

**MANAGING GROWTH IN GHANAIAN CITIES-THE ROLE OF PERIPHERAL
DISTRICT CENTRES**

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the Master of Science in Development Policy and Planning and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains neither materials previously published by another person nor materials which have been accepted for the award of any other degree by this or any other university except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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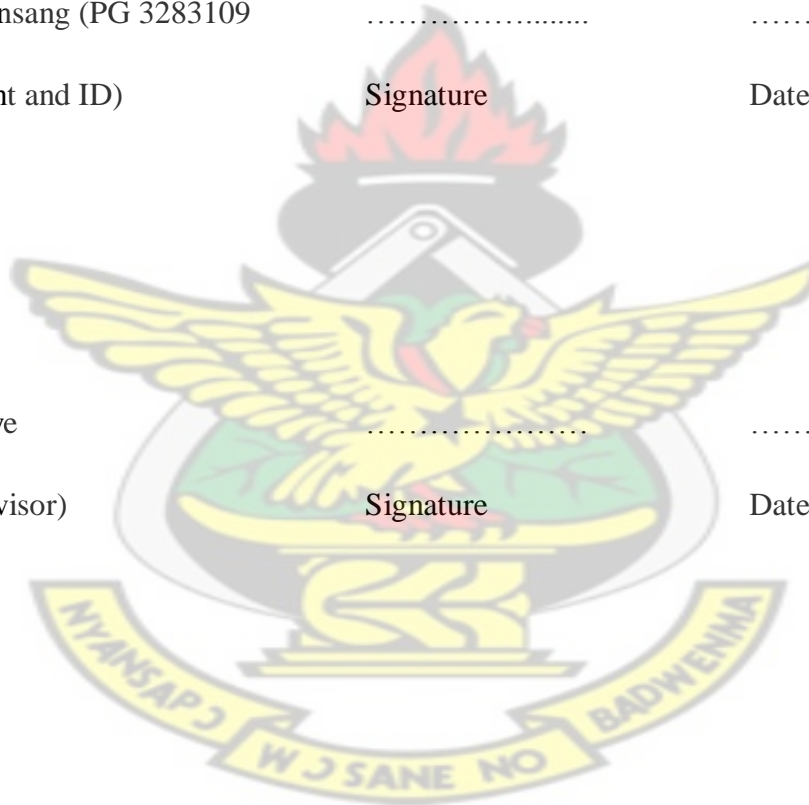
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ABSTRACT

Rapid urbanization and growth management has become the greatest problem facing cities worldwide. The problem manifests itself in urban poverty and development of slums, rapid conversion of agriculture land into residential use, poor sanitation and waste management, housing shortage and high accommodation and rent costs, traffic congestion and pollution. The impetuses of these problems are rural-urban migration, inadequate or lack of regulatory frameworks for spatial organization, unemployment and underemployment and inadequate opportunities in the peripheral district centres and rural areas. The primary driving forces of rural-urban migration include the opportunities and services offered in urban areas - especially jobs and education, while in some cases, conflict, land degradation and exhaustion of natural resources in rural areas.

Kumasi is the second largest city in Ghana chosen for the study. Its location in the heart of the country makes it a link between the north and the south of the country. Three peripheral district centres Ejisu, New Offinso and Bekwai are also analyzed based on their proximity to Kumasi and the availability of resources that complement the city. The study focused on growth management strategies used by the city Authorities in Kumasi as well an assessment of peripheral district centres' ability to use Local Economic Development initiatives and be integrated in the management of the city.

Even though problems encountered by city authorities are mostly generated from outside the city, decisions about its management are done in isolation of adjoining districts. None of the districts has a distinctive economic identity that can be harnessed for its development. Economic activities are diverse in all peripheral centres and dominated by the informal small scale sector. Majority of economic opportunities are concentrated in the core and continue to attract more investments and FDIs.

It is therefore recommended that policies should restrain the growth of extra large cities and increase commitment to the provision of infrastructure and services in peripheral centres. By this, investments will be diffused from the centre and consciously redistributed to other secondary towns to ensure equitable access to services and infrastructure.

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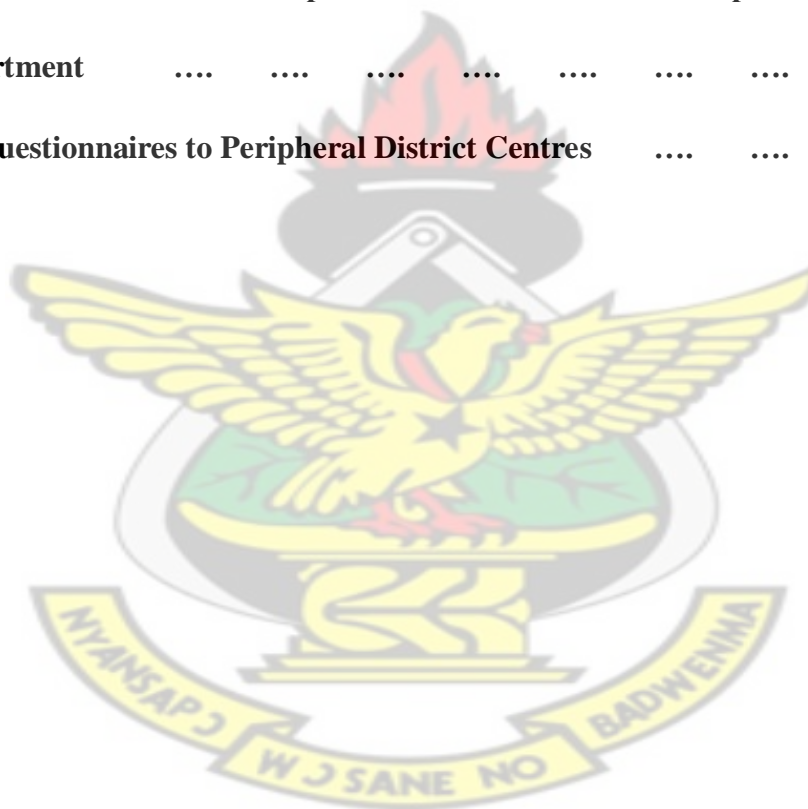
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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Growth management has become the greatest problem facing cities worldwide. Doxiadis (1968) argued that city planners made inadequate provisions for urban growth and as a result cities would grow like cancers, the inner core eating into surrounding neighborhoods and the outer edges gobbling up the natural landscape. Ghanaian cities are not isolated from this worldwide phenomenon.

Farvacque-Vitkovic et al (2008) asserted that by 2010, more than half of Ghana's population will be living in urban areas, with urbanization expected to reach 65 percent by 2030. The number of urban localities is expected to increase, however, cities like Accra and Kumasi host 33 percent of the urban population with Accra estimated to be 1.9 million people (United Nations, 2003) and Kumasi estimated to be 1.5 (UN Habitat, 2006). Between 1984 and 2000, the growth rate of Accra was 3.4 percent while that of Kumasi was 5.6 percent. (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005). By these figures it is expected that the rural populations and those of smaller towns are reducing with direct consequences on the major cities.

Cities cannot be considered in isolation, as stated by Balchin and Kieve (1985), instead, they are part of a regional, national or even wider economic framework and thus their management cannot be done remotely. Instead, a more holistic approach is to be given by considering the suburban or peripheral district centres that form part of the spatial structure of the region and the nation as a whole. The integration process has been difficult in Ghana and elsewhere since towns have been given vague interpretations about what functions they play thus they lack identity and recognition as part of the entire spatial system. (Billington, 1967 cited in Meyer, 1980).

Knight (1973) cited in Meyer (1980) also stated that frontier regions with relatively high level of urbanization have been neglected even in the West. It is not surprising that in Ghana, cities such as Accra, Kumasi, Tema and Sekondi-Takoradi are growing rapidly

and sprawling in the process whilst other district centres on their fringes are virtually going extinct.

Many theories of spatial structure and urban growth are unsatisfactory because they fail to take sufficiently into account suburbanization, decentralization, and development of sub-centres, greater flexibility of location, improvements in technology and transportation and the effects of central and local government policies (Balchin and Kieve, 1985). The neglect of these factors by Ghana's city authorities has contributed to the ever pressing problems of growth management, thus the need to consider the role of sub-centres in the management of the main city.

1.2 Problem Statement

Rapid urbanization and urban growth, especially the emergence of large cities are creating serious challenges in Ghana. These problems include increasing urban poverty and development of slums, rapid conversion of agriculture land into residential use, poor sanitation and waste management, housing shortage and high accommodation and rent costs, traffic congestion and pollution. Doxiadis, (1968) stated that people suffer in cities that are too large, crowded and noisy, and that exact too much damage on the surrounding natural environment. The impetuses of these problems are rural-urban migration, inadequate or lack of regulatory frameworks for spatial organization, unemployment and underemployment and inadequate opportunities in the peripheral district centres and rural areas.

Farvacque-Vitkovic et al (2008) argued that the current rapid and largely uncontrolled urban growth is stressing capacity to efficiently deliver infrastructure and services and is resulting in urban sprawl and inefficient use of land. According to the World Bank (2000) as cited in White et al (2007) "Cities in Africa are not serving as engines of growth and structural transformation" as the case may be in developed countries, thus, it is a huge burden on our cities to provide economic and social opportunities for its inhabitants.

In the same bane, peripheral district centres lack the investment to propel growth thereby their inhabitants move to the main city centres to enjoy economic and social facilities available. They do this by commuting daily to the city centre to work either in the formal

or informal sectors. According to Farvacque-Vitkovic et al (2008), about three hours are spent commuting to and from work each day by the working population living at the periphery of Accra, and this situation has the tendency to reduce productivity, increase pollution by exhaust fumes of vehicles, increase the already high fuel consumption bill of the nation, and cause stress and deterioration in the overall health condition of the population. Naroff and Ostro (1980) noted that the dominance of automobile for the journey to work is a common factor in both the decentralization of employment and population and the deterioration of urban air quality. City authorities have resorted to many decongestion and demolition exercises to solve this problem but the success has been marginal. This study therefore seeks to find ways to integrate peripheral district centres into city management as receptacles of excess population and investments.

1.3 Research Questions

The research seeks to answer the following questions

- How have Ghanaian cities been managed?
- How can Peripheral District Centres be integrated in city management?
- What is the policy direction for integrated spatial development in Ghana?

1.4 Objectives

The broad objective of the study is:

- To assess the role of peripheral Districts in absorbing the spill-over from the cities

Specifically, it seeks

- To examine growth management practices and their successes in Ghanaian cities
- To assess how peripheral district centres can be integrated in city management
- To recommend policy directions for integrated spatial development in Ghana

1.5 Justification

The problems in Ghanaian cities are not peculiar to the country but cuts across Sub-Saharan Africa and other developing countries. City management has become an

international concern as the phenomenon transcends all aspect of human life. Academically, the results of the study will be useful in studies of urban growth management. It will provide information about approaches to solve urban management problems in developing countries. It will provide a rich source of information to promote Local Economic Development in the peripheral districts to initiate and sustain their own development. By developing peripheral district centres, transportation cost of commuting to the city centre will be reduced as well as the problems commuting poses to the main cities. In the long run, the living standards of the people will improve and poverty reduced. City authorities can use the findings in the day to day decision making about city growth management while providing a rich source of information for further studies in the area of the state of cities in the third world.

