based: the quality is defined in terms of fitness for use or how well the product fulfils its intended functions; (iv) Manufacturing-based: quality is in “conformance with the requirements” – that is, targets and tolerances determined by product designers, and (v) Value-based: quality is determined in terms of prices and costs. Here, a quality product is one that provides performance at an acceptable price or conformance at an acceptable cost.

Perspectives of quality may change as a product moves from the design to the marketing stage. Despite being an abstract concept, it has to be considered that consumers perceive the quality of a product by assessing one or more quality dimensions. For this reason, it is essential to highlight that quality is a multi-dimensional construction. Garvin (1984) proposes several dimensions of product quality (performance, reliability, durability, features, conformance, serviceability, aesthetics and perceived quality). Dale et al. (1994) points out that these dimensions are somewhat independent; therefore, a product can be excellent in one dimension and average or poor in another. From the above dimensions, we must emphasize the quality attribute reliability. In fact, this is so important that the terms “quality and reliability” are often used together (Lysons and Farrington, 2006).

According to Garvin (1984), quality is not only a strategic weapon for competing in the current marketplace, but it also means pleasing the consumers, not just protecting them from annoyances. Therefore, a company’s specific advantage is to identify and then compete on one or more of the quality dimensions. For example, the Japanese have been quoted for

high-quality cars in the 1970s based only on the dimensions of reliability, conformance, and aesthetics (Dale et al., 1999). Sousa and Voss (2002), however, stress that the importance of the multi-dimensional nature of quality cannot be overstated. They share the same opinion than Dale et al. (1994), giving relative strategic importance to the different quality dimensions that vary across products and industries. Despite Garvin's (1984, 1987) quality dimension is a robust framework for research, it should be considered as a good starting point for choosing the right dimensions, since in certain situations it may be necessary to consider other dimensions not considered in the framework, or to disaggregate / aggregate Garvin's basic dimensions. Furthermore, different quality dimension places different demands in different organizational functions, and it may require different organizational practices. For example, while the design function and associated design practices are bound to influence most quality dimensions, the manufacturing function and practices will probably be limited to influencing conformance quality (Sousa and Voss, 2002). Garvin (1984) illustrates this by giving some examples: an exceptional serviceability requires a strong customer service department; superior durability requires close cooperation between engineering and purchasing. As consequence of the quality dimensions' choice, the company must tailor its organization and operations to meet these needs.

Ghobadian et al. (1994) distinguish different perspectives setting out the definitions of "quality" in five broad categories: (i) Transcendent, (ii) Product led, (iii) Process or supply led, (iv) Customer led and (v) Value led. Most of the quality definitions fall within the "Customer led" and the "Process or supply led" categories. The definitions of quality proposed by Crosby and Taguchi fall within the "Process or supply led" category. The focus is internal rather than external. The authors note that such a definition is useful for organizations which perceive their problems as lying within the transformation or engineering process. Alternatively, this definition might be useful in organizations producing either standard products or services

2.3 DELIVERY TIME

Delivery time refers to a key performance indicator measuring the rate of finished product and deliveries made in time. This rate is expressed in a total number of units delivered within a set period defined by the customer and the supplier. According to Rehmatulla, et al., procurement entities that have good procurement policies also have better service delivery.

Transparency ensures that the procurement of goods, works and services are of high quality and meets the right specification which enables the Organisation to provide quality service. A transparent policy such as E-procurement ensures value for the organization's resources by awarding contracts to suppliers who can provide high-quality services and materials at a reasonable price (Vecchiato and Roveda. Basheka [36] asserts that procurement planning is a key function of procurement with the ability to add to government institutions and promote service provision successfully. Mullins also stated in his study that procurement planning contributes to the enhancement of service delivery in an efficient and effective manner in public organizational sectors. Mawhood further indicates that an important channel towards safeguarding the right service delivery is to ensure effective procurement planning. It is challenging to create a unit or workforce procurement with the right skills and capabilities taken into consideration changes to procurement processes, the introduction or expansion of alternative contracting approaches, and increased reliance service provision by organisations in the private sector (Government Accountability Office). Public entities have always been involved in enormous purchasing, dealing in huge budget (Roodhooft and Abbeele). Public procurement is progressively recognized as critical in delivering service in developing countries (Basheka & Bisangabasaiji) [36] and it also represents proportionately a high total expenditure and accounts for 18.2% of GDP worldwide as noted by Mahmood [37] in his research. By understanding the procurement processes involved, one may possibly come to the recognition of the real cost involved in attaining goods and services Batley, et al

2.4 TRANSPARENCY IN PROCUREMENT

Transparency can be defined as timely, easily understood access to information. Transparency assists in ensuring that any deviations from fair and equal treatment are detected very early, and makes such deviations less likely to occur. It protects the integrity of the process and the interest of the organization, stakeholders, and the public. This relies on a number of control mechanisms, including an effective control and audit system, an

efficient appeals mechanism, a comprehensive information sharing system, enabling civil society and interested stakeholders to conduct social audit, and effective ethics and anti-corruption measures.¹⁸⁴ Establishment of sound internal audit mechanisms and compliance with them is crucial.¹⁸⁵ This is clearly described in the PPDA and PPDR. The Appeals Review Board (ARB) constitutes the first avenue for complaints.¹⁸⁶ The PPDA also provides for judicial review to the High Court for decisions by the Appeals Review Board.¹⁸⁷ In terms of transparency, budget documents must be open, transparent and accessible. Citizens, civil society organizations, and other stakeholders must be able to access budget reports in a full and timely manner (OECD: 2016a, b). In addition, transparency is important to achieving budget performance with the concept of Value for Money based on the people's need to know what and how the government plans, and uses financial resources. The public has the right to access reports on the realization of their regional budgets easily and reliably. So, the higher the transparency, the higher the performance of the budget for the Value for Money concept. In terms of transparency, budget documents must be open, transparent and accessible. Citizens, civil society organizations, and other stakeholders must be able to access budget reports in a full and timely manner (OECD: 2016ab). In Government Regulation Number 79 of 2005 which states that supervision of the implementation of Regional Government is a process of activities aimed at ensuring that the Regional Government runs efficiently and effectively in accordance with the plans and provisions of the legislation. In this case, accountability is focused on the fact that the government is obliged to explain to the people where the public budget ends and where the impact of the budget is on people's welfare. This obligation refers to the basic purpose of a government, which is to serve the community. Thus, the higher the accountability, the higher the performance of the budget for the Value for Money concept. It is expected that public procurement is executed in a fair and transparent procedures where same procedures and information are applied to all prospective tenderers that want to do business with the government.

By observing this series of literature, it appears that there is potential that accountability, transparency and supervision will affect budget performance with the Value for Money concept. Pertiwi & Satriawan Research (2015) shows that budget management with a Value for Money concept in the Riau Province's local government work unit is affected by the dimensions and indicators of accountability, transparency, and supervision. In terms of transparency, budget documents must be open, transparent and accessible. Citizens, civil

society organizations, and other stakeholders must be able to access budget reports in a full and timely manner (OECD: 2016a, b).

According to Armstrong (2005), transparency is a key requirement of modern public procurement system since it gives access to laws, regulations, policies and practices of procurement by government agencies to the public. Lack of it is a major impediment to sustain economic growth, sources of unwholesome activities such as corruption, scandal and abuse of public resource. (Shu, Othman, Omar, Abdul Husna, 2011) According to UNDP (2010) report, access to key procurement information in a civil society, media and other stakeholders directly affects accountability. The report noted that technology increases transparency and competence among suppliers through clear and comprehensive bidding procurements and contracts in the procurement process. OECD (2007) report, a transparent procurement process requires legislative and administrative measures such as transparent proceedings, protection against corruption, fair pre-qualification procedures, transparent selection of the winning bidder, publication of procurement plans, dissemination of information concerning lists and registries of suppliers and procedure to apply for registrations. Moreover, OECD (2009) noted other transparency measures that include open bidding procedures, prompt notifications. Transparency means that institutions, processes, and decisions are made accessible to the public at large or to representatives of the public so that processes and decisions can be monitored, reviewed, commented upon, and influenced by the stakeholders. It is essential to create transparency from the very beginning so that potentially every step in the long decision-making process can be influenced, if necessary, in a timely manner. In addition, transparency ensures the integrity and eventual economic justification of the investment.

Transparency in this context is not achieved by grudgingly allowing access to some internal documents to selected people. Transparency requires that the government or project agency, the principal, voluntarily and proactively provide full public information through the print and electronic media about the potential options, plans, designs, and programs. Transparency also means that all the stakeholders of a major investment are fully informed and consulted about all aspects of the project.

Transparency ensures that only relevant considerations are taken into account by making it difficult to conceal corruption or other improper influences in the procurement process. The most fundamental principle of transparency is that rules of the game must be known by all participants. An ideal public procurement system should have sufficiently publicized rules of procedure to circumscribe discretion within procurement entities. Further it should ensure

that the procurement entities comply with the applicable rules for instance, compliance with procedures and the best procurement method considering the existing circumstances, publication of the results of contract awards, the keeping of detailed records of decisions and the furnishing of reasons to participating firms. It should also have mechanisms for scrutinizing the decisions of procurement entities to ensure that they comply with norms for instance subjecting procurement decisions to oversight by a regulatory body and providing a quasi-judicial organ to which unsuccessful bidders can obtain the review of procurement decisions.

Transparency in the context of public procurement refers to the idea that procurement procedure should be “characterized by clear rules and by means to verify that those rules were followed”. (Arrowsmith and Davies, 1998). Arrowsmith, Linarelli and Wallace (2000), suggest the following interrelated ways through which transparency can be used to support other policy objectives of public procurement: (a) Publicity of contract opportunities; (b) Publicity for the rules governing each procurement procedure; (c) Limits to control the discretion of procuring entities or officers in making public procurement decisions; (d) The possibility for interested parties to verify the application of the public procurement rules and to enforce them.

Greater transparency is achieved through open publication of procurement rules and procedures, publication of procurement opportunities in line with section 47, responses to requests for clarifications in line with section 51 of the , public opening of tenders in line with section 56, debriefing by telling unsuccessful tenderers why they were not successful in line with section 65(9), publication of contract award so that the public including other tenderers will know who the successful tenderer is in line with section 31(1) and above all, meeting the requirements under section 28 by ensuring that proper records of procurement proceedings are kept. Thus, any procurement which is devoid of any of these critical activities will not be deemed to be transparent. Remember the lack of transparency will create a breeding ground for possible unethical practices such as bribery and corruption which negate the achievement of VFM.

2.5 VALUE FOR MONEY

The quest to achieve Value for Money (VFM) is cardinal and a central theme in every procurement regime and without doubt, has become a topical issue in recent public procurement discourse in Ghana. It is pertinent to note that, even though VFM as a policy

objective in public procurement is consistently being referred to in public procurement discourse in Ghana, it is revealing to note that it is not specifically cited as one of the policy objectives of public procurement under section 2 of the Public Procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663) (As Amended). For clarity, section 2 of this Act is reproduced hereunder “the object of the Authority is to harmonise the processes of public procurement in the public service to secure a judicious, economic and efficient use of state resources in public procurement and ensure that public procurement is carried out in a fair, transparent and non-discriminatory, environmentally and socially sustainable manner”. This notwithstanding, VFM which is usually described as the ultimate objective of every procurement system, is referred to in many of our procurement literature. To put this into context, the words economic and efficient as stated above are construed to mean VFM. Thus, VFM consists of economy, efficiency and indeed, one can add effectiveness in procurement.

Schedule 1 of the Procurement Governance Policy defines Value for Money (VFM) as: “the achievement of a desired procurement outcome at the best possible price, based on a balanced judgement of financial and non-financial factors relevant to the procurement.”

In terms of definition, VFM can be defined in public procurement to mean: “The optimum combination of whole-life cost and quality to meet the customer’s requirements”. It also refers to successfully acquiring the goods, works or services concerned at the best possible terms over its life cycle.

According to Kiragu (2012), procurements should be based on value for money (defined as the optimum combination of whole life costs and fulfilment of customer’s requirements) rather than initial purchase price. VFM is prescribed by legislation; the overwhelming quest by the public for VFM can’t be over emphasized or ignored.

