

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE LIVELIHOOD EMPOWERMENT AGAINST POVERTY  
PROGRAMME IN THE BONGO DISTRICT, GHANA.

KNUST

BY

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## DECLARATION

Except for references to other people's works, which have been duly acknowledged, I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own rigorous research work carried out in the Department of Planning, towards the award of MSc. Development Policy and Planning, under the able supervision of Dr. Ronald Adamtey.

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## ABSTRACT

Ghana has drafted and is implementing a National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) aimed at protecting its vulnerable population. A major component of the NSPS is the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme (LEAP). LEAP is both a conditional and unconditional direct cash transfer targeted at the poorest of Ghana's population.

This research was carried out in 44 LEAP communities in the Bongo District of the Upper East Region of Ghana with the objective of assessing the implementation of the programme. The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods in achieving the objectives of the study. It combined secondary literature and primary data.

The findings of this study showed that LEAP in the Bongo District has increased the consumption of basic needs by beneficiaries, high awareness of the LEAP conditionalities and some engaged in small scale businesses with the grant. However, most of the beneficiaries are unaware of the sanctions for non-compliance of the conditionalities.

The results of this study are intended to contribute to knowledge base on social protection in Ghana and the world at large and to bring to bear some of the challenges of LEAP intervention while providing recommendations.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Hail Mary full of grace the lord is with you.....Holy Mary mother of God pray for us sinners and now at the hour of our death. Amen.

I give thanks and glory to the almighty God for his guidance, protection and blessings especially, in times of trials, sorrows and temptations. To Him I shall continue to glorify till thy kingdom come.

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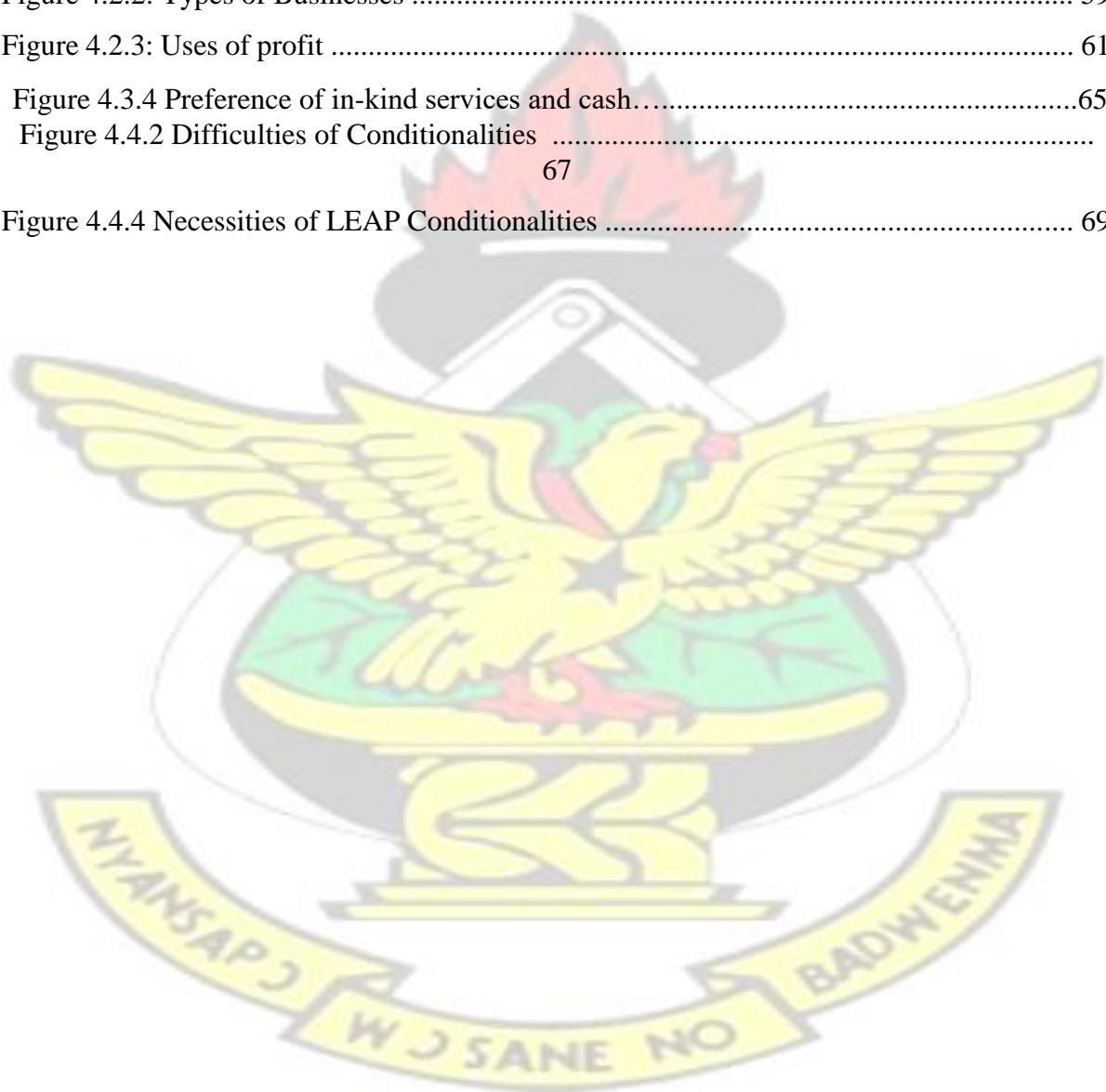
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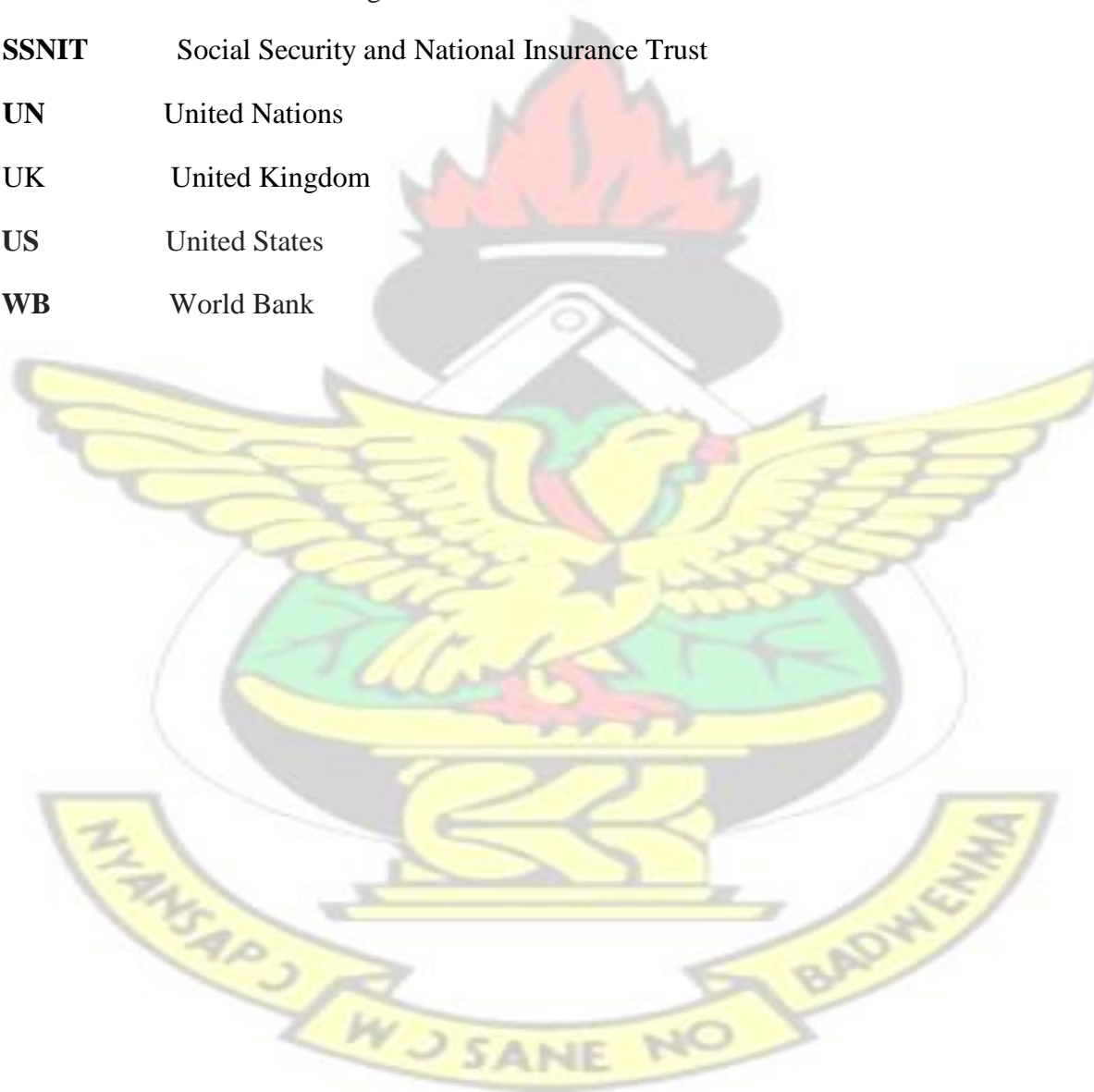


## LIST OF ACRONYMS



<b>AIDS</b>	Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome
<b>CCT</b>	Conditional Cash Transfer
<b>CSG</b>	Child Support Grant
<b>DFID</b>	Department for International Development
<b>DLIC</b>	District LEAP Implementation Committee
<b>DPCU</b>	District Planning Coordinating Unit
<b>EP</b>	Entitlement Approach
<b>DSW</b>	Department of Social Welfare
<b>FAO</b>	Food and Agricultural Organisation
<b>GLSS</b>	Ghana Living Standard Survey
<b>GOG</b>	Government of Ghana
<b>GPRS</b>	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
<b>GPRS</b>	Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy
<b>GSGDA</b>	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
<b>HIV</b>	Human Immune Virus
<b>IMF</b>	International Monetary Fund
<b>LEAP</b>	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
<b>MDS</b>	Ministry of Social Development
<b>MDG</b>	Millennium Development Goal
<b>MMYE</b>	Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment
<b>MoGCSP</b>	Ministry of Gender Children and Social Protection
<b>NDPC</b>	National Development Planning Commission
<b>NGOs</b>	Non Governmental Organisations
<b>NHIS</b>	National Health Insurance Scheme

<b>NPP</b>	New Patriotic Party
<b>NSPS</b>	National Social Protection Strategy
<b>OVC</b>	Orphan and Vulnerable Child
<b>PWD</b>	Persons With Disabilities
<b>SMG</b>	State Maintenance Grant
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
<b>SSNIT</b>	Social Security and National Insurance Trust
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>US</b>	United States
<b>WB</b>	World Bank





# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Poverty has been regarded as the shameful disease of modern society, for which new measures are needed to curb it (Geremek, 1997) as cited in Debrah (2013). Attitudes toward this social evil were concerned with removing the need to beg, directing the idle and finding employment opportunities for the poor. A rise in the number of poor and vulnerable groups, particularly, in developing countries in the 1990s, led scholars, ideologues, politicians, international donors, and nongovernmental organizations to consider poverty as a social menace (Sachs, 2005).

The world has many people in extreme poverty and vulnerability amid abundance resources (natural, human and capital). Of the world's over six (6) billion people, 2.8 billion, amounting to half of them survive on less than US\$2 a day, and 1.2 billion, thus about a fifth of the population live on less than US\$1 a day, with 44 percent of the 2.8 billion people living in South Asia. In the industrialized countries, less than one (1) child in hundred (100) does not get to its fifth birthday; while in the least and developing countries, several children do not reach their fifth birthday. This picture is deplorable and unacceptable. I then advanced countries, smaller number thus less than 5 percent of all children under five are underfed, however, in the least developed countries as many as 50 percent are underfed (Ravi and Nora, 2001).

Reports on global poverty before 2011 discovered that 22,000 children died each day as a consequence of poverty and vulnerability. Also about 72 million school children in developing countries, of whom 57 percent were girls, did not go to school, largely because of poverty and vulnerability (Debrah, 2013). This implies that, poverty has adverse effects on child mortality and school enrollment especially among girls.

In Africa, the rates of child and maternal mortality were tremendously high compared with South Asia, and the percentage of undernourished hovered around 29 percent in 2008 (Mba et

al., 2009). This situation is as a consequence of the high poverty levels in Africa especially Sun-Saharan Africa.

This impoverishment persists even though human conditions (social, economic and political) have enhanced more in the past decades than before. Thus, global resources, connections, and technological advancement have never been greater. But the allocation of these overall resources is extremely asymmetrical (Ravi and Nora, 2001). This unequal distribution of the world's resources leads to deep poverty amid plenty resources especially in developing countries.

For instance, the annual reports of the Ghana Statistical Service have revealed that a majority of Ghanaian households do not eat the requisite minimum balanced diet as a result of poverty, and more females than males are out of school (Debrah, 2013). As a result, succeeding governments since the beginning of the fourth republic have adopted many policies and interventions aimed at addressing poverty and its incidences, including free and compulsory basic education, a fuel subvention for fishermen, an agrochemical grant for farmers, scholarships for needed but brilliant students and food distribution to the vulnerable groups. These policies and programs contributed to the reduction of poverty, but it has been argued that a resolution to the poverty problem requires comprehensive measures, which are transformational and have the capability to break the generational poverty cycle (Debrah, 2013).

The approach and strategies to curbing poverty and destitution has existed for the past 50 years in reaction to deepening the knowledge of the convulsion of development. Between 1950s and 1960s, several people saw huge budgetary allocations by governments in the areas of physical capital and infrastructure development as the most important avenue for growth and development (Ravi and Nora, 2001). In the 1970s understanding grew that investment in physical capital alone was not sufficient, and that health care delivery and better education are also essential to the elimination of poverty. It is also argued that improvements in health delivery and better education of the citizenry were important to ensure the health of the people and better education. This will ultimately promote growth in the incomes of poor and

vulnerable people. The 1980s saw another swing of prominence from investment in physical capital, physical infrastructure, health and education to improving economic management and allowing better market forces to play, following the debt predicament and global depression and the divergent experiences of East Asia and Latin America, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa (Ravi and Nora, 2001).

There are many explanations as to the causes of poverty. However, two main theories explain the causes of poverty: cultural and structural. Cultural theories find the account for poverty in the behaviors of the vulnerable people themselves. These cultural theories assert that, it is behavioral patterns of the poor which avert them from being socially movable, thus keeping them in vicious circle of poverty since they cannot make social links because of their cultural traits. On the contrary, structural perspectives clarify poverty in terms of the circumstances under which the poor live: unemployment, underemployment, lack of proper education, lack of opportunities and poor health (Elesh, 1970).

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Since independence in 1957, various governments in Ghana have adopted several policies, plans, programmes, projects and strategies aimed at accelerating growth and development and reducing poverty. For instance, the Operation Feed Your Self during the Achempong's regime in the late 1970s, Vision 2020 during the Rawlings' regime, the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I), Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) both under the Kofour's regime and the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA I) under the Atta Mills led administration all have policies, plans, programmes and strategies that are all geared at ameliorating poverty and vulnerable groups in Ghana (NDPC, 2010).

The Vision 2020 for instance, has five thematic areas of development including: human development, economic growth, rural development, urban development and an enabling environment all aimed at acceleration growth and development thus reducing poverty and vulnerability in the country (Government of Ghana, 1997).

In the same vein the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRP I) which replaced the Vision 2020, has its broad goal to ensuring sustainable equitable growth and development, accelerated poverty reduction and the protection of the vulnerable and excluded within a



decentralized, democratic environment (NDPC 2003). Also the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA I) has similar policy objectives aim at reducing geographical and income inequalities nationwide and among different socio-cultural, economic, religious and political classes; strengthen the national development planning structure to amalgamate spatial/human settlement and socio-economic planning; and enhance access of the poor and vulnerable, especially women and other vulnerable groups to comprehensive social protection systems and other economic opportunities (NDPC, 2010).

Despite these policies plans, programmes, projects and strategies initiated and implemented by previous and current governments, poverty is still a major social problem that begs for more commitment than before. Some Ghanaians especially in the three savanna regions of the country still cannot afford three square balance meals a day.

According to the Ghana Statistical Service Non-Monetary Poverty in Ghana Report (2013), the northern part Ghana has the uppermost Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI): Northern Region (80.9%), Upper East Region (80.8%) and Upper West Region (77.6%). The levels of poverty is still prevalent in the three savanna northern regions to a larger extent that it would be extremely difficult for these regions to decrease extreme poverty by a range between 11.7 percentage points in the Northern Region and 41.8 percentage scores in the Upper West Region to reach the target of halving extreme poverty by 2015 (UNDP, 2012). For instance the three northern regions have short fall of not less than 20 percent to escape the upper poverty line. However, poverty in the three savanna regions seems to be minimum in the Northern Region but high for Upper East and Upper West Regions with a wide space of over 30 percentage points to reach the target (UNDP, 2012). Can we attribute this situation and state of destitution to policy failure by previous and current governments? Is it the attitudes of the people especially Northern Ghana that kept them in this deprivation?

Or is it natural factors that they do not have control over?

As part of the strategies and measures to achieve the broad policy goal of the GPRS II and realizing the thematic area of the National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) the New Patriotic Party (NPP) government of Ghana started a trial phase of the LEAP intervention in



March 2008. This was after a visit to Brazil to study the Brazilian experience by a team of government officials (Debrah, 2013). The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) is a social cash transfer programme which provides cash and register the poor and vulnerable groups under the national health insurance to access free health care throughout the country to ease short to medium term poverty and vulnerability and encourage long-term human capital accumulation, growth and development (Sudhanshu, 2012). The coming on stream of this intervention is a great relieve to many poor and the vulnerable. The question is, can LEAP actually leap the poor and the vulnerable out of squalor and destitution?