1.6 Scope

Geographically, the study will be conducted in Kumasi, a rapidly growing city in Ghana. Kumasi is the second largest city in Ghana and its location in the heart of the country makes it a link between the north and the south of the country. Three peripheral district centres are also analyzed based on their proximity to Kumasi and the availability of resources that complement the city. Thus Ejisu, Offinso and Bekwai are analyzed as peripheral centres to Kumasi. All three centres are located on major routes that link Kumasi to important service areas. Ejisu is located on the Kumasi –Accra road therefore linking the two largest cities in the country and important administrative functions, thus, the centre becomes an important point. Offinso is also located along the major road leading to the northern part of the country, therefore it links Kumasi to the northern part of the country. Bekwai has been chosen because it is located on the major road that leads to the western and central regions therefore, the harbour and oil city.

The content of the study analyzed how the city has been growing, the problems that have arisen due to rapid growth and various methods used by city authorities to manage the city as well as the difficulties that have been encountered so far in terms of service provision, decongestion struggles and over burdening traffic management problems. Peripheral district centres were assessed to find out how capable they are in terms of economic opportunities, infrastructure and resources required to support the city centre.

Case studies from other parts of the world were reviewed to ascertain how cities have been managed using similar approaches. Various theories on urban growth and human settlement development were also reviewed and assessed to establish their application or otherwise in Ghana.

1.7 Organization of Study

The First Chapter of the study looks at the background information and the statement of the problem. It examines the nature, causes, effect and the extent of the problem. The chapter outlines the questions the study seek to answer and the objectives to be achieved, the justification for doing the study and the critical theories on which the study is based.

The Second Chapter reviews literature about the subject from various sources. The literature review looks at how cities in Africa have emerged and grown over time, the challenges that city authorities in Africa and other parts of the world face as well as some of their strategies they use to manage them. It further comes out with a conceptual framework that seeks to explain how cities in Africa and for that matter Ghana have grown and the strategies that can be used to effectively manage them.

Chapter Three of the study gives a profile of Kumasi as well the three peripheral districts involved in the study. It further spells out the methodology used to carry out the entire study including research design, sampling techniques, data sources and means of analysis and presentation.

Analysis of data collected from the field is presented in Chapter Four using cross tabulation and other graphical presentations including graphs and charts. Data analysis included growth management strategies used by the city Authorities in Kumasi as well an assessment of peripheral district centres ability to use Local Economic Development initiatives and be integrated in the management of the city.

The final Chapter seeks to bring out the major findings from the study, give some recommendations and then draw a conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

THE DYNAMICS OF GROWTH AND MANAGEMENT IN AFRICAN CITIES

2.6 Introduction

All urban centres in sub-Saharan Africa are facing great problems in growth management. However, Structural Adjustment Programmes imposed restrictions on the already scarce economic resources available for growth management. Thus urban growth management is ranked very low on central governments and even development partners' priority agenda. Cheng et al (2003) argue that the urban system is highly complex and contains other social and economic systems. According to them there is the need to consider urban growth as a system in a more complex system. Thus it shares universal and unique characteristics with and from other complex systems. Rakodi (2001) as cited in Cheng et al (2003) argues that in order to improve the quality of planning, there is the need to improve the understanding and analysis of the interrelated components of the urban development process in order to arrive at more appropriate priorities and sets of policies.

Many theorists perceive urban growth to be concurrent with positive trends in economic development, though city growth brings some negative consequences for urban residents and for society at large (White 1996; Williamson, 1998; World Bank, 2000). Unfortunately the former cannot be said to be true for African countries where urbanization is disassociated from economic development. The more disturbing issue is that, "Cities in Africa are not serving as engines of growth and structural transformation" (World Bank, 2000). The chapter therefore seeks to review literature on the pertinent issues confronting urban development and management worldwide with particular reference to Sub-Saharan Africa. It further draws ideas from case studies that can work in Africa.

2.7 Concepts and Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Large Cities

Large cities in this research refer to cities with populations more than 1.5 million. They include primarily, primate cities such as Accra and Kumasi which are the only cities with such population in Ghana. O'Connor (1983:253) noted that "In most African countries the degree of urban primacy has tended to increase in recent years with the capital city growing faster than the majority of urban centres in each country and accounting for an increasing share of total urban population and economic activity. Attempts to resolve the problem of urban primacy have been in mostly two types. They have been urban-based policies revolving around growth poles and service centers concepts and rural-based policies including agrarian reforms and land resettlement policies. Despite these attempts, the problem of urban primacy has been worse and no reduction in growth rates of cities.

2.2.2 Peripheral District Centres

Ghana's Local Government Act, Act 462 establishes autonomous districts with devolved powers. All metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies are independent of each other. By that, no district is superior or subordinate to another. However, based on the level of population and service provision, districts are categorized as Metropolitan, Municipal or simply Districts. Peripheral districts refer to smaller districts found on the fringes of large metropolitan areas and sometimes are part of its functional region. People living in peripheral districts access services in the large cities, often some of these services are basic and of low order. Commuting is one major characteristic of people living in peripheral districts. They contribute to the high day densities and very low night densities in the city centres as well as peak hour congestions

2.2.3 Secondary Cities

Yacoob and Kelly (1999) stated that secondary cities are the nexus between rural and urban areas. According to them, they are more numerous than megacities, which previously have been focused on; and they also provide the greatest challenges and opportunities. Secondary cities in today's West Africa were rural villages thirty years

ago, so their housing, water, sanitation, and public health infrastructures are often very poor or nonexistent.

De Boeck et al. (2009) also assert that secondary cities usually form more recent poles of growth, often with a more diffuse genealogy, than larger metropolis. Secondary cities are viewed both as in the periphery of the centre and in the centre of the periphery. The unsure situation of these towns generates a particular, and by definition highly hybrid, socio-cultural urban dynamic which in turn influences the outlook of social, political and economic life in the more visible national metropolis.

Secondary cities in West Africa exhibit rural and urban characteristics at the same time. People who move to peri-urban and secondary cities to find work often continue to farm and keep animals in their rural residence. Survival in urban secondary cities is closely linked to the ability to obtain resources from rural areas due to the limited capabilities of the state and government.

Secondary cities in West Africa still maintain traditional pre-colonial administrative structures. With the colonial overlay, these institutions became more formalized, and now, the traditional administrative structure enforces the rural behavior patterns and norms, and the formal administration enforces the more urban behavior patterns and norms through the legal system.

2.2.4 The Core-Periphery Concept

The concept was formulated by Friedmann in 1966. He asserted that the world can be divided into four types of regions. These are core regions, upward transition regions, resource frontier regions and downward transition regions. Core Regions are the centres, they are most often metropolitan, with a high potential for innovation and growth. Next to the core region is the upward transition regions, which are areas of growth that spread over small centres rather than at a core. Upward transition regions are normally development corridors that link two core cities. The resource-frontier regions are

peripheral zones of new settlement while the downward transition regions are areas which are now declining because of exhaustion of resources or because of industrial change. (Mayhew, 2004)

The core areas experience higher wages and prices while the periphery is faced with the lack of employment and low wages. It is anticipated that the periphery will benefit in the long-run through the “trickle-down effect”, however, what actually happens is a “trickle-up effect” where the peripheries are helpless as their resources drain towards the core. Thus, core areas make better use of the resources from the periphery leading to retarded development at the periphery. This brings about uneven development in the nation with few metropolitan areas enjoying both economic and social growth to the detriment of the peripheral areas. However, the periphery may lose population to the core thereby the remaining population have access to more agricultural land.

The growth of many countries and the world economy as a whole has been largely based on this principle where the core industrialized nations utilize the resources from the peripheral developing countries that are their former colonies. The case is also evident in the uneven development in many developing countries especially sub-Saharan Africa. Few metropolitan areas dominate in economic growth offering more opportunities for employment, high wages and high prices for commodities. This has resulted in high rates of migration to the main city causing primacy and leaving the peripheries less developed and unattractive to invest.

2.2.5 Growth Poles

A closely related concept to Core-Periphery is the Growth Poles concept. This concept was first introduced by François Perroux in 1950. He had conceived a growth pole to be a focus of economic development in an abstract economic space but later sharpened and interpreted to be a focus of development in geographic space (World Geography Encyclopedia). The Geography Dictionary (2004) defines growth pole as:

“A point of economic growth. Growth poles are usually urban locations, benefiting from agglomeration economies, and should interact with surrounding areas, spreading prosperity from the core to the periphery”.

The growth pole concept assumes a nexus between agglomeration economies, spatial or geographic concentrations of economic activity within nations, acceleration of economic growth, and diffusion of the benefits of economic growth over time within the nation. (The World Bank, 2010)

From these definitions, the Growth pole concept assumes that growth does not take place everywhere at the same time, but it manifests itself in “points” or “poles” of growth (Gantsho, 2008). It also presupposes a linkage between growth poles, economic growth and urbanization, as well as potential interaction effects. According to Monsted (1974) cited in Gantsho (2008) local trade and business, which are not even directly associated with the growth pole will experience high demand induced by better resources and wages in the region. The diffusion of economic growth is due to the interactions between the growth poles and the peripheral areas.

Unlike the core-periphery concept where the core absorbs all the benefits from the periphery, the growth pole concept rather diffuse benefits from the pole to the surrounding areas. The World Bank’s *World Development Report* (2004) indicates that, as growth occurs in economies from low growth to high growth countries, production becomes concentrated geographically within nations therefore

“As countries develop, the successful ones institute policies that make living standards uniform across space within nations. The way to get both the immediate benefits from the geographic concentrations of production, and the long-term benefits of convergence in living standards within nations is through greater integration within nations.”

However, the growth pole theory does not include geographical concentration of industries but considers only economic space. It fails to recognize that growth in one pole can lead to the collapse of another as the market always finds ways to distribute resources. High wages will attract more labour and therefore increase the supply of it. This will ultimately lead to reduced wages when growth is not checked surrounding areas will be engulfed in the pole and diseconomies will set in.

Nonetheless, the challenging issues of urban primacy, rural-urban inequalities, rural-urban migration and uneven development in Africa are the consequences of the absence of integrated development policies. It is therefore essential to understand the process of growth of the urban area and the challenges they present in order to effectively formulate policies for their cohesion and integration.

2.3 The Urban Growth Process

Growth according to Fodor (1999) refers to the quantitative increase in the size of the urban built environment. Urban growth is a continuously evolving natural process as stated by Sudhira et al (2007) due to population growth rates that is birth and death. Thus, an increased urban population and growth in urban areas is an unintended process, natural increase and migration are usually unplanned. Rural-urban migration is one major unpredictable component of the urban growth process. Primary driving forces of rural-urban migration include the opportunities and services offered in urban areas - especially jobs and education, while in some cases, conflict, land degradation and exhaustion of natural resources in rural areas are also important.

The patterns of rural-urban migration may be city-specific, reflecting, among other things, changes in the city's economic base, labour market and age structure. They also reflect social, economic and political changes within the region and nation and are influenced by economic factors in the surrounding and distant rural areas, such as landowning structure, agricultural practices and crop prices, and overall rural productivity (Ichimura, 2003).

As cities grow in size and number they gain new influence but forces outside the immediate city environments also influence them. The challenge confronting city planners, urban policy makers, city managers and researchers is how to position urban areas especially in the face of the global environment (Mukwaya, 2004). Cities are likened to living organisms which can grow as well as die and therefore the need for effective management to enhance their benefits to the nation and the global community.

2.4 Urban Growth Management Practices

Wekwete (1997) describes the concept of urban management as elusive. It has been observed that the concept is strongly lacking in content and that it is largely an analyzed abstraction. This is in spite of the significant interest in urban management that has been generated at local and international levels, as represented particularly in the World Bank, UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS), and UN Development Programme (UNDP) Urban Management Programme of 1986-1999. The key question still remains: What is urban management? What are the objects to be managed and what is the operational reality of that management?