The National Audit Office (NAO) of the United Kingdom (2016) defines Value for Money as an optimization of resources to achieve the expected results. Lukito (2014) explained that there are three types of interrelated indicators in the Value for Money concept, namely: indicators of input, output, and outcomes. The relationship between inputs, activities (processes), outputs, and outcomes will assess efficiency and effectiveness, or Value for Money. Mardiasmo (2011) explains that the objectives desired by the community include accountability regarding the implementation of Value for Money, namely, economical (provident) in the procurement and allocation of resources, efficient in the use of resources in the sense that the use is minimized and the results are maximized (maximizing benefits and minimizing costs), and effective in the sense of achieving goals and objectives. Measurement of government accountability is often done by using a comparison between

planning and realization (Moeheriono, 2012; Ahmad & Sahar: 2019, pp. 1540-1543). To achieve value for money in public procurement, different tools and mechanisms can be used including criteria award to evaluate bids. Indeed, the evaluation of the submitted tenders is a key milestone of the procurement process as it allows public buyers to assess the relative merits of proposals received against institutions' objectives and for this reason, care must be taken to ensure that the outcome is satisfactory and that it has been decided in a fair and transparent manner. Effective control and oversight mechanisms are essential in supporting accountability and promoting integrity and efficiency in the public procurement process. Schedule 1 of the Procurement Governance Policy defines Value for Money (VFM) as: "the achievement of a desired procurement outcome at the best possible price, based on a balanced judgement of financial and non-financial factors relevant to the procurement."

Value for Money (VFM) is an essential test against which a procuring entity must justify a procurement outcome. From the user or the targeted public point of view, value for money is the value (output) attached to some defined cost (input). Value for money is narrowly defined as a concept associated with deployment of resources vis a vis realization of some expected output values. The user department or consumer attempts to attach value to products or services received and compares the same with resources expended. A broader definition associates value for money with the economy, effectiveness and efficiency of a product, service or process. A comparison is made between the input costs against the value of the outputs and a qualitative and quantitative judgment over the manner in which the resource involved have been utilized and managed. Value for money is based therefore not only on the acquisition price/cost(economy) but also on the maximum efficiency and effectiveness of a procurement transaction. One might therefore wish to verify proof of use of technology, financial analysis tools, timeliness etc. throughout procurement process, particularly where large sums of money are involved. Accounting officers and their procurement staff must have the capacity and skills to run the show efficiently and effectively to minimize risks and maximize impact; and must understand the markets and effectively manage suppliers. The team must peg its performance against peers and other industries to seek for continuous improvement and innovations necessary to deliver greater value to the procuring entity.

Additionally, VFM audit is most successful where: the procuring entity takes full control of their procurement; a well-qualified Procurement Team led by a qualified and experienced *Team Leader is in place*; a rigorous, clear project plan and requirements driven by the

procuring entity and a clear division of responsibility between procuring entity, Supplier, Contractor or Consultant.

This principle is vital in measuring the effectiveness of procurement process (inputs and outcomes). It is the ideal way of assessing the whole life cost and quality to procurement that meet users' expectation or needs. Organizations are expected to achieve value for money for every items procured or in their procurement processes. Some time ago, organizations have the assumption that the value for money is achieved by just accepting the lowest tender price submitted by a prospective supplier. But currently, whole value for money in procurement is considered on the basis of the whole life cost of the item procured. This include price of the item, installation, maintenance, and other non-monetary factors

2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE ACHIEVEMENT OF VFM

Having looked at what VFM is and other policy objectives which collectively promote the achievement of VFM, it is of essence to take a brief look at the structural factors influencing the achievement of VFM in public procurement in Ghana. These encompass:

Formal Structural Factors: These cover published government policy (stated developmental priorities) on procurement such as set-asides or the application of margin of preference under section 60 aimed at developing local firms or deprived groups. A current example is the quest by the Ministry of Procurement to reserve 70 percent of contracts to local firms and 30 percent of such contracts to women, people with disabilities and businesses set up under the Youth Employment Scheme; Procedures and Guidelines such as Act 663 (As Amended), regulations, manual and guidelines such as the guidelines on single source procurement, guidelines on margin of preference, guidelines on disposal of vehicles and unserviceable stores and standard tender documents among others. For instance, it is revealing to note that, the guidelines on single source procurement succinctly require that all applications for single source procurement submitted by procuring entities to the PPA, must demonstrate the achievement of VFM. Indeed this is one of the three key requirements for the grant of PPA approval for all single source procurement; and Contract-specific international financial agreements which will usually fall under Section 96. This section applies to a situation where the conduct of a particular procurement is determined by an international obligation arising out of a grant or concessionary loan to the Government of Ghana. Most of such, government-to-government credit agreements

(e.g. *tied aid*) will typically require the successful completion of a VFM audit as a condition precedent to the effectiveness of a particular contract under consideration. Thus, without the conclusion of a VFM process, the funding agency will not advance the funds meant for such projects. The majority of past contracts in the health, energy, education and water have gone through such VFM audit processes with significant savings being achieved for the Government of Ghana. Indeed, between 2000 and 2016, the Government of Ghana working with Crown Agents Ghana Limited, have been able to identify potential savings of USD 1billion across 125 contracts with an aggregate contract value of USD 5.6 billion. This statistics goes to prove that, without VFM assessments, the government would have spent much more than it should have spent.

Informal Structural Factors: Apart from formal structural factors, the need to achieve VFM in public procurement can greatly be influenced by informal factors such as organisational culture of a particular procuring entity with respect to the conscious efforts they make in ensuring that every procurement they undertake is hinged on the need to achieve VFM. Of course, the personal quest for VFM by professionals in the field of procurement, could potentially instil in the whole procurement entity, the need to demonstrate VFM in all methods of procurement, and not just for single sourced contracts. Another major important informal factor pushing for VFM in public procurement is the incessant and unprecedented interests by the public for greater transparency and accountability in public procurement. The ongoing debates and discussions about the perceived corruption and lack VFM in the various procurements by SSNIT, Cocobod and the Ministry of Local Government with respect to the bins among others, are all attributable to the yearning demand by the citizenry for the protection of the public purse through the achievement of VFM in public procurement. Thus, whether or not the need for

2.7 ACTS THAT MILITATE AGAINST THE ACHIEVEMENT OF VFM

The quest to achieve VFM in public procurement can be eluded through the following acts. In the first place, the achievement of VFM is derailed when goods, works or services are over specified. This is evident where some aspects of goods, works or services procured are either underutilised or not utilised. This is particularly evident in situations where *needs* ordinarily do not exist, but are created with the view that, such unscrupulous persons will benefit through the procurement process. Thus, a procurement entity spends more than it

should have actually spent in respect of such procurements. It is therefore pertinent to ensure that, the specific requirements or scope for a particular procurement, are designed bearing in mind fitness for purpose and within the bounds of the required specifications. A need should also be justified within the context of existing budgets.

Secondly, the manifestation of corruption including collusive practices, can serve as a snag in the achievement of VFM. This is typified and exemplified in the current wrangling and allegations of over-inflated prices of contracts and low balling, resulting in copious variations in project scope and contract prices. A reduction in perceived or actual corruption will indubitably, result in price reasonableness. Indeed, various corruption schemes such as collusive tendering, tender rotation, tender suppression, market allocation and the use of front and shell companies, are but a few examples of corruption related schemes in the context of public procurement. It is a generally accepted fact that corruption is a canker and a “cardinal” sin in the context public procurement and should be condemned with all seriousness. The fact that some schools of thought are of the view that corruption is in existence because of the very existence of procurement, should without doubt, give us a course to be concerned. An assessment of whether our current procurement laws are adequate in tackling procurement related corruption will be looked at in a subsequent piece.

Thirdly, a failure to adhere to the key procurement principles of transparency, accountability, fairness, and competition as discussed above will without doubt, militate against the achievement of VFM.

Fourthly, improper and inadequate preparation for procurement tasks which is evident in a situation where the scope of works for a project, is constantly changing. The media reportage on the SNNIT procurement of an ERP system could potentially, depict such a situation. From a project procurement perspective, knowledge in the iron triangle or triple constraint (scope, cost and time) have ripple effects anytime there is a change request. This undoubtedly, has serious consequential implications on prices, completion time and quality of the subject matter of the procurement.

Fifthly, lack of Due Diligence (DD) on successful tenderer before the award of a contract, could culminate in the award of a contract to a company which either has no capacity at law, or has no capacity to deliver on the required contract. It is therefore crucial to carry out DD on the businesses and owners or officers of the businesses which intend to do business with the public. The outcome of a DD process will help reveal the past conducts and performances of a tenderer’s business, and any potential ethical issues including conflicts of

interest between any actor in the procurement process and the potential tenderer. It is the expectation of the writer that, the new e-procurement system will have features to address these concerns.

Lastly, the lack of capacity and understanding of procurement processes and documentations is a major factor militating against the achievement of VFM. Entities must be interested in building the capacities of their staff so as to equip them with the requisite competences, required for their jobs. We need to avert our minds to the fact that, in some cases, the of lack of VFM in a particular procurement may not be due to corrupt practices, but rather, due to the lack of the required competences by the various actors in the procurement processes. Such actors might not even know that their acts are inconsistent with the provisions of the Procurement Act.

2.8 EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS

Efficiency and effectiveness are commonly used terms in the procurement and supply management arenas. They may sound similar, but they have different meanings, both by definition and in practice. Efficiency is defined as capable of producing desired results without wasting materials, time, or energy. Effectiveness is defined producing a result that is wanted. Efficiency is how the procurement process is handled, while effectiveness focuses on attaining the end result. Shaw (2010) also recommends that before payments are made, organizations should always ensure that sufficient procedures including monitoring and evaluation are undertaken to ascertain that work has satisfactorily been performed and completed. This policy will help determine how procurement activities are carried out by organizational buyers and how they should conduct themselves, thereby improving procurement efficiency and effectiveness. Maurer (2004) asserts that, it is important for companies to partly compare their procurement operations with other comparable companies through benchmarking process to test whether value for money is being achieved or not. This will help companies to seek continuous improvement and identify good practice. It is therefore significant for organizations to benchmark their operations which serve as critical part for improvement process for all areas. Again, procurement must be integrated seamlessly with the other functional areas (such as Finance, Distribution, Engineering, Production, Research and Development, HR and Warehousing) within the organization. This integrated approach will help contribute to efficient and cost effective service delivery in a timely manner for maximum satisfaction. (Shaw, 2010; Musanzikwa, 2013). Due to the significant impact of procurement in organizations, there is the need to develop public procurement. Accordingly, organizations can apply the Kaizen Continuous Improvement model which is

the best Japanese thinking and management practices applied for improving efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, quality and, in general business excellence. Karkoszka and Honorowicz (2009) revealed that the system basically consists of defining areas and identification of cause for improvement; key problem selection through analysis; identification of the cause of improvement; measuring, analysing and comparing results; and standardization.

The principle of efficiency and cost effectiveness of procurement relate to ways and means of attaining the 'six rights' of procurement which include price, time, quality, quantity, place and product. (Caldwell et al., 2009; Musanzikwa, 2013).

In procurement, efficiency is often put to the side while the focus is on effective results for the organization. Effectiveness may vary over time as the procurement environment adapts and evolves.

Efficiency demands the streamlining of procurement processes, and the documenting of those processes for further analysis. Kim Cullen states that transitioning the procurement process to more efficient practices can ultimately lead to effective results. Efficient processes can empower purchasing staff to focus on more strategic procurement initiatives. Organizations have to be both effective and efficient in order to be successful. There must be a balance of the two within procurement to reach the high standards expected of a purchasing department. Purchasing organizations can be both effective and efficient; they may just need a little help from Source Suite to get the proper balance.

Effective control and oversight mechanisms are essential in supporting accountability and promoting integrity and efficiency in the public procurement process. The main objective of a public procurement system is to deliver efficiency and value for money in the use of public funds. Ensuring that public entities carry out public procurement in line with these objectives constitutes one of governments' important mandates. Countries increasingly measure efficiency and cost-effectiveness of public procurement by using performance indicators, along with increasing availability of procurement data.

Efficiency is a procurement system which operates at a minimum cost, in a timely manner, with a minimum bureaucracy, while being responsive to the needs of the ultimate users of the goods, works or services procured.

Effectiveness is the ability to produce intended results through the use of available limited resources.

Van Weele (2002) noted that there are two main aspects of the procurement performance: effectiveness and efficiency. Procurement effectiveness as defined by Van Weele (2002) is

the extent to which the previously stated goals and objectives are being met. It refers to the relationship between actual and planned performance of any human activity. Additionally, he explains that procurement efficiency is the relationship between planned and actual resources required to realize the established goals and objectives and their related activities, referring to the planned and actual costs. As a result, supplier performance is the most important procurement performance driver.

According to Van Weele (2006) purchasing performance is considered to be the result of two elements: purchasing effectiveness and purchasing efficiency. Performance provides the basis for an organization to assess how well it is progressing towards its predetermined objectives, identifies areas of strengths and weaknesses and decides on future initiatives with the goal of how to initiate performance improvements. This means that purchasing performance is not an end in itself but a means to effective and efficient control and monitoring of the purchasing function (Lardenoije, Van Raaij, & Van Weele, 2005).

Knudsen, (1999) suggested that procurement performance starts from purchasing efficiency and effectiveness in the procurement function in order to change from being reactive to being proactive to attain set performance levels in an entity.

Purchasing efficiency and purchasing effectiveness represent different competencies and capabilities for the purchasing function. CIPS Australia (2005) presents the differences between efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency reflects that the organization is “doing things right” whereas effectiveness relates to the organization “doing the right thing”. This means an organization can be effective and fail to be efficient, the challenge being to balance between the two.