To have access to the grant, one has in at least one or three of the demographic categories: “single parent with orphan or vulnerable child, elderly poor with no official pension, or persons with severe disability and are unable to work”. Preliminary assortment of households is done through a community-based procedure and is confirmed centrally with a proxy means test. An interesting characteristic of LEAP, exceptional in the world, is that apart from direct cash payments, beneficiaries are given free registration under the National Health Insurance Scheme to assess health care delivery, (Debrah, 2012). Are these the only best ways of admitting people in to the intervention? Could they not have considered other traits of vulnerability such as widows and widowers without reliable employment and formal pensions? Or could they not have considered ‘spirit children’ who are often neglected by family members?

The intervention is funded from the revenues of the state which constitute about 50% of total funding, aid from the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and loans from the World Bank. It is executed by the Department of Social Welfare (DSW) under the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP) (Sudhanshu, 2012). Will current and subsequence governments continue to commit scarce resources to the implementation of this programme? Will our development partners especially, DFID and the World Bank continue to contribute to the implementation of the intervention? Should they withdraw; can the government of Ghana afford to commit its scarce resources in the programme?

Typical of the majority cash transfers targeted to the extreme poor and vulnerable groups, the direct effect of the LEAP intervention is usually to increase expenditure pattern of the vulnerable groups, mainly essential expenses for basic needs including food, clothing, and accommodation, which have control on children's nutrition, health care and general material welfare (Sudhanshu, 2012). Are cash transfers the surest way to boost the basic consumptions of households? How can we make sure that the cash transfers are not abused by the intended beneficiaries?

The execution of the intervention thus LEAP is about six years now. The questions that could be asked are: Why will giving cash to the poor and the vulnerable groups to motivate schools attendance a good usage of public funds? Will it not be better to acquire more books and other accessories or to improve teacher training and acquisition of skills so as to lift the quality of the education given in those schools? Even if there are superior advice for spending part of the budgetary allocation on direct cash transfers to households with excessive poverty and vulnerability, why attach conditions to the grant? Why not just make all the cash transfers unconditionally? Why should government pay the NHIS premium of beneficiaries in the programme? Is it a way of motivating beneficiaries to seek orthodox health care?

It is as a result of these puzzles above and many other issues in the implementation of the LEAP programme that this study seeks to assess the intervention in the Bongo District, Upper East Region.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The intervention of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) is aimed at amelioration the woes of the vulnerables and those in extreme poverty in Ghana. It is based on this that the study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is it prudent for government to commit its scarce resources to provide safety nets in the form of cash transfers to ameliorate poverty?
2. What extend have cash transfers to the poor boost the local economy in the Bongo District?
3. Has the intervention of LEAP increased household spending on basic necessities among beneficiaries in the District?

4. Why not providing in-kind services such as food, clothes etc for the vulnerable instead of direct cash transfers?
5. What extend have beneficiaries comply with the conditionalities of LEAP in the Bongo District?
6. Why attached conditions to the cash transfers?

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

Based on the research questions above, the following constitute the general and specific objectives of this study. The broad objective of the study is to assess the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme on poverty reduction in the Bongo district, upper east region. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Examine whether beneficiaries use cash transfers from the programme to engage in small scale businesses.
2. Find out whether the programme has enhanced the basic necessities of beneficiaries such as food, shelter etc.
3. Determine the extent to which beneficiaries comply with the conditionalities of the programme.

#### **1.5 Theoretical Framework of the study**

The theorization of social protection as pertaining to this research emphasizes the importance of policies, plans, programmes, projects and strategies by governments that deal with both economic and social risks, shocks and vulnerability. This study is grounded on the Entitlement Approach (EP) propounded by Amartya Sen.

The entitlement theory is grounded on the assumption that famines and vulnerability do not come about as a result of the lack of food in a region or country but rather, famines result when people lose their entitlements, that is, the ways of acquisition food and other needs (Sen 1981). The LEAP programme which transfers cash to the vulnerable aims at empowering them to own properties (entitlement) so as to resist short and medium to long terms risks and shocks. This is conforms to (Sabates-Wheeler and Haddad, 2005) assessment that social protection can help advance empowerment and security by improving risk management, facilitating higher return and investments by poor people and vulnerable groups. For instance, the



conditionalities governing the beneficiaries of the intervention are aimed at empowering the beneficiaries by encouraging them to send their children of school going age to school, avoidance of engaging children on hard labour, free registration with the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) etc.

Entitlement failures come in two forms according to Amartya Sen (1986). A 'pull' failure occurs where; people lose their sources of income, which leads to the loss of their means to buy food and other basic needs. A 'response' failure on the other hand occurs when there is lack of food supply. In essence, it refers to a loss of supply. In such a situation, the theory recognizes that people try all innovative means to reverse their situation so as to recover their entitlements.

The government's responsibility of providing safety nets through the LEAP grant for the poor and vulnerable groups means giving them their entitlement to resist shocks, vulnerability and others risks. Thus the rationale of the LEAP programme is not just giving them cash to cope with short term vulnerability elements but to empower them to own productive resources that are capable of increasing their entitlements.

Entitlement theory has guided a more informed approach to famine prevention and response, through an enlarged focus on the processes of famine, rather than the result. During the 2008 floods across the country and followed by an enduring period of droughts in some parts of the country, large-scale loss of agricultural production and income-generation opportunities occurred. Affected communities experienced environmental degradation and a decrease in agricultural production, and these had endangered rural welfare (DSW, 2009). The Government of Ghana had to adopt an approach to forestall the sufferings of affected communities. As a result the government sought and obtained support in 2008 from the World Bank to provide funds to implement what became known as the emergency LEAP as part of forming social protection measures of government for vulnerable groups, especially those worst affected by the disaster. The Government of Ghana, in fulfilling its obligations, has adopted LEAP as a policy to avert deprivation through protecting people's entitlements by providing direct cash transfers to her people in an effort to complement other ongoing



interventions and programmes of poverty reduction programmes such as the NHIS, the school Feeding Programme, and the Capitation Grant.

### **1.6 Justification of the Study**

This study is justified because, it assessed the measures taken by successive governments in Ghana to reduce poverty and vulnerability, specifically social intervention programmes such as the LEAP initiated in March, 2008. It also examined its implementation in the Districts particularly, the Bongo District in the Upper East Region.

The study is also justified because it will add to existing literature on poverty reduction strategies in Ghana and the world at large. Thus, findings, recommendations and conclusion of this study will serve as source of knowledge for students in the academia, policy makers, NGOs, Civil Societies etc, thus leading to further research or study.

Last but not least, the study is justified in the sense that, it assessed the LEAP programme, its implementation, successes and failures and the general views of the programme by beneficiaries in the Bongo District. This will lead to the strengthening or otherwise of the programme, so as to achieve its intended purpose of leaping the vulnerable and the less privilege out of extreme poverty, squalor and destitution.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

Poverty has several dimensions and the approaches to curb it are also many. However, this study tries to look at social intervention programmes such as Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty.

The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme is currently run in about 203 districts in the country. However, this study is limited to the Bongo District in the Upper East Region. This district is chosen because of the high incidence of poverty and vulnerability in the district. It looked at the assessment of the programme in the district though other districts in the country especially in the Upper East Region were used in terms of number of beneficiary communities and households.

### **1.8 Limitation of the Study**

This study was limited in so many ways. Inadequate resources could not permit me to consider high sample size although the sample size was selected through appropriate and approved formula. Also, the time for the research was limited considering the nature of the topic and the disperse nature of the study area. The high rate of illiteracy of the beneficiaries posed a problem to the study because issues have to be explained to their levels of comprehension. However, with the use of time schedule, much of the work was done on schedule.

### **1.9 Organization of the Study**

This thesis was organized into five chapters. The first chapter; the introduction comprised the background to the study, problem statement, objectives, scope, limitation, theoretical framework, justification of the study and organization of the report. The second chapter; the literature review presented the dimensions of poverty, causes of poverty, measures to remedy or curb poverty, the LEAP programme and other cash transfers programmes, and conceptual frameworks of analysing poverty intervention programmes. The third chapter; methodology of the study, described the steps to achieve the objectives of the thesis. As such, this section looked at data collection methods, sampling techniques and methods of data analysis. Also included in this section was a brief description of the study area thus, general living conditions, physical and demographics. The fourth chapter focused on data processing, analysis and presentation. The focus of chapter five was on the findings of the study, recommendations and conclusion.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **POVERTY AND SOCIAL INTERVENTIONS: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This aspect of the study looks at related works or studies done by other people. It examines the dimension, causes and measures to reduce poverty; social intervention programmes in other parts of the world and Ghana. It also discusses the conceptual framework which the study is built on.

#### **2.2 The Dimension, Causes and Measures to reduce Poverty**

This part of the literature review looks at the dimensions, causes and measures of poverty from various perspectives.

##### **2.2.1 The Dimension of Poverty**

The eradication of poverty is a principal concern of all concerned in seeking the betterment of least and developing nations, and this gives the main rationalization for promoting economic growth and development in these countries. The prime aim of the Millennium Development Goals, established by the 149 nations at the UN Millennium Summit in New York, is reducing poverty by half by 2015 (Laderchi et al., 2003). Poverty is seen as multifaceted with composite interactive and underlying interaction between the multiple dimensions (NDPC, 2003).

According to the National Development Planning Commission (2003) with reference to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 4), there are three (3) magnitudes of vulnerabilities in Ghana, these include: income levels or consumption poverty, lack or inadequate access to basic necessary services, and deprivations of human growth and development.

With regards to income levels as a measure of poverty and destitution, it is highest in the three savanna region of northern Ghana. That is, the Upper East, Upper West and Northern Regions. Their levels of poverty range between 69% and 88% as at 1999. For instance, the GLSS 4 revealed that nine out of every ten people in the Upper East, eight people out of ten in Upper West, seven out of ten people in Northern Region are classified as poor in 1999 (NDPC, 2003).

Classifying poverty base on occupation, poverty and vulnerability are endemic among peasant food crop farmers. Their levels of poverty hover round 59% which is above the national average of 40% as in 1998/99. Peasant crop farmers and non-farm self-employment have the



least reduction (9%) in poverty levels in the country according to the GLSS4 report. The reasons for the high poverty levels among these occupations include: firstly, the number of peasant food crop farmers in the country to the country occurrence of poverty and vulnerability is much in excess of their population, secondly, vulnerability and destitution among peasant food crop farmers is also much more manifest on the measure of severe poverty, and lastly women are the principal architect in both peasant food crop farming and non-farm self-employment sub sectors (NDPC, 2003).

Several factors and variables have to be taken in to consideration in the definition and measurement of vulnerability especially in least and developing countries. One dimension cannot be used to define and measure poverty that apply to all environment, approaches and situations. This makes the conceptualization of poverty and classification of the vulnerable groups difficult. The concept poverty has been viewed in many ways base on the circumstance, who defines it and the purpose of which it is defined.

According to Laderchi et al., (2003), there are several issues/problems regarding the meaning and extent of the variables of poverty. The first basic issue in the definition of poverty is space. Thus, the geographical setup in which vulnerability is defined and how to conceptualize that setup to capture the various indicators selected. For example, should the explanation of poverty be confined to the physical material aspects of life, or should it include education, health, norms, values, attitudes, economic and political aspects? Is poverty to be calculated in the space of usefulness or resources or in terms of the liberty to live the life one values or cherish? Again, what type of measures should be used in any approach? For instance, should the indicators confine to what is achievable with regards to the available resource and the accessible socio-cultural, economic and political atmosphere?

This implies that, the definition and measurement of poverty should not only be limited to material but several other variables including social, cultural and political. Thus any intervention to remedy or curb poverty or deprivation should consider these varied dimensions of the intended beneficiaries or users.



The second issue to be considered in the conceptualization of poverty and vulnerable groups is the universality of the meaning of poverty and description of vulnerable groups. Can the meaning and description of poverty in one geographical background be applied to other societies, with no any adjustment? In Ghana for instance, poverty levels vary from ruralurban as well as Northern and Southern parts of the country etc. Poverty in this context is relative and policy interventions should consider this diverse dimension and not the universalisation of the concept poverty.

The other view about poverty is the issue regarding the approaches for the measurement of poverty and classification of the vulnerable groups. Are they objective or subjective? Most arguments and statement about poverty imply objectivity: that is, it is assumed that there is a certain certainty which poverty figures capture. To the degree that value judgments affect the dimension of poverty, then the measurement of poverty cannot be objective. Who makes the value judgments is another debatable issue: are they made unreservedly by the researchers who make the measurement at the same time? Are they prepared overtly and subjected to sensitive and critical analysis, so that the effects of their expert judgments can willingly be reassessed? To what extent are the value judgments understood and mutually shared by other relevant stakeholders for instance, through the political and participatory process involving the poor and the vulnerable group themselves? (Laderchi et al., 2003). Many a time, scholars or researchers define poverty to suit their own point of reference and not from the views of the poor and vulnerable people. This has adverse effect on the type of interventions that these scholars or researchers propose to minimise or eliminate poverty and its incidences.

The fourth critical question about the understanding of poverty is how to differentiate the abject poor from those not poor through the usage of one or many poverty indicators. Who is poor or vulnerable? Is poverty just the absence of vital needs? What about non participation in decision making processes? Even what constitute basic needs is relative. Two interrelated issues crop up in the classification of the poor from the non-poor: what is the rationalization for considering some indicators and rejecting the alternatives and to what extent are the indicators distinct in comparative to a given viewpoint or is intended to reflect some unconditional standards of destitution.

Again, the unit in which poverty is conceptualized raises several issues. Thus, do we define poverty restrictive at the individual, family, community or an aggregation of the various levels? (Laderchi et al., 2003). Defining poverty base on the individual, family and geographical units has the advantage of getting appropriate and suitable interventions that will have specific content of tackling poverty. It is therefore important that, social policy makers consider the individual, family and geographical dimensions of poverty when formulating interventions for the poor.

How to deal with multidimensionality nature of poverty is another question: considering that individual welfare manifests itself in multiple scopes, should a combined index or indicator be used, and how will that be applied? The time period over which poverty is recognized and the vulnerable groups identified needs to be defined. For instance, the cumulative resources of an individual or groups in the 1930s may not augment livelihood in 2015. Also, the period used in measuring vulnerability should be specified. Should it be a month, quarterly or annually?

There is a universal argument about whether the definition and conceptualization of poverty a fundamental account for poverty and points to policies towards its mitigation. Thus, are policies for ameliorating poverty based on the definition of poverty (Laderchi et al., 2003)?

Despite the disagreements over the definition of the concept, consent seems to have developed that defines the poor as those who cannot satisfy their basic requirements for clothing, food, health, and shelter. Thus, individuals who lack adequate goods and services required to maintain and sustain life with the income to purchase the goods or services that would meet those needs (World Bank 2001).

From the arguments, what constitute poverty is relative and varies across geographical areas, occupation, gender etc with respect to time. Thus conceptualizing poverty should take cognizance of these variations with respect to the period in which it is been defined. Poverty in this study is therefore defined as the lack of basic necessities to sustain and support life

activities with respect to time. Thus, what constitute basic necessities in the 1930s to sustain and support life activities may vary in 2014.

Policy measures to address poverty should thus consider these dimensions of geography, occupation, gender with respect to time. The question arising therefore is: has the implementation of the LEAP programme considers these dimensions in the targeting of the poor and vulnerable in Ghana? Considering the multi-dimensional nature of poverty, can cash transfers alone leap the poor and the vulnerable from poverty and destitution?

### **2.2.2 Causes of Poverty**

There are various perspectives and explanations to the causes of poverty. The argument among theorists and policy makers about the causes of poverty is mainly separated between those who support cultural/behavioral opinions and those who are of the view point that poverty and the existence of vulnerable groups emanate from the structural/economic system (Jordan, 2004). Thus, the culture and the structural setups are the key causes of poverty.

The cultural perspectives are of the opinion that the existence of poverty is fundamentally the consequence of social and behavioral or attitudinal deficiency in individuals that apparently make them less productive within the conventional society. Thus individuals or people in society create, uphold, and pass on to future generations a culture that reinforces the various social and behavioral deficiencies (Rodgers, 2000) as cited in Jordan (2004). The cultural perspectives view the deficient character of the poor or the vulnerable group along with their abnormal behavior and the consequential self-reinforcing background that confine their access to economic viability and success. Can we attribute poverty entirely to the attitudinal and behavioural patterns of the poor and vulnerable groups? What about policy failure? Can this view apply or hold in all societies?

Scholars of the structural perspective are of the view argue that, most poverty or destitution can be traced back to the institutional structural factors intrinsic to the economy and several other interconnected institutional structural arrangements within environments that serve to help certain groups to the detriment of others, generally based on gender, class, religion, political or race (Jordan, 2004). This view of poverty is more explicit than the cultural



perspective and it considers the weaknesses of institutional and structural arrangement as a cause of vulnerability especially in developing countries.

Apart from the cultural and structural perspective of causes of poverty, Bradshaw (2007) identified five related causes of poverty which to some extent are extension of Jordan (2004)'s opinion. These include: individual deficiencies; cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty and vulnerability; economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination; geographical disparities cumulative and cyclical interdependencies”.

The individual incapacities as a cause of poverty attribute poverty and vulnerability to lack of inherited qualities such as intellect and skills that are not so easily upturned. Proponents of this blame the individuals in poverty and destitution for creating their own tribulations, and argue that with hard work, ingenuity and improved choices the poor could contain their predicaments (Bradshaw, 2007). The question is, can we attribute poverty to individual deficiencies? What about institutional failure, geographical and natural factors?

Cultural belief systems as a causes of poverty and predicament support the sub-cultures of poverty which suggests that poverty is fashioned by the dissemination over generations of a set of practices, customs, beliefs, values, and skills that are communally generated but individually held Serumaga-Zake et al (2012). The individuals are not necessarily responsible because they are in their predicament because of their dysfunctional subculture or culture which they are part. This view reflects the writing of Oscar Lewis Once the culture of poverty has come to stay, it tends to continue itself. For instance, by the time slum children are about six or seven years, they have typically absorbed the basic attitudes, norms, customs, beliefs, practices and values of their subculture. Thereafter they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities that may develop in their lifetime”Ryan (1976: 120), as cited in Bradshaw (2007).

The economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination as causes of poverty shift from the individual level as a spring of poverty, but rather the distortion of the social political, and economic system which causes restrict people to opportunities and wealth with which to



attain income and welfare. This is because the economic system is planned in such a way that poor and the vulnerable groups fall behind despite how competent they may be (Bradshaw, 2007).