Clarke (1991) refers urban management in Africa to the political and administrative structures of cities and the major challenges that they face to provide both social and physical infrastructure services. These include managing urban economic resources, particularly land and the assets of the built environment, creating employment, and attracting investment in order to improve the quality and quantity of goods and services available.

The traditional view associates urban management primarily with municipal and central governments. This is a largely supply-driven model, whereby the state and its agencies have the statutory responsibilities for management. The provision of services and their maintenance are therefore viewed as rights that citizens expect, partly as a result of the taxes they pay and partly because of the political legitimacy that they give to both the state and local authorities. Indeed, in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, there are local government statutes or decrees that define local responsibilities and also articulate centre-local relationships. (Wekwete, 1997)

At local and national levels, a major trend has been the shift from centralized government systems to more decentralized ones (Mawhood, 1983). The international structural adjustment process, together with the end of the Cold War, has reinforced the idea of the market and placed less emphasis on state intervention. Decentralization and local government have been emphasized in many countries and this has significantly improved the visibility of municipal and city governments over the years.

Fodor (1999) came out with two clearly different, but completely compatible and even complementary, approaches to growth management. The first approach is concerned with how growth should occur while the second is concerned with whether growth should occur. Whichever way we go, both approaches should be part of a responsible, long-term growth management program.

The approach that focuses on how growth occurs is referred to as planned growth or smart growth. The methods used in this approach seek to influence the quality of growth and minimize its negative effects. Planned growth uses diverse techniques to direct new development in ways that will reduce the negative impacts on resource lands, environmental quality, livability, taxes, and other key qualities of settlements. Planned growth seeks to predict and contain growth through a comprehensive planning and policy framework.

The other approach to growth management which focuses on *whether* growth should occur, and, if so, how much and how fast it should is referred to as finite-world planning. It recognizes restrictions to growth and makes assumption that settlements cannot grow forever. It supposes that there may be an optimal settlement size or at least a “maximum size” beyond which the quality and livability of the settlement will fall. This approach recognizes that some settlements and cities are growing too fast and need to slow their rate of growth. Others may have exceeded their optimal size and need to limit additional growth.

2.5 The Role of Cities in Development

Cities, if well managed offer important opportunities for economic and social development. Cohen (2005) emphatically stated that cities have always been focal points for economic growth, innovation, and employment. Although many cities grew historically out of some natural advantage in transport or raw material supply, the role of cities in national development can never be overemphasized. Capital cities, are where the

vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated in the developing world and where the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located.

Cities play an enormous social, political, and economic role, attracting investment, wealth, and people in a process amplified by globalization. Urban centers are engines of national economic growth, generating up to 85 percent of GNP (Garland 2008). They are centers of modern living, where female labor force participation is greatest and the highest indicators of general health and wellbeing, literacy, women's status, and social mobility. Cities are important for the various social and cultural centers that they offer such as museums, art galleries, film industries, theaters and fashion houses which cannot usually thrive in rural areas and small towns since their populations cannot support them. Since cities usually have large populations they reduce the per capita cost of providing infrastructure and basic services. It makes it economically prudent to provide infrastructure and services with limited national resources than it will be in rural areas. Despite the high rates of urban poverty prevailing in many cities, urban residents, on average, enjoy better access to education and health care, as well as other basic public services such as electricity, water, and sanitation than people in rural areas. (Cohen, 2005)

2.6 City Management Challenges

2.6.1 Urbanization

According to Masek et al (2000), urbanization represents a response to socio-economic, political, demographic or environmental conditions, characterized by an unprecedented concentration of humans into cities. Urban growth has often been viewed in a negative light; it is commonly thought to be linked to air and water pollution, sprawl, congestion, traffic jam and the likes (Cincotta and Engelman, 2000). Mukwaya (2004) argued that although urban areas in Africa generate 55 percent of GNP their growth is accompanied by a multitude of problems (Rugunda, 2001). Even as national output is rising, there is a decline in the quality of life for a majority of urban population that offsets the benefit of national economic growth. Urbanization thus imposes significant burden to sustainable development. (Ichimura, 2003)

The UN-HABITAT (2010) clearly stated in the State of African Cities report that cities in West Africa will receive an additional 58 million population between year 2010 and 2020 and another 69 million between year 2020 and 2030. Despite a projected decline in the growth rates of urbanization after 2030, West African cities will receive additional 79 million between 2030 and 2040. This demographic expansion in itself is neither good nor bad. The outcomes can be either positive or negative, depending on how it is spatially distributed and how the benefits of urban agglomeration are shared. It is an unhidden truth that the pace of urbanization has exceeded the capacity of many developing countries to take up and address the needs of the growing populations. The implications of rapid urban growth include increasing unemployment, lack of urban services, overburdening of existing infrastructure and lack of access to land, finance and adequate shelter, increasing violent crime and sexually transmitted diseases, and environmental degradation (Ichimura, 2003).

Otoo et al (2006) stated that urbanization in Ghana is characterized by fragmented economic and residential geographies which represent a complex dynamic system that responds to competing forces. Often, the capacity of planning authorities is overtaken as the process occurs so fast that they are unable to deal with the situation to control rapid urban growth.

2.9.2 Poverty and Rural-Urban Economic Inequality

It was a general assumption that urban dwellers in African countries were generally economically better off than their rural counterparts. Urban incomes are perceived to exceed those generated in rural economic activities, and the rural-urban income gap was regarded as the main cause of rapid urbanization, largely fuelled by rural-urban migration. Urban residents were perceived to be advantaged in superior services, such as piped water, schools, and clinics which are important elements of their higher living standards (Potts, 1997).

Ichimura (2003) argued that the growth of large cities has been accompanied by an increase in urban poverty which tends to be concentrated in certain social groups and in particular locations. Urban poor dwellers that live on the urban periphery are affected by pollution from manufacturing and processing plants where environmental protection is frequently weak. Low-income urban groups often live close to environmental sensitive sites such as steep hillsides, flood plains, dry land or the most polluted sites near solid waste dumps and next to open drains and sewers.

According to Potts (1997) most residents of African cities today are poor by any standards. Although data on income distribution in African cities are unavailable, several studies show quite clearly how urban incomes have been distressed and the consequences of this for household welfare, including health and nutrition. In most cases the levels of income reported are so low that one finds it hard to reckon how households can feed themselves and meet other needs such as housing and transport to work, health, education, and clothing. Significantly there is now much evidence that average rural incomes frequently exceed the incomes available from most formal wage work in the cities (Jamal and Weeks, 1993).

Garland (2008) describes poverty this way “The face of poverty is no longer a rural woman sitting under a tree with children. The face of poverty is a ghetto with trash and a whole lot of people infected with HIV”. By her assertion, urban poverty is now growing at a faster rate than rural poverty.

2.9.3 Poor Spatial Planning

One major challenge that confronts city managers in Ghana and the sub-region as a whole is poor spatial planning. In Ghana, spatial planning does not keep pace with urbanization, thus spatial planning documents are outmoded and obsolete before implementation begins (MLGRD, 2010). The result of this situation is a lack of coordination between physical planning and economic programmes leading to urban sprawl and under-serviced urban neighbourhoods. The rapid sprawl of urban residential development to the city fringes coupled with a gross lack of basic infrastructure and services is the outcome of

the lack of spatial planning and the non-enforcement of development regulations in the urban areas. There is a general sense of anarchy and indiscipline in many Ghanaian urban areas especially in Accra and Kumasi.

2.9.4 Urban Sprawl

Sudhira et al (2007) asserted that urban sprawl is the outgrowth along the periphery of cities and along highways. An accurate definition of urban sprawl is uncertain but a general consensus is that urban sprawl is characterized by an unplanned and uneven pattern of growth, driven by a multitude of processes and leading to inefficient resource utilization. Among the undesirable effects of sprawl are unplanned outgrowths, which are not aesthetic and sprang in an unhygienic manner. Galster et al. (2001) defines it as a pattern of land use in an urban agglomeration that exhibits low levels of some combination of eight distinct dimensions: density, continuity, concentration, clustering, centrality, nuclearity, mixed uses and proximity. Ascribing sprawl as a pattern of land use alone would not throw light on the underlying processes, causes and hence consequences. Urban sprawl is generally caused by rapid urbanization, high rent in city centres and the availability of cheaper accommodation and transportation at peri-urban areas.

2.9.5 Slums

According to the American Heritage Dictionary, a slum is a heavily populated urban area characterized by substandard housing and squalor. The Britannica Concise Encyclopedia describes slum as a densely populated area of substandard housing, usually in a city, characterized by unsanitary conditions and social disorganization. A slum, as defined by the United Nations agency UN-HABITAT, is a run-down area of a city characterized by substandard housing and squalor and lacking in tenure security.

Currently, about one billion people making one-third of the world's urban population live in slums. Cities across the globe host, hundreds of millions of people in extreme poverty without access to adequate shelter, clean water, and basic sanitation. Most of them are employed in the informal sector and living in illegal settlements. Overcrowding and

environmental degradation make the urban poor particularly vulnerable to the spread of disease, from cholera and tuberculosis to HIV/AIDS and SARS. (Garland, 2008)

By Cohen (2005)'s report, available data suggest that in majority of the world's poorest countries, the proportion of urban poor is increasing faster than the overall rate of urban population growth. An estimated 72 percent of the urban population of Africa now lives in slums. The proportion is 43 percent for Asia and the Pacific, 32 percent for Latin America, and 30 percent for the Middle East and Northern Africa.

2.9.6 Infrastructure and Service Provision Inadequacies

Cohen (2005) affirmed that city authorities are unable to provide adequate basic services and infrastructure for their citizens due to rapid urban growth. Their capacities are often outstripped by the rapid growth coupled with inadequate and inaccurate data on population. Nevertheless cities attract new migrants each year who, together with the increasing native population, expand the number of squatter settlements and shanty towns, exacerbating the problems of urban congestion and sprawl and hampering local authorities' attempts to improve basic infrastructure and deliver essential services. The situation is rather worse in developing countries where the financial resources and expertise are lacking. It is aggravated by the fact that planning schemes take too long to prepare making them outmoded before implementation and thus projections are thrown off gear.

It is now well-established that the health problems resulting from the lack of sanitation facilities are greater among the urban poor living in overcrowded, informal settlements and deprived rural communities than they are in wealthy areas of towns and cities. It is however sad to say that access to toilet facilities is still very limited in Ghana. (Songsore, 2009)

Stren (1991) paints the picture of poor infrastructure and service provision in African cities this way: As urban populations grow, and as available resources decline, public infrastructure is being degraded to a point where cities are seriously losing their capacity

to operate as productive entities. In many African cities, refuse is uncollected and piles of decaying waste are allowed to rot in the streets; schools are overcrowded; some urban roads deteriorate into quagmires in the rainy season, and are pitted with dangerous potholes during the dry season; public transport systems are becoming seriously overloaded; and more and more people are obliged to live in unserviced plots. Not only is little new infrastructure constructed, but existing infrastructure is poorly maintained.

2.9.7 Weak Urban Governance

Urban management problems have weak governance structures and institutional coordination at its core. Key urban agencies are weak in their capacities due to limited human resources, logistics and financial constraints (MLGRD, 2010). It is often pointed out that many urban environmental problems are the result of poor management, poor planning and absence of coherent urban policies rather than of urbanization itself.