Procurement efficiency is considered as the mainstay of a firm’s success as it contributes to economical purchases and the attainment of quality goods. However, low performance by procurement process entails financial loss caused by poor-quality materials, and inflated prices thus contributing to reducing profitability (Juma, 2010). Therefore, public procurement is repeatedly directed by the principles of accountability, transparency, and achieving value for money. Being the major portion of government expenditure, transparency and efficiency in public procurement have become the basic need of growing economies. Efficiency in government public procurement results not only to save financial resources but to reposition them to most anticipated projects as well. Therefore, transparency in public programs helps to bring sustainability to the economy. In this regard, Choi, (2006) describes the public procurement program as an attractive motivation for profit-seekers investors. Therefore, public procurement processes need to be effective to support

government actions (Wittig, 1999). Witting (1999) further asserts that the private corporate sector is also managing to advance its procurement system so that the procurement activities help them to provide rapid response following changing market environment. Procurement efficiency refers to the strategies that how public organizations allocate public funds to procure goods and services (Hall, 2009).

Effective and efficient procurement systems and collaborative relationships are essential to the achievement of organizational goals, cost reduction and supply chain performance. This is achieved by identifying key saving potential areas and driving innovative sourcing models which can enable operators to reinvent their cost structures. According to Thai (2005), every organization that purchases goods or services must have effective standard procurement procedures, the 2 methods they use to acquire those things required for an organization to provide goods/services to its clients. These procedures should cover all aspects of the procurement cycle, including the selection of the supplier, contract negotiations, order placement and payment and should ensure appropriate service delivery

2.8.1 Relationship between Procurement Planning and Procurement Accountability

Relationship between Procurement Planning and procurement accountability A significant number of African countries have over the years adopted measures aimed at decentralization of government, together with development planning and administration; a fashion that became popular in the 1980s (Livingstone & Charlton, 2001). While decentralization of delivering service may be justified on a number of grounds, the literature seems to suggest that improving service delivery has been a common factor (Ahmed et al., 2005; Mullins, 2003; Shah Thompson, 2004). In many developing countries however, decentralization has not been able to achieve the benefits of effective accountability and service delivery because of many challenges confronted by local governments. Lack of commensurate revenue assignments, inadequate access to financial markets, and lack of necessary administrative capacity on the part of local authorities have been some possible explanations (Elhiraika, 2006). In all this debate, the role of public procurement systems remains silent; and yet public procurement and accountability is increasingly recognized as a central instrument to ensure efficient and corruption-free management of public resources (OECD, 2007, p. 19). At every stage of public procurement, there are risks of integrity. During the pre-bidding period; starting from needs assessment, common risks include lack of adequate needs assessment, planning and budgeting of public procurement, requirements that are not

adequate. Objectively defined, an inadequate or irregular choice of the procedure and a timeframe for the preparation of the bid that is insufficient or not consistently applied across bidders (OECD, 2007). All these concern the function of procurement planning. Should local government's procurement system fail to manage these risks, accountability and eventual service delivery is seriously threatened (Basheka, 2008b). Service delivery as a deliberate obligatory decision by the elected or appointed officials to serve or deliver goods and services to the recipients operates under a framework, in this case, the legal framework governing procurement planning in local government. Accountability framework is a set of principles, standards, policies and constraints used to guide the design, development, deployment, operation and retirement of services delivered by a service provider with a view to offering a consistent service experience to a specific user community in a specific business context (Helmsing, 1995). Accountability is core to any Government obtaining value for money, thus saving public funds that can be used in other important projects. Bruce Stone in his article *Administrative Accountability in the 'Westminster' Democracies*: states that the quest for accountability is a response to the biases associated with discretion. The possession of various sorts of discretion by administrators, gives rise to expectations and suspicions in a diverse range of groups which create a need for the exercise of discretion to be justified or legitimized. Accountability therefore leads to satisfaction of legitimate expectations about the use of administrative discretion or the legitimization of discretion. Institutional mechanisms which justify discretion and which may at times be employed include arrangements for appealing against decisions or review mechanism, arrangements for outside participation in decision making, arrangements where decision making is placed in the hands of acknowledged experts on the assumption that decisions will thereby be governed by the norms as well as expertise of a profession, measures for answerability or the rendering of formal account statements or reasons for decisions and arrangements for external evaluation of decision making. According to Helmsing (1995) the importance of procurement reform in almost all country's settings can be demonstrated based on its scale and role in terms of service delivery, the amount of money wasted by existing practices, reduced competition, higher prices due to market perceptions of risk, as well as the demonstrated ability of countries to capture enormous savings through concerted efforts to strengthen their procurement function (Agaba and Shipman, 2007). The government of Ghana through the decentralization system has put in place provisions to ensure the realization of her long term objective of improving the quality of life of its citizens. Procurement refers to the function of purchasing goods and services. Public procurement on

the other hand is the acquisition by public bodies of the various goods and services that they need for their activities. Any procurement begins with planning, choosing a provider, and after the contract is made, there follows the process of contract administration. In all these stages, accountability should be taken into consideration which ensures that a body charged with a function, performs it or that the body gives reasons for failure to perform such tasks with prescribed repercussions. Accountability within the public sector has largely been hindered by unethical conduct among some public officials, lack of clear laws, impunity, political patronage, failure to enforce existing sanctions, among other reasons. Lack of proper accountability amongst the public has caused economic loss due to malpractices in government institutions. This study aims at examining accountability in public sector procurement and more specifically the strengths and weaknesses of the Public Procurement and Disposal Act 2005 as it relates to procurement of goods and services in Government agencies, ministries and department.

Basheka (2004) argues that procurement planning is one of the primary functions of procurement with a potential to contribute to the success of local government operations and improved service delivery. It is a function that sets in motion the entire acquisition/procurement process of acquiring services in local governments. Accountability goes beyond bureaucratic or hierarchical notions of control and formal explanations. Rules on discretion in public procurement should be addressed by having clear laws hence leaving a very small room for discretion. This can be justified by the understanding that anyone with bad motives can plead discretion to justify any unlawful procedures. Ruth W. Grant & Robert O. Keohane, in their review, *Accountability and Abuses of Power in World Politics* state that accountability implies that some actors have the right to hold other actors to a set of standards, to judge whether they have fulfilled their responsibilities in light of those standards, and impose sanctions if they determine that these responsibilities have not been met. The concept of accountability therefore implies that, the actors being held accountable have obligations to act in ways that are consistent with accepted standards of behaviour and that they will be sanctioned for failures to do so. Accountability functions to expose and sanction two sorts of abuses namely: the unauthorized or illegitimate exercise of power, and decisions that are judged by accountability holders to be unwise or unjust. Enhancing accountability requires establishing institutions, that provide information to those people trying to hold power-wielders accountable and that enable them to impose sanctions on the power wielders. Grant and Keohane stress on accountability mechanisms and emphasize largely on the legal mechanism. To them, in both the participation model; where the

performance of power wielders is evaluated by those who are affected by their actions and the delegation model; whereby performance is evaluated by those entrusting them with powers or those who authorized them, citizens are advised to sue powerful entities for failures of responsibility. Mullins (2003) asserts that the contribution of procurement planning in facilitating an efficient and effective service delivery in public sector organizations is generally undisputed in both developed and developing countries. Its contribution can be at both central and local government levels of public sector management. Appropriate planning ensures that the procurement is in line with the organizational needs and encourages the capability to meet customer expectations, (Ruparathna and Hewage 2015). In addition, according to Meehan, Ludbrook and Mason (2016), good planning prevents the organization from losing money, when the planning is poor as it ensures that only the important items are procured at the right amount and at the right time. Fisher and Corbalán (2013) identified that organizations that have procurement budget, have better service delivery comparing to those that do not have. According to Aliza, Kajewski and Bambang (2011), involving all the departments during the budgeting process ensures accountability, transparency and high service delivery. This is because proper specification of the equipment and items required by each department is necessary in procurement planning to enhance the service delivery. It ensures that better items, equipment and supplies that will service customers' needs are procured. It eliminates the chances of not offering services and products to customers because they are not available (Guillaume, Thierry and Grabot 2011). Planning activities that take into consideration the long-term cost of strategy of the organization, also lead to good service delivery. Procurement planning that tends to anticipate future needs of government ministries department and agencies. Grant and Keohane emphasizes on promotion of accountability by making procurement officers answerable to their actions. This will help in coming up with reform measures which are aimed at deterring anyone perpetrating irregularities in public sector procurement. Planning enables the company to anticipate the future and hence procure equipment and supplies that will lead to customer satisfaction (Sahling and Kayser 2016). Collin Scott in his article, Accountability in the Regulatory State, states that the central problem of accountability arises from the delegation of authority to a wide range of public and some private actors through legislation, contracts or other mechanisms. Debates over accountability have to grapple with the uncomfortable dilemma of how to give sufficient autonomy to these actors for them to be able to achieve their tasks while at the same time ensuring an adequate degree of control. In defining and mapping accountability, Scott states that it can be said to be the

duty to give account for one's actions to some other person or body. Most important questions are who is accountable, to whom and for what. Too much discretion and delegation of authority without clear laws, is a contributing factor to lack of proper accountability. Both discretion and delegation should therefore be regulated and balanced so as to curb abuses. Janna J. Hansen's journal article, *Limits of Competition: Accountability in Government Contracting* indicates that a process of contracting out government services ought to be accountable to the public, to the agency's relevant constituency, and to the officials involved. This is to be achieved if the formal and informal controls surrounding the contract, and the contract management process supports the goals of reasonable timely decisions, reasonably effective service delivery outcomes, a fair, non-corrupt process and input from the public. Procurement planning that also takes into consideration the offers made by the competitors to ensure that the company offers its services at a more affordable price than competitors, is also enhancing customers' perception of value offered by the company (Haw-kins, Gravier, Berkowitz Muir 2015). Besides the importance and regulatory requirement of procurement planning, Masaburi, (2006) and Mlinga, (2006) noted that, many procurement entities do not give the preparation of annual procurement plan the proper attention it deserves. Accountability can be achieved by complying with sound procurement mechanisms, how to explore the weaknesses in policies, systems, processes and methods of work, lack of political will, lack of integrity, impunity, gross misuse of discretion coupled with nepotism and tribalism. All these are to be pursued so as to enhance accountability in public sector procurement and save public funds. Peter Trepte in his work, *Regulating Procurement: Understanding the Ends and Means of Public Procurement Regulation*, posits that regulation defines measures employed by the state to promote its economic and social policies. This is a sustained and focused control exercised by a public agency on the basis of a legitimate mandate over activities that are socially valued. Procurement regulation should be divided into three categories namely economic, political and international models. The economic model refers to the significance of the market order to the regulation of procurement and highlights the issue of economic efficiency and instances of market failure. It is understood to mean the act of a public body purchasing or acquiring goods, works and services from the market place, while the political model on the other hand recognizes the fact that governments have long used procurement as a tool to pursue a number of other (socially desirable) policies, for instance industrial policy considerations, regional or national development, protection of domestic production, social policies such as gender or racial equality or the protection of minority rights and

environmental protection. The international model brings an added dimension to the regulation of procurement in the national context, given that the government may bind itself to a number of international trade obligations which may limit its scope of action in the field of procurement. All regulation is purposive. It is an instrument of public policy. The government represents the public interest and is entrusted with a responsibility to achieve and promote certain policies which are assumed to be in the public good and which seek to reflect that public interest. To achieve accountability, on corruption eradication, Trepte suggests that the most important way of combating corruption in developing economies is the creation of private markets for suppliers since they largely depend on the government for sale of their products, over and above codes of conduct and penalties for corruption. His study on regulation and corruption eradication is very critical to my research as he sets a guideline that can be used in promoting accountability. However, provision of markets for suppliers might not be a solution to combating corruption. The culture of corruption can be eradicated by instilling positive values which in other words is promotion of integrity amongst public officers. Clear regulation is crucial so as to be able to know whether the laws have been complied with and question or hold people accountable in case of breach. Accountability requires that a body charged with a function performs it and that the body gives reasons for failure to perform such tasks with prescribed repercussions. It implies that some actors have the right to hold other actors to a set of standards, to evaluate whether they have fulfilled their responsibilities in light of those principles, and impose sanctions if they determine that these responsibilities have not been met. Public procurement accounts for a significant proportion of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of any country, hence the need to ensure that accountability systems are put in place.

According to PMBoK (2004) as cited in Hassim et al, (2011), procurement planning involves determining whether to acquire outside support, if so what to acquire, how to acquire it, how much is needed, and when to acquire it, while Mullins (2003) has argued that, procurement planning is the process of determining the procurement needs of an entity and the timing of their acquisition and their funding such that the entities operations are met as required in an efficient way. Annual procurement plan is the procuring entity's indicative plan of what, how and when to procure goods, works and services for a particular financial year. It is a tool that facilitates early and smooth procurement process and draws businesses' early attention to procuring entity's planned procurement of the forthcoming financial year (Basheka, 2006).