The geographically theories of poverty raise on the other theories, these theories call awareness to the fact that individuals, institutional structures, and cultural setups in certain areas lack the required resources needed to spawn welfare and raise income levels, and that they lack the authority to maintain redeployment of income and other vital resources (Bradshaw, 2007). In Ghana for instance, this view could be accounted for the prevalence poverty in the Northern parts of the country because of the vulnerability of the people and the continued existence of harmful cultural practices with weak traditional institutions.

The spatial concentrations of poverty and the emergence of vulnerable groups come from economic agglomeration theory. As explained by Bradshaw et al. (1998) as cited in Bradshaw (2007), the agglomeration theory of poverty shows how the proximity of similar firms and industry attract supportive services and markets opportunities, which further attracts more firms and industries. As people move to work in these firms and industries, their original settlements suffer the consequence of poverty which regenerates. Can we attribute the poverty levels and patterns in Ghana to this perspective of the causes of poverty? Are the concentrations of industries and firms in big cities such as Kumasi, Tema, and Accra the reasons for the relatively low poverty levels in these areas? Can the reverse be true in areas such as Bolgatanga, Wa, Bongo, Garu etc where poverty levels are relatively high? Evidences from NDPC (2003); GSS (2013); GLSS 5 (2008) support so.

The final cause of poverty according to Bradshaw (2007) is the Cumulative and Cyclical Interdependencies. The perspective looks at individual conditions and the resources availability in the community. With a uncertain economy, individuals who do not have adequate resources to contribute in the production process will find it very difficult to survive. Since the economy itself cannot support the system, survival becomes harder. For instance, at the local level, the inadequate of employment avenues give rise to outmigration and as a result, retail stores will suffer and there will be reduction in local tax revenues. The cumulative effect

will lead to worsening of the schools, which leads to unskilled work force, leading to firms not been able to utilize critical and advance technology and to the incapability to established new firms in the area, which leads back to a greater lack of employment opportunities.

This process also repeats itself at the individual and family levels. The absence of employment opportunities leads to lack of spending and consumption of basic needs due to inadequate incomes, savings, which implies that individuals can not invest in education, also lack the ability to invest or to start their own new businesses, which leads to lack of growth and development, depletion of markets, and disinvestment, all of which add back to more inadequate community opportunities which leads to poverty and the emergence of vulnerable groups (Bradshaw, 2007).

Generally, lack of macro-economic stability both at the local and national levels that erodes the assets of the poor through inflation and other socio-economic variables; the incapability of the national economy to effectively utilized the benefits within the global system; low capacities through lack of adequate educational, vocational/technical skills, entrepreneurial abilities, poor health and low standard of living; low consumption levels through inadequate access to social assets, capita, land and market opportunities; exposure to risks and shocks due to restricted use of technology to stem the effects of army worms, droughts, crop pests, floods, crop diseases, and environmental degradation; habits, norms, values, poor attitudes and conventions based upon myths and superstition giving rise to anti social behaviour patterns; the incapability of the poor to influence decision making and social processes, resource allocations and public policy choices; the deprived position of women in society; social exclusion and other factors leading to vulnerability constitute the foundation of poverty and the emergence vulnerable groups in Ghana (NDPC, 2003).

The complexities and variations of the causes of poverty call for appropriate policy interventions to ameliorate or minimise it. Thus, social intervention programmes such as LEAP, School Feeding Programme etc should take account of the various causes of poverty especially in targeting the beneficiaries. Any social intervention that ignores these is likely not to achieve the expected result of leaping the poor out of poverty.

### **2.2.3 Measures to reduce Poverty**

The causes of poverty inform measures to tackle or minimise it. In other words, it is the causes of poverty that inform appropriate and suitable measures for its prevention. There are various arguments related to the alleviation and eradication of poverty and vulnerable groups because poverty is an intricate matter in terms of ideological orientations, theoretical issues, causation and its scope (Triegaardt, 2005).

Bradshaw (2007) identified five anti-poverty interventions of preventing poverty in communities based on the different perspectives on the causes and conceptualization of poverty. These are anti-poverty programmes: from an individual assumption of poverty; from a culture of poverty; from a structure of poverty; from geography of poverty and from a cycle of.

From a community development perspective, blaming the individual as causes of poverty is not an antidote. Poverty measures from the community development view point tend to resist strategies and activities that chastise the individuals as a causes of poverty; rather, working with the individual and groups within to know their needs and abilities is the ultimate objective (Bradshaw, 2007). However, several fashionable anti-poverty programs are not planned with empathy in mind but use sanctions and the warning of penalty in order to change conduct and behaviour and get people out communal support. Welfare and social policies should aim at addressing the shortcomings of individual traits rather than apportioning blames to individual characteristics (Serumaga-Zake et al 2012).

From a local development view, if the sources of poverty are embedded in values, norms, customs and beliefs that are passed on and entrenched in sub-cultures of deprived people, then local policies and programmes need to address to help change the cultural traits (Bradshaw, 2007). This is often describe as socialization of policy. This works in several ways according to Valentine's (1968) suggestion of different models of cultural theories of poverty (as cited in Bradshaw, 2007).

If the cultural beliefs and practices of the poor and vulnerable people are seen as dysfunctional, then the solution has to substitute the non functional culture with a supplementary purposeful practices and beliefs that help rather than undermine industrious



activities, social, investment and economic dependability of the people. Is it easy changing the subculture of people that are so entrenched to the core existence of the people? Can cultural change alone an antidote to poverty prevention especially in developing countries?

Secondly, if the culture of poor people is regarded as counterproductive, opportunistic and existed over long generations, the antipoverty development of the people will be to focus on policies and programmes that will move the younger generation from the reproduction of the harmful subculture. Another strategy to the subculture of deprivation is to make changes inside the sub culture to reconsider suitable culturally practices and strategies that can improve the group's welfare. For instance, experts in community development through creativity can work on the cultural values, norms, beliefs and practices within the subcultures of the vulnerable people which can turn into assets rather than liabilities for social and economic growth and development. For instance, grassroots initiatives in the areas of local crafts making that are more participatory, can help tap the skills and knowledge within the subculture for entrepreneurial and small business development.

If the causes of vulnerability are in the structure of the system rather than in the poor and vulnerable groups themselves, then antipoverty solution must be to work on the structures of the system. This is however difficult to do, which may explain why so many antipoverty programs especially in developing countries revert to trying to change individual behavior and traits. To change the structure of the system from the community development perspective involves creating and mounting different institutions which are accessible, transparent, and are ready to helping the poor gain well being. Finally, change can occur through the process of policy making (Page and Simmons, 2000). A range of social policies options can be adjusted to achieve poverty reduction including the provision of job opportunities, raising wages levels and expanding safety nets (e.g. LEAP), assuring efficient access to health care (NHIS).

A spatial cause of poverty calls for attention aim at solving the key factors responsible for further deterioration in dejected areas while other geographical locations are developing. Instead of paying attention on traits of the individuals, welfare systems, entrepreneurial



development, governments structures, or the cultural practices and processes, policy failure etc, the geographical antipoverty perspective directs community developers, donors and policy makers to concentrate at deprive areas and the processes in which they can become efficient and self-sustaining (Serumaga-Zake et al., 2012). No matter the nature of the geographical area and the forces therein, community antipoverty programmes aim at helping the communities to identify their productive assets and potentials (human, natural, capital) and address their condition. The approach from the community development perspective support deprive areas through planning, investment within the community and community visioning which are central to efforts to turn distressed places or areas where vulnerable groups and poverty are widespread.

The complexity nature of poverty means that the solutions to ameliorate it have to be equally multifaceted. Poverty is not a unit cause but several dimensions account for it, however, many antipoverty measures and strategies seem to focus poverty as a unit cause thereby providing only one aspect of the solution. Measures taken to curb the reoccurrence of poverty have to be necessarily intricate

The limitations of the other theories of poverty informed researches to the cyclical theory poverty prevention (Miller et al., 2004). This theory aims at helping the poor people to achieve self-sufficiency in a progressively and more significant manner. The theory aims at giving both entrench and broad supports services for the vulnerable groups. Key steps to curb poverty from this perspective require at least six mutually dependent fundamentals of self-reliance that can be recognized and tapped (Miller et al., 2004). These include: Education and skills acquisition; Income levels and economic or productive assets; Access to healthcare delivery and other needed social services; Housing and surroundings; Close personal interactions, as well as social networks to others and Personal resourcefulness and leadership capabilities.

The main resolution of this broad strategy to poverty eradication is that the public or government cannot lessen the burden of the vulnerable without first increasing their social capital in the communities or among sub groups of the poor (Bradshaw, 2007).

According to Bradshaw (2007) community antipoverty interventions put their hard work approximately in three key areas for contravention the work of poverty. These programmes structures, like the cyclical approach itself, merge programmes and strategies. These include: a comprehensive strategy which involves breaking the continue cycle of poverty to link the individual and community needs and aspirations; shared programmes which involves extensive interventions and strategies devoid of becoming excessively unrestrained to collaborate among several institutions and organizations to provide corresponding services that could not be done individually with greater output. For instance, social networks among participants can help coordinate the goals of the individuals and groups. Lastly community organizing as a strategy by which the grassroots and the vulnerable people can participate to understand how their personal lives and activities and the community wellbeing can be harness. Breaking the continuous cycle of poverty must involve the individuals who are affected to participate as a group or community, just like they are responsible for the spiral downward through their interaction with the community in a cycle of failure. For the poor, empowerment through participation is central to this issue.

### **2.3 Social Intervention/Protection Programmes**

Social protection consists of a sub-set of public actions, undertaken by the state or privately, that address risk, vulnerability and chronic poverty (DFID, 2005). According to the United Nations (2000:3) social protection is generally understood as a set of public and private policies, programmes and strategies undertaken in response to various contingencies in order to counteract the absence or considerable reduction of income from work; provide people with health care and housing; and provide assistance to families with children.

It is refers to the policies, programmes, strategies and actions which enhance the capability of poor and vulnerable groups to escape from poverty, and better manage risks, vulnerability and shocks. It encompasses the instruments that undertake chronic and shock-induced poverty and vulnerability (Sabates-Wheeler and Haddad, 2005). Social protection can help advance empowerment and security by improving risk management, facilitating higher return and investments by poor people and vulnerable groups. The rational of social protection or invention as seen in DFID and Sabates-Wheeler and Haddad views is to tackle or address chronic and shock-induced poverty and vulnerability.

Social protection refers to policies and programmes for the vulnerable groups which enhance their capabilities to manage with poverty, and prepare them to better manage shocks and risks. It includes a collection of instruments, including social cash transfers (Samson *et al.*, 2004, 2007). The most common feature of social protection is to aid the poor and vulnerable groups to manage risks and shocks not necessarily short but medium to long term.

According to the UK Department for International Development (2005), social protection has three key components: Social assistance (which involves non-contributory transfers to those deemed qualified by society on the basis of their vulnerability or poverty. Examples include social transfers and initiatives such as fee waivers for education and health, and school meals); Social insurance (which comprises individuals pooling resources by paying contributions to the state or a private provider so that, if they suffer a risk, shock or permanent change in their circumstances, they are able to be given financial support. Examples include contributory pensions as the case of the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT), unemployment insurance and health insurance. Social insurance is, in general, only appropriate for better-off individuals although it can have a crucial role in preventing them declining into poverty) and setting and enforcing minimum standards to protect citizens within the workplace, although this is difficult to achieve within the informal economy. The LEAP intervention is an example of social assistance aspect of social protection.

Social Protection is the base of a secure, reliable and acceptable life. Its main objective is to tackle poverty and to protect people especially the vulnerable groups from chronic risks and shocks caused by e.g. unforeseen social, political and economic fluctuations. Social Protection is often financed by public funds and contributions from donors or benevolent societies or individuals.

Social transfers takes a diversity of forms and mostly undertaken by the state and occasionally in collaboration with the private sector to those people and vulnerable groups regarded as living in circumstances of medium to long-term extreme vulnerability. It can be provided as cash grant, in-kind services such food and clothes or as vouchers. In many contexts, cash grant offers the most important returns (DFID, 2005) as seen the Bolsa Familia of Brazil and the LEAP programme of Ghana.



Cash transfers are regular and direct and often conventional non-contributory payments that raise the incomes levels of the poor with the ultimate goal of reducing poverty and vulnerability (Arnold et al, 2011). Cash transfers can be regarded as the provision of support in the form of cash grant to the vulnerable or to those who face a probable shock, risk and destitution in the absence of the transfer, of falling into Poverty (Tabor, 2002). Thus, cash transfers are given to the vulnerable and less privilege to escape them from probable risk and shock that are eminent without the transfer. Arnold et al view of cash transfer is an improvement of Tabor's in the sense that, it has specified the nature and how the poor and the vulnerable receive the transfers. Thus, the payments are regular and predictable and the beneficiary does not contribute.

Social transfers in the form of grant are deep-rooted in industrial countries and are progressively being adopted and adapted and tailored in the developing and least countries. They are usually either provided to sections of the people often regarded as severely poor including older people mostly without formal pension as in the case of the LEAP intervention, those living with disabilities and cannot engage in active work given the opportunity and children (mostly orphans) or specifically targeted on the poorest households (DFID, 2005).

The International Labour Organization 2000 (as cited in Tabor, 2002) has estimated that less than 10 percent of the workforce in Africa and Asia, 15 to 60 percent of the active population in Latin America, 20 to 25 percent of the labor force in the middle-income countries of North Africa, and 50 to 80 percent of the workers in the European transition states are covered with one or more cash transfer programmes as compared with more than 80 percent of the population in the industrialized countries.

Resources constrain and inadequate planning could be the reason for the low cash transfer programs in Africa and Asia as compared to the industrialized countries. This is true in the works of Beattie 2000 (as cited in Tabor, 2002) that many factors account for the large number of social protection programs based on cash transfers in the transition nations or in the industrialized states as compared to fewer numbers in the least and developing countries. Government resources are far more inadequate in the least and developing nations as



compared to advanced states. Expenditure on all public goods, including cash transfers are extremely inadequate. Governments usually give precedence in public expenditure to measures that alleviate structural constraints to growth and development rather than to programs aimed at augmenting consumer demand or transferring income.

Social cash transfers are now emerging in many least and developing countries as a lead social protection initiative tackling poverty and vulnerability. Thus, social cash transfers are forms of social interventions many development countries are using to leap the poor and the vulnerable from squalor and destitution.

Social cash transfers are regular non-contributory payments of grant and normally provided by the state or non-governmental organizations to individuals in chronic or shock-induced poverty, addressing economic dislocations and social risk reduction. The grants can be unconditional (as the case of South Africa Child Support Grant) or conditional (as in the case of Ghana LEAP programme and the Brazil Bolsa Familia). The conditional transfers are given households on the fulfillment human development responsibilities (education, health, nutrition, etc.) or else conditional on beneficiaries providing labour in conformity with a work requirement. The transfers can be universal or explicitly targeted to those regarded as poor or vulnerable groups (Samson *et al.*, 2004, 2007).

Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) are examples of social assistance interventions. Traditionally, social assistances are aimed at focusing on transfer mechanisms to reallocate income and wealth to the poor and the less privilege in society thereby helping them to overcome short-medium term poverty in periods of crisis (Rawlings and De La Brière, 2006).

### **2.3.1 Bolsa Familia Programme in Brazil**

For the understanding of the efforts made in Ghana to provide an efficient and effective Social Protection Scheme, one has to see where some suggestions came from. The LEAP programme has similarity with the Brazilian Bolsa Familia programme, which was launched in 2003.

In October 2003, the government of Brazil, led by Luiz Ignacio Lula da Silva launched a comprehensive social intervention with the ultimate aim to stimulating rapid economic and social growth, development. The programme integrated the already existing social

programmes to form the Bolsa Familia programme, which is regarded an all-encompassing reform of Brazil's social safety programs that consolidated four federal cash transfer programs and synchronized them with other social programs and policies (Lindert, 2005).

The Bolsa Familia intervention started in 2003 with the unification of four existing conditional and unconditional cash transfer programs of the federal government: Vale Gás; Fome Zero; Bolsa Alimentação and Bolsa Escola, (Soares et al., 2010). What was the rationale for the unification or integration of these existing safety net programmes? Why not strengthening the existing four safety nets programmes?

Even though each of the previous interventions had its own prominence of promoting food consumption, health care, education, compensation for fewer government subsidies etc the disconnected programs were redundant and not easy to manage. They all provided grants to almost the same intended people, thus the poor and the vulnerable groups. Each had its own split organizational setup, public reporting system, fiduciary procedures, and data gathering. The resultant safety net was filled with both gaps and redundancies in coverage, and the programmatic breakup sacrificed opportunities for synergies at the family level among health, schooling, nutrition, and essential services (Lindert, 2005).

The amalgamation of safety net programmes into the Bolsa Familia involved major changes. Under the previous administrative arrangement, the programmes were managed by different departments and agencies. For instance, Bolsa Escola (Ministry of Education), Cartão Alimentação (Fome Zero) and Auxílio Gás (Ministry of Mines and Energy), Bolsa Alimentação (Ministry of Health) and the aspects of Fome Zero were managed individually by different ministries and agencies, (Hall, 2006)

According to Hall 2006, the combination has enhanced the reduction in managerial costs, adoption of standardized procedures, improved targeting effectiveness, and results indicators and harmonize federal with state level safety net interventions. The conditionalities for education (schooling), nutrition and general health care delivery were fused to produce greater synergy while unit transfer benefits were also increased. However, many aspects of Bolsa

Familia performance remain decentralised to municipal level leaving the local levels unattended.

Aside from targeting efficacy and strengthening administrative arrangements, it was hoped that the amalgamation of the previous programmes would improve the synergies and complementarities at the family level in the areas of health care delivery, schooling, and nutrition (Hall, 2008). Lindert (2006) shared the same view, thus, the combination of the four interventions to form the Bolsa Familia made better utilization of public scarce and productive resources by reducing organizational budgets and improving the system for targeting the intended people and groups.