According to Ichimura (2003), inappropriate incentives have significantly exacerbated the problem of urbanization. Inappropriate regulation, lack of tenure security, inadequate infrastructure capacity, inadequate information, inadequate pricing and taxation, and weak institutions and poorly coordinated actors in the land market aggravated land issues in the region.

As the pace of urbanization and urban growth speeds up, the capacity of most West African nations to manage the consequences of undesirable urban trends is decreasing, due to inadequate spending on human and institutional capacities, services delivery, adequate and affordable housing and job opportunities. The social, economic and environmental effects of these failures fall heavily on the poor, who are excluded from the benefits of urban prosperity. (UN-HABITAT, 2010)

The various challenges associated with city growth management especially in Sub-Sahara Africa enumerated above come mainly due to the fact that cities in the region are too large and their boundaries often not delineated. Cities grow organically and hierarchical arrangement of cities is not consciously enforced. Since population is a determinant and a

consequence of development, private and public investment often find themselves in the already large cities where economies of scale is most profitable. Thus large cities keep attracting more and more population with their management become more unbearable. This situation calls for new cities where some of the resources and population can be channeled to reduce the problems inherent in the city centre.

2.10 The need for Secondary Cities in Development

The role of secondary cities in national development can be analyzed in two different but yet interrelated ways. Secondary cities may be seen as fulfilling a number of urban functions as well as rural functions. They provide the counterbalance to the large primate cities. This is done through reduction in the rate of migration from rural areas to large primate cities by redirecting some of the migrant population to secondary cities. It is expected that the redirection will release population pressures as well as pressure on social facilities in the primate cities. Unemployment and pressure on urban services will also be reduced.

The redirection has been done commonly through the growth poles concepts where incentives are given to industries that locate in the secondary cities. This has been done to concentrate investment at selected secondary cities with potential for economic growth. The incentives given to such industries include fiscal and non fiscal aspects. The fiscal incentives include tax holidays, financial assistance on favourable terms whilst the non fiscal incentives may include the provision of high quality infrastructure such as roads, electricity and good water supply.

From a development perspective, growth centres are meant to benefit their hinterlands through the creation of new demand for industrial inputs as well as demand for labour. They are also good policy tools for effecting greater regional equity in development.

One of the most important functions of growth centres and for that matter, secondary cities is the provision of central place functions to their rural hinterlands. Policy makers have used the creation of service centres in the form of 'rural service centres' for this purpose. Some of these functions include retail in the form of shops, wholesalers and

markets. Also, they offer administrative functions with central government field offices, local government and extension services. They offer educational services, medical facilities and repair services to the rural hinterlands. Growth poles also serve as Rural Service Centres complementing agrarian reform programmes. They improve access of farmers to agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizers and chemicals as well as services such as agricultural implements repair workshops and agricultural extension. (UN-HABITAT, 2010)

2.11 Case Studies

2.8.1 Case Study One

The Geographies of Secondary City Growth in a Globalized China: Comparing Dongguan and Suzhou

In 1990, extra large cities in China attracted only 36.1 percent of the country's total FDI. China's secondary cities, then, have attracted the lion's share of both FDI and domestic capitalist investment to drive the country's 7 to 10 percent economic growth rate during the past fifteen years. The economic importance of Dongguan and Suzhou is substantial, as they were ranked in 2002 as the third and fourth most important cities in terms of export volume.

Both Dongguan and Suzhou possess a different historical relationship with their respective regional core city. During the past sixty years since the Communist Revolution, government policy has regulated the industrial functions of urban places, and these policies have explicitly favored the growth of smaller urban places and in turn implicitly controlled the growth of the largest cities.

Growth Management Strategies

During the first period of government urban policy from 1949 to 1965, emphasis was given to heavy industry and the lion's share of these state-owned assets were developed in interior urban places, all of which were second and third tier in population size when compared to Beijing and Shanghai. While these policies were explicitly related to cold

war defensive strategies as well as the location of energy resources, ideological reasons implicitly possessed an anti-large city bias.

Cities in general were viewed as unproductive and indeed exploitative because they functioned as nonproductive consumer spaces that appropriate surplus value and generated little new wealth. In addition, the communist government was concerned with local and regional self-sufficiency in terms of both industrialization and agriculture to promote spatial equity, and this resulted in the absence of the rapid growth of extra large cities driven by ever-expanding hinterlands. While urban population growth rates exceeded national population growth rates, much of this growth was only within the context of secondary- and tertiary-sized cities, but not small cities.

Since the mid-1980s, however, approximately 145 million temporary migrants have left their villages in part because of a rural labor redundancy problem, and many have found employment in peri-urban townships and village industries. Much of this migration has been to lower order urban places as governments in large cities such as Beijing and Shanghai more strictly control the influx of temporary migrants. However, in democratic governance where freedom of movement is a fundamental human right, it is difficult for such a policy to work out. The peri-urban regions surrounding secondary cities afforded temporary migrants greater economic opportunities and lower living costs.

The growth in the percentage of the total urban was contingent on the parallel policies of inhibiting the growth of extra large cities, reclassifying towns as urban places and the subsequent spatial enlargement and urbanization of once rural hinterlands, and the releasing of the rural population to migrate to cities that created the largest-scale internal movement of humans in the modern era.

Lessons Learnt

Unlike in most developing countries where economic growth is based on FDI in already primate cities, the confluence of these government policies in China has privileged the growth of many secondary cities.

- Dongguan and Suzhou provide ideal examples of the important economic role of secondary cities in the growth of larger global cities;
- Both have been able to assemble greater financial resources through the rescaling of the national urban administrative structure;
- By virtue of their close proximity to global gateways, both have come to occupy middle positions of the production chain with respect to the regional cores of Hong Kong and Shanghai; and
- As a result, both possess strong economies relative to their respective and more distant provincial capitals. Both have also been able to capture comparative advantage relative to the regional core cities in part because of a substantial pool of inexpensive migrant labour (Airriess, 2008).

2.8.2 Case Study Two

Implementing an Integrated Growth Poles Strategy in Mozambique

The primary goals for Mozambique's integrated growth poles strategy are to promote private sector-led growth and employment while maximizing the development outcomes for sustainable and equitable growth, especially in the underserved provinces. The strategy sets out the proposed integrated growth poles along the three main development corridors: Maputo, Beira and Nacala, focusing on three provinces: Nampula, Tete, and Beira.

The growth pole strategy for Tete Province with a population of 1.8 million was driven by new and planned investments in the mining and energy sectors. These investments came along with a growing support for industry in and around Tete town, which will supply the goods and services to the businesses that will construct and operate two major coal mines and hydroelectric and thermal coal power plants. By this the local economy would grow faster and more sustainably if investments in mining and energy were undertaken parallel with initiatives to invest in human capital, enhance institutional capacity, improve the transport infrastructure and the investment climate, and address the substantial environmental challenges associated with strip mining, hydropower, and coal-fired power plants.

For the Nampula region, three mega-projects were planned and approved which are; (a) Investment in the titanium bearing heavy sands in the Moma district; (b) Project to build and operate an oil refinery in the district of Nacala-a-Velha; and (c) Proposed investment in eucalyptus plantations in Mecuburi, Ribawe, and Nampula. In 2008 the Government of Mozambique established the Nacala Special Economic Zone. There were investments in agricultural and agribusiness. Massive investments were also made in Nacala port and rail system to enable it to handle Moatize coal exports. The National Decentralized Planning and Finance Program is piloting interventions in Nampula that focus on improving local service delivery, catalyzing local economic development, and strengthening good governance and stronger citizen oversight at the provincial level.

Beira is the provincial capital of Beira and the second largest city in Mozambique with a population of 430,000. The city is built on a plain below sea level and spreads along the coast from the Port of Beira to the lighthouse in the Macuti area. The port connects the coal mining regions in Tete with the sea through the Beira Corridor. Plans were put in place to improve the quality and provision of municipal services through interdepartmental coordination and staff training. The pillars that held the plan include first of all an Environmental improvement which involves measures to combat coastal erosion and a strategy for Sustainable domestic energy use. Again, there were Economic activities and employment generation, through prioritized activities to attract large and small investment in the agribusiness, tourism, and service sectors; and by improving the system for awarding land leases. Most importantly was the Upgrading of urban infrastructure, including expansion and maintenance of the road network; zoning and infrastructure planning; expansion of telecommunications; and dredging of the port.

Growth pole initiatives in the corridor focused on strengthening the facilities and infrastructure along the corridor: One-Stop Border Posts, railways and ports, and attracting further investments. The country as a whole would benefit from strengthening capacity to negotiate with megaprojects as well as building capacity to develop growth poles.

Lessons Learnt

- There is conscious planning to develop growth poles in Mozambique;
- The country is making use of opportunities in the provinces and regions in terms of natural resources and infrastructure. An example is mining and hydroelectric power in the Tete Province;
- Investments came along with supporting industries to sustain the activities;
- Where the necessary infrastructure is lacking or inadequate, major investments are made to provide them; and
- Efforts made are not only in physical development but also in human resource development to manage the investments.

2.12 Conceptual Framework

Settlements grow by two main factors; by natural growth rates and migration. As the urban area begins to grow, these two main factors account for rapid growth in size and development. Since population is a determinant and consequence of development, certain economic activities and investments are attracted to the urban area to take advantage of the population available. As more activities converge at the centre, more and more economic activities are attracted making room for more population, infrastructure and social services. Communication lines such as transportation and telecommunication also develop between the main urban area and smaller settlements such as small towns and villages. These small towns and villages fall within the functional region of certain services and infrastructure thus; attention and priority of government is not on the development of such areas.

In most African countries urban development does not follow any plan; service provision does not accompany allocation and sale of plots and infrastructure is poorly maintained with little additions. With time and the inflow of additional human and material resources, the city becomes more attractive and then begins to grow. Villages around the city are engulfed into the city centre while small towns serve as residential areas for poor migrants and indigenous people who cannot afford rent in the city. These people often commute from their dormitory towns into the city centre to access both social and

economic resources. With increased economic opportunities and accompanied population into the city centre, the supply of social services is unable to match up the demand; roads become too narrow for the huge traffic they carry and the general condition is that of congestion, pollution, squalor and slum, crime and insecurity and poverty.

The current state of the city results in people moving out of the city to live at the fringes. Often, those who can afford the cost of commuting live farther away from the city where there is less pollution, congestion, filth and noise. However, these areas are less serviced unlike the main city; basic services such as potable water, electricity and shopping centres are scantily available. Thus people who move out of the city often commute back to the city to access these basic facilities. The effect of this daily movement is high day density and peak hour traffic jams. City authorities are unable to deal with the problems because most of them originate far away from the city, hours before the day begins. These problems are done away with as the day ends.

The question is what if there are alternatives? What if there are smaller less congested settlements where basic infrastructure and services can be adequately provided and managed? What if government development priorities are shifted to the development of secondary cities where their growth rates are in multiples of that of the main city?

The framework in Figure 2.1 depicts that population will always respond to development and vice-versa, thus cities found on the peripheries of the main city will be able to accommodate the excesses and further attract more investments if they are given the right atmosphere and resources to develop. They will serve as service centres for other rural areas that surround them while at the same time intercepting rural-urban migration to the main city.