Accountability is focused on the fact that the government is obliged to explain to the people where the public budget ends and where the impact of the budget is on people's welfare. This obligation refers to the basic purpose of a government, which is to serve the community. Thus, the higher the accountability, the higher the performance of the budget for the Value for Money concept. Accountability is a form of obligation for the organizers of public activities to be able to explain and answer all matters relating to the steps of all decisions and processes carried out, as well as accountability for the results and performance (Lukito: 2014).

Transparency in procurement is characterized by clear procedural rules for choosing contractors, the application for which is often verification. A sound procurement system seems to have two groups of goals; procurement goals and non-procurement goals. The procurement goals normally include quality, timeliness, cost (more than just the price), minimizing business, financial and technical risks, maximizing competition, and maintaining integrity. The non-procurement goals on the other hand include economic goals (preferring domestic or local firms), environment protection or green procurement (promoting the use of recycled goods), social goals (assisting minority), and international relations goals. Public procurement is a complicated system within which there are many conflicting interests. This calls for sound procurement regulations and principles as mentioned above, so as to increase public confidence in the procedures followed, and to ensure fair and equitable treatment of all persons who deal with the procurement system. Accountability is a form of obligation for the organizers of public activities to be able to explain and answer all matters relating to the steps of all decisions and processes carried out, as well as accountability for the results and performance (Lukito: 2014). Measurement of government accountability is often done by using a comparison between planning and realization (Moeheriono, 2012; Ahmad & Sahar: 2019, pp. 1540-1543).

2.9 TRANSACTIONAL COST

Transaction cost (TC) has traditionally examined customer-supplier relationships in the context of contractual arrangements. This enables the development of appropriate strategies, such as long-term agreements and alliances, to eliminate the risk associated with contracting uncertainty, limiting the number of instances of bargaining or opportunism and asset specificity. In the context of procurement decisions, transaction cost could generate a valuable understanding of the costs associated with

coordination, inspection, translation, incentives, transactions, and other interactions. This paper therefore reports on an exploratory effort to capture the transaction costs (TCs) of different procurement systems used in government ministries, departments and agencies. Specifically determining the relative values of TCs for Traditional and Design - Build systems for the purpose of comparison.

According to Roland Coase, transaction cost is used in formulating a theoretical framework for determining when specific economic tasks would be performed by both the firm and the market. He further explored pricing mechanisms and found that there are costs that is related to

searching for relevant prices, negotiating, and making a contract (Coase 1992, Coase 1988, Coase 1960). It reviews the various approaches that could enable the selection of appropriate procurement systems and/or make-or-buy decisions that could minimize TCs and therefore enhance the performance of government ministries, departments and agencies.

In addition transaction cost focuses on economic actors' behavioural assumptions (opportunism and bounded rationality) and transaction characteristics; i.e. asset specificity, uncertainty, frequency, complexity, and contestability (Williamson 1985, Williamson 2005, Williamson 2010b). Heide and John (1990) contend that TCE provides a useful framework for the selection of the most suitable procurement system for projects.

Eriksson (2007) argue that the procurement selection decisions are always judgmental, subject to bias, and heavily affected by individual experiences of a particular procurement system. Given that transaction cost is such a significant component in procurement and that the procurement decision is highly cost sensitive, it seems apparent that there is a need to better evaluate TCs in both public and private sector organizations.

Ronald Coase first introduced the concept of TCs in 1937 (Jacobides 2008). He subsequently further investigated pricing mechanisms and concluded that there are costs related to searching for relevant prices, negotiating, and making a contract (Coase 1992, Coase 1988, Coase 1960). Williamson (1985) developed the theory of TCE by focusing on the economic actors' behavioural assumptions (opportunism and bounded rationality) and transaction characteristics; i.e. asset specificity, uncertainty, frequency, complexity, and contestability (Williamson 2005, Williamson 2010a, Williamson 1985). Economic actors behaving opportunistically with bounded rationality and uncertainties dominate contracts, which partially accounts for contingencies. Importantly TCE has traditionally examined the customer-supplier relationship in the context of a contractual arrangement. This relationship is associated with TCs including; costs of information, negotiation, competitive advantage,

contract administration and management, market structure, enforcement, and measuring/monitoring performance (Melese and Franck 2005, Artz 1999, Heide and Stump 1995).

TCs perspective has received considerable attention by researchers and academics and has been applied to a variety of construction topics. The rationale behind applying TCs in construction is to understand the cooperation and motivation among project stakeholders. Eccles (1981) conducted an investigation on the impact of asset specificity and uncertainty in the governance form of construction firms (Eccles 1981). Eccles adopted the hybrid contract (the quasi-firm) for examining the relationship between contractor and sub-contractor. Winch (1989, 2008) investigated the relationship of socio-technical systems, organization and environment, and project management in construction. Winch believes that the three perspectives do not fully elucidate the differentiation and integration of market governance. This means the transaction between firms in using the market governance model does not fully examine the relationships between firms (Winch 1989, 2008).

Transactional cost According to Lv et al (2012), the idea of transaction costs origin from Coase's literature—The Nature of the Firm. In The Problem of Social Cost, he indicates that in order to carry out a market transaction it is necessary to discover who it is that one wishes to deal with, to inform people that one wishes to deal with and to what terms, to conduct negotiations leading up to a bargain, to draw up the contract, to undertake the inspection needed to make sure that the terms of the contract are being observed, and so on (Coase, 1960).

The focus of transaction cost analysis is on the make-or-buy decision, which has been described as the paradigm problem of TCE (Shelanski and Klein, 1995).

Dutta, Bergen, Heide and John (1995) applied TCE to examine how manufacturer lock-in (due to specific assets) and performance ambiguity might influence the use of single or dual distribution systems. Specifically, TCE argues that buyers should internalize their supply requirements to pre-empt against the hazards of opportunism in engaging external agents or suppliers, especially when transaction specific assets are involved

in the exchange relationships. However, internalization is not the only means to safe guard against the opportunism of exchange partners.

According to TCE, transaction costs vary according to the characteristics of the transaction such as asset specificity, uncertainty, and frequency associated with the exchange relationship (Williamson, 1985). the transaction cost is formally derived and is endogenous

on learning specificity, that is, the extent of idiosyncratic knowledge that a supplier acquires over time. This ex-post cost therefore differs from the agency cost that arises from the private information that agents have of their own productivity or non-verifiability of agents' effort (e.g., Grossman and Hart, 1986; Olsen, 1996).

KNUST



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology which underpinned the study as well as the profile of the selected organization. The chapter starts with the research design and purpose, and then moves on to the research population and sample. The technique for gathering data as well as the data source were also discussed. The chapter then presents the data analysis technique, validity and reliability of the measures and ethical consideration. The chapter ends with a profile of the selected universities used for the study.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is either quantitative, qualitative or mixed approach. The study adopted the quantitative research approach in undertaking the study. Quantitative research design deals with the use of numbers and statistical methods and tools to explain a phenomenon (Bloomfield and Fisher, 2019). The researcher employed quantitative technique to establish significance and association among the variables. The research purpose is either descriptive, explanatory or exploratory for any given study. For this study the research purpose was both explanatory and descriptive. Whereas the explanatory research purpose was adopted because of the quantitative nature of the study, the descriptive purpose was also used for the first objective which described certain phenomena.

3.1.1 Research Population

Population is referred to as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conforms to a set of specifications. Polit & Hungler (1999). The population is set of all units that the research covers, or to which it can be generalized (Neuman, 2006). The population of the study consist of management and employees of Ministry of Food and Agricultural (MOFA) in the Ashanti Region

3.1.2 Sample and Sampling Technique

The respondents in this study were selected from management and employees at Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Kumasi Metropolitan Directorate premised. A total of 60 metro directors and employees were selected using purposive sampling techniques. Purposive sampling involves using one's own judgment to select cases which best meets a study's objectives and answers the research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2011). The technique enabled the researcher to identify and select key informants who have the relevant information necessary to achieve the research objectives.

3.1.3 Data and Research Instruments

Research can be executed using either primary data or secondary data. Researchers prefer using methods that provide high accuracy, generalizability, and explanatory power, with low cost, rapid speed and maximum management demands and administrative convenience (Onyango, 2012). Basing on this fact, this study was conducted using primary data through the use of questionnaires document analysis.

3.1.4 Questionnaires

The structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. These questionnaires for the study were adapted from already existing work that have proved to be reliable. Questionnaires facilitate easy and quick derivation of information within a short time (Borg and Gall, 1983). The questionnaire made it possible to obtain a wide variety of responses and to draw more reliable conclusions from the responses. Closed ended questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data to satisfy the objectives of the study. Questionnaires were administered to the employees and some Metro Directors of Ministry of Foods and Agriculture in the Kumasi Metropolis.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. Section 'A' contained information on the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The demographic characteristics included gender, age, education qualification, marital status, and years of service of respondents. Section 'B' was about procurement planning. This was segmented into three parts; procurement planning process, procurement planning practices, and value of procurement planning. Respondents were asked various questions under each segment. Section "C"

contained information about procurement accountability, under which various questions were asked.

Generally, a five-point Likert Scale were used for the coding where appropriate. For five-point Likert Scale rating, the coding is as follows: Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Neutral (3); Agree (3); Strongly Agree (5). Percentages, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviation were used in interpreting views of the respondents. A criterion is considered significant when it attains a mean of 3.5 or more based on the five-point Likert scale rating. Again, where two or more criteria have the same mean, the one with the lowest standard deviation is assigned the highest significance ranking.

3.1.5 Data Processing and Analysis

The primary data collected using questionnaires were processed using version 20 of the statistical software, Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS), and Microsoft Excel. The questionnaires they were edited for accuracy, completeness and uniformity. Those with major errors were discarded. Complete questionnaires were given numbers and coded. The information was presented by use of frequencies percentage tables, bar charts and pie charts for quicker interpretation of data. Information collected through the research instruments from respondents were analyzed using descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation. Ordinary least square regression was employed to examine the relationship between the variables of interest.

3.1.6 Model Specification

This research adopted and modified the empirical model in in line with (Abdulsalam and Mawoli, 2012). The following multiple regression model was applied in establishing the link employee motivation and employee motivation performance.

$$A = \beta_0 + \beta_1 PP + \beta_2 PR + \beta_3 V + \mu$$

Where PPAC= procurement accountability (the dependent variable)

β_0 = constant term or intercept term

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ = the respective coefficients

PP = procurement planning process

PR = procurement planning practice

V = value of procurement planning

μ = disturbance term.

The researcher used the ordinary least square regression to determine the model's strength. This model is useful in understanding the link employee motivation and employee performance in the selected private universities. To determine the significance of the indicators in explaining changes in the dependent variables, a significance test at 5% and a confidence level of 95% must be performed.

3.1.7 Validity and Reliability of Constructs

Reliability analysis is applied to determine the internal consistency of the variables in the study. Internal consistency of the items was measured using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. The items were considered to represent an acceptable level of internal consistency if the Cronbach's alpha value within 0.5-0.7 and good level if the Cronbach's Alpha value is more than 0.7. Table 3.1 presents the results for the validity and reliability of the constructs. Based on the Table 3.1, the Cronbach alphas for all the items were greater than the acceptable threshold of 0.7. Thus, the variables were reliable showing a greater degree of internal consistency. Similarly, the variables were valid since the validity coefficients (V.C) were than the minimum acceptable value of 0.7. In conclusion, the researcher began fieldwork when she was confident that enough data would be obtained because the instruments had already been proven to be valid and reliable.

Table 3.1: Validity and Reliability Results

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Validity Coefficients
Procurement Planning Process	14	0.71	0.7
Procurement Planning Practice	6	0.82	0.69
Value of Procurement	3	0.75	0.71
Procurement Accountability	15	0.73	0.73

Source: Field Survey, 2022

3.1.8 Ethical Consideration

Every research requires that proper adherence to ethical standard is followed. The study complies with ethical guidelines/policies on research of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology. In compliance to these guidelines, a number of ethical principles were taken into consideration to ensure the confidentiality, anonymity and interest of respondents of the selected private universities in general.

Before administering the questionnaires, respondents were assured of the use of information given for academic purposes only. To ensure their anonymity and confidentiality, they were not required to indicate their names. They were also informed of their right to voluntary participation and withdrawal at any time (Tracy, 2010).

Data was stored on the researcher's personal laptop, a cloud storage (iCloud) and an external hard drive to minimize security risks or loss of work. All storage files were protected with passwords and backed up weekly whenever new changes were made.

3.1.9 Profile of Ministry of Food and Agriculture – Kumasi Metropolis

The Kumasi Metropolitan area is situated between latitudes 6°35' and 6°40'N and longitudes 1°30' and 1°35'E, covering approximately 254 square kilometres. Its neighbours include the Bosomtwe District to the south, Ejisu-Juaben Municipal to the east, Atwima Kwanwoma and Atwima Nwabiagya District to the west, and the Kwabre District to the north. According to 2021 Population and Housing Census (PHC), the population of Kumasi Metropolis is estimated at about 3,630,326 with a growth rate of 4.0%.