As part of the assimilation and changes, an Executive Secretariat and Inter-ministerial Management Committee for Bolsa Familia, which were under initially under the control at the President's Office, were transferred to the new Ministry of Social Development and Fight against Hunger (MDS) in order to smooth the progress of better amalgamation of social programmes in the country.

Bolsa Familia is now regarded as the largest Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) scheme in the world. Its four sub-programmes (maternal nutrition, a domestic gas subsidy, educational stipends to boost school attendance and food supplements) assisted some 30 million of Brazil's poorest people and vulnerable groups, with a target of 44 million by 2006 (Hall, 2006).

How was this ambitious programme targeted and implemented in Brazil? Bolsa Família targets two groups base on self-declared household income: the very poor with a monthly income of up to R\$ 60 (US\$ 36) and the poor earning between R\$ 60.01 and R\$ 120 (US\$ 73) a month. The exceptionally poor and the more destitute receive an even payment of R\$ 58 (US\$ 35) per month irrespective of household composition. This is however contrary to the LEAP grant which is given base on household size of beneficiaries. Both groups are eligible for monthly payments per child up to fifteen years of age to a maximum of three children. In December 2007 this limit was extended to include another two children per family up to age seventeen (Hall, 2008).



What were the objectives for initiating and implementing this programme? The Bolsa Familia Program aimed at achieving two objectives. To reduce the current levels of poverty and inequality in the country by means of direct cash transfers to poor and vulnerable families; to reduce future vulnerability, poverty and inequality through cash grant for poor families and vulnerable groups to enhance their own human capital in the medium to long run. That is, the positive incentives to seek other complementary social services, to keep children in school and send them to health centers for health advice and care.

To achieve these require two kinds of conditions: Quantitatively by increasing the number of beneficiaries into safety net programmes and Qualitatively by ensuring the achievement of significantly better outcomes and assessed by demonstrable improvements using comprehensible indicators of welfare for each beneficiary and groups, as well as improvements in the administrative processes by ensuring transparency and accountability.

More generally, the Bolsa Familia intervention also served to better align the country with the Millennium Development Goals (MDG 1,MDG 2, MDG 4,and MDG 5) through the demand-side incentives for investments in education, nutrition, and health for pregnant women and young children (Lindert, 2006).

How was this programme designed and implemented? According to Lindert 2006, the Program was planned mainly on the family unit (rather than the individual or community level). The family unit was the suitable entity to receive the benefit and should be accountability for meeting the programme's requirements; conditionalities to connect the transfers to positive incentives for human capital accumulations were viewed as basic to strengthening the investment role of the program for long-term poverty reduction; through attention to vertical integration, corresponding decentralized partnerships could be developed through state and municipal social interventions and a Unified Household Registry is being strengthened through technical improvements to better serve as an instrument for targeting the beneficiary groups as well as for administration and policy planning.



In arithmetical terms, the accomplishments of *Bolsa Fam'ilia* are very remarkable. By the end of 2006, the intervention had attained its target of attending to the needs of 11.1 poor families and vulnerable groups of some 44 million Brazilians (Hall, 2008). While numerically inspiring, however, this is just about 40 per cent of the eligible population in the country (Soares et al., 2007). Furthermore, the average level of benefit paid per household almost tripled from R\$ 28 to R\$ 75 per month from 2003 to 2005. According to the World Bank, *Bolsa Fam'ilia* is not only the biggest but also the well targeted Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) scheme in Latin America, with 73% of benefits reaching the vulnerable groups and the poorest 20 per cent of the population, and 94% falling within the lowest two quintiles (FAO, 2006)

The scheme has two important outcomes: Besides reducing poverty, it ensures that the families are taking care of their children especially in the areas of education and health. Compared to other social programmes in Brazil, the Bolsa Familia has an essential impact on the lives of most of the people having low income. Ninety four (94%) of the fund is received by 40% of the poorest people living in Brazil and studies give evidence that in most of the cases the money is used for buying food, school supplies and clothes for the children (Hall, 2006). In fact the success story of the Brazillian Bolsa Familia is very impressive. It is not surprising that many countries including Ghana have adopted similar strategies of the Bolsa Familia in the implementation of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme.

However, the evaluation found that Bolsa Família has not drastically affected the cumulative level of household consumption (Oliveira et al. 2007). Bolsa Família's targeting strategy and approach have been criticized under the arguments that intended beneficiaries have an incentive to omit sources of income and that its decentralized process may lead to selection distortions, such as patronage and leakage, Handa and Davis (2006) as cited in Soares et al., (2010). Also, as Ravallion (2007) has shown, most targeting measures are not correlated with poverty impact because they do not account for program coverage. A conditional cash conditional transfer (CCT) can have almost perfect targeting and administrative system, but if its scale or coverage is small, reaching few of the poor and the vulnerable groups, its impact will be insignificant.

The programme also has failed to have an impact on children aged 12-36 months. This is the critical age for nutritional vulnerability because of children's increasing demand for nutrients for all aspects of growth and development (Soares et al., 2010).

### **2.3.2 South Africa's Child Support Grant (CSG)**

Social interventions aim at tackling vulnerability in South Africa reach as far back as the turn of the nineteenth century, immediately after the Anglo-Boer war (1899-1902). The interventions mainly emanated from religious or faith-based societies and people's reciprocity within communities (Triegaardt, 2005).

The South African arrangement of state welfare transfers changed little in terms of its basic structure up to the 1990s. The system remained subjugated by means-tested, noncontributory old age pensions and disability pensions with prejudice between different racially distinct groups in terms of access to the grants and the levels of benefits. In December 1995, the newly democratic elected government of South Africa established the Lund Committee to assess the existing welfare system of state and to explore new option policy alternatives of targeting children and families, and the vulnerable groups. In 1998 the Child Support Grant (CSG) replaced the already existing State Maintenance Grant (SMG) (Aguero, 2010).

The CSG was to be awarded to the primary care givers of poor children under the age of seven. In early 2002, if a child's biological parents' or main care giver's total income did not surpass R1100 per month in rural areas (R800 in urban areas), the primary care giver could be given a monthly amount of R110 per eligible child (Case et al., 2005).

In coming up with the CSG, the Lund Committee emphasized that the grant must follow the child, implying, that the assistance should be not dependent of the child's family structure. This approach represented a move from a family-based benefit to a child-focused one (Aguero, 2010). This view is the same in the study of (Triegaardt, 2005: 251) 'The purpose of introducing a social grant for children was primarily to provide support for children in poverty. The principle behind this social grant was to follow the child, which means that the grant would be allocated irrespective of the child's family structure'.

The South Africa Child Support Grant was introduced for several reasons: First, it was aimed at averting the urban bias that had been the case in most health care, education and welfare interventions. In addition, it introduced for the first time the belief that an adult primary or main care giver, as against the biological parent, could be a beneficiary of a grant aimed at children. Moreover, while the new democratic elected government was initially lauded for producing visionary policies and strategies to address the adverse legacies of apartheid, it is increasingly being criticized for failures of accomplishment (Case et al., 2005).

Whiteford (personal communication) in the Lund Committee Report (Department of Welfare, 1996: 5) as cited in Triegaardt (2005) noted that “the objectives of support were to contribute to the costs of raising children; redistribute income over the life cycle; influence the birth rate; provide a degree of equity in taxation; relieve child poverty; enable parents to care for children independently of the labour market; boost low earnings; reduce demands for a minimum wage; increase incentives to work; and relieve unemployment or low income traps”.

How was this grant implemented? There were several main considerations regarding the implementation of the CSG, including the need for inter-sectoral collaboration to alleviate poverty and destitution in the country (Triegaardt, 2005). Inter-sectoral collaboration involving state departments and agencies and the private sectors has to be administered and harmonized so that all the sectors can promote the effective capacity and support of children to ease their poverty. In addition, policy commitment on the part of government, budget allocations and the alignment of these policy and fiscal priorities and inter-sectoral collaboration are necessary. The problem in South Africa is that so many development institutions and initiatives are not coordinated with each other in any way (Mangu, 2002: 102).

Despite the managerial problems, research has revealed that the CSG has had a significant impact on poor children education and vulnerable families. The results revealed that the CSG grant was used mainly for education, food and clothes (Case, 2000: 43). Also, children who were enrolled in the CSG at birth perform better in education than those who were enrolled at



age six, and achieved higher scores on a math test. Also Girl who received the grant earlier performed better than those who it at age six (UNICEF, 2012).

There is an argument that the Child Support Grant has increased Teenage Pregnancy among beneficiaries, however, a study conducted by Makiwane et al., (2006) proved otherwise. The study found out that, the CSG was introduced in 1998, and its scope has increased dramatically between 1998 and 2005. In contrast, teenage fertility peaked in 1996 and hence cannot be attributed to the grant. Also, older women are direct recipients of the CSG than those who are within the fertility period. Again, among young women there are more women who are child bearers than are direct recipients of the grants. That is, younger mothers are not benefiting directly from the CSG in the same proportion as older caregivers.

Despite the fact that research has demonstrated that social grants are important component of poverty alleviation in poor households (Ardington and Lund, 1995; CASE, 2000; Vorster et al., 2000) as cited in Triegaardt (2005), the removal of the State Maintenance Grants (SMGs) and replaced with CSG has had a severe economic impact on poverty-stricken households, especially in the absence of a transitional arrangement. Also, there are concerns about the effectiveness of the means test for social grants, and suggestions that it should be scrapped (Asher, 1999; Ensor, 2003; Van der Berg, 1998b) as cited in Triegaardt (2005).

The South Africa Child Support Grant is an example of an unconditional social protection. Thus, beneficiaries of this intervention were not required to fulfill certain conditions before assessing the grant. Some aspects of the LEAP programme have similar traits of the CSG in the since that, those who are severely disable are not required to fulfill any condition or requirement before assessing the LEAP grant. The Ghana LEAP programme is therefore a combination of both conditional and unconditional social cash transfer.

### **2.3.3 The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) Programme**

According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS), the poverty profile of Ghana indicates that an estimated 40% of Ghanaians are poor. This refers to people who have the capability to meet their basic need of food, but are not able to take care for supplementary necessities. Furthermore, an additional 14.7% of the people is afflicted by extreme poverty



and are thus not capable to cater for basic human needs including their nutritional requirements and suffer from poverty across generations (Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment, 2007). This phenomenon requires a social policy to provide safety net for the poor and the vulnerable in Ghana.

After sending a team of officials to study the Brazilian experience, the government of Ghana, in March 2008, launched the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme. The real motivation for adopting the Brazilian Bolsa Familia programme came from the Ghana Statistical Service revelation in 2007 that 880,000 households in Ghana, representing about 18.2 percent of the population, were extremely poor. Similarly, the GLSS 7 estimated that 40 percent of Ghanaians were poor (Ghana Statistical Service 2007).

The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) cash transfer is the flagship intervention of Ghana's National Social Policy Strategy (NSPS). It has its aims of empowering the poor by enhancing their capabilities to access government interventions or programmes and enabling them to 'leap out of poverty' (Ministry of Manpower, Youth Employment, 2007; Debrah, 2013). Of the 28.5% of Ghana's population who are poor, LEAP targets the 18.2% who are classified as extremely poor, although criteria and means of targeting are still undergoing a process of refinement ( Amuzu et al., 2010).

Like the Brazilian Bolsa Familia and the South African CSG LEAP uses a wide range of targeting methods and approaches including geographical location, community based, categorical and proxy means testing. Geographical targeting clusters the districts according to poverty acceptable indicators, with depressed districts given priority using a poverty and vulnerability map from the Ghana Statistical Service and National Development Planning Commission. At the districts level, beneficiary communities are chosen by the District LEAP Implementation Committee (DLIC) (Davis et al., 2012). According to the LEAP operational manual, the DLIC is made up of the District Social Welfare Officer, the Director of the Department of Children, the District Chief Executive, the Director of Education, a representative of the social services sub-committee, a representative of assembly men and

women, Director of Information, the Director of Health, the Director of Labour, the and a representative from religious and non-government organization (NGO) in the districts.

Like the Bolsa Familia programme, the Ghana Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme is based on criteria targeting, thus one is eligible if he/she meets certain criteria. LEAP eligibility is based on poverty and having a household member in at least one of three demographic criteria: person with extreme disability unable to work (PWD), households with orphan or vulnerable child (OVC) and the elderly poor. The initial criterion for inclusion of households is done through a community-based process and is verified central level with a proxy means test (Sudhanshu et al., 2013; Debrah, 2013; FAO, 2013).

Also like the Bolsa Familia which used both conditional and unconditional cash transfers, LEAP uses both conditional and unconditional cash transfers. The conditional transfer is applicable to Care takers of orphans or vulnerable child. The beneficiary families are expected to: Register all members of the family in the National Health Insurance Scheme; Enroll and keep all school-age children in school; Prevent all children in the family from children traffic and from being involved in any of the Worst Forms of Child Labour; Register newly-born children (0-18 months-old) at the Registry of Births and Deaths, take them to post-natal clinics and enroll them in the Expanded Immunization Programme (MMYE, 2007). The DSW does not require that all these conditionalities be immediately met for a household to receive the LEAP cash-transfer, but instead uses them as a guide to encourage the development of certain pro-child conditions in the household that will assist in “breaking the inter-generational cycle of poverty” (MMYE, 2007).

The LEAP programme is financed by the Government of Ghana, Department for International Development (DFID) and the World Bank (WB). It covers about hundred (100) districts nationwide and benefits 77,000 households (GOG, 2015).

The LEAP exit strategies are that, beneficiaries with productive capacity will be in the programme for a period of three years to develop and maintain their basic livelihoods. Three years after, participants will be connected up with other complementary programmes to further

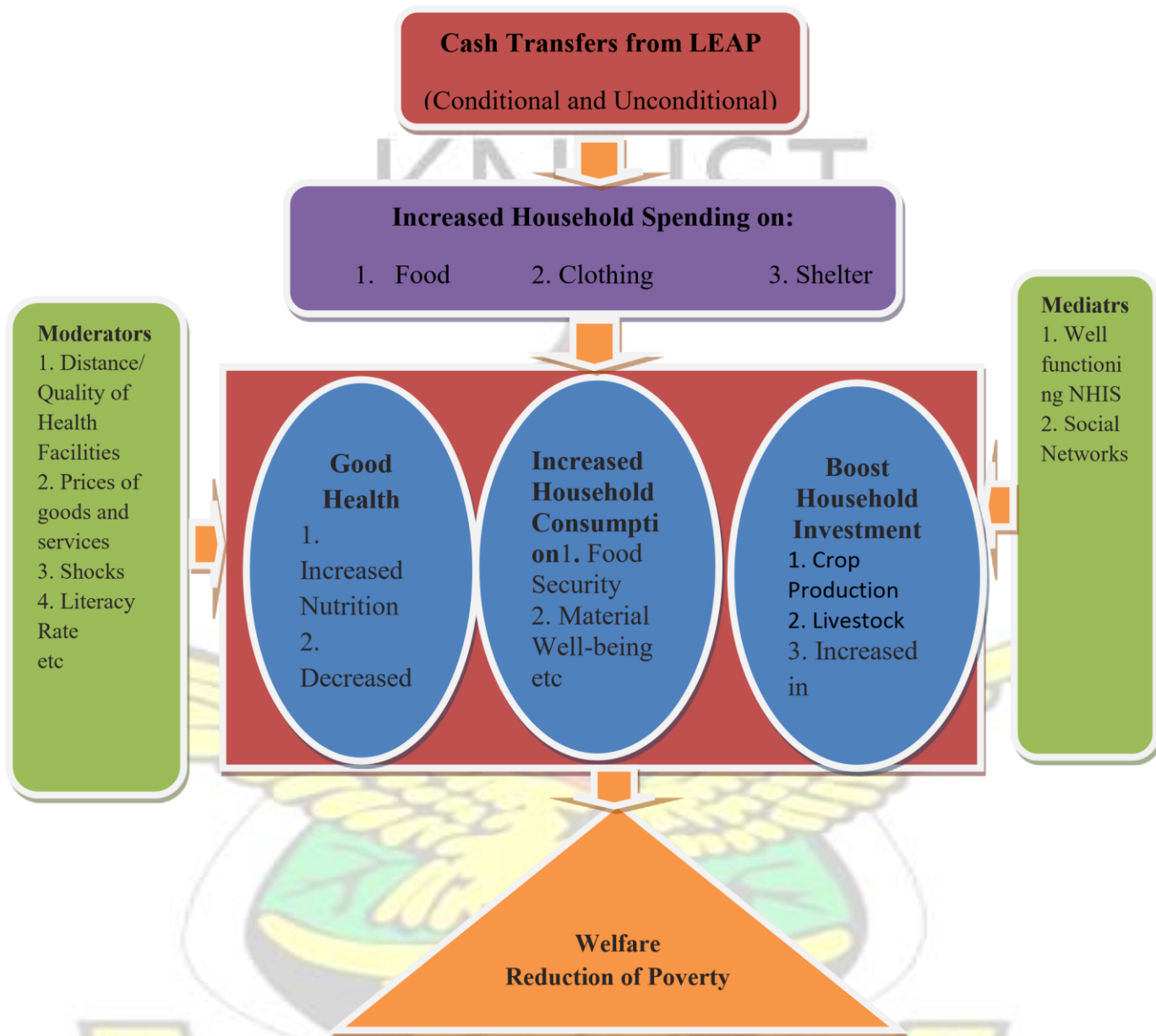
enhance their social and economic capacities. The common overall exit strategy for the extremely poor above 65 years is that they will continue to receive the social grants until death. However, for those extremely poor above 65 years who have family members or care givers with potential,, they will be supported with a 2 years time restricted social grants transfer benefits to serve as a buffer to lift them out of extreme poverty condition and empowered them with productive potential through the other complementary programmes (MMYE, 2007).

#### **2.4 The Conceptual Framework of the study**

A conceptual framework is a visual or written presentation that: “explains either graphically, or in narrative form, the main issues to be studied thus the key factors, variables or concepts and the presumed relationship among them” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, P18). It is a theoretical structure of assumptions, principles, and rules that holds together the ideas comprising a broad concept. This study is built on the following conceptual framework:



**Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework**



**Source: Author's Construct, February, 2015**

The figure 2.1 above is a typical conceptual framework on which this study is built upon. Cash transfers from LEAP will lead to increased household spending on food, clothing, shelter etc. These will lead to increased nutrition, decreased morbidity thus resulting in good health. Also, cash transfers from LEAP will lead to food security and well-being thereby leading to increased household consumption. Lastly, cash transfers from LEAP will boost household investment through increased in production, livestock as well as household assets.