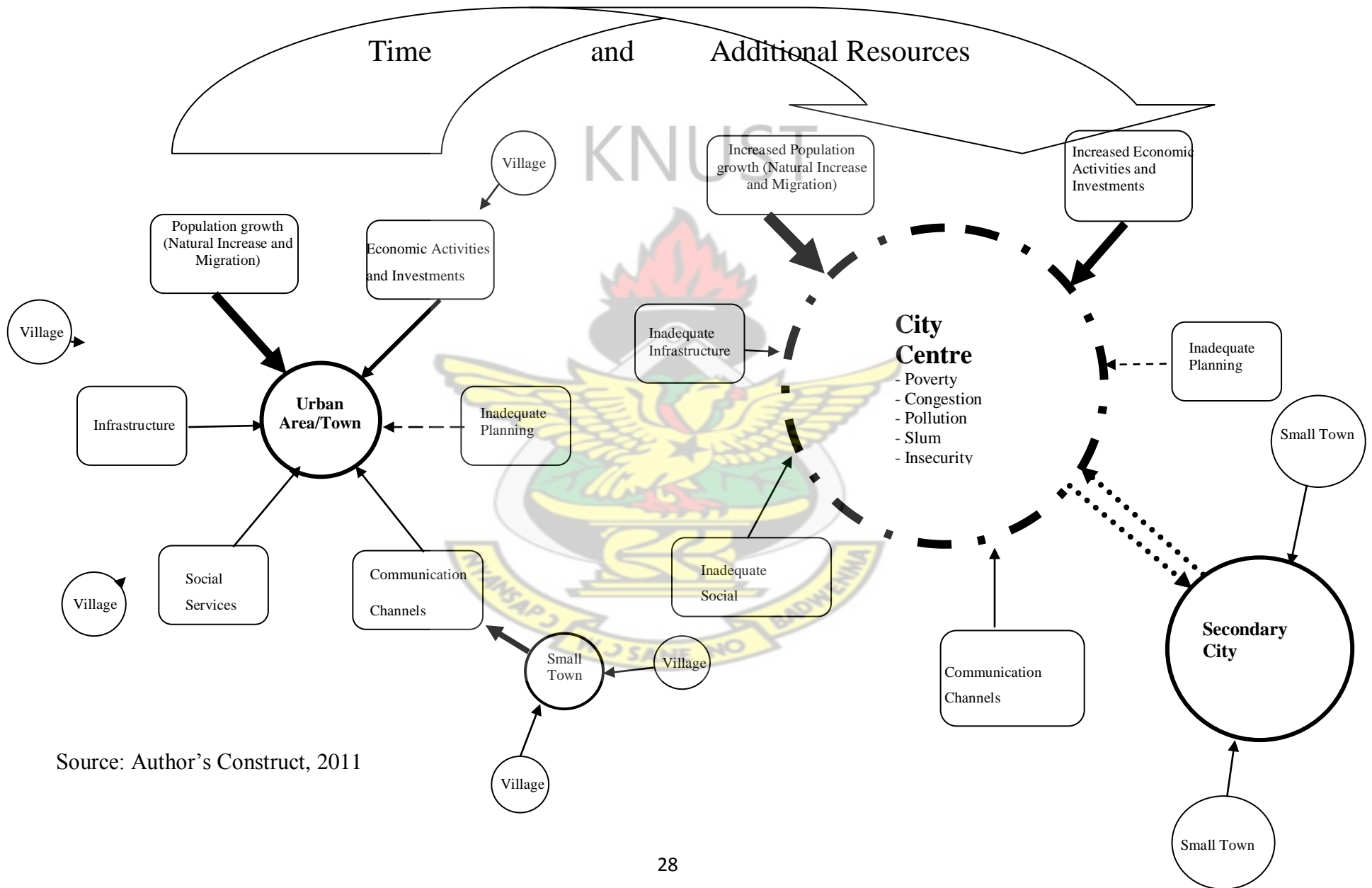
Rent in secondary cities will be lower than that of the city; standard housing will be more affordable for the poor thus eliminating the development of shanty towns and slums in the main city. Basic services will be provided alongside the requisite infrastructure

thereby eliminating the problem of commuting and heavy traffic jams. The city centre will be purged from all the persistent problems that confront them; making city authorities well able to manage them with the acute resources they mobilize. Development of secondary cities will help to solve the mysteries of city management in Africa and Ghana in particular but with the provision of the necessary resources and commitment.

KNUST



Figure 2.1: The Dynamics of City Growth



Source: Author's Construct, 2011

2.10 Summary of Findings

- All Urban Centres in Sub-Sahara Africa face great management problems and resource constraints make it difficult for authorities to respond to city management problems;
- Urban growth in Africa does not occur concurrently with economic development because growth organically and mostly unplanned;
- There is high rate of urban primacy in Africa and for that matter Ghana because policies are not geared towards creating optimal city sized while diffusing growth to other areas;
- The concept of urban management is subtle and undefined in Africa and thus there is a general lack of a comprehensive and integrated planning to direct growth;
- Poor spatial planning and weak urban governance is at the heart urban management problems in Ghana
- Secondary cities in Ghana are not consciously planned and poorly developed and also lack basic services and infrastructure
- Secondary cities have potential to receive excesses from the main city if well developed
- Management of Ghanaian cities have been ad-hoc and disintegrated and will be easier with integrated and holistic approach considering rural and peri-urban areas

2.11 Conclusion

The urban growth process is a dynamic one. Many elements come into play both tangible and intangible. The approaches adopted by cities around the world are different with respect to the socio-economic setup of the inhabitants. Ghanaian cities have not been consciously integrated and planned for and thus the need to adopt strategies that will work for us in an integrated environment considering all the different actors and elements that matter.

CHAPTER THREE

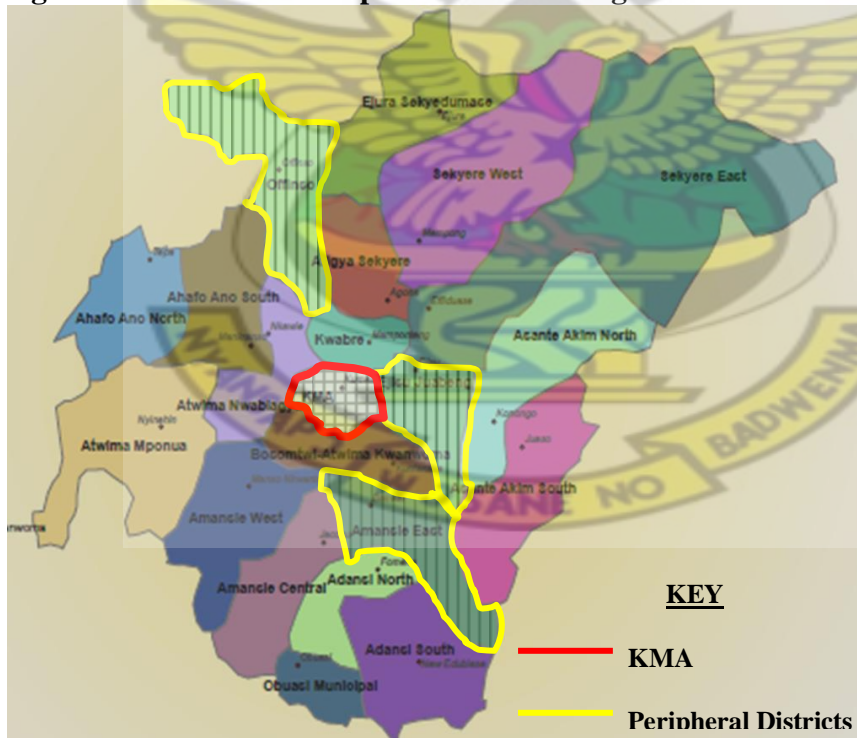
PROFILE OF STUDY AREAS AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Kumasi

Location and Size

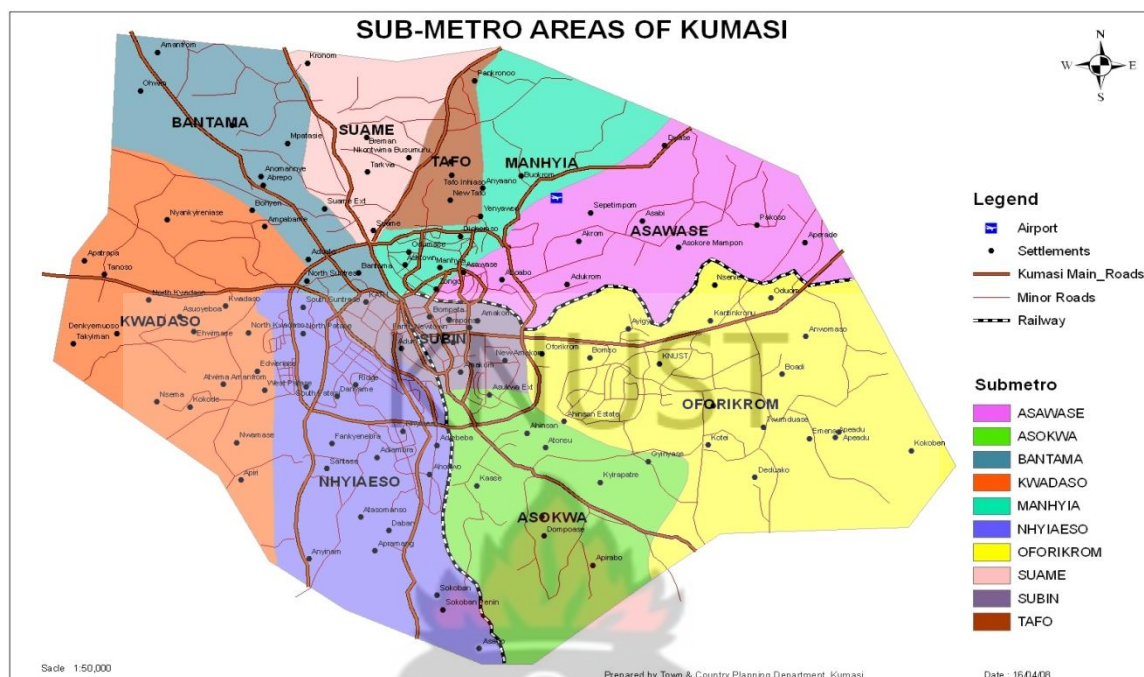
Kumasi is located in the transitional forest zone and is about 270km north of the national capital, Accra. It is between latitude $6.35^{\circ} - 6.40^{\circ}$ and longitude $1.30^{\circ} - 1.35^{\circ}$, an elevation which ranges between 250 – 300 metres above sea level with an area of about 254 square kilometres. The Kumasi Metropolitan Area has a total surface area of 254 sq km (2000 population census) with a population density of 5,419 persons per sq. km. The Kumasi metropolis is second to the Accra metropolis. The unique centrality of the city as a traversing point from all parts of the country makes it a special place for many to migrate to.

Figure 3.1: Kumasi Metropolitan Area in Regional Context



(Source: Town and Country Planning Department, 2010)

Figure 3.2: Administrative Map of Kumasi Metropolitan Area



(Source: Town and country Planning Department, 2010)

Population Characteristics

The Kumasi metropolis is the most populous district in the Ashanti Region. During the 2000 Population Census it recorded a figure of 1,170,270. It has been projected to have a population of 1,625,180 in 2006 based on a growth rate of 5.4 percent per annum and this accounts for just under a third (32.4 percent) of the region's population. Kumasi has attracted such a large population partly because it is the regional capital, and also the most commercialized centre in the region. Other reasons include the centrality of Kumasi as a nodal city with major arterial routes linking it to other parts of the country and also the fact that it is an educational centre with two State Universities, a Private University, a Polytechnic, two Teacher Training Colleges, Secondary Schools and a host of basic schools.

The growth of industries and the large volume of commercial activity in and around Kumasi as well as the high migrant number may account partly for the relatively high urban population. It has been estimated to have a daytime population of about 2

million. The population has grown rapidly over the inter-censal periods from 346,336 in 1970, 487,504 in 1984 to 1,170,270 in 2000. Based on these the census reports the estimated population growth rate as 5.47 per cent.