The Metropolis' massive infrastructure development is rapidly limiting agriculture, making sedentary agriculture the preferred agricultural option. The vegetation of Kumasi Metropolis falls within the South-East Ecological zone's moist semi-deciduous region. Rainfall peaks in June and September at 214.3 mm and 16.2 mm, respectively, with an average annual rainfall of 625 mm. In general, the distribution of the rain is good and even. At 9:00 GMT and 15:00 GMT, the relative humidity is respectively 84.16% and 60%. The Metropolis' primary soil type is Forest Ochrosol (MOFA, 2022). The city is dominated by the middle Precambrian Rock and is undulating in general. The principal streams and rivers in the metropolis consist include, Wewe, SubIn, Susan, Oda, Aboabo, Owabi, Akribu, Suntre, Acheamponmene and Asuoeyeboa.

MOFA in Kumasi consists of three main components based on the activities executed. These are: Extension Activities; Veterinary Services; and Statistics, Research and Information Division (SRID). Extension Activities aid in the modernization of agricultural production in order to achieve food self-sufficiency. They also make group formation and sustainability easier. Forums on group sustainability and the formation of new farmer groups are organized for existing groups. Training is being planned for AEAs, DDOs, and DDAs. This is meant to improve technical staff's skills and knowledge of technical issues. The Statistics, Research and Information Division (SRID) make sure that timely, accurate, and relevant data and information about agriculture in the metropolis are available. The Veterinary Services have located at the abattoir, veterinary clinic and the field. They perform both abattoir and field activities. The abattoir section inspects livestock destined for slaughter and trade livestock movement, as well as post-mortem meat inspections on all slaughtered livestock. The field section immunizes cattle against CBPP, sheep/goats against PPR, and dogs, cats, and monkeys against rabies.

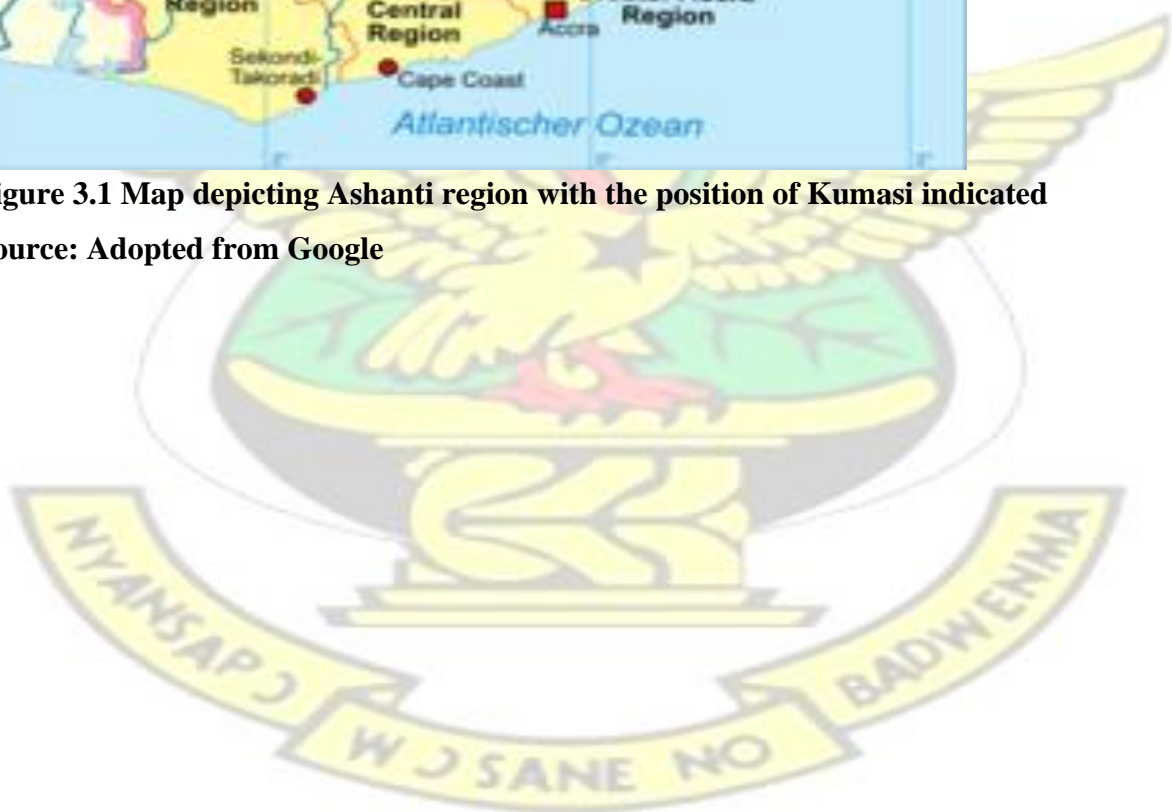
The MOFA in Kumasi is responsible for agricultural input sales, crop production, processing/value addition, marketing and collaboration with NGOs and other educational institutions such as KNUST and Kwadaso Agricultural College. The metro has major markets for its major agricultural commodities. These markets include: Central market, Asawasi Market, Asafo Market, Bantama Market, Tafo Market, Mayanka Market, Race Course, European Market, and Anwona Market. The major agro-input dealers include: Messrs Sefa and Jane Agro-chemical, Bentronic Agrochemicals, Chinese Woman, Obek, Kaakyire Badu Agrochemical, Kumark, Enepa and K. Badu Agrochemical.

The map below shows Ashanti Region with the position indicated



Figure 3.1 Map depicting Ashanti region with the position of Kumasi indicated

Source: Adopted from Google



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter shows the examination of data and explanation of the data gathered through the use of questionnaires. The study was done by administering questionnaires to employees and management members of the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. The total respondents who answered the questionnaires were 60 out of 70 sample size. This constitutes 86.8% response rate. Data gathered was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and presented in tabular forms, figures (pie and bar chart) with added description.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents included the gender, age, academic qualification, marital status, and years of service of the respondents. Each of these characteristics are discussed in turns in the following sub-sections.

4.1.1 Gender of Respondents

Figure 4.1 below shows the gender of the respondents categorized into male and female. Out of the 60 respondents who answered the questionnaires, 36 respondents representing 60% were males. 24 respondents representing 40% were females. It can be concluded that the gender of the respondents was fairly represented.

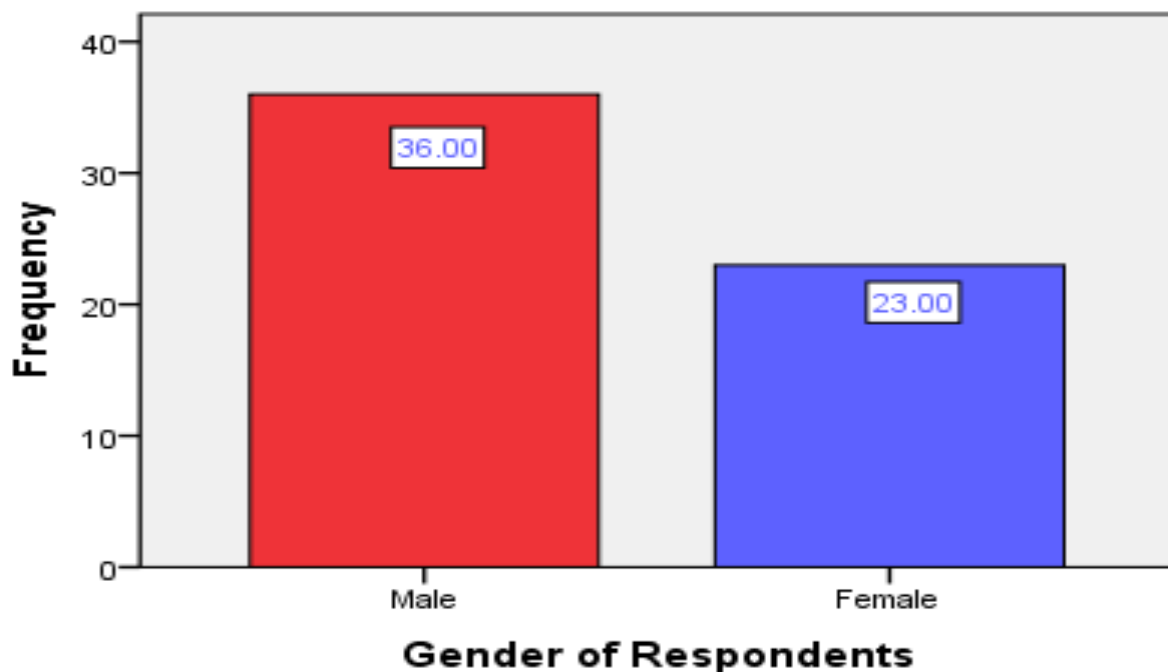


Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.1.2 Age of Respondents

The age of respondents (in years) is shown Figure 4.2. The age of respondents was categorised as follows: below 25 years, 25 – 35 years, 36 – 45 years, 46 – 55 years, and above 55 years. Based on the field survey, 10 respondents representing 17% of the sample were below the age of 25 years. 15 respondents constituting 25% of the sample were in the ages between 25 – 35. Majority of the respondents who answered the questionnaires were in the ages between 36 – 45. This were made up of 20 respondents representing 33% of the sample. 9 of the respondents were aged between 46 – 55, which is made up of 15% of the sample. The least age group who answered the questionnaires were above 55 years, which represents 10% of the sample.

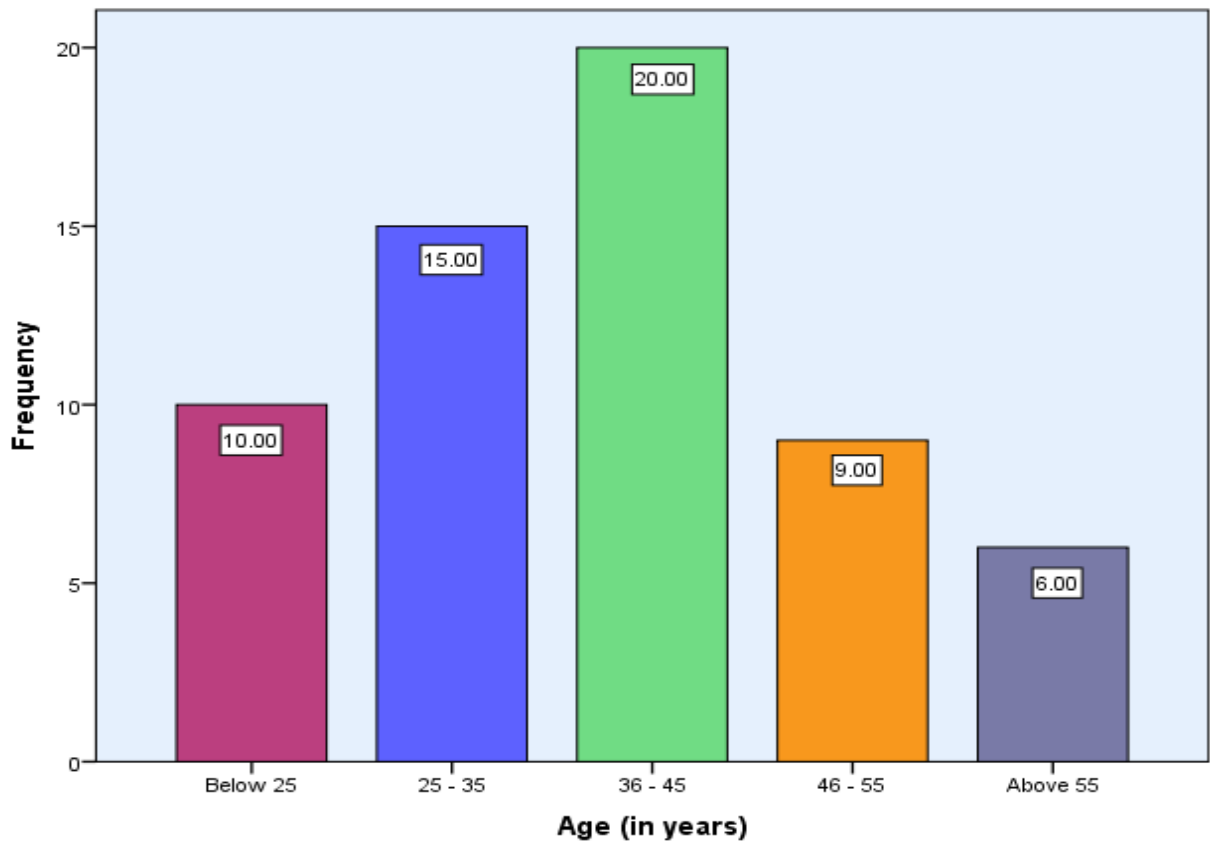


Figure 4.2: Age of Respondents

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.1.3 Qualification of the Respondents

Figure 4.3 presents the qualification of the respondents to which the questionnaires were administered to. From the figure, respondents who have acquired Postgraduate Degree was 9 out of the total 60 respondents. The majority, made up of 20 respondents who answered the questionnaires have 1st Degree. 11 respondents have Diploma while 9 respondents have Certificate. Those having Secondary and JHS/Primary qualification were made up of 1 and 4 respondents respectively.