The overall effect will lead to welfare and reduction of poverty.

However, these effects are motivated or limited by two main attribution factors: the mediators and moderators. The Mediators are factors that are influenced by the program and so lies directly within the causal chain. For instance social networks, thus the program may encourage social interaction among participants which can facilitate the exchange of information and knowledge that could ultimately change behavior. Also the program provides health insurance for beneficiaries which enable them access health care. Thus, the well-functioning of these mediators will enhance the chain leading to the overall welfare and poverty reduction.

On the other hand, the moderators are not influenced by the program. For instance the impact of the cash transfers may be weaker or stronger depending on local conditions in the District or communities. These moderators include access to markets and other services, prices, shocks, literacy rate etc. when these moderators are absent or inadequate, then, beneficiaries will not have the maximum benefits from the intervention and vice versa. For instance, the LEAP grant will not have the anticipated impact if prices of goods and services are high such that beneficiaries cannot afford basic necessities with the grant. Also, the impact of the intervention will not be felt by beneficiaries if they cannot absorb shocks like drought, floods etc.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The understanding of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme as well as the relationships and conclusions depend largely on the methodology use in the study. Following on from the background and the theoretical framework in the previous chapters,

this chapter focuses on the research methodology (research design, sampling techniques, sample frame, sample size selection) and a brief profile of the study area.

### **3.2 Research Methodology**

This looks at the research approach/design, Sampling Design/Techniques, Data Sources and Collection, The Target Group/Population for the study, Sampling Frame, Sample Size Determination and Data Analysis Tools and Management.

#### **3.2.1 Research Approach/Design**

Research designs are concerned with turning the research question or objectives into a testing/testable project. Any research design deals with at least four (4) problems: what questions to study; what data are relevant; what data should you collect; and how to analyze the results. A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure (Kothari, 2004). It is the conceptual structure or skeleton within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, evaluation and analysis of data.

Research design can be fixed or flexible. It can also be qualitative or quantitative. This study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches in collecting and analyzing the data. Thus, a combination of both approaches was used to analyze both primary and secondary data. This approach was chosen because of its merits of allowing issues to be analyzed by explanation and description. Also, issues or phenomenons that require graphical and tabular presentations can also be analyzed with this approach. Also, considering the nature of social problems which the study relates, a combination of flexible and fixed research design allowed issues to be explained and analyses well.

#### **3.2.2 Sampling Design/Techniques**

A sample design is a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It refers to the method or the procedure the researcher would adopt in selecting items for the sample (Kothari, 2004). It is a plan that indicates how cases are to be selected for data collection, management and analysis.

There are basically two types of sampling designs: probability and non-probability sampling designs. Probability sampling is a process that ensures that all cases in the population have a known probability of being included in the sample. It is more scientific and more acceptable but can be expensive. In probability-based sampling, the first step is to choose on the population of concentration, that is, the population we want the results about (Doherty, 1994). Non-probability sampling on the other hand refers to processes of case selection other than random.

The principal sampling design or technique of this study was done using probability sampling base on cluster sampling and area sampling. Cluster sampling is a form of sampling design where by the population is broken down into groups of cases called clusters. It involves putting the population into groups and then selecting the groups or the clusters rather than individual elements themselves for inclusion in the sample. Thus in cluster sampling the total population is divided into a number of relatively small subdivisions which are themselves clusters of still smaller units and then some of these clusters are randomly selected for addition in the overall sample (Kothari, 2004).

Area sampling is quite close to cluster sampling and is often talked about when the total geographical area of interest happens to be big one. Under area sampling the total area is first divided into a number of smaller non-overlapping areas, generally called geographical clusters, then a number of these smaller areas are randomly selected, and all units in these small areas are included in the sample for the study (Kothari, 2004).

In this study, the study area was classified based on the natural groupings of the district. Thus, beneficiaries of the programme were grouped into communities they come from and in accordance with the groupings of the Department of Social Welfare (DSW). Thus, the Department of Social Welfare grouped the beneficiaries according to communities they come from for the purpose of convenience in terms of targeting and payment of grants. The District has 44 LEAP community constituting 1,943 beneficiary households. These communities constituted the clusters for the study. Using sampling fraction, each cluttered community was allocated a proportion based on the number of beneficiary households. The proportion for each



clustered community was randomly selected for interview and focus group discussion on areas relating to the objectives of the study. For instance, Akunduo community has 48 beneficiary households. The sample size for this community was 4 thus,  $48/1943 \times 145$  (total beneficiary households in the community divided by total district beneficiary households multiplied by well calculated selected sample size). This process was done for all the 44 communities to obtain the 145 sample size used in the study.

### **3.2.3 Data Sources and Collection**

Sources of data are very essential for research or study. Data for this study was obtained from two sources: primary and secondary.

Primary data are those collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be its original form. Secondary data on the other hand, are data that have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process of research (Kothari, 2004).

Primary data for this study was obtained from field work. This was done through administration of questionnaire, interviews, focus group discussions and observation. Thus beneficiaries of the programme in the Bongo District were questioned and interviewed on areas relating to the objectives of the study. Observation and focus group discussion were also used to get critical issues that were not captured by the questionnaire. The 145 sample size in the 44 LEAP communities were interviewed and in some cases, focus group discussions were used to derived information that could not obtain from the interview. Secondary data for this study was obtained from extensive literature review. Books, Journals, policy statements, annual reports and other recognized publications that have bearing on the study constituted the major sources of secondary data for this study.

### **3.2.4 The Target Group/Population for the study**

The target population is the group or the individuals to whom the survey applies (Kitchenham, 2002). Study population is the aggregate of elements from which the sample is actually selected (Ruben and Babbie 1989). The target group for this study was all the beneficiaries of the programme in the Bongo district. That is, the communities, households, individuals who



benefit from the LEAP programme in the Bongo District constituted the target group. Thus, the 44 LEAP communities, the 1943 beneficiaries constituted the target group for the study.

### **3.2.5 Sampling Frame**

This refers to a list containing all the sampling units. Thus sampling frame consists of a list of substances from which the sample is to be selected. Sample frame according to Rubin and Babbie (1989) is the actual list of sampling units from which the sample is selected. In this study, the sampling frame was obtained from the Bongo District Department of Social Welfare register of LEAP Beneficiaries. This register contains the communities and their respective households that benefit from the LEAP programme as attached in the appendices of this study. From this source list or sample frame, the communities and their respective households were carefully randomly selected to constitute the sample size.

### **3.2.6 Sample Size Determination**

Sample size refers to the number of units to be chosen from the universe to constitute a sample for the study. The size of sample should be optimum. Thus, sample size which fulfills the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility (Kothari, 2004).

The sample size of this study was determined using appropriate and approved sampling design or technique. Thus, the sample mathematical formula was used to determine the appropriate and suitable sample size for the study.

With the sample mathematical formula, the appropriate and suitable sample size was determined using the formula below:

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

Where n = Sample Size, N = Total Population  $\alpha$  = Margin of Error, Adopted from Miller and Brower (2003).

According to the Department of Social Welfare Bongo District, the total number of households benefiting from the LEAP programme is 1,943 spread across forty four (44) communities district wide. Therefore, N (total population) is 1,943. The Margin of error of this study is assumed at 0.08 (92% confidence level), therefore, the sample size (n) is determined as:

$$n = \frac{1943}{1+1943(0.08)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1943}{1 + 1943(0.0064)}$$

$$n = \frac{1943}{1 + 12.4352}$$

$$n = \frac{1943}{13.4352}$$

$$n = 145$$

### **3.2.7 Data Analysis Tools and Management**

Data from the field or primary sources are meaningless unless they are analyzed and interpreted for easy comprehension by users. The data for this study was managed by editing; coding, classifying and tabulation. They were analyzed using software known as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) now known as Statistical Product and Service Solutions. Charts, Frequencies, Table, Cross-tabulation etc were used were to make easy and visual understanding of issues of the study.

### **3.3 Profile of Bongo District**

This aspect of the study presents a brief review of the study area thus, Bongo District in the Upper East Region of Ghana. It looks at the location and size of the district, The Climatic Conditions, Population Size and Growth Rates, Age-Sex Structure, Ethnicity and Religious Affiliation, Rural/Urban Split, Poverty Levels and The Major Economic Activities in the District.

#### **3.3.1 Location and Size of the Bongo District**

The Bongo District was created in 1988, with its capital at Bongo. The District is 15 km away from Bolgatanga, the Regional capital (Bongo District Assembly, 2012).

The District is one of the thirteen Districts in the Upper East Region and shares boundaries with Kassena-Nankana West and East Districts to the West and East, Bolgatanga Municipal to the South and Burkina Faso to the North .

It lies between longitudes latitude 10.50o N to 11.09 and 0.45o W and has an area of 459.5 square kilometres. It lies within the Oncho-cerciasis-free zone. The District is made up of 36





women especially in the rural areas are vulnerable and less privilege due to their lack of access to productive resources such as land and other economic trees. Social protection programmes such as LEAP should take cognizance of this sex variation in the targeting of beneficiaries.

### 3.3.4 Ethnicity and Religious Affiliation

The main ethnic group in the Bongo District is Frafra (about 98.1%) even though there are other minor ethnic groups. There are three main religions in the District: Christian, Islam and Africa Traditional Religion. Few of the populaces do not have any religion (GSS, 2013).

According to the Ghana Statistical Service, 32.3% of the population are Catholics, 4.6% Protestants, 6.6% Pentecostal/Charismatic, 1.6% Other Christian, 7.2% Islam, 44% Traditionalist, 3.3% No Religion and 0.4% Others (GSS, 2010 Population and Housing Census). This is illustrated in the table below. The high percentage of traditionalists in the district has bearing on poverty in the vein that, most of them belief in unproductive and outdated cultural practices which draw back progress and development. The high incidence of poverty and vulnerability in the study area is not therefore a surprise. Policies to address vulnerability and poverty in the area should incorporate measures of address the instances of harmful cultural practices.

**Table 3.1 Religious Affiliation in Bongo District in relation to Regional and National Levels**

Religion	Bongo District (%)	Regional (Upper East) (%)	National Level (%)
Catholic	32.3	19.9	14.7
Protestants	4.6	7.1	10.7
Pentecostal/Charismatic	6.6	11.8	17.6
Other Christian	1.6	2.9	23.8
Islam	7.2	27.1	16.5
Traditionalist	<b>44</b>	27.9	9.2

No Religion	3.3	2.8	7.4
Others	0.4	0.6	0.1
Total	100	100	100

**Author's Construct, Dec. 2014. Compiled from, Ghana Statistical Service, 2013**

From the table 3.1, the study area (Bongo District) has more traditionalists (44%) than any other religion. This is far more than the regional and national levels of 27.9% and 9.2% respectively. Among the Christian religion, Catholics are more dominant than any other Christian denominations. This is typical of northern part of the country where Catholics are more dominant than any other Christian denominations. The high percentage of traditionalist could have adverse effects on the poverty and vulnerability in the area in the sense that, most of the traditional values, norms, customs, beliefs and practices are outmoded and counter productivity which are fertile grounds for vulnerability to thrive.

### 3.3.5 Rural/Urban Split

More than half of the population in the District lives in rural areas. About 93.9% of the populace lives in rural areas and the remaining 6.1% lives in urban areas according to the Ghana Statistical Service, 2013. This is illustrated in the table 3.2 below.

**Table 3.2 Rural-Urban split in the Bongo District in relation to Upper East Region and National level.**

Rural/Urban	Bongo District %	Upper East Region %	National Level %
Rural	93.9	79.0	49.1
Urban	6.1	21.0	50.9

**Author's Construct, Dec. 2014.**

From the table 3.2, the proportion of the population living in rural areas in the district far exceed the regional and national levels. Whereas the percentages rural population of the Upper East and National are 79% and 49.1% respectively, Bongo District has 93.9% rural (Bongo District Assembly, 2012). This situation or phenomenon has bearing on the poverty level in the district. This is because, most of the rural areas in Ghana lack basic necessities of life such as potable water, shelter, schools and even enough food. Thus, there is much deprivation in

the rural areas than urban areas (GSS, 2013). Social interventions should recognize this demarcation in the targeting process. This will help meet the needs of the anticipated people.

### **3.3.6 Poverty Levels in the District**

Poverty is endemic in the Bongo District, thus posing serious vulnerability in the district.

There is positive correlation between rural settlement and level of poverty. According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2013) Population and Housing Census, the percentage contribution of deprivations of rural areas to overall poverty in the upper east was 87.3% as against 12.7% in the urban areas. This implies that, poverty levels at the rural areas are endemic than urban areas and the more rural a district or community is, the higher the level of poverty.

The percentage rural population of Bongo District is 93.9%, implying that, the poverty level in the district is high since there are evidences that rural areas are more poverty stricken than urban areas. The level of poverty in the district is as a result of multiplicities of factors ranging from natural factors, cultural beliefs and practices and adverse government policies.

According to the District Planning and Coordinating Units (DPCU), Bongo District Assembly (2012), there are several barriers that make people poor and vulnerable in the district. These include: Human Asset barriers Health (Blindness engendered by onchocerciasis, alcoholism, limited availability of health services); Natural barriers, (there is scarcity of fertile land as a result of extremely rocky terrain, high population pressures, soil erosion, black flies which deter people from most fertile areas, unreliable rainfall pattern erratic and inadequate amounts); Financial/economic barriers (Constrained employment opportunities both unemployment and under employment among the youth); Human asset barriers education/skills (Low literacy levels, occupational skill defects, low retention levels); Barriers associated physical infrastructure (Poor physical accessibility seasonal streams and other constraints in road motorability, limited land for physical development); Gender/life cycle barriers (Inimical gender biased, traditions degrading widowhood rites); Gender/life cycle barriers (Inequitable asset ownership, curtailment of girls rights, noninvolvement of women in decision making, exploitative child labour) and Other social barriers (Exclusion of persons with disability from decision making, regressive funeral traditions especially, high cost of funerals, night markets spawning promiscuity/ teenage pregnancy). To curb or reduce poverty



level in the district requires multi-sectoral measures that can address the multi-varied causes of poverty in the area.

### **3.3.7 Major Economic Activities**

The structure of the economic activities in the district is separated into four major sectors namely; Industry, Commerce, Service and. However. Agriculture is the main activities among all the sectors contributing about 90% of the population who are engaged in crop farming and animal rearing. Most citizens get their income from the sale of foodstuffs and small animals as well as poultry.

The commerce sub sector also contributes quite a large proportion of people in the district especially women. Trading activities are on full time or part time job. The women either sell items such as provisions while others engage in groundnut oil extraction, Shea butter processing, pito brewing, dawadawa processing, malt making, as well as handicraft production including basket weaving. Apart from a few stalls built by the Assembly, which are also insufficient, the others operate under all kinds of sheds constructed by traders themselves. There are currently no modern markets in the district thereby lowering the revenue base of the district. In view of this, there is the need to construct modern markets with facilities like potable water, toilets, restaurants, urinals, lorry parks, drainage facilities “chop bars” and access roads. There is also the urgent need to develop planned schemes for these markets in order to check encroachment on the markets.

This chapter looked at the methodology employed in the study and a summary of key demographic, economic and geographical profile of the study area, thus Bongo District.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

Having reviewed the literature and the methodology employed for the study in previous chapters, this chapter presents the analysis and discusses of findings of the LEAP programme in the Bongo District of Ghana. They are discussed in sections that reflect the objectives of the study. The sections are:

- ✓ Demographic Characteristics of LEAP Beneficiaries
- ✓ The LEAP Grant and Small Scale Businesses
- ✓ The LEAP Grant and Basic Necessities of Beneficiaries    ✓ Compliance to LEAP Conditionalities by beneficiaries

Comparisons were made with other programmes especially the Brazilian Bolsa Familia and the South Africa Child Protection Grant. Also, literatures on the subject matter are cited to back up the results. General observations and interesting events on the field are also cited to back up some of the arguments that emerged.

The results are presented in tables, bar charts, pie charts and figures thereby providing a pictorial or virtual impression of LEAP Beneficiaries responses to the LEAP programme in the Bongo District, Upper East Region.

#### **4.1 Demographic Characteristics of LEAP Beneficiaries**

This aspect looks at the basic traits of the beneficiaries of LEAP in the Bongo District. It consists of the ages and sex; religious affiliation; occupation; marital and educational statuses and the size of households. This background informs the type or caliber of people that benefit from the intervention.