Spatial Distribution

The population of the Central Business District comprising Adum, Asafo and Ashtown continue to reduce over the years. According to the census reports, Adum recorded 12,991 in 1970, 9,693 in 1984 and 8,016 in 2000. This is anticipated to further fall. On the other hand areas such as Ayigya, Dichemso and Tarkwa Maakro, which were small communities in 1960 and 1970, have grown into densely populated residential areas with 20,000 – 40,000 people. Areas comprising the CBD therefore continue to reduce in terms of human numbers whereas the population in the new developing areas increases. This is accounted for by the mere reason that residential accommodations in the former are being converted into commercial use.

Spatial analysis

The present physical structure of Kumasi Metropolis could be described as circular or concentric in nature, encouraging development in all directions. All major roads converge at Kejetia, which is the city centre. Settlement growth is towards all directions from the city centre.

The city's current growth rate of 5.47 per cent, which is higher than the regional and national rates stems from its vibrant commercial activities. This phenomenon of high growth rate of the city's population has led to a situation where settlements are growing rapidly and in all directions. Major growth directions are towards the major roads. The high rate of migration has also led to the emergence of slums.

Urban planning is to manage the spatial organisation of cities for effective land use. Urban infrastructure can therefore be categorised into five major sectors; namely, Transportation, Housing, Water and Sanitation, Electricity supply and Telecommunication. The urban form of a city and distribution pattern of land use affects air quality and its health impact.

The major economic activity points in the city can be grouped into four. These are Kejetia Lorry Park, Central Market, the defunct Kumasi Race Course that is temporarily being used for commercial activities; Adum Shopping Centre; Suame and Asafo Magazines; Kaase/Asokwa Industrial Area and the Sokoban Timber Products Markets.

Land Use of KMA

The total land coverage of Kumasi Metropolitan Area is approximately 254sq. Km (25,415 hectares). Out of this 79.0 percent has been planned, approved and developed. The major landuse that make up the metropolis are residential, commercial, industrial, educational, civic and culture, open spaces and circulation. Residential Land use refers to the predominantly living areas in the metropolis and takes up 43.9 percent of the total land use of the metropolis.

Commercial activities in the metropolis take approximately 2.4 percent of the total land area. Commercial activities are mainly concentrated in the central area of the metropolis. However, these activities are now taking up new locations along the radial roads. Sites for Educational facilities take up about 17.3 percent of the metropolitan area. Civic and Cultural facilities occupy 7.3 percent of the total land area of the metropolis. It comprises locations for public and private offices, health delivery facilities, security establishments and centres for religious and social functions.

Poverty Levels/Location

Poverty levels are generally perceived to be high in the metropolis. Even though the issue of poverty transcends the entire metropolis, it is more pronounced in the peri-urban and slum communities where facilities/opportunities are either inadequate or non-existent; poor housing, poor road network, absence of educational facilities, lack of access to quality health care, poor environmental sanitation, high illiteracy rates, relatively low incomes and high unemployment levels among others. A few of the locations are Apatrapa, Dompase, Ayeduase, Nyankyerenease, Kokoben, Asawase, Aboabo No 1 & 2, Moshie Zongo, Dichemso Old Town, Ayigya Zongo, Dakwadwom, Sawaba, Yalwa near Asem, Daban, Kaase, Sokoban, Nsenie, Anwomaso etc.

3.2 Ejisu-Juaben Municipal

Location and Size

The Municipal lies within Latitude 1° 15' N and 1 ° 45' N and Longitude 6° 15'W and 7° 00'W and shares boundaries with six Districts in the Region. To the North East and North West of the Municipal are Sekyere East and Kwabre Districts respectively, to the South are Bosomtwe-Atwirna-Kwanwoma and Asante -Akim South Districts, to the East is the Asante-Akim North Municipal and to the West is the Kumasi Metropolis. The Municipal stretches over an area of 637.2 km² constituting about 10 percent of the entire Ashanti Region and with Ejisu as its capital. Ejisu is about 30 minutes drive from Kumasi and it is linked to the city by a first class road making it highly accessible to services in the city.

Population Characteristics

The total population of the district stands at 144,272 in 2006. The District has males dominating by 50.2 percent of the population whilst the females represent about 49.8 percent of the total population. The sex ratio of the district is about a 1:08. The age structure of the district is basically youthful thus indicating that the working age in the district is more than those in the dependant age. The age dependency ratio in the district is about 1:0.3 thus substantiating the fact that there are more people in the working age than the dependant age.

Rural-Urban Split

The rural settlements are those with their population less than 5,000 and basically their economic activities are agricultural. The rural settlements account for 69.82 percent. The implication here is that the district is basically rural; therefore agriculture can be used as a development focus in order to reduce poverty in the district. Urban centers are considered as those with population above 5,000. Out of 84 settlements, the district has only five urban centers namely; Ejisu, Juaben, Bonwire, Fumesua and Kwamo.

These five towns account for 30.18 percent of the total population in the district with the district capital covering 9.2 percent of the total population. Rural population density

differ greatly from urban population density. That is, 138 people per sq.km and 89 people per sq.km respectively.

Social infrastructure

The Ejisu-Juaben District operates two periodic markets located in Ejisu and Juaben respectively. The former is in session every Sunday and the latter every Tuesday. Items traded in both markets are almost the same. In general, farm produce and manufactured items are traded.

3.3 Offinso Municipal

Location and Size

Offinso Municipal lies between longitude 1° 65W and 1° 45E and latitudes 6° 45N and 7° 25 S. and it covers an area of 1255km². It is located in the extreme North-Western part of the Ashanti Region with about half of its boundary bordered by the Brong Ahafo Region in the North and West. It is bordered on the East by Ejura- Sekyeredumasi District on the South by Kwabre Sekyere South, Ahafo Ano South and Atwima District. Offinso is about an hour's drive from Kumasi and also linked by a first class road. The condition of the road makes the city easily accessible to for services.

Population Characteristics

The 2000 Population and Housing Census yielded the District a population head count of 138,190. The declared population is an increase of 32 percent over the 1984 population of 104,805 and an annual growth rate of 5 percent for 1984-2000 period which is higher than the region's growth rate of 3.4 percent.

Spatial Distribution

In line with national standards, rural/urban classification of localities is population based on a population size of 5000 or more being urban and less than 5000 being rural, five settlements out of the 126 settlements are urban in the district. The urban localities are New Offinso (36190) Akomadan (14018) Abofour (11,177) Nkenkaasu (10,014) and

Afrancho (7,727). The high population growth rate in these localities can be attributed to high immigration.

Major Economic Activities

Agriculture is the main economic activity in the district. Over 70 percent of the active population in the district are farmers, 25 percent of this number constitute the youth. Fishing is done on a minor scale while livestock production is basically on free range. Poultry farming has been on the increase. A total land area of about 24,000 hectares is put under food crops production each year. An estimated 23,500 hectares of farmland lie fallow each year. Large tracts of fertile land thus remain uncultivated each year. The major crops that are cultivated in the district are cassava, maize, plantain, vegetables, oil palm, cocoa, cashew and rice.

3.4 Bekwai Municipal

Location and Size

It is located in the southern part of Ashanti Region. The District lies within 6° 00'N - 6°30 'N and Longitudes 1°00W and 1° 35W. The District covers a total land area of about 633sqkm. It lies within the forest dissected plateau physiographic region. It has average height registering between 150 and 300 metres above sea level. The topography is relatively flat with occasional undulating uplands which rise around 240meters and 300 meters. There is a major first class road linking Bekwai to Kumasi thus accessibility to services in the city is high.

Population Characteristics

The population of the district, according to the 2000 Population and Housing Census is 219,508. This is 6.1 percent of the total population of Ashanti region. Projected Population from the Municipal Population Census (2008) stands at 134,354. The intercensal rate of growth is 3.2 percent. Males dominate by 51 percent whilst females make up 49 percent. The rural population makes up 88.4 percent while the urban population constitutes about 11.6 percent indicating a predominantly rural district.

Population by Settlement

The district has 413 settlements concentrated in the central part of the district with numerous dispersed small villages. The population sizes of nearly all the communities are very small. Apart from Bekwai and Abofour with populations of 19,670 and Abofour 9,310 respectively, the rest of the settlements have population sizes below 5,000.

Social Infrastructure

There are 335 schools across the district which includes six Senior High Schools and one public vocational school. There are 227 water points drilled district wide under the community water and sanitation project II to provide potable water to rural communities. Rivers and streams constitute the main sources of water for domestic utilization in the district. About 30 percent of the communities have access to safe drinking water. And most of the towns enjoy electricity from the national grid. However, large areas of the district are without electricity.

Economy

The major occupation in the district is agriculture which employs about 58.2 percent of the labour force and constitutes the main source of income for the people in the district. It accounts for 75.9 percent of the district's total income. Out of the 58.2 percent employed in agriculture, fishing which is one of the major economic activities in the district absorbs only 5.2 percent of the labour force.

3.5 Methodology

3.5.1 Research Design

The case study approach was used for the study. This approach allows for investigation and understanding the dynamics of the phenomenon. It provides a systematic way of looking at events, collecting data analyzing information and reporting the results. As a result the researcher will gain a sharpened understanding of why the instance happened as it did, and what might become important to look at more extensively in future research. It is useful in dealing with contemporary issues in real life situations and the researcher has no control over events.

In case studies, Researchers do not focus on the discovery of a universal generalized truth, nor do they typically look for cause-effect relationships; instead, emphasis is placed on exploration and description. Kumasi and three peripheral district centres namely; Ejisu, New Offinso and Bekwai were selected as case studies. Kumasi is selected because it is a nodal town therefore at any point in time, receives population from all parts of the country as well as the West African Sub-Region. The three peripheral district centres have been selected for the relative distances to the city, populations and location in relation to the city.

The study began with a review of theoretical literature on city growth management in Africa and other parts of the world. It looked at the dynamics in these processes as they pertain to different parts of the world. It also looked at some theoretical models and concepts formulated to deal with primacy and city management such as the growth pole and core-periphery concepts.

Empirical field information from multiple sources were collected and analyzed to support the findings as they pertain to Ghana and the study areas in particular. These were gathered through interview guides and questionnaires.

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

The study adopted both non-probability and probability sampling. The non-probability sampling made use of purposive sampling. By this specific units were selected for study due to their unique characteristics. Kumasi city is selected as the core unit due to its strategic location as a nodal city in Ghana and the characteristics it exhibits for the purpose of the study. Ejisu, Bekwai and New Offinso are also selected due their proximity and location in terms of linking Kumasi to other parts of the country. The three municipal capitals were selected purposively for the study out of the other districts adjoining the city because they are located on the major highways in the country linking the city to very important parts of the country. Their characteristics are such that they are easily detached from the city unlike other adjoining districts that have been engulfed in the city's structure.

Institutions interviewed include the Planning Department of the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, the Development Control Office of KMA, the Metropolitan Roads Department of KMA and all Departments of Planning in the three peripheral district centres. All institutions were selected purposively as they possessed the kind of information required for the study. Probability sampling, specifically, random sampling was used to select individual respondents from the peripheral district centres. By this method, the units are selected at random using the serpentine method.

This method was used due to the difficulty in accessing sample frames of the towns which would have a list of the individual households and their locations. Thus in order to have an objective representation of the town in sampling, the researcher located the principal streets in each town, identified the first house on that street as the starting point for the interview. Subsequent houses and households were located by going round the previous houses in a serpentine manner, that is skipping every other house in front or behind the previous house entered. Upon locating the house, two households each were interviewed. This was done based on the availability of household heads or their representatives who could give the required information.