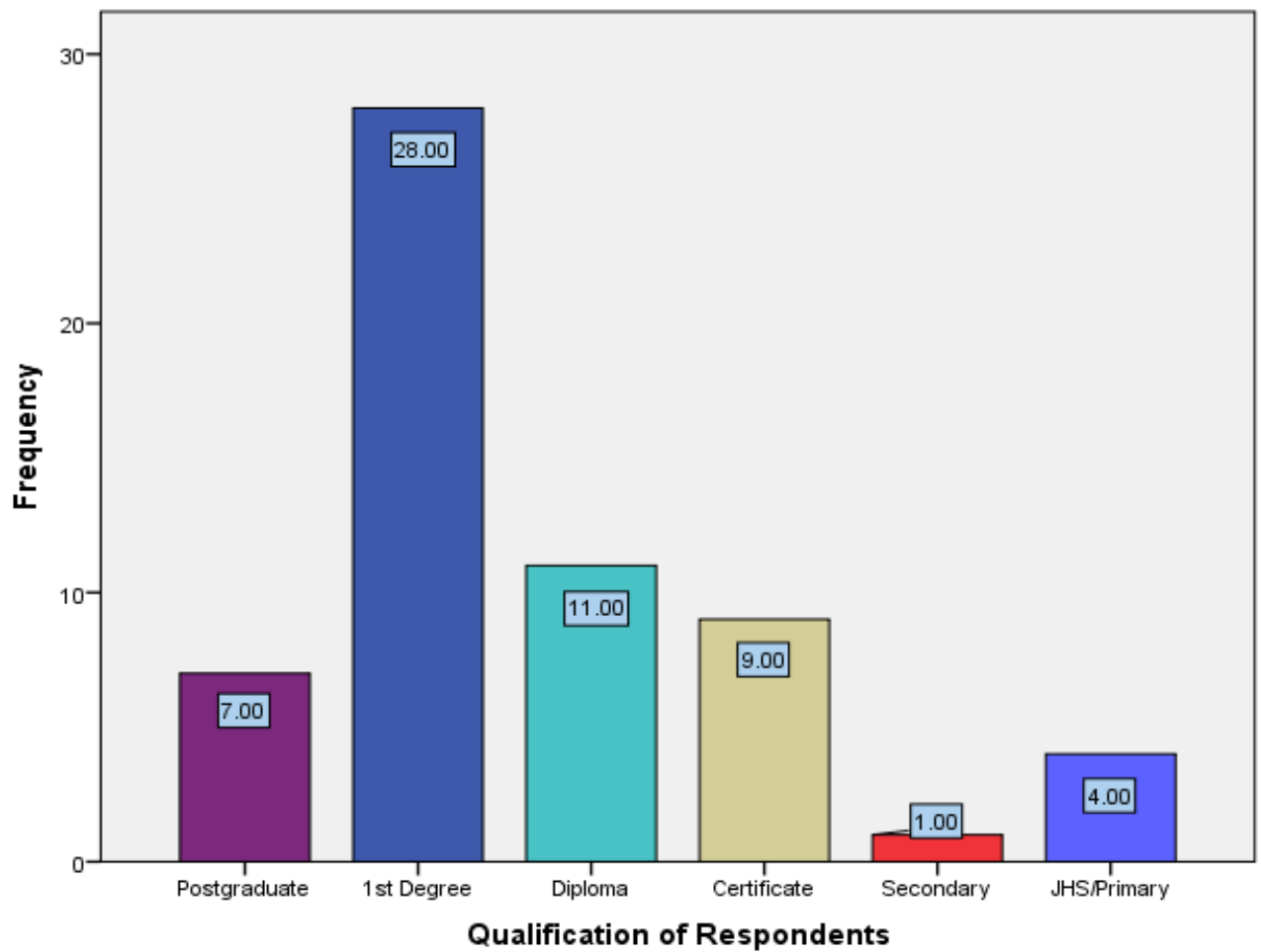


Figure 4.3: Qualification of Respondents

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.1.4 Marital Status

The marital status of the respondents is shown in Figure 4.4. From the figure 58% of the respondents to whom the questionnaires were administered to were single. 42% of the respondents who answered the questionnaires were married.

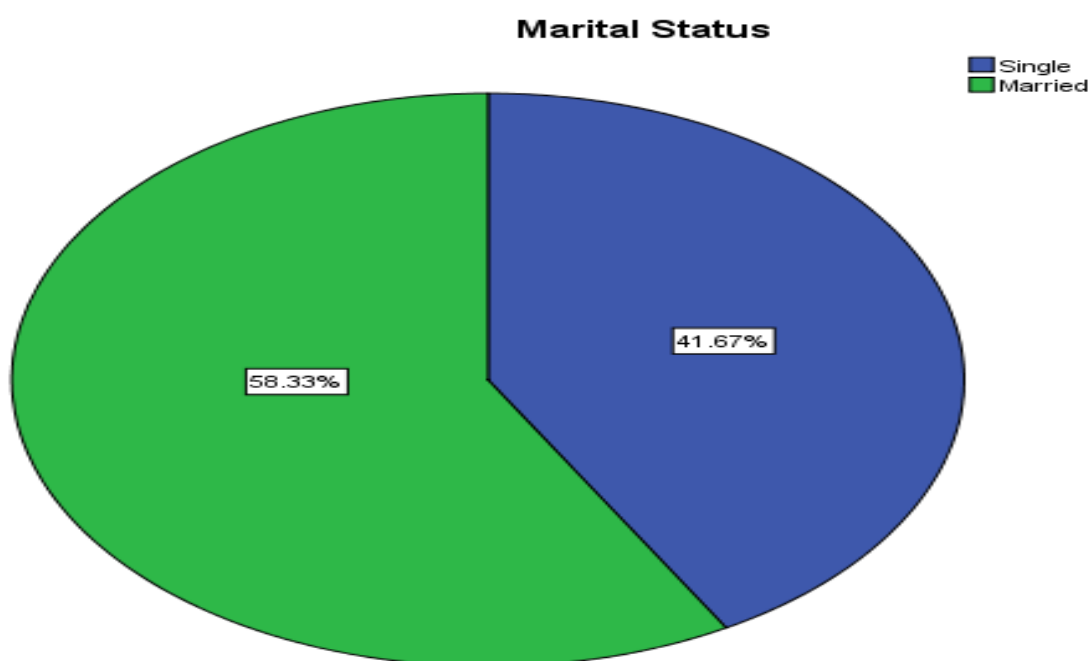


Figure 4.4: Marital Status of Respondents

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.1.5 Years of Service

Table 4.1 presents the years of service of the respondents with the Kumasi Directorate of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture. The results of the field survey indicated that, 17 respondents which represents 28.3% have been engaged with Ministry for less than 2 years. 14 respondents representing 23.3% have worked with the Ministry between 2 to 3 years., 8 respondents representing 13.3% have been with the Ministry between 4 to 6 years, 6 respondents representing 10% have worked with the Ministry between 7 to 10 years, and 15 respondents representing 25% have been engaged with the Ministry for over 10 years. From the Field survey, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents have worked with the Ministry for over 2 years.

Table 4.1: Years of Service with the Ministry

Years of Service	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Below 2 years	17	28.3	28.3
2 - 3 years	14	23.3	51.7
4 - 6 years	8	13.3	65
7 - 10 years	6	10	75
Above 10 years	15	25	100
Total	60	100	

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

In this section, the construct item measurements of the various variables used are being presented descriptively. The items include procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, value of procurement planning and procurement accountability. The descriptive include the number of responses, minimum value, maximum value, the mean value, and standard deviation. The presentations of these descriptive statistics are shown in the subsections below.

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Process

Table 4.2 shows the extent of the procurement planning processes adopted by the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. On a scale of 1 – 5, respondents in the Directorate were asked various asked to present their views on the procurement planning processes of the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. The scale of the Likert scale questionnaire ranged from 1 - Strongly Disagree; 2 - Disagree; 3 - Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 - Agree; and 5 - Strongly Agree. The number of respondents, minimum values, maximum values, mean score, and standard deviation are matched against the Likert scale questions to evaluate the procurement planning process of the Directorate. The mean score for the majority of the items in Table 4.2 is greater than 3.00. This indicates that the procurement planning process in the Kumasi sector is optimally good, as there is positive agreement on the procurement planning process.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Process

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. List of what needs to be bought are forwarded to the procurement and disposal unit	60	1.00	5.00	3.87	1.02
2. Our meetings sometimes discuss procurement matters	60	2.00	5.00	3.70	0.70
3. We also obtain things from the market such as, items types and prices	60	1.00	5.00	3.65	0.73
4. Obtaining approval of what we have planned to buy is done	60	1.00	5.00	3.63	1.01
5. The method of purchasing items is always identified early before actual purchase	60	1.00	5.00	3.55	0.79
6. Time when the items to be bought are needed is stated and communicated	60	1.00	5.00	3.47	1.17
7. We agree with other departments/finance on money allocation	60	1.00	5.00	3.32	1.07
8. Combined list of what we need to buy is circulated and avail to staff members	60	1.00	5.00	3.30	1.00
9. What we plan to buy is listed in order starting from the most important to the least important items	60	2.00	5.00	3.28	0.64
10. We only agree on what our division can afford to buy	60	1.00	5.00	3.15	0.90
11. What we agreed to buy is always written down	60	1.00	5.00	3.12	1.15
12. We always put together similar items that needs to be bought	60	1.00	5.00	3.03	0.92
13. What need to be bought are aligned with the money available	60	1.00	5.00	2.03	1.11
14. Work for the year is collected from various departments and combined together	60	1.00	4.00	2.12	0.98
Valid N (listwise)	60				

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Practice

Table 4.3 presents the descriptive statistics of the procurement planning practices of the Directorate base on the responses gathered from the field survey. Similarly, the number of respondents, minimum values, maximum values, mean score, and standard deviation are

matched against the Likert scale questions to examine the procurement planning practices of the Kumasi Directorate. Based on the responses of the field survey, the mean score for most of the responses were less than 2.5, although respondents were generally optimistic on the first and second items of procurement planning practice. It can be concluded that the procurement planning practice of the Kumasi Sector of Ministry of Food and Agriculture cannot be said to be a good one.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Planning Practice

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. We identify where the money to use in buying things will come from.	60	1.00	5.00	2.85	0.92
2. Discussing matters of procurement in our meeting is our responsibility	60	1.00	5.00	2.62	1.01
3. Discussing and recording what need to be bought ensures that our needs are shown clearly	60	1.00	5.00	2.45	1.08
4. We forward to government how much money we need	60	1.00	5.00	2.43	1.05
5. Each department has different work to do and they are determine early enough before works begins	60	1.0	5.0	2.43	0.87
6. We involve other stakeholders in determining what we need to buy	60	1.00	5.00	2.37	1.01
Valid N (listwise)	60				

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.2.3 Descriptive Statistics of Value of Procurement Planning

Table 4.4 shows the extent of the value of procurement planning from the responses of the Likert scale questionnaires. The number of respondents, minimum values, maximum values, mean score, and standard deviation are matched against the Likert scale questions to examine the procurement planning practices of the Kumasi Directorate. From Table 4.4, it can be

concluded that mean score majority of the items were above 2.5. This implies that Kumasi Directorate of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture generally value in their procurement planning.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of Value of Procurement Planning

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. We always get quality goods and services when we determine what we want to buy early enough.	60	1.00	5.00	2.83	0.99
2. Determining what we want to purchase early ensures that we accomplish government plans in time	60	1.00	5.00	2.78	1.043
3. Determining what we wants to buy early ensures that we do the right thing	60	1.00	5.00	2.68	1.13
Valid N (listwise)	60				

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.2.4 Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Accountability

Table 4.5 shows the descriptive statistics of procurement accountability of the responses gathered from the field survey. From the Likert scale questionnaires, respondents were asked to respond to 15 main themes of procurement accountability. The mean value for majority of the responses were greater than the threshold, 2.5. This indicates that the current level of procurement accountability of Kumasi directorate is on the rise and good.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of Procurement Accountability