##### **4.1.1 Age and Sex of Beneficiaries**

The age and sex structure of a given population is very essential for all spheres of fields. Policy makers, planners, demographers, sociologists, politicians etc need to know this dimension of demography in their daily activities. From the study, most of the beneficiaries of the programme are between the ages 61 and above. Out of the 145 respondents, 83 constituting 57.3% are in this age bracket. This shows that, more than half of the respondents would have

been on retirement if they were public servants. Also, this age cohort is more prone to poverty since they may not be able to engage in active work. The least age cohort in the study is between the ages 30-40. This is illustrated in the table 4.1.1: **Table 4.1.1: Ages of Respondents**

Age Cohort	Frequency	Percent
30-40	7	4.8
41-50	19	13.1
51-60	36	24.8
61-70	41	28.3
71+	42	29.0
Total	145	100.0

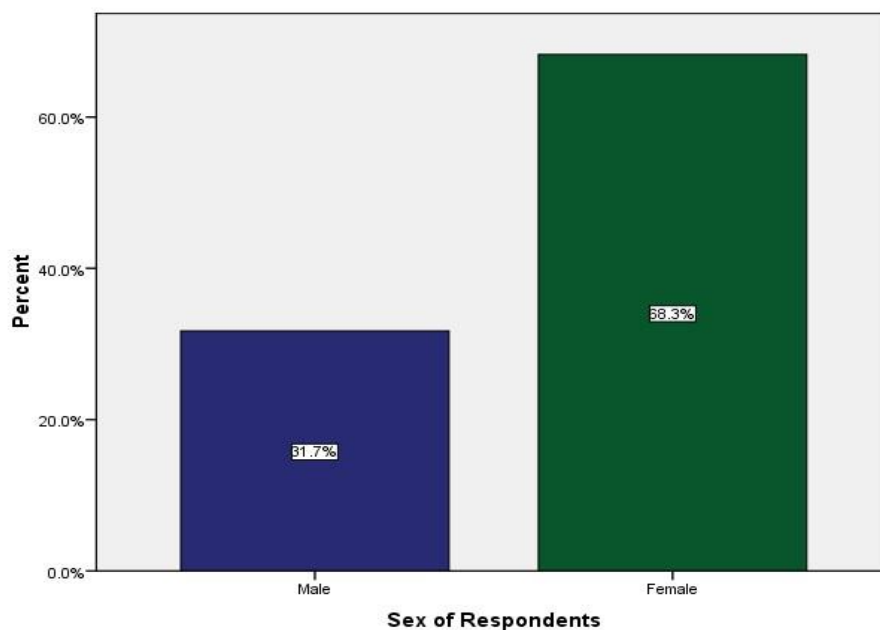
Source: Field work March, 2015

In terms of sex, as many as 68.3% of the beneficiaries are females while 31.7% are males as portrayed in the bar chart 4.1 below. The sex structure of a given population has bearing on the level of poverty especially in our part of the world where women have no entitlement especially land which poses conducive environment for poverty to thrive. According to Sen (1976), famine is caused not necessarily due to inadequacy of food but due to failure of entitlement. A person suffers from failure of food entitlement when he/she has no access to productive resources which may enable him/her to avoid starvation in the absence of nonentitlement transfers, such as charity.

Also, the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy reported that, low levels of consumption through lack of access to capital, social assets, land and market opportunities are major causes of poverty in Ghana (NDPC, 2003). The Figure 4.1 shows the percentage of the sex structure of the selected LEAP beneficiaries in the district.

**Figure 4.1: Sex of respondents**





Source: Field work March, 2015

#### 4.1.2 Religious Affiliation

According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2013), Bongo District is predominately Traditionalist and Catholics. About 44% and 32.1% are Traditionalists and Catholics respectively. The result of the study is not too different from the GSS figures. From the study, 86 (59.3%) and 57 (39.3%) are Traditionalist and Christians (mainly Catholics) respectively. In fact the Islamic religion is less predominates in the area. This is shown in the table 4.1.2:

**Table 4.1.2 Religious Affiliation**

Type of Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Christian	57	39.3
Islam	2	1.4
Traditionalist	86	59.3
Total	145	100.0

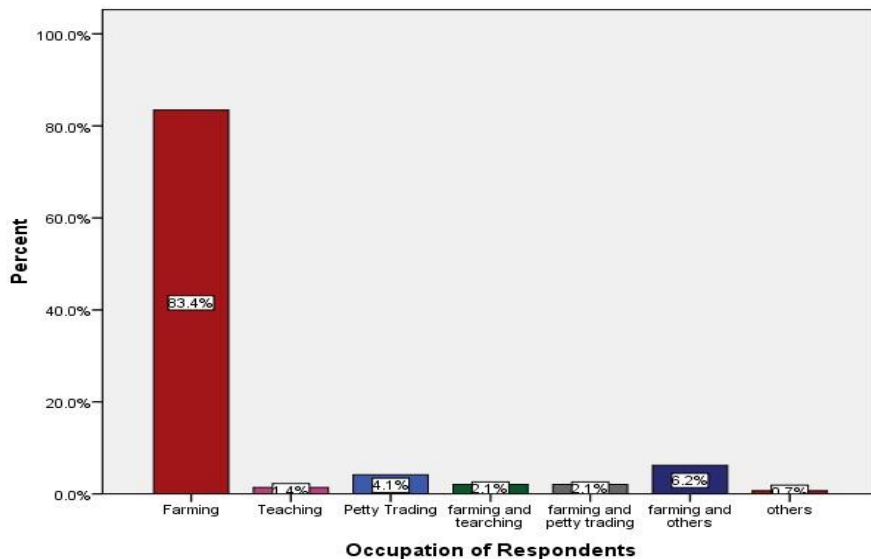
Source: Field work March, 2015

#### 4.1.3 Occupation

The type of occupation of a group of people shows the level of deprivation or otherwise of the people. Poverty and vulnerability are more prevalence among farmers especially in the rural areas. According to the National Development Planning Commission (2003) based on the GLSS 4, poverty is by more pronounced among food crop farmers. Their poverty remains nearly 59% above the national average of 40% in 1998/99 and they, together with those engage in non-farm self-employment, experienced the least decline (9%) in poverty.

The results of the study are in conformity with the NDPC (2003) assessment. The results portrayed that 83.4% of the respondents are engaged in subsistent farming while the rest of 16.6% are in to petty trading, teaching etc as their main sources of livelihood as showed in figure 4.1.3 below. This implies that, without social protection or intervention, most of the people cannot leap out from poverty and destitution. The intervention and targeting of the LEAP programme on these beneficiaries is therefore in the right direction.

**Figure 4.1.3: Occupation of Participants**



Source: Field work March, 2015

#### 4.1.4 Marital Status

The table 4.1.4 shows the marital status of the responded LEAP beneficiaries in the district.

**Table 4.1.4: Marital Status of Respondents**

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	40	27.6
Single	10	6.9
Divorced	4	2.8
Separated	3	2.1
Widowed	88	60.7
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.1.4, 88 out of the 145 participants are widowed, 40 married and the least of 3 persons are separated. The highest number of 88 representing 60.7% of the respondents has relation with the level of poverty. The cultural practices and customs of the Northern part of Ghana especially Upper East are that, the entitlements of women are often tied to their husband Nukunya (2003). If a woman husband dies, the entitlements are redistributed to the patrilineal lineage of the husband. Widows are therefore disadvantaged in term of entitlements. Since wealth is mostly associated with entitlement, the absence of it will lead to impoverishment.

#### 4.1.5 Educational Background

**Table 4.1.5: Educational Levels of Respondents**



Educational Levels	Frequency	Percentage
Primary	18	12.4
Technical/Vocational	3	2.1
Not being to school	123	84.8
Others	1	.7
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

The table 4.1.5 shows the educational background of the respondents. From the table, most of the respondents have not been to school. This constitutes 84.8% of the participants followed by those who only attended primary school (12.4%). The level of education of an individual has implication on his or her impoverishment. Mostly, educated people who are employed have fixed income and can plan their demands or needs unlike those who are not educated. Therefore the high percentage of not been to school of the respondents has adverse consequences on poverty and vulnerability. Social intervention programmes such as the LEAP has to take cognizance of their dimension of vulnerability in its targeting.

#### 4.1.6 Size of Household

The LEAP grant is give based on the number of beneficiaries of given household. Thus the amount beneficiaries or care takers received depends on the number of people benefiting in the household. The table 4.1.6A shows the amounts received since the inception of the programme in 2008 based on the number of beneficiaries in a household. The amount received by LEAP beneficiaries is contrary to the Bolsa Familia in which the average level of benefit paid per household almost tripled from R\$ 28 to R\$ 75 per month from 2003– 05(Soares et al., 2007).

**Table 4.1.6A: Number of Eligible Members and Transfer Amount for 2008-2015**

Number of Households	Amount GH¢							
	2008 GH¢	2009 GH¢	2010 GH¢	2011 GH¢	2012 GH¢	2013 GH¢	2014 GH¢	2015 GH¢
Household with one eligible beneficiary	8	8	8	8	24	24	24	24
Household with two eligible beneficiaries	10	10	10	10	30	30	30	30
Household with three eligible beneficiaries	12	12	12	12	36	36	36	36
Household with four or more eligible beneficiaries	15	15	15	15	45	45	45	45

**Source: compiled from various tables of DSW report (2009-2012)**

The table 4.1.6B shows the household sizes of participants of the programme. **Table 4.1.6B: Size of Household**

Size of Household	Frequency	Percentage
One	2	1.4
Two	11	7.6
Three	12	8.3
Four	13	9.0
More than four	107	73.8
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.1.6B, most of the beneficiaries have household more than four beneficiaries. This constitutes 107 (73.8%) of the total 145 respondents followed by four etc. the Percentage

distribution of the household size revealed that, the average household size in the research communities was 4.5 which is just below the Bongo district and Upper East average household sizes of 5.6 and 5.9 respectively (GSS, 2013). From the tables 4.16A and 4.1.6B above, the amounts received cannot meet all the basics needs of the beneficiaries especially those with households more than five people. Priority of other interventions such as the capitation programme, the school feeding, etc should be given to these people to complement the LEAP programme.

## **4.2 The LEAP Grant and Small Scale Businesses**

This sub section examines the LEAP grant or cash transfer and its implication on small scale businesses in the area. It looks at whether the beneficiaries use the grants to engage in businesses; the type of businesses they engage in; the uses of the proceeds or profits from the businesses; whether they employ people in running the businesses and whether they would have engaged in the businesses without the LEAP grant.

### **4.2.1 Businesses and the LEAP Grant**

The table 4.2.1 shows the responses of the sampled beneficiaries on whether they engage in businesses with the LEAP grant. Out of the 145 respondents, 66 participants representing 45.5% said they engaged in businesses with the LEAP grant while 79 representing 54.5% responded that they do not engage in businesses with the grant. Although those who engaged in businesses with the grant are not up to half of the respondent, however, the grant has influence on the establishment of businesses by the beneficiaries.

The table 4.2.1 and figure 4.2.1 below show the responses of beneficiaries. From the chart, out of the 66 people who engaged in businesses with the LEAP grant, 56 representing 84.8% responded that they would not have engaged in their businesses without the grant while 10 (15.2%) said they would have engaged in their businesses irrespective of the grant. This is in line with DFID (2011) that a well-designed and implemented cash transfers help to strengthen household productivity and capacity for income generation. This implies that the LEAP cash transfer has great influence on the beneficiaries who engaged in businesses in the area. The table 4.2.1 and figure 4.2.1 depict the number of beneficiaries who engaged in businesses and their corresponding responses as to whether they would have engaged in the businesses without the LEAP grant.

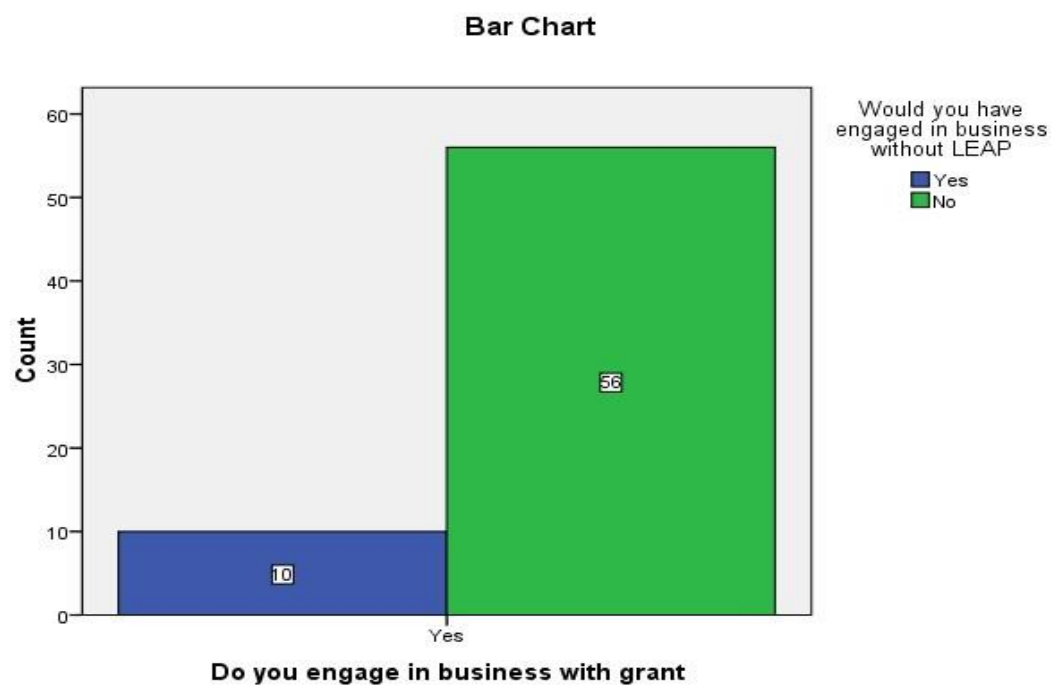


**Table 4.2.1: The LEAP Grant and Engagement of Businesses**

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	66.79	45.5
No	145	54.5
Total		100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

**Figure 4.2.1: Engagement in business without LEAP grant**

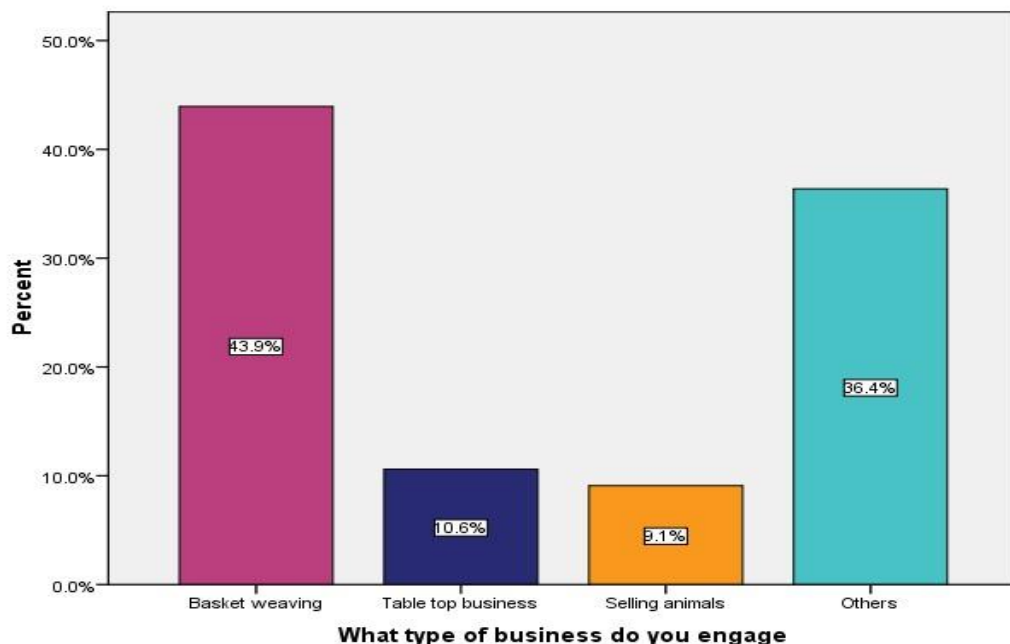


Source: Field work March, 2015

#### 4.2.2 Type of Businesses

The beneficiaries who engaged in businesses with the LEAP use the grant in various businesses including basket weaving, table top business, selling animals, and others.

**Figure 4.2.2: Types of Businesses**



Source: Field work March, 2015

From the figure 4.2.2, most of the respondents are engaged in basket weaving. This consists of 43.9% followed by other businesses (rearing animals, picking Shea nuts etc). The high percentage of people engaged in the basket weaving conformed with the Bongo District Composite Budget report (2012) that Basket weaving is one most important economic activity in the district that has lived over time and handed down from one generation to the other. Basket weaving can be said to be the “heart beat” of the district since it serves as a source of livelihoods for most people especially during the off farming season between October and May. The picture below is LEAP beneficiary weaving Basket in Anafobiisi, Bongo.





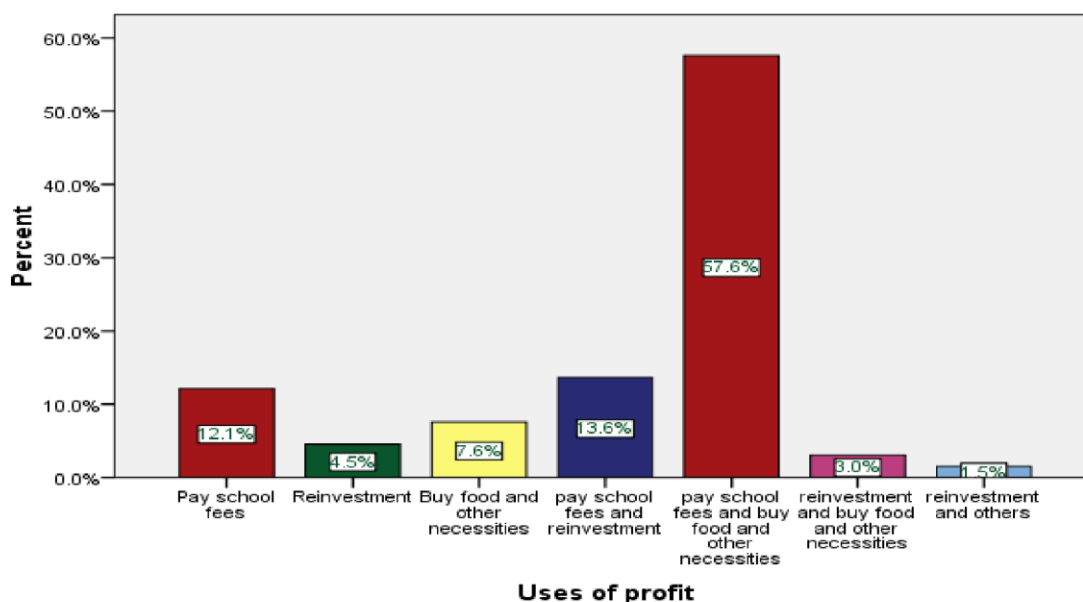
LEAP Beneficiary weaving basket at Anafobisi, Bongo March, 2015.

#### 4.2.3 Uses of profit from Businesses

Those who are engaged in businesses with the LEAP grant use the proceeds or profits for a variety of activities including payment of school fees, reinvestment, buying of basic necessities etc. The figure 4.2.3 shows the various applications of the LEAP grant by beneficiaries in the Bongo District.