3.5.3 Sample Sizes Determination

The sample size for the three peripheral district centres were determined by using the mathematical formula as given by $n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\alpha)^2}$, where n is the sample size, N is the sample frame, α is the margin of error and 1, a constant. The population sizes of the various districts were projected from the 2000 population and housing census results for a more reflective size. Using the intercensal growth rates for the various districts, the population is projected using the formula $P_t = P_o(1 + r)^t$. Using a 92 percent confidence level, the sample sizes for the various district centres are presented in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Sample Size Determination

District Centre	2000 Population	Inter Censal Growth rate (%)	2010 Projected Population	Sample Size
Offinso	36,190	3.2	49,588	156
Ejisu	10,923	3.1	14,823	155
Bekwai	19,679	3.0	26, 447	155

Source: Population and Housing Census Report, 2000

3.5.4 Data Sources and Collection Tools

Primary data sources included responses from city authorities, district assemblies and individuals through interview guides and questionnaires respectively.

Table 3.2: Data Sources and Collection Tools

No	Objectives	Data Required	Source	Data Collection Tool
1.	To examine growth management practices and their successes in Ghanaian cities	Role and Contribution to city growth management -City Management Approaches -Population Characteristics -Access to Services -Investment and Employment Opportunities	KMA Development Planning Department Metropolitan Roads Department of KMA Development Control Department of KMA	Interview Guide
		Spatial Planning Practices and Procedures	KMA Physical Planning Department	Interview Guide
2.	How can Peripheral District Centres be integrated in city management?	Capacity for local Economic Development and management -Availability of land and resources for investment -Employment opportunities and availability	Ejisu, New Offinso and Bekwai Development Planning Departments	Interview Guide
		-Motivation to live	Household Heads	Questionnaires

		and work in peripheral district centres -Motivation to work or/and live in the city -Trip patterns between the city and the peripheral district centres -Transportation Costs (Time and money)		
3.	To recommend policy directions for integrated spatial development in Ghana	Integrated Spatial Policy	NDPC	Interview Guide

Source: Author's Construct, 2011

Secondary data sources were from population census reports, District Medium Term Plans from Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, Ejisu, New Offinso and Bekwai Municipals, Population and Housing Census Report (2000), Administrative documents including proposals, by-laws and Urban Economics and Urban Growth literature. Other development related journals were also consulted from the internet.

3.5.5 Data Analysis Techniques

The study used both qualitative and quantitative tools to present and analyze the data gathered. Various models were used to establish relationships and trends.

Descriptive Statistics were used to summarize quantitative data. The researcher employed the use of maps, tables, graphs, charts and diagrams to present the gathered data. Analytical tools such as Cross –tabulation and measures of central tendencies were used to determine trends and averages.

Qualitative data were analyzed by interpretation, inferences and cross referencing with secondary data and information from other institutions. This helped to validate and check information provided by various institutions.

CHAPTER FOUR

APPROACHES IN MANAGING KUMASI'S GROWTH AND CAPACITIES OF PERIPHERAL DISTRICT CENTRES TO RECEIVE GROWTH

4.1 Introduction

The urban system is a complex system and contains all other social, economic, cultural and political systems. Growth and management of cities in Ghana have often been looked at in isolation without giving attention to the other components outside the city which cause the many problems they experience. Often congestion and traffic jam problems in the city begin many hours before the start of day and the decisions that cause these problems are taken several kilometers away from the city. Thus city managers and authorities are required to look beyond the city and target the source of the problem to be able to deal with it. At the rate of urbanization in the world and especially in developing countries, cities in Ghana are expected to experience explosion which will trickle down to other large urban areas in the country. With the unbearable traffic situation in Accra and Kumasi and fast approaching situation in Sekondi-Takoradi, it has become of extreme importance that appropriate strategies that actually work are developed and utilized in order to shape our cities to desired conditions. Solutions to urban primacy and the overarching problems in Ghanaian cities call for an integrated approach to spatial organization and management that takes into consideration the sectors of human life such as the social, economic and political state of the city.

4.2 Urbanization in Ghana

Although Ghana's urban population has increased rapidly, the distribution of the urban population is far from even. In the year 2000, there were 350 urban localities in Ghana out of which only two had population over 1 million that is, Accra and Kumasi. There was no urban area with population between 500,000 and 1,000,000 and only four urban areas with population between 100,000 and 500,000. However, there were as much as 298 urban areas with population between 5,000 and 20,000. It is an undisputable fact that most urban areas within the last category exhibit mostly rural characteristics.

Accra and Kumasi alone accounted for about 63 percent of the total urban population in Ghana in year 2000. The dominance of Accra and Kumasi in Ghana's urban hierarchy is a clear indication of primacy in the country. This is further revealed by 2000 population and housing census, indicating Accra being about eight times larger and Kumasi six times larger than the third largest city in Ghana: Sekondi-Takoradi. The overwhelming growth of the two primate cities has led to a spillover of their populations into adjoining peripheral districts or the peri-urban areas.

The rate of urban primacy in Kumasi is largely due to migration which stems from spatial inequalities within the country. This spatial inequality emanates from differences in the economic fabric, local endowments and human resources between large cities and lower order settlements. These are considered as assets which determine the potential success of proposed development strategies. Lower order settlements in the country are faced with inadequate and insufficient skills, poor accessibility to social services and especially weak and noncompetitive industrial fabric which stifle development efforts in these areas. Thus, rural dwellers are often faced with the option of migration to the cities to enhance their living conditions.

4.3 Kumasi as a Growth Pole or a Core Area

An area differential is the primary cause of movement. People will move from one place to the other because of difference in resource endowments be it natural or artificial. Some places are better endowed with some resources than others, thus people will naturally move in order to make use of the particular resources. Since some places are better endowed than others, they naturally become attraction points. This process may occur naturally or be influenced by policy direction. When a better endowed place is able to diffuse its resources for the benefit of the less endowed, it becomes a point of growth that serves its periphery. On the other hand, a particular place or area can be powerful and richly endowed but will not diffuse its benefits to the less endowed areas, rather, it succeeds in absorbing the benefits from its periphery. Thus it becomes a core area and not necessarily a growth point.

Kumasi as a city is endowed with several resources and advantages. They come in the form of economic opportunities, markets, access to credit and expertise, better social services and infrastructure as well better communication and technology. These assets present themselves as pull factors, attracting more opportunities to the city. The question is whether the resources in the city are being diffused to the periphery, bring about growth in these areas or they are attracting and concentrating investment in the city making the city grow while the other areas are consumed by it. The relationship between Kumasi and its peripheral areas can be described as either a growth pole or a core-periphery relationship based on their interactions and mutual benefits.

4.4 Challenges of Growth Management in Kumasi

Unlike any other region or city in Ghana, the people of Ashanti region regard their individual communities as extensions of Kumasi thus they hold strong allegiance to the city. Kumasi is not merely regarded as the administrative capital of the Ashanti region but more importantly the traditional seat of the Golden Stool. Thus Ashanti people in all other districts in the region have serious connections with the city by way of establishing a business, building a house or at least commuting to the city to access a service or facility even if that facility is available in their town or district. In a day, almost a third of the Ashanti Region's population visit Kumasi, it however becomes very difficult for city authorities to keep people out of the city centre.

In Ghana, ownership right of land is in the hands of the chiefs and families while planning authorities have the use right. Thus, plans made by the city authorities will only materialize when the chief who are custodians of the land release their lands for such purposes. Often times chiefs consult surveyors to measure and demarcate plots for sale without the consent of the Town and Country Planning Department of the KMA. These schemes are often residential plots without due considerations for other uses and standards. This problem is due to the lack of legislation to back the work of the planning authority and give them the power to effect plans.

Coupled with the culture and behavior of the Ashanti people is the issue of price differentials of goods and service between the city and other districts and also between

several communities in the city and the CBD. The differences in the price of food items, clothes and household items as well as the variety provided by the city makes it very attractive compared to the suburbs and the other districts. Most people overlook the cost of transportation, time and the inconvenience of being caught in a traffic jam but concentrate on the price difference of the commodity as they pertain in the two locations. The result is that people will still commute to the city even if they have alternatives elsewhere.

Another major challenge confronting city authorities is the inability to complete construction of satellite markets in the city. Various projects started but have been stalled mainly due to the inability to raise funds to fund those projects. Examples include the renovation and expansion of the Asafo market, Kurofurom and Kwadaso markets. These markets are intended to provide alternative centres for traders who are unable to find stalls in the main central market. It is aimed that upon completion it will reduce the number of hawkers in the CBD. This goal is uncertain to be realized if measures are not put in place to check the issue of price differentials.

4.5 Economic Relationship

Out of the total working class population in Kumasi, about 82 percent are employed while 18 percent are unemployed. The employment by sectors indicates that 5 percent of the labour force is employed in Agriculture, 23 percent employed in industry and 72 percent in the commerce and service sector. About 62.24 percent of the working class is in the informal sector explaining the huge 72 percent of the labour in commerce and service. This is because Kumasi is a commercial centre offering its services at a strategic central position in the spatial organisation of the country. The commercial strength of the city offers ready employment to new migrants as it requires few resources to startup in terms of equipment and structures. The commercial sector is dominated by food items, second hand clothing, building materials, herbal medicine and electrical appliances. The city offers economic opportunities in terms of banks and loan companies that offer credit facilities to the inhabitants. These facilities are often non-existent in smaller settlements. All these economic opportunities present a strong pull factor for rural-urban migration into the city.

4.6 Accessibility of Social Services

The Kumasi city has rapidly become urbanized as about 48 percent of the metropolis is urbanized with another 46 percent being peri-urban and only 6 percent being rural. However, the rate of urbanization in terms of population influx has not been coupled with the development of infrastructure and provision of social services. Infrastructure and several facilities in the city are not able to meet the demands on them since the population has outstripped their capacities. Availability of land in the city has become scarce thus the adjoining districts provide housing stock as well as serves as the food basket needed by the city whilst the city provides market for their goods. Social service provision is always out paced by estate development mainly due to the inability of service providers to meet the needs prior to development.

4.7 Investment and Employment Opportunities

It can be seen that, the city offers enormous opportunities that are readily available to people with the least qualification and experience, thus migrants from very remote rural areas are readily given the opportunity and conditions to stay even if these conditions are below standards. People are able to find ready employment to give them some livelihood. Whilst individual migrants find comfort by putting up unauthorized substandard structures, use pavements and walkways as trading points and commuters increasingly flock to the city to access basic facilities and services thereby increasing traffic on the roads, city authorities spend huge resources in trying to make the city sustainable.

4.8 Growth Management Approaches Used in Kumasi

Growth management in Kumasi follows neither the Planned or Smart Growth nor Finite-World Planning strategies where decisions about how growth should occur and to what extent it should is taken prior to its emergence in a conscious and integrated programme. Urban management has traditionally been supply-driven where the metropolitan assembly has the sole responsibility of management. The assembly has come up with various strategies to manage growth in the city. However, these strategies are on ad hoc basis and involve various departments who develop their own means to execute their duties. Approaches do not anticipate and accommodate growth through a comprehensive

planning and policy framework. The City authority lacks an integrated plan in which specific measures are outlined to control growth, curb congestion, increase accessibility and mobility and improve access to social services in the city. The main activity undertaken in this regard is the periodic decongestion exercises carried out in some places of the city.