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. We keep citizens informed about when services will be performed.	60	1.00	5.00	3.43	0.98
2. Our staffs have knowledge in answering citizen's questions.	60	1.00	5.00	3.25	1.08
3. We understand the need of the people we serve.	60	1.00	5.00	3.25	1.08
4. We have good relations with our suppliers.	60	1.00	5.00	3.15	1.07
5. We provide services as planned/promised.	60	1.00	5.00	3.13	1.13
6. Our suppliers respect and follow our service delivery schedule.	60	1.00	5.00	3.12	1.28
7. Services are delivered to the public on time as required.	60	1.00	5.00	3.10	0.95
8. We provide service as planned within our budget.	60	1.00	5.00	3.08	1.17
9. Bulk purchase increase bargaining power.	60	1.00	5.00	3.07	1.25
10. Accessing our services is always fast.	60	1.00	5.00	3.07	1.10
11. There is less delays in communicating our services to the public.	60	1.00	5.00	3.02	1.10
12. We use modern equipment in delivering services.	60	1.00	5.00	2.97	1.13
13. We provide sustainable services to the community.	60	1.00	5.00	2.92	1.06
14. Our suppliers deliver what we need on time.	60	1.00	5.00	2.90	1.23
15. Our administrative cost is always low.	60	1.00	5.00	2.73	1.36
Valid N (listwise)	60				

Source: Field Survey (2022)

4.3 Pearson Correlation Analysis

The Pearson correlation coefficient, denoted by r , is a measure of the degree of a linear relationship between two variables (Adler and Parmryd, 2010). The goal of Pearson correlation analysis is to find the best line of fit between the data of two variables. The Pearson correlation coefficient, r , can range between +1 and -1. A value of 0 indicates that no relationship exists between the two variables. A value greater than 0 indicates a positive association. A value less than 0 indicates a negative association. Table 4.6 shows the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) of the main variables employed in the study. From the table, there is a significant positive correlation between procurement planning process and procurement accountability ($r = 0.295$, $p.value < 0.05$). Similarly, there is a significant strong positive correlation between value of procurement planning and procurement accountability ($r = 0.645$, $prob. value < 0.05$). From the table, there is an negative and statistically insignificant correlation between procurement planning practice and procurement accountability. The preliminary correlation analysis indicates that there is a degree of relationship between the dependent variables (procurement accountability) and the independent variables (procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, and value of procurement accountability).

Table 4.6: Pearson Correlation Analysis

Variable	P. Accountability	P. Planning Process	P.Planning Practice	Value of P.Planning
P. Accountability	1			
P. Planning Process	0.295*	1		
P. Planning Practice	-0.032	0.066	1	
Value of P. Planning	0.645*	0.1	-0.144	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.4 Model Summary

Table 4.7 shows the linear regression model summary statistics for the dependent variable, procurement accountability and the independent variables; procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, and value of procurement planning. The R Square of the model is

59%. This implies that the independently variables jointly and significantly explain he changes dependent variable by 59%. Thus, procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, and value of procurement planning strongly and accurately predicts procurement accountability. Similarly, the adjusted R Square shows a strong correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Both the R Square and Adjusted R Square are more than 50% indicating that the model is nicely fitted.

Table 4.7: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.399 ^a	.590	.521	.43648

a. Predictors: (Constant), V, PP, PR

4.5 Regression Analysis

Table 4.8 presents the regression results on the impacts of procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, and value of procurement planning on procurement accountability of the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. In establishing the nexus between the variables, multiple linear regression technique was employed. The first objective of the study was to examine whether procurement planning process (PP) contribute to effective procurement accountability (A). From the regression results, the beta coefficient of procurement planning process (PP) was positive (0.539) and statistically significant (prob. value <0.05). This implies that the Directorate procurement planning process contribute positively to the procurement accountability. The result of this study is congruent with the results of a study carried out by (Enofe, 2017). According to the findings of this study, first, professionalism in the public procurement process has the potential to influence government accountability in Nigeria, second, transparency in the public procurement process has a positive relationship with the level of government accountability in Nigeria.

The second objective of the study was to examine the effect of procurement planning practices on procurement accountability. From the results presented in Table 4.8, the beta coefficient of procurement planning practice (PR) was negative (-0.122) at a statistically insignificant level (prob. value >0.05). This means there is a negative relationship between procurement planning practices (PR) and procurement accountability, but the degree of relationship is statistically insignificant. This study contravenes an earlier conducted by AduSarfo (2017) who assessed the influence of the Procurement Act (663) on the transparency of the Public Financial Management in Ashanti Region. The study found that procurement practices were transparent in the sense that decisions on procurement activities were made in accordance with the Act's rules and regulations, and these decisions were available and accessible to the public.

Finally, the third objective of the study was to examine the impact of the value of procurement planning (V) on procurement accountability (A). The beta coefficient of value of procurement planning (V) is positive (0.020) and statistically significant (prob. value <0.05). This means there is a positive relationship between value of procurement planning and procurement accountability.

Table 4.8 Regression Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 (Constant)	1.320	.768		1.720	.091	-.217	2.858
PP	.539	.234	.303	2.303	.015	.070	1.008
PR	-.122	.083	-.035	-.266	.591	-.189	.145
V	.020	.069	.036	.283	.028	-.119	.159

a. Dependent Variable: A

b. Predictors: (Constant), V, PP, PR

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the discussions of the results and findings of this research. It began with carrying out statistics on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, descriptive statistics on the main variables; procurement planning process, procurement planning practice, and value of procurement planning, and Pearson correlation analysis on these variables. The study extended by embarking model adequacy test to determine the adequacy and appropriateness of the model employed in the study. The goal of this research was to evaluate procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement in public sector organizations taking evidence from the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Based on Multiple Linear Regression Model, it presented the empirical findings of the three primary objectives on how procurement planning substantially impact on procurement accountability in the public sector. The regression outputs showed a significant impact of procurement planning process, and value of procurement planning on accountable procurement. Contrary, the study found an insignificant relationship negative relationship between procurement planning practice and procurement accountability.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

In democracies, citizens have given public agencies under the control and direction of elected politicians the responsibility of providing public services. A thorough system of accountabilities guards and safeguards the interests of citizens. Public procurement practices ought to transparent and accountable. The aim of this study was to evaluate the procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement in the public sector. This chapter therefore presents the summary of findings gathered from the study and provide some policy recommendations which will aid both industry players and future researchers to investigate and evaluate procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement in public sector organizations. The chapter finally ends with conclusion on the study.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of the study was to determine the effects of mergers and acquisitions on the performance of Ecobank Ghana Limited. In conducting the study, primary data through structured questionnaires were employed to solicit views from some employees and management members of the Kumasi Metro Directorate of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture on the procurement planning process, practice, value of procurement planning and procurement accountability. The responses were coded in SPSS. This were further analyzed and displayed in frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts. Multiple linear regression was used to establish the nexus between the variables. The following findings emerged from the study:

5.1.1 Procurement Planning Process and Procurement Accountability

The first objective of this study was to evaluate procurement planning process contribute to effective procurement accountability in public sector institutions using the Kumasi Directorate of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Considering what was reported, procurement planning process in the optimally good, as there is a positive agreement on the procurement planning process. The regression outputs also showed that procurement planning process in the Directorate has a significant positive effect on accountable

procurement. Generally, procurement planning process was found to have a positive effect on procurement accountability. There were a few lapses in the procurement planning process, for example, for example the items procured by the directorate are not aligned with the money available.

5.1.2 Procurement Planning Practice and Procurement Accountability

Another objective of the study was to evaluate the effect of procurement planning practices on procurement accountability. The results revealed that the procurement planning practices of the Kumasi Directorate did not contribute effectively to procurement accountability. The results found a negative and statistically insignificant relationship between procurement planning practices and procurement accountability. The procurement planning practice of the Directorate is not good as respondents did not generally agree on the

5.1.3 Value of Procurement Planning and Procurement Accountability

The third objective of the study was to examine the influence of the value of procurement planning on procurement accountability. Based on the results, there was a positive and significant relationship between value of procurement planning and procurement accountability.

5.2 Conclusion

The research brought to light the connection between procurement planning and accountable procurement in public sector institutions. It was found that procurement planning process and the value of procurement planning positively and significantly affect procurement accountability. The procurement planning process and value of procurement planning ensured accountability, transparency, reduced costs, right specifications and improved quality. It was found out that, the Kumasi Directorate put in place well laid out plans before procuring works, goods and services. However, this does not mean that procurement planning is not characterized by certain weaknesses. The various procurement planning practices did not contribute significantly to accountable procurement as there were disagreement by respondents on certain areas. The Directorate did not involve all stakeholders in determining what need to be procured. Also, each department has different work to do and they are not determine early enough before works begins.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on this research, the following recommendations are deemed to be very important:

1. The Accordingly, the study advises that procurement officers of the various MDA's, MMDA's and other government entities should be hired based on their competency and professionalism because doing so will increase the level of accountability in public sector procurement.
2. The public procurement process should emphasize and encourage transparency, competition, efficiency, and value for money as these factors will also help to ensure the level of government accountability in Ghana.
3. Effective communication, coordination, and cooperation between the various units, divisions, or departments in government institutions are key to developing a good work ethic for teams. This will make it possible for the procurement procedures to move more quickly and aid in the prompt execution of awarded contracts. The government is responsible for making sure that budgetary funds are readily and adequately available. In order for the various procurement activities to be carried out by the respective institutions effectively and efficiently, they should be disbursed on time.
4. In building a good spirit for teamwork, there should be effective communication, coordination and cooperation among the various units, divisions or departments in government institutions. This will help achieve departmental or functional objectives including procurement and the organization in general. It will also enable the procurement processes to be faster and help contracts awarded to be executed in a timely manner. The government must ensure that budgetary allocations or funds are readily and adequately available. They should be disbursed on time to respective institutions to implement their various procurement activities effectively and efficiently.
5. In order to ensure Value for money in public procurement, procurement regulatory authorities must work with public entities to ensure compliance by rigorously monitoring and evaluating the procurement policies and practices.
6. Procurement entities should follow good procurement practices to improve transparency and service delivery. Transparency ensures that goods, works, and services are of high quality and meet the appropriate specifications, allowing the Organization to provide quality service. To ensure value for the organization's resources, a transparent policy such as E-procurement should be implemented by awarding contracts to suppliers who can provide high-quality services and materials at a reasonable price.

7. Finally, provisions for electronic procurement and sustainable procurement issues need to be added to the public procurement law. This will ensure sustainable best practices in our public procurement system and enhance accountability, transparency and compliance.

5.5 Suggestions for Future Research

Because the study looked at evaluating procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement in public sector organizations, specifically, the Kumasi Directorate of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Future research should look at other institutions in the government sector, and possibly the private sector. This is due to the fact that different organizations have distinct traits and diverse contextual realities that may influence their procurement processes and practices. This would result in a thorough empirical finding regarding procurement planning and its effects on accountable procurement.

Future study should be undertaken utilizing multiple research designs in order to offer different approaches to the same problem, hence improving the clarity of the findings by removing the effect of other forces affecting procurement accountability.

Finally, future research should focus mostly on secondary data in order to remove the risk of personal opinion as a result of data collecting via questionnaires and interviews.

REFERENCES

- Adler, J. and Parmryd, I., 2010. Quantifying colocalization by correlation: the Pearson correlation coefficient is superior to the Mander's overlap coefficient. *Cytometry Part A*, 77(8), pp.733-742.
- Agaba, C.C.L., Basheka, B. and Mwesigwa, H.K., 2010. Procurement Planning as a Tool for improved Accountability in the United Nations Development Program Projects in Uganda.
- Akaninyene, O.U. and Mark, J., 2015. Effect of ethics and integrity on good public procurement system. *AFRREV IJAH: An International Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 4(1), pp.168-176.
- Aliu, S.B.F., 2020. *ASSESSING THE PARTICIPATION OF SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES IN PUBLIC PROCUREMENT* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Anane, A. and Kwarteng, G., 2019. Prospects and challenges of Procurement performance Measurement in selected Technical Universities in Ghana. *Asian Journal of Economics, Business and Accounting*, 13(2), pp.1-18.
- Anane, A., Adoma, V. and Awuah, G., 2019. The effect of procurement practices on service delivery: a case study of VRA, Ghana. *Asian Journal of Economics, Business and Accounting*, 13(1), pp.1-23.
- Banerjee, R., Bergen, M., Dutta, S. and Ray, S., 2012. Applications of agency theory in B2B marketing: review and future directions. *Handbook of business-to-business marketing*.
- Barrett, AM, P., 2000. Balancing accountability and efficiency in a more competitive public sector environment. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 59(3), pp.58-71.
- Basheka, B.C., 2008. Procurement planning and accountability of local Government procurement systems in developing countries: Evidence from Uganda. *Journal of public procurement*.
- Basheka, B.C., 2008. Procurement planning and accountability of local Government procurement systems in developing countries: Evidence from Uganda. *Journal of public procurement*.
- Bellodi, L., 2021. Is Partisanship Bad for Bureaucratic Accountability?.
- Bergen, M., Dutta, S. and Walker Jr, O.C., 1992. Agency relationships in marketing: A review of the implications and applications of agency and related theories. *Journal of marketing*, 56(3), pp.1-24.