**Figure 4.2.3: Uses of profit**





Source: Field work March, 2015

From the figure 4.2.3, out of the 66 respondents who engaged in businesses with the LEAP grant, 38 representing 57.6% used the profit to pay school fees and buy food and other necessities and the remaining 42.4% used the profit to reinvest or engage in other activities. This implies that most of the beneficiaries who are in businesses with the grant consider education and nutrition of their families very essential.

### 4.3 The LEAP Grant and Basic Necessities of Beneficiaries

This aspect deals with the main sources of livelihood aside the LEAP grant and whether beneficiaries use the grant to buy basic necessities. Also, it discusses whether the grant has increased the beneficiaries' consumption of basic necessities and whether they would have been able to buy the necessities without the grant. It ends with the examination on whether the participants would have preferred in-kind services such as food instead of cash transfers.

#### 4.3.1 Sources of livelihood

The table 4.3.1 shows the basic sources of necessities of the LEAP beneficiaries aside the LEAP grant. Aside the LEAP grants, the beneficiaries are engaged in farming, trading and dependent on relative for their livelihoods.

**Table 4.3.1: Main sources of basic necessities**

Main Sources of Necessities	Frequency	Percentage
Farming	61	42.1
Trading	3	2.1
Dependent on relatives farming and trading	9	6.2
farming and dependent	5	3.4
on	60	41.4
relatives farming	5	3.4
and others trading	1	.7
and others others	1	.7
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.3.1, most of the beneficiaries are engaged in farming and depend on relatives for their livelihood. Sixty one (61) representing 42.1% of the respondents are engaged in farming followed by those who engaged in both farming and dependent on relatives for their livelihood. Only 2.1% are engaged in trading aside the LEAP grant. Considering the erratic nature of the weather, farming and dependent on relatives alone cannot guarantee enough livelihoods of beneficiaries. Safety nets such as LEAP and other interventions are necessary to complement the already engaged activities of the beneficiaries.

#### 4.3.2 Uses of the LEAP grant

The table 4.3.2, shows the beneficiaries responses as to whether they use the grant to buy basis necessities or not.

**Table 4.3.2A Uses of LEAP Grant**

Uses of grant for basic needs	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	143	98.6
No	2	1.4
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.3.2A, 143 out of the 145 respondents said they used the transfers to buy basic necessities of life including food, clothes etc. This high responses show that the acquisition of basic needs is the major application or usage of the LEAP grant. This conforms to Schady and Rosero (2007) findings that cash payment to women significantly increase the proportion of household expenditures that go to food. This also conforms to (Case, 2000: 43) which revealed that ‘the Child Support Grant (CSG) grant was used mainly for food, clothes and education’.

Out of the 143 respondents that said the use the grant to buy basic necessities, 127 representing 88.8% responded that, they would not have afforded their basic needs such as food and clothes without the LEAP grant whiles 16 representing 11.2% said they would have afforded their basic needs without the grant. This implies that the LEAP grant plays a major role in the acquisition of basic needs among LEAP beneficiaries in the Bongo district. This is showed in the cross tabulation 4.3.2B,

**Table4.3.2B: Basic necessities without LEAP Grant**

Do you use the LEAP grant to buy basic needs	Would you have afforded these necessities without LEAP		Total
	Yes	No	
Yes	16	127	143
No	0	2	2
Total	16	129	145

Source: Field work March, 2015

#### 4.3.3 LEAP Grant and consumption of basic necessities

The table 4.3.3 shows the responses of the beneficiaries on whether the LEAP intervention has increased their consumption of basic necessities. **Table 4.3.3: Increased consumption of basic necessities**

Increase in Consumption	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	140	96.6
No	5	3.4
Total	145	100.0

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.3.3, as many as 140 (96.6%) out of the 145 participants said the LEAP cash transfers had increased their consumption of basic needs such food and the acquisition of clothes. This conforms to Rawlings and Rubio (2003) study that Conditional cash transfer programs have resulted in higher consumption levels. In Mexico after just over a year of program operation the average consumption level was 13 percentage points higher, and the value of food consumption for the median beneficiary household was 11 percent higher in

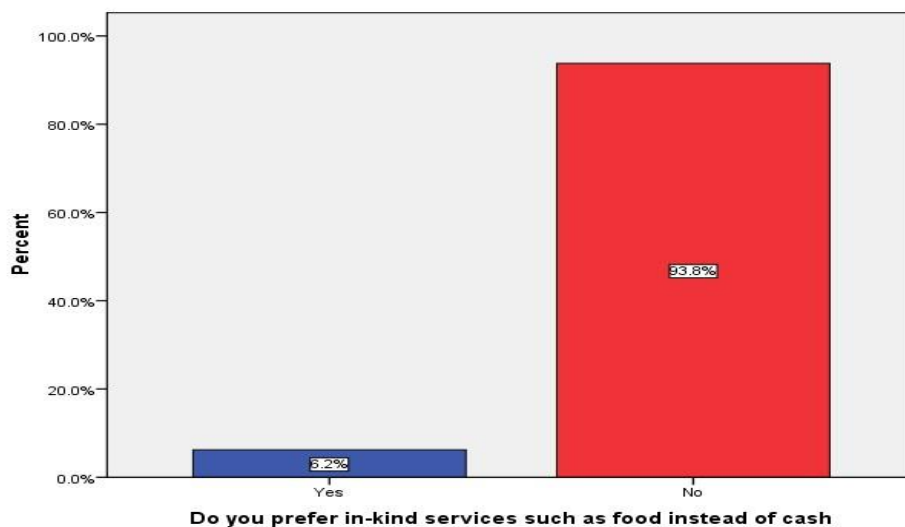


Progresa households than in non-Progresa households. This is however contrary to (Oliveira et al. 2007) that the result of the evaluation of Bolsa Família has not significantly affected the aggregate level of household consumption.

#### 4.3.4 In-kind services and Cash

The question on whether the beneficiaries would have preferred in-kind services such as food, clothes etc instead of cash revealed that, most of the participants preferred the cash to in-services. According to a beneficiary in Bogrigo Bongo ‘the cash transfers enable me to buy food and ingredients for cooking which could not have been possible with in-kind services’. This means that, aside using the grant to buy food, they also buy ingredients for cooking. This has direct bearing on the quality of food consumed. The figure 4.3.4 shows the responses.

**Figure 4.3.4 Preference of in-kind services and cash**



Source: Field work March, 2015

From figure 4.3.4, as many as 93.8% responded that they preferred cash to in-kind services. Only 6.2% responded that they would have preferred in-kind services instead of cash grant. These responses of the beneficiaries in the study area conforms to DFID (2005) that, most social protection programmes are offered in the form of cash transfers are preferred by most vulnerable people and offers the most important returns.

#### 4.4 Compliance to LEAP Conditionalities by beneficiaries

This portion of the study examines the conditionalities of the LEAP programme. It looks at the awareness of the conditions and whether they are difficult to comply by the beneficiaries.

It also examines whether there are sanctions for non-compliance or otherwise and whether they beneficiaries regard the conditionalities relevant. It ends by looking at whether the participants would have changed the conditions given the opportunity.

#### 4.4.1 Awareness of LEAP conditionalities

Compliance means conforming to a rule, such as a specification, policy, standard or law. Theories about compliance provide different accounts of why international and domestic actors – States, firms, and individuals comply with or do not comply with international and domestic laws Grossman and Zaelke (2005).

The LEAP programme has conditionalities that govern the conduct of beneficiaries. The beneficiary households of LEAP programme are required to comply with the following four conditionalities of the grant as appropriate:

- ✓ Enroll and retain all school going age children in the household in public basic schools
- ✓ All household members should be registered under the NHIS
- ✓ All new born babies must be registered with the Births and Deaths Registry within five (5) months of birth; attend post natal clinics; and complete the Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI)
- ✓ Household heads must ensure that no child in the household is trafficked or engaged in any activities constituting the Worst Forms of Child Labour (WFCL) (MMYE, 2007).

The table 4.4.1, shows the awareness levels of the conditionalities by beneficiaries of the intervention.

Table 4.4.1: Awareness of LEAP conditionalities by beneficiaries

Conditionalities	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	132	91.0
No	13	9.0

Total	145	100.0
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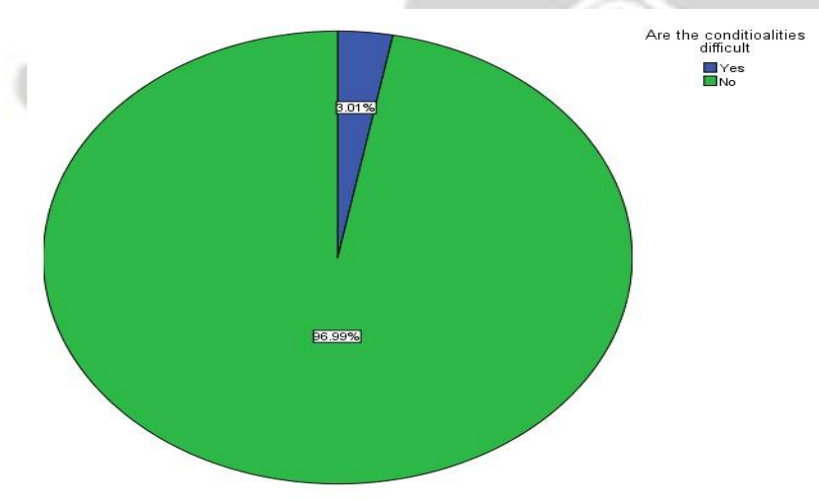
Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.4.1, 132 representing 91% of the respondents said they are aware of the LEAP conditionalities while the remaining 13 of the total 145 respondents said they have no knowledge of the conditionalities. This is in conformity with Logah (2012) study in the Yilo Krobo Area that About 77.4% of the respondents were aware of the NHIS conditionality in the LEAP programme.

#### 4.4.2 Difficulties of LEAP conditionalities

The figure 4.4.2 shows the responses of beneficiaries as to whether the conditionalities are difficult to comply.

**Figure 4.4.2 Difficulties of Conditionalities**



Source: Field work March, 2015

From the figure 4.4.2, 96.99% responded that the conditionalities are not difficult for them to comply. Most of the beneficiaries said the conditionalities are always explained during payments of grant and other gathering always organized by the Department for Social Welfare. This means that the compliance level of the conditionalities is high since they are not difficult to comply.

#### 4.4.3 Sanctions for non compliance of conditionalities

The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty beneficiaries are given a grace period of the first six months within which they must provide evidence of efforts to comply with LEAP conditionalities (MMYE, 2007, DSW, 2009). After 6 months, if there is no evidence of compliance, beneficiaries will receive a first warning in the form of verbal messages through the Community LEAP Implementation Committee (CLIC). Within the next three months, regular follow-up and encouragement/counseling of non complying beneficiaries will be carried out by the CLIC members. After a year if they fail to comply with no tangible reason, they may be considered for removal from the scheme upon the recommendation of the CLIC, approved by the District LEAP Implementation Committee (DLIC). They may be reinstated following compliance.

The awareness of these sanctions is mixed among beneficiaries. The table below shows the response as to whether there are sanctions for non compliance of the conditionalities.

**Table 4.4.3: Sanctions for non compliance**

Sanctions for Non Compliance	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	48	36.1
No	85	63.9
Total	133	100

Source: Field work March, 2015

From the table 4.4.3, out of the total of 133 participants who responded to this question, 85 (63.9) said they are not aware of any sanction if they fail to comply to the conditionalities while 48 representing 36.1% said they are aware of the sanctions if they fail to comply. The high number of the non awareness of the sanctions may be due to inadequate information from Community LEAP Implementation Committee (CLIC) and the Department of Social Welfare

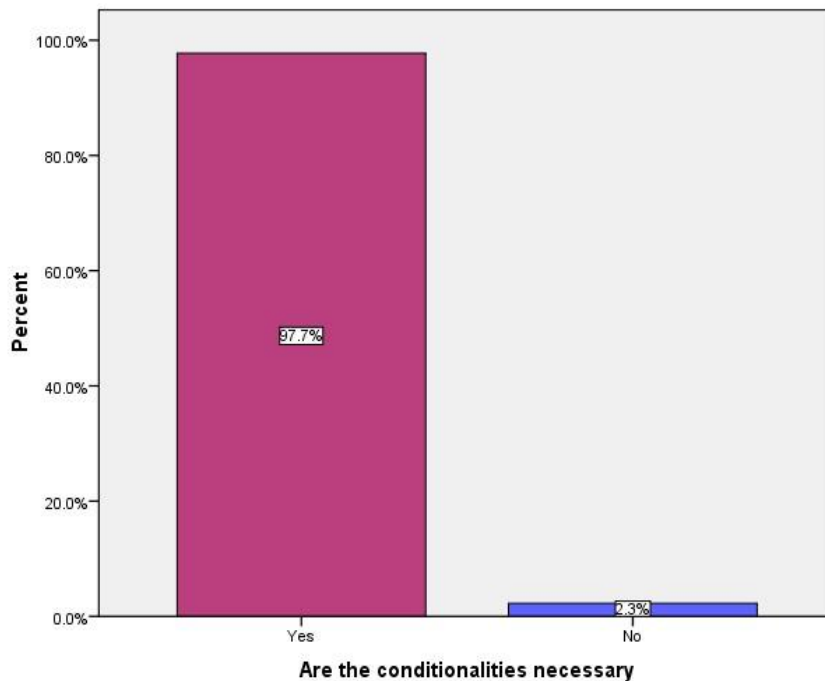


(DSW). Also, it could be as a result of the increased in beneficiaries who may not have been privy to the LEAP conditionalities and sanctions thereafter.

#### 4.4.4 Necessity of conditionalities

The Conditional Cash transfer schemes are aim at creating demand by poor households for social services deemed critical to human capital accumulation (MMYE 2007). These conditions are mostly in the areas of health and education. These areas are very essential for the medium to long term human development of beneficiary households. The figure 4.4.4 shows the responses as whether the LEAP conditionalities are necessary or not.

**Figure 4.4.4 Necessities of LEAP Conditionalities**



Source: Field work March, 2015

From the figure 4.4.4, 97.7% of the respondents said the LEAP conditionalities are necessary. The beneficiaries are of the opinion that the conditionalities guide them to use the grant prudently. A beneficiary from Gowrie responded that ‘the conditionalities guide her not to spend the money on drinks’. The 2.3% who responded that the conditionalities are not necessary cited the implicit (lack of clarity) of the conditions as reasons why they think they are not necessary.

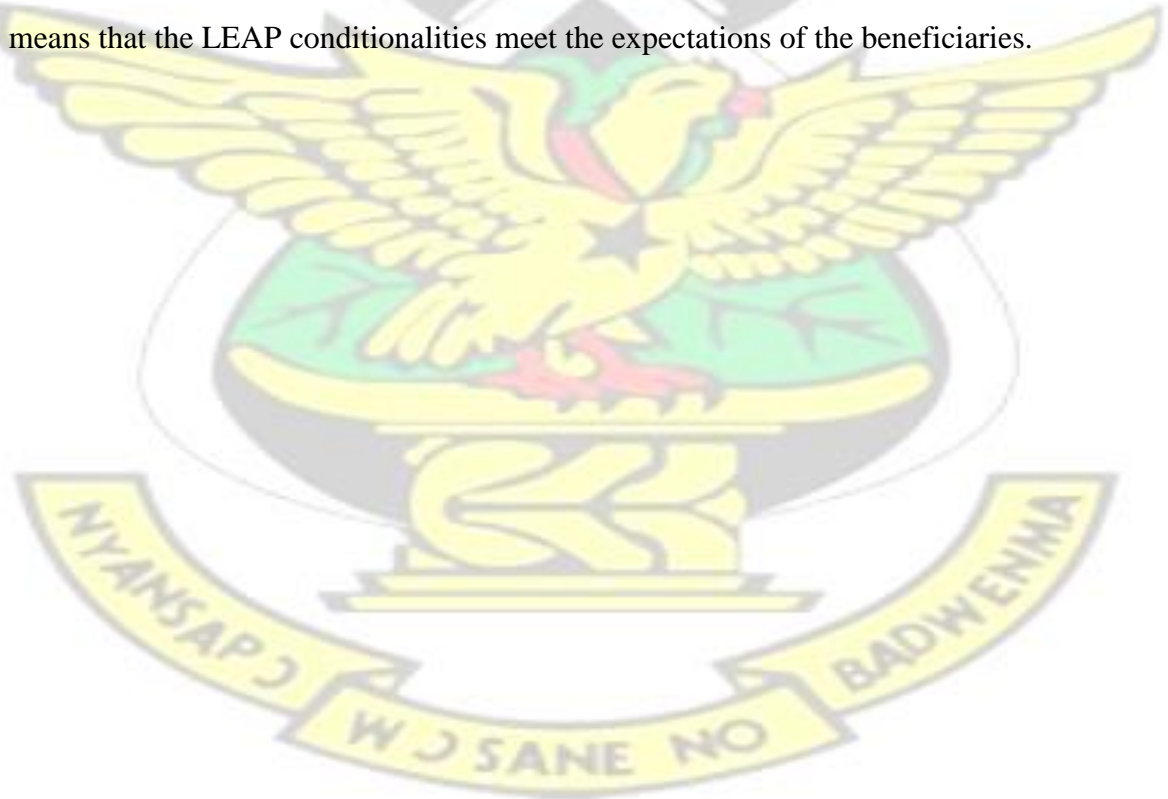
#### 4.4.5 Changes of LEAP conditionalities

**Table 4.4.5: Changes of Conditionalities**

Change Conditionalities	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	2	1.5
No	129	98.5
Total	131	100

Source: Field work March, 2015

The table 4.4.5 shows the beneficiaries responses as to whether they would have changed the LEAP conditionalities if they had the opportunity. From the table, 129 beneficiaries representing 98.5% said they would not have changed the conditionalities given the opportunity while only 2 would have changed the conditionalities if they had the opportunity. This means that the LEAP conditionalities meet the expectations of the beneficiaries.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Introduction

Having examined the results in the previous chapter, this chapter presents summary of major findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study. The findings of the study emanate mainly from the reviewed literature and the analysis of results from field work. Appropriate recommendations from the study are highlighted to show how the LEAP intervention can be strengthened and sustained.