The success of decongestion exercises is tied to elections and politicians. Even though this has so far been the most effective method of controlling the effects of growth in the city, it is expensive and faces great opposition. Politicians are often faced with the challenge of losing elections at the expense of carrying out activities that will help the city.

4.8.1 Controlling Growth

The growth of the city has consistently overwhelmed authorities and has become almost impossible to find solution to this problem. Various reasons account for their inability to confront the problem. Foremost, the city authorities have no control over the movement of people into and out of the city. The constitution of Ghana gives the right of movement as a fundamental human right to every Ghanaian thus anybody can move into or out of the city at any point in time. Authorities are bedeviled with huge and constant rate of north-south migration, which Kumasi readily becomes the first point of call for migrants because of its strategic position as a connector between the north and south of Ghana. Since city authorities have no control over the growth of the city especially the influx of population, they come up with ways to manage the effects of the growth process. However, there is a general data gap in the system where critical information to facilitate planning and budgeting are lacking. This situation makes it difficult for any meaningful projections to be made. It is therefore not surprising that very little is done in managing the growth of the city.

4.8.2 Curbing Congestion

The main strategies that have been employed by the Kumasi Metropolitan Authority in this regard are the decongestion exercises effected in the Central Business District. These places include Adum and Kejetia. A decongestion office and task force have been

established. The task force is made up of the police, the military, the city guards and the Assemblymen. The city guards are the main executors of this exercise in collaboration with the police, thus many youth have been employed in this capacity. The military however come in when demolishing exercises are being undertaken. The city guards are mainly in charge of monitoring and giving directions to both drivers and pedestrians on approved routes of passage. They have been successful in keeping pedestrians and hawkers off the carriage ways in the city centre. They do this by arresting defaulters who use unapproved spaces for parking, selling and walking as the case may be.

Another measure that is used in controlling congestion is the erection of guard rails along roads in the CBD and the demarcation of On-Street parking spaces. These rails are meant to demarcate walkways from driveways. Again, specific places have been designated for hawking only where traders are not allowed to sit to sell their wares. The metal fences project is funded by fines that are paid by drivers and hawkers who default traffic and movement regulations. This approach has succeeded in controlling vehicular congestion in the CBD by about 60 percent. However, the city experiences huge human traffic especially in the CBD. Several reasons account for this phenomenon and they cut across cultural and attitudinal mindset of the Ashanti people, Area and price differentials across the region and administrative challenges.

4.8.3 Improving Accessibility and Mobility

As part of the effort at improving accessibility and mobility in the city, The Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly together with the Metropolitan Roads Department has come out with both on-street and off-street parking facilities in the CBD. The on-street parking facilities provide parking spaces for short periods where users pay on hourly basis while the off-street parking provides spaces for longer parking periods. The latter is mostly for shop owners and businesses in the CBD who hither-to park on-street for long hours making it impossible for shoppers to get parking spaces thereby driving through the CBD for long periods. This situation always made the CBD congested and increased vehicular traffic. Three off-street parking facilities have been put up at Roman Hill, behind Adum Prisons and opposite KMA. These facilities are intended to be expanded to other parts of the CBD. Despite these interventions, the traffic situation in the city is still excruciating,

the rather unfortunate thing is that there is no data base of how many vehicles are being planned for in these interventions. Thus, it becomes difficult to know exactly how many lots are to be provided and exactly how many spots in each lot that will adequately cater for the parking needs of the city.

It has been revealed that out of every ten vehicles in a traffic jam in the city, seven are private owned vehicles with a maximum of three occupants whilst the other three vehicles are public vehicles that are taxis and “trotros” with an average of five people in the taxi and fourteen in the “trotro”. This means that as about 70 percent of the road space is used by private vehicles, they carry only about 30 percent of the passengers whilst public vehicles use up about 30 percent of the road space and carry about 70 percent of the population. The issue that has confronted the Metropolitan Roads Department in charge of regulating public transport is how to discourage the use of private transport and adopt public transport. However, many people are displeased with the state of public transport in the country. The system is unreliable and the state of the buses is deplorable. It therefore makes using public transport unattractive to most middle and high class sections of the population especially professionals who work with tight schedules.

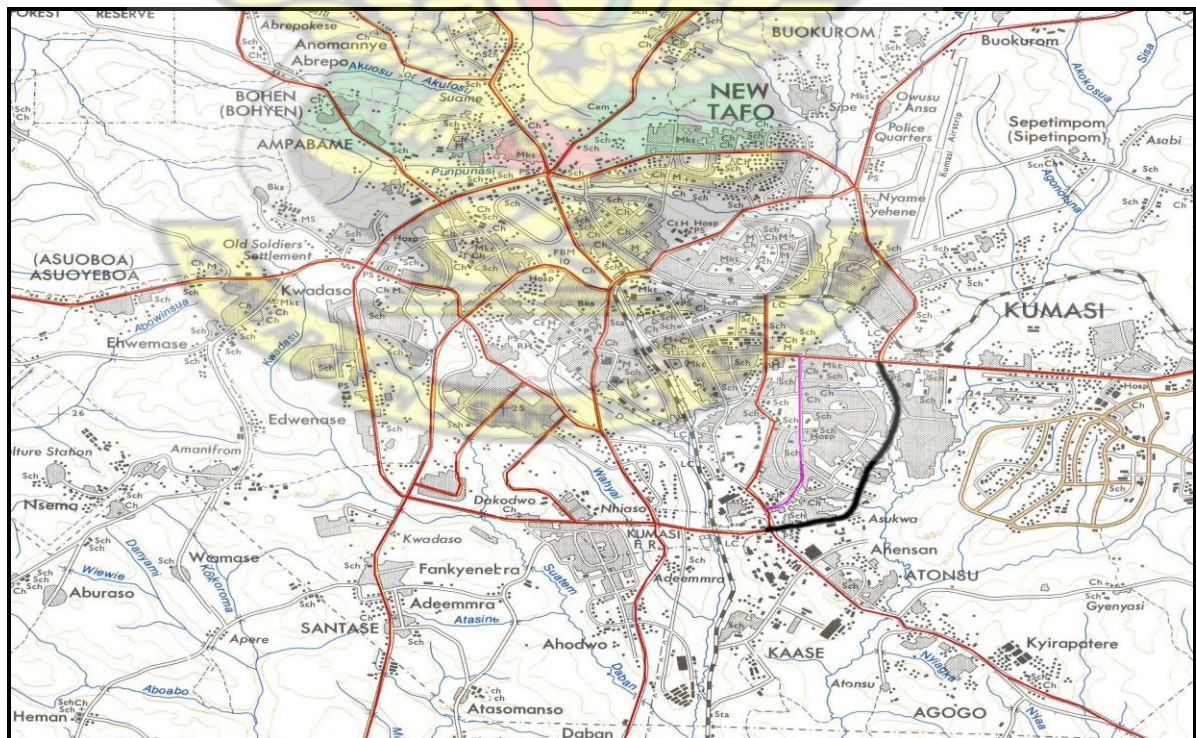
Though the Metropolitan Roads department is aware of these problems, they are constrained by the fact that internal public transport is privately owned. They have no control over the maintenance and time scheduling of buses and taxis. What they seek to do is to institute a new public transport system that will convey larger number of people and have a distinctive schedule that passengers can go by. The implementation of such system will require that private transport owners sell off their vehicles as scrap metals and take up the new public transport, regulated by the metropolitan Roads department. The implication of the new system will mean some drivers will have to look for alternative occupations since the intervention will reduce the number of privately own vehicles to a large extent.

Another intervention that has been proposed and currently under research is the use of alternative modes of transport referred to as Non-Motorized Transport (NMT) such as cycling. This mode of transport requires less expensive infrastructure and limited maintenance. It has however received unfavourable comments due to the disadvantages

that go with it. The weather conditions in this part of the world will mean that people will sweat a lot by using bicycles and such discomfort is unpleasant. Thus the problem of congestion and traffic jams continues to remain a dilemma to city authorities.

The department is currently undertaking a transport plan which is a medium to long term plan that will look at the road network, nature of road conditions and ultimately seeks to improve accessibility in Kumasi and six adjoining districts. In that plan, there is a provision to construct an outer ring road to provide alternative routes for heavy trucks moving through the city to other parts of the country. The construction of the outer ring road is intended to ease traffic in the city as it will free the roads of all traffic that is not destined for the city. The previous transport plan proposed the construction of the Asafo Interchange, the Sofoline Interchange, the construction of the Angloga to Asokwa road to complete the inner ring road and the expansion of the lake road. Apart from the Asafo Interchange that has been completed, all other projects mentioned are still under construction, the completion of which will facilitate easy movement in those areas.

Figure 4.1: Settlement Structure and Road Map of Kumasi Metropolitan Area



(Source: Town and Country Planning Department, 2010)

4.8.4 Controlling the Formation of Slums

The issue of slum is considered as an emerging phenomenon in developing countries like Ghana. The situation in Ghana is mainly caused by Northern to Southern Drift, the income levels of migrants and the housing deficits in the cities. Migration to Kumasi from the north is on daily basis, some of these migrants are temporary while others become permanent. Actually, most of them leave their home villages with the intention of looking for greener pastures and returning but this dream often becomes a mirage as these greener pastures do not exist especially for those with no employable skills. The lack of skills makes it difficult for these migrants to be engaged in any meaningful employment to even provide a minimum subsistence not to talk of saving for the future. They are unable to afford decent housing thereby resorting to sleeping on the street, on pavements and temporary structures. They do this by encroaching on public open spaces and also private properties without legal tenure. They are often without basic facilities such as potable water, electricity, safe sanitation and generally in an environment represented by squalor. Some slum communities in Kumasi include Sabon Zongo, Ayigya Zongo, Asawase-A,B,C,D, and G Lines, Suame Kotoko (Zongo), Dakwadwom and Anloga. The picture below shows a section of a slum community in the city.

Plate 4.1: Slum Situation in Kumasi



(Source: Kumasi Metropolitan Planning Department, 2010)

City authorities are always taken by surprise at the spring up of such slums, clearing them is a more difficult and unpleasant task as several agents come to play. What authorities do in conjunction with some NGOs is to provide certain facilities to some of these communities especially those with legal tenure. The provision of the facilities is not done on a regular basis but rather sporadically, often on political basis. Some communities have benefited from the provision of electricity, boreholes and security. There has also been the construction of primary and secondary drains, Improvement of the road network system for example in Ayigya, construction of public toilets and urinals and construction of new and improvements of old refuse transfer sites in the industrial wood village and markets. Slums in the city have also seen the construction of health facilities and schools to enhance their livelihoods. Although the provision of these facilities improves the living conditions of slum dwellers, it at the same time encourages the formation of new ones.

Other livelihood support programmes to slum communities include granting of permit to private investors to establish L.P.Gas stations and kerosene selling points and also sites have been designated for charcoal burning (using the waste wood from the timber firms). These are the non-physical interventions aimed at improving the lives of slum dwellers.

Clearing of slums is highly politicized thus politicians lack the will to clear them as it greatly affects their chances of winning votes to keep them in power.

Looking at the many problems that city authorities face daily with growth management and their inability to come out with lasting solutions to these problems, it was evident that the sources of these problems go beyond the boundaries of the city. Some of these problems are started several miles away from the city thus their solution will be effective if they are tackled from the source. Thus it is important to find out what driving forces push people into the city in the day and again pull them away in the night. Or rather what attracted them into the city and repel them later from the city. Three peripheral towns have been analyzed in terms of their motivation factors that pull them into the city as well what makes them live in their towns as well as their capacity to receive and manage the spillovers from the city in subsequent sections.