- Boatema-Yeboah, Y. and Tamakloe, W.A., 2019. Challenges in Public Procurement in Kwahu West Municipal Assembly, Ghana. *African Research Review*, 13(3), pp.42-54.
- Caldeira, S., Storcksdieck, S., Bakogianni, I., Gauci, C., Calleja, A. and Furtad, A., 2017. Public procurement of food for health. *Joint Publication of the Maltese Presidency and the European Union, Brussels, Belgium*.
- Chepkensis, K., Keitany, P. and Kiplel, M., 2018. Effect of Procurement Planning on Suppliers Performance in Public Institutions: A Case of Moi University. *European Journal of Logistics, Purchasing and Supply Chain Management*, 6(2), p.1.
- Dadzie, E., Kumadey, G. and Dyaba, G.T., 2021. *Assessing the Effectiveness of Procurement Systems in Achieving Quality Service in Selected Public Sector Institutions of Ghana Using the Total Quality Management Model*. *African Journal of Procurement, Logistics and Supply Chain Management*, 7(3). Pp.1-42.
- Diggs, S.N. and Roman, A.V., 2012. Understanding and tracing accountability in the public procurement process: Interpretations, performance measurements, and the possibility of developing public-private partnerships. *Public Performance & Management Review*, 36(2), pp.290-315.
- Dunning, T., Grossman, G., Humphreys, M., Hyde, S.D., McIntosh, C., Nellis, G., Adida, C.L., Arias, E., Bicalho, C., Boas, T.C. and Buntaine, M.T., 2019. Voter information campaigns and political accountability: Cumulative findings from a preregistered meta-analysis of coordinated trials. *Science advances*, 5(7), p.eaaw2612.
- Duthaluri, N., 2020. Rwanda-Assessment of the Public Procurement System: Methodology for Assessing Procurement Systems (MAPS)(Vol. 3): Annexes.
- Eisenhardt, K.M., 1989. Agency theory: An assessment and review. *Academy of management review*, 14(1), pp.57-74.
- Enofe, A.O., Okuonghae, O. and Onobun, I.S., 2015. The impact of Public Procurement Act on government accountability in Nigeria. *Journal of Political Science and Leadership Research*, 1(8), pp.114-128.
- Enofe, A.O., Okuonghae, O. and Onobun, I.S., 2015. The impact of Public Procurement Act on government accountability in Nigeria. *Journal of Political Science and Leadership Research*, 1(8), pp.114-128.

- Essoussi, A., 2004. Public Sector Transparency and Accountability in Selected Arab Countries: Policies and Practices. *United Nations Development Programme Regional Bureau for Arab States: New York*.
- Gore, J., Rickards, B. and Fray, L., 2022. From performative to professional accountability: re-imagining 'the field of judgment' through teacher professional development. *Journal of Education Policy*, pp.1-22.
- Greiling, D. and Spraul, K., 2010. Accountability and the challenges of information disclosure. *Public Administration Quarterly*, pp.338-377.
- Grossi, G.; Thomasson, A. Bridging the accountability gap in hybrid organizations: The case of Copenhagen Malmö Port. *Int. Rev. Adm. Sci.* 2015, 81, 604–620.
- Heath, J. and Norman, W., 2004. Stakeholder theory, corporate governance and public management: what can the history of state-run enterprises teach us in the post-Enron era? *Journal of business ethics*, 53(3), pp.247-265.
- Kajimbwa, M.G.A., 2018. Benchmarking accountability of local government authorities in public procurement in Tanzania: a methodological approach. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*.
- Kiawa, F.M., 2012. *Accountability in public sector procurement: a case study of the State Law Office* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi, Kenya).
- KIPKEMOI, R.T., 2017. *EFFECTS OF PROCUREMENT PRACTICES ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE WITHIN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: A CASE OF EAST AFRICAN PORTLAND CEMENT COMPANY LIMITED* (Doctoral dissertation, mua).
- Komakech, R.A., 2016. Public procurement in developing countries: Objectives, principles and required professional skills. *Public Policy and Administration Research*, 6(8), pp.20-29.
- Kusi, L.Y., Aggrey, G.A. and Nyarku, K.M., 2014. Assessment of public procurement policy implementation in the educational sector (a case study of Takoradi Polytechnic). *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(10), p.260.
- Kyriacou, A.P. and Roca-Sagalés, O., 2021. Does decentralising public procurement affect the quality of governance? Evidence from local government in Europe. *Local Government Studies*, 47(2), pp.208-233.
- Leshem, S. and Trafford, V., 2007. Overlooking the conceptual framework. *Innovations in education and Teaching International*, 44(1), pp.93-105.

- Lowell, L.,1994. *Organization and management in the public sector*. 2nd ed.London:Longman.
- Maama, H. and Marimuthu, F., 2021. Accountability in the Ghanaian local governance structure: Probing the role of external auditing. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 18(4), p.475.
- Makabira, D.K. and Waiganjo, E., 2014. Role of procurement practices on the performance of corporate organizations in Kenya: A Case Study of Kenya National Police Service. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(10), p.369.
- Mutangili, S.K., 2021. Public Procurement for Sustainable Development in East Africa.*Journal of Procurement & Supply Chain*, 5(1).
- Mwau, F., 2017.Effects of Procurement Planning on Organizational Growth and Development.In *Proceeding International Conference on Information Technology and Business* (pp. 90-95).
- Necku, J.N.K., 2019. *EXAMINING PROCUREMENT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AS A TOOL IN ENSURING VALUE FOR MONEY IN GHANA'S MMDAs—A CASE STUDY OF HO MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Neupane, A., Soar, J. and Vaidya, K., 2014. An empirical evaluation of the potential of public e-procurement to reduce corruption.*Australasian Journal of Information Systems*, 18(2).
- Ngugi, J.K. and Mugo, H.W., 2012, August.Internal factors affecting procurement process of supplies in the public sector; a survey of Kenya government ministries. In *5th International Public Procurement Conference was held on August 17th*.
- Obanda, W.P., 2010. *Fighting corruption in tactical procurement* (Doctoral dissertation, PHD dissertation).
- Ohene-Addae, A.A., 2012.*An Assessment of the Impact of Efficient Procurement Practices on the Corporate Performance of a Public University: A Case Study of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST)* (Doctoral dissertation, Thesis submitted to the Kwame Nkrumah University Of Science And Technology Institute Of Distance Learning (Idl)).
- Onyango, C.J., 2014. Effects of procurement planning on institutional performance: A case study of Mombasa Law Court. *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR)*, 3(10), pp.2389-2408.

- Rasheed, B., 2019. *Examining the prospects and challenges of the public procurement act implementation in Ghana: the case of East Mamprusi District Assembly* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Cape Coast).
- Rokkan, A.I. and Buvik, A., 2003. Inter-firm cooperation and the problem of free riding behavior: An empirical study of voluntary retail chains. *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, 9(5-6), pp.247-256.
- Sakib, S.N., 2022. ASSESSING THE EFFECTS OF PROCUREMENT METHODS IN PUBLIC SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF AGOGO STATE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.
- Scott, W.R., 2005. Institutional theory: Contributing to a theoretical research program. *Great minds in management: The process of theory development*, 37(2), pp.460-484.
- Senzu, E.T. and Ndebugri, H., 2017. *Evaluating the Effectiveness of the Procurement Acts: in Public Financial Administration: the Case Study in Ghana*. Éditions universitaires européennes.
- Shakya, R.K., 2012, August. Procurement governance framework: Success to e-government procurement (E-GP) system implementation. In *5th International Public Procurement Conference (IPPC5), Seattle, United States* (pp. 17-19).
- Soudry, O., 2007. A principal-agent analysis of accountability in public procurement. *Advancing public procurement: Practices, innovation and knowledge-sharing*, pp.432-451.
- Sutinen, J.G. and Kuperan, K., 1999. A socio-economic theory of regulatory compliance. *International journal of social economics*, 26(1/2/3), pp.174-193.
- Telgen, J., Harland, C. and Knight, L., 2012. Public procurement in perspective. In *Public procurement* (pp. 44-52). Routledge.
- Türk, A.H. and Xanthoulis, N., 2019. Legal accountability of European Central Bank in bank supervision: A case study in conceptualizing the legal effects of Union acts. *Maastricht Journal of European and Comparative Law*, 26(1), pp.151-164.
- Tweneboah Senzu, E. and Ndebugri, H., 2017. Evaluating the effectiveness of the Procurement Acts in public financial administration; the case study in Ghana. *Editions Universitaires Européennes (Omniscryptum Publishing)*.
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT) (2011), The Public Procurement Act, Government Printers, Dar es salaam, Tanzania.

- Vogler, S., Habimana, K. and Haasis, M.A., 2022. Purchasing medicines for the public sector: Evaluation of the performance of centralised procurement in Portugal. *The International Journal of Health Planning and Management*.
- Walker, H. and Brammer, S., 2009. Sustainable procurement in the United Kingdom public sector. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, 14(2), pp.128-137.
- Wallace, W.L. and Xia, Y.L., 2014. *Delivering customer value through procurement and strategic sourcing: a professional guide to creating a sustainable supply network*. Pearson Education.
- Wilmshurst, T.D. and Frost, G.R., 2000. Corporate environmental reporting: A test of legitimacy theory. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 13(1), pp.10-26.



APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a student of KNUST working on my thesis for the award of MSc Logistics and Supply Chain Management. This questionnaire seeks to collect data for the study on evaluating the role procurement planning and its effects on procurement accountability. A case of Ministry of Food and Agriculture. The research is purely for academic purpose and as such privacy and confidentiality of all information shall be observed. To fairly report on the research work, you are employed to answer the questionnaire with all honesty and sincerity. I would therefore be grateful if you could kindly answer the following questionnaire.

Respond to the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate option.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please fill in and use a tick (✓) to indicate your response, (where applicable)

1. Gender

Male	Female

2. Age (in years)

Below 25	25-35	36-45	46-55	Above 55

3. Highest education qualification

Postgraduate	1 st Degree	Diploma	Certificate	Secondary	Others (specify)

4. How long have you worked with the Municipality/Local government?

Below 2 year	2-3 years	4-6 years	7-10 years	Above 10 years

SECTION B: PROCUREMENT PLANNING

Under this section, Please indicate/tick (✓) against the corresponding box to show your level of agreement with the statement regarding procurement planning.

Use the following scale: Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Neither Agree nor Disagree (3);

Agree (4); strongly agree (5)

A	Procurement Planning Processes	12	3	4	5
1	We always put together items with similar characteristics that needs to be procured				
2	Annual activities from various departments are combined together				
3	Items that needs to be purchased are aligned with available funds				
4	Matters in relation to procurement activities are discussed in our meetings				
5	Various items that needs to be purchased are forwarded to the procurement and disposal unit				
6	Combined list of what we need to buy is made known to staff members				
7	Planned items that needs to be procured are listed in order starting from the most important items to the least				
8	Allocation of funds is done in agreement with other departments				
9	Time for purchasing items are clearly stated and communicated				
10	Documentation is done on all items that needs to be procured				
11	We only agree on what our municipality can afford to buy				
12	Approval is only obtained for what we have planned to do				
13	The method of purchasing items is always identified early before actual purchase				
B	Procurement Planning Practices	12	3	4	5
1	Stake holders are actively involved in determining what we need to procure.				
2	We forward to government how much money we need				
3	Identification of source of funds is made known to all				
4	Discussing matters of procurement in our meeting is our responsibility				
5	Discussing and recording what need to be bought ensures that our needs are shown clearly				
6	Each department has different work to do and they are determined early enough before works begins				
C	Value of procurement planning	12	3	4	5
1	Determining what we wants to buy early ensures that we do the right thing				
2	Quality goods and services are obtained when identification is done early.				
3	Determining what we want to purchase early ensures that we accomplish government plans in time				

SECTION C: PROCURMENT ACCOUNTABILITY

Under this section, Please indicate/tick (✓) against the corresponding box to show your level of agreement with the statement regarding service delivery.

Use the following scale: Strongly Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Neither Agree nor Disagree (3); Agree (4); strongly agree (5)

A	Quality	1	2	3	4	5
1	We provide services as planned/promised					
2	We keep citizens informed about when services will be performed					
3	Our staffs have knowledge in answering citizen's questions					
4	We understand the need of the people we serve					
5	We use modern equipment in delivering services					
B	Timeliness	1	2	3	4	5
1	Services are delivered to the public on time as required					
2	Accessing our services is always fast					
3	Our suppliers deliver what we need on time					
4	There is less delays in communicating our services to the public					
5	Our suppliers respect and follow our service delivery schedule					
C	Transactional cost	1	2	3	4	5
1	Bulk purchase increase bargaining power					
2	We have good relations with our suppliers					
3	We provide service as planned within our budget					
4	Our administrative cost is always low					
5	We provide sustainable services to the community					

Thank you