#### 5.2 Summary of key findings

This research was aimed at assessing the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty intervention in the Bongo District. The major findings of the study are grouped into five sub sections including findings from:

- ✓ The Reviewed Literature
- ✓ Demographic Characteristics of LEAP Beneficiaries
- ✓ The LEAP Grant and Small Scale Businesses
- ✓ The LEAP Grant and Basic Necessities of Beneficiaries ✓ Compliance to LEAP Conditionalities by beneficiaries

##### 5.2.1 Major Findings from the Reviewed Literature

Findings from this study suggest that the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) Programme was copied from other world acclaimed programme such as the Brazilian Bolsa Familia in an effort to reduce extreme poverty and vulnerability and to meet some of the Millennium Development Goals. It also has similarities with the South African Child Support Grant (CSG). The literature also showed that, the LEAP programmes is based in theory, thus Sen's entitlement approach to famine.

##### 5.2.2 Findings from the Demographic background of Beneficiaries

The major findings from the demographic characteristics of respondents include but not limited to the following.

It was found that, 57.8% of the LEAP beneficiaries interviewed are above sixty (60) years and most of them (68.3%) are females. Also, 59.3% are traditionalists and are engaged in

subsistence farming which constitute 83.4% of the participants. Additionally, 60.7% are widows, 84.8% are not been to school and 73.8% have household sizes more than five.

#### 5.2.3 The LEAP Grant and Small Scale Businesses

The major findings about whether the beneficiaries use the grant to engage in small scale businesses revealed that, 55.5% of the respondents do not engage in businesses with the grant as against 44.5% who said they use the grant to engage in small scale businesses. Out of the 44.5% who engaged in businesses with the grant, 84.8% said they would not have engaged in their businesses without the LEAP grant. Some of the businesses they engaged include basket weaving, rearing animals, table top business etc. Most of them are into basket weaving. They use the proceeds or profits from their businesses to finance their children education, buy food and other basic necessities and few of them reinvest the profit. In fact more than half, thus 57.6% of them used the profit to pay school fees and buy basic necessities.

#### 5.2.4 The LEAP Grant and Basic Necessities of Beneficiaries

The study found out that 83.5% of the beneficiaries engaged in farming and dependent on relatives for their livelihood aside the LEAP intervention. As many as 98.6% responded that they used the LEAP grant to buy their basic needs and out of this, 88.8% said they would not have afforded their basic needs without the grant. This is in conformity with (Hall, 2006) study of the Bolsa Familia that, ninety four (94%) of the fund is received by 40% of the poorest people living in Brazil and studies give evidence that in most of the cases the money is used for buying food, school supplies and clothes for the children.

Also, the study revealed that, the LEAP grant has increased the consumption of basic necessities of about 96.6% of the sampled beneficiaries and 93.8% said that they would not have preferred in-kind services such clothes, food instead of cash if given the chance.

#### 5.2.5 Compliance to LEAP Conditionalities by beneficiaries

The research revealed that 91% of the beneficiaries are aware of the LEAP conditionalities and that they have no difficulties in complying. Also, 97.7% think the conditionalities are essential in shaping their usage of the grant and would not have changed them when given the mandate. However, 58.6% responded that they are not aware there are sanctions for non compliance of the LEAP conditionalities.



### 5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are essential for the strengthening and sustainability of the LEAP programme as a policy for easing the burden of the extremely poor and vulnerable groups in society.

The targeting and selection of beneficiaries have been cited by some of the respondents as a major bane of the intervention. It is recommended that, the targeting of the intended beneficiaries should be revised by the Department of Social Welfare. This should be done irrespective of the political, sectional and clanship affiliations of intended beneficiaries. This will enable the right people to be selected into the programme.

From the analysis and discussion, the LEAP intervention has played a major role in the acquisition of basic needs by beneficiaries. It is therefore recommended that current and subsequent governments should continue to commit resources to maintain the programme. Government should continue to work and liaise with foreign donors especially DFID and the World Bank to continue their support for the programme. It is therefore expected that the current International Monetary Fund (IMF) bailout part of which is targeting for social protection will be utilized prudently to meet the expectations of Ghanaians and the vulnerable groups.

Under the current payment structure, beneficiaries are paid every two months. However, this is not always the case as some of the respondents alluded that payments sometimes delay more than two months. It is recommended that, the authorities should restructure the payments schedules if necessary to reduce beneficiaries' anxieties. This will enable them to plan well with regards to the usage of food staffs.

Also, there are delayances in the delivery of information about payments to beneficiaries. Some beneficiaries complained about the lack of knowledge of payments schedules. The Department of Social Welfare (DSW) and the District LEAP Implementation Committee should be strengthened in term of logistics and capacity building (targeting procedures, community entering methodology etc) to augment their functions well.

Like the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETfund), the National Health Insurance Scheme, Youth Employment Agency etc that have legal backing and sources of funding specified, it is recommended that, the LEAP programme should be backed by law or an Act and sources of funding specified. This will to a larger extent ensure its sustainability in case donor funding ceases.

Last but not least, grass root participation should be incorporated into the implementation of the LEAP programme. With an increasing relatively high score for Ghana in the areas of good governance and democracy, as evidenced by the improving scores in the World Bank's Governance and Corruption indicators (World Bank 2008), the time is right to promote dialogue and engagement between duty bearers and rights holders. This will encourage rights holders to make inputs and for duty bearers to explain the programme better to beneficiaries and the general public. Piron (2004) observed that, "the realization of human rights, including the design of, and access to, appropriate social protection schemes, requires developing the capacities of rights-holders to know and claim their rights". This will address the problem of lack of program knowledge on the part of beneficiaries and to empower them to take ownership of the program, thus regarding the LEAP intervention as avenue to better their predicaments and not just 'Father Christmas' from government.

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

From the reviewed literature, results and discussions, it is clear that social protection is integral to the dynamic and continuous sustainable development of modern societies; and it brings cumulative benefits over time. Some of these benefits include; breaking the cycle of extreme and chronic poverty, access to good health care and education, care for the elderly or aged and a general rise in the wellbeing of the citizenry as amplified in the conceptual framework of this study.

The costs and impact of neglecting social protection for the poor and the marginalized in society are borne by society as a whole at different levels (macro and micro) and periods. At the micro level, the vicious cycle of poverty will continue. This will reduce life expectancy because people cannot access health care as a result of inability to afford or meet their basic

needs. Social problems such as arm robbery, broken marriages, alcoholism, drug abuse, prostitutions and others can result from social and economic hardships. At the mezzo level the potential for social discontent among community members mostly the youth could be high. These difficulties will over time extend to the macro level. The state will lose the needed skilled labour for its developmental processes. The high rate of social vices can also portray the country in a bad light before the international community and this will have adverse consequences especially access to donor funding.

The study is conclusive that the implementation of the LEAP programme in the Bongo District had increased the consumption of basic necessities such as food and acquisition of clothes. The intervention has also spark small scale businesses among beneficiaries. Also, the beneficiaries are aware of the conditionalities of the intervention. However, the awareness levels of the sanctions for non compliance with the conditionalities are low. This is may be due to inadequate information from the DSW and CLIM. The research also concludes that, the beneficiaries of the programme are highly skewed to the aged mostly women



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# KNUST



## APPENDICES

### **Appendices 1: Research Questionnaire Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology College of Architecture and Planning Department of Planning MSc Development Policy and Planning**

#### **Questionnaire on an Assessment of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme in the Bongo District, Ghana.**

This study is being conducted to assess the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme in the Bongo District. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of a Master of Science in Development Policy and Planning. I hereby, solicit your support and consent in this study. I promise that all information for this study would remain utmost confidential and would be used for purely academic purposes. In the event of citing a source of response, your expression permission will be sort before use.

This questionnaire is divided into four sections base on the study questions and objectives. Section A looks at the demographic backgrounds of LEAP beneficiaries in the Bongo District; section B examines the LEAP grant and small scale businesses; section C solicits responses about whether the programme has enhanced the basic necessities of beneficiaries such as food, shelter etc. and section D seeks responses from beneficiaries on the extent to which they comply with the conditionalities of the programme.

1. Name of Community.....

2. Questionnaire No.....

3. Date.....

#### **SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF LEAP BENEFICIARIES**

1. Age of respondent.....

2. Sex of Respondent 1. Male [ ] 2. Female [ ]

3. Religion? 1. Christian [ ] 2. Islam [ ] 3.Traditional [ ] 4. Other(s)

specify.....

4. Occupation of Respondent? 1. Farming [ ] 2. Teaching [ ] 3.Petty trading [ ] 4.Others  
specify .....

5. Marital Status of Respondent 1. Married [ ] 2. Single [ ] 3. Divorced [ ] 4. Separated [ ]  
5. Widowed [ ]
6. Educational level of Respondent? 1. Primary [ ] 2. Middle school/JHS [ ] 4.  
Secondary/SHS [ ] 5. Technical/Vocational/Secretariat [ ] 6. Tertiary [ ] 7. Not been to school  
[ ] 8. Other(s) Specify.....
7. Size of household.....

## **SECTION B: LEAP GRANT AND SMALL SCALE BUSINESSES**

8. What is/are your main Source/sources of  
Income?.....
9. What is your average amount of income in a month? GH¢.....
10. How much do you receive from LEAP monthly? GH¢.....
11. Do you use the grant to engage in any business(es)? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No. [ ]
12. If yes, what type of business(es)? .....
13. How much do you earn from the business monthly? GH¢.....
14. What do you use the earning or profit for? 1. Pay school Fees [ ] 2. Reinvestment [ ] 3.  
Buy food and other necessities [ ] 4. Others (specify)..... Tick as many as  
applicable
15. Do you engage any other person(s) in running this business? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
16. If yes, how many people.....
17. If (11) is No, do you save part of the grant in Bank or any financial institution? 1. Yes [ ]  
2. No [ ]
18. Would you have engaged in this business(es) without the LEAP grant? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]



**SECTION C: LEAP GRANT AND BASIC NECESSITIES OF BENEFICIARIES  
SUCH AS FOOD, SHELTER ETC.**

19. What are your main sources of basic necessities such as food, clothes etc? 1. Farming [ ]  
2. Trading [ ] 3. Dependent on relatives [ ] 4. Others (specify)..... tick as many as  
applicable

20. Do you use the LEAP grant to buy basic necessities? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

21. If yes what are these  
necessities?.....

22. Has the LEAP grant increased the consumption of these necessities? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

23. Would you have afforded these necessities without the LEAP grant? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

24. Will you have preferred the provision of in-kind services such as food, clothes etc instead  
of cash 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

25. If yes  
why?.....

**SECTION D: COMPLIANCE TO LEAP CONDITINALITIES**

26. Are you aware of the LEAP conditionality? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

27. If yes what are the conditionalities that are applicable to you.....

28. Are the conditionalities difficult for you to comply? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

29. If yes which of the coditionalities?.....

30. Are there sanction for non compliance of the conditionalities? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

31. If yes what are the  
sanctions?.....

32. Do you think the conditionalities are necessary? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

33. If yes why?.....

34. Given the opportunity, will you have changed some of the conditionalities? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

35. If yes what will you have

changed.....

### WAY FORWARD

36. What are the problem(s) you face in assessing the LEAP grant?

.....

37. What suggestions would you like to give on how best to make the programme sustainable?.....

.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PRECIOUS TIME AND MAY GOD BLESS YOU.

### Appendices 2: Number of Eligible Members and Transfer Amount for 2008-2015

Number of Households	Amount GH¢							
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Household with one eligible beneficiary	GH¢8	GH¢ 8	GH¢8	GH¢ 8	GH¢24	GH¢24	GH¢24	GH¢24
Household with two eligible beneficiaries	GH¢10	GH¢10	GH¢ 10	GH¢10	GH¢30	GH¢30	GH¢30	GH¢30
Household with three eligible beneficiaries	GH¢12	GH¢12	GH¢ 12	GH¢12	GH¢36	GH¢36	GH¢36	GH¢36
Household with four or more eligible beneficiaries	GH¢15	GH¢15	GH¢ 15	GH¢15	GH¢45	GH¢45	GH¢45	GH¢45

### Appendices 3: List of LEAP Beneficiary Communities and Households in Bongo District

No	Name of Community	Remarks	No. of Hhs	Selected Community	No of Hhs
1	Akunduo	Old	48	Akunduo	48
2	Ayelbia	Old	63		
3	Awukabisi	Old	48	Awukabisi	48
4	Akunka	Old	54		
5	Akansiriga	Old	33	Akansiriga	33
6	Atampiisi	Old	14		
7	Ayopia	Old	70	Ayopia	70
8	Daliga	Old	30		
9	Goo	Old	47	Goo	47
10	Gurugu	Old	53		
11	Kuloo	Old	48	Kuloo	48
12	Kasingo	Old	48		
13	Kunkua	Old	19	Kunkua	19
14	Kadare	Old	50		
15	Kanga	Old	48	Kanga	48
16	Kuyelingo	Old	16		
17	Lungu	Old	50	Lungu	50
18	Nyariga	Old	50		
19	Nayire	Old	11	Nayire	11
20	Dua	Old	66		
21	Tingre	Old	9	Tingre	9
22	Ve	Old	62		
	<b>Total</b>		<b>937</b>		<b>431</b>
23	Adaboya	New	56	Adaboya	56
24	Apatanga	New	43		
25	Atampintin	New	49	Atampintin	49
26	Apuwongu	New	28		
27	Anafobiisi	New	62	Anafobiisi	62
28	Awaah	New	51		
29	Amanga	New	41	Amanga	41
30	Bongo Cluster	New	12		
31	Bogrigo	New	45	Bogrigo	45
32	Balungu	New	49		
33	Boko	New	59	Boko	59
34	Feo	New	58		
35	Gowrie	New	55	Gowrie	55
36	Gambrugu	New	50		
37	Kansoe	New	36	Kansoe	36
38	Kodorogo	New	53		

39	Nayorigo	New	43	Nayorigo	43
40	Namoo	New	48		
41	Sapooro	New	7	Sapooro	7
42	Sambolgo	New	66		
43	Tarongo-Atiabiisi	New	40	Tarongo-Atiabiisi	40
44	Tankoo	New	55		
	<b>Total</b>		<b>1,006</b>		<b>493</b>

**Appendices 4: List of LEAP Beneficiary Communities, Households and Sample size**

No	Name of Community	Remarks	No. of Hhs	Sample size determination	Approximate Sample Size
1	Akunduo	Old	48	48/1943*145	4
2	Ayelbia	Old	63	63/1943*145	4
3	Awukabisi	Old	48	48/1943*145	4
4	Akunka	Old	54	54/1943*145	4
5	Akansiriga	Old	33	33/1943*145	2
6	Atampiisi	Old	14	14/1943*145	1
7	Ayopia	Old	70	70/1943*145	5
8	Daliga	Old	30	30/1943*145	2
9	Goo	Old	47	47/1943*145	3
10	Gurugu	Old	53	53/1943*145	4
11	Kuloo	Old	48	48/1943*145	4
12	Kasingo	Old	48	48/1943*145	4
13	Kunkua	Old	19	19/1943*145	1
14	Kadare	Old	50	50/1943*145	4
15	Kanga	Old	48	48/1943*145	4
16	Kuyelingo	Old	16	16/1943*145	1
17	Lungu	Old	50	50/1943*145	4
18	Nyariga	Old	50	50/1943*145	4
19	Nayire	Old	11	11/1943*145	1
20	Dua	Old	66	66/1943*145	5



21	Tingre	Old	9	9/1943*145	1
22	Vea	Old	62	62/1943*145	4
23	Adaboya	New	56	56/1943*145	4
24	Apatanga	New	43	43/1943*145	3
25	Atampintin	New	49	49/1943*145	4
26	Apuwongu	New	28	28/1943*145	2
27	Anafobiisi	New	62	62/1943*145	4
28	Awaah	New	51	51/1943*145	4
29	Amanga	New	41	41/1943*145	3
30	Bongo Cluster	New	12	12/1943*145	1
31	Bogrigo	New	45	45/1943*145	3
32	Balungu	New	49	49/1943*145	4
33	Boko	New	59	59/1943*145	4
34	Feo	New	58	58/1943*145	4
35	Gowrie	New	55	55/1943*145	4
36	Gambrugu	New	50	50/1943*145	4
37	Kansoe	New	36	36/1943*145	3
38	Kodorogo	New	53	53/1943*145	4
39	Nayorigo	New	43	43/1943*145	3
40	Namoo	New	48	48/1943*145	4
41	Sapooro	New	7	7/1943*145	1
42	Sambolgo	New	66	66/1943*145	5
43	Tarongo-Atiabiisi	New	40	40/1943*145	3
44	Tankoo	New	55	55/1943*145	4
	<b>Total</b>		<b>1,943</b>		<b>145</b>

### Appendices 5: A guide to Field work

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Adaboya	56	4
2	Apatanga	43	3
3	Apuwungo	49	4
4	Sapooro	7	1
5	Tankoo	55	4
6	Kansingo	48	4
7	Dua	66	4
	Total		<b>24</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Ayopia	70	5
2	Akunduo	48	4
3	Atampintin	49	4
4	Amanga	41	3
	Total		<b>16</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Bongo Cluster	12	1
2	Kunkua	19	1
3	Bogrigo	45	3
4	Anafobisi	63	4
5	Dalinga	30	2
6	Atampiisi	14	1
7	Tingre	9	1
	total		<b>13</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Ayelbia	63	4
2	Awukubisi	48	4
3	Akunka	54	4
4	Akansiringa	33	2
	Total		<b>14</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Boko	59	4
2	Sambolgo	66	5
3	Balungu	49	4
4	Feo	58	4
5	Kansoe	36	3

6	Gurugu	53	4
7	Namoo	48	4
8	Lunga	50	4
9	Nayorigo	43	3
	Total		<b>35</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Awaa	51	4
2	Goo	47	3
3	Gambrungo	50	4
4	Kuloo	48	4
5	Kadare	50	4
6	Kodorogo	53	4
7	Kanga	48	4
8	Tarongo-Atiabisi	40	3
	Total		<b>30</b>

No.	Name of Community	No. of HHs	Targeted HHs
1	Vea	62	4
2	Nyariga	50	4
3	Nayire	11	1
4	Gowrie	55	4
	Total		<b>13</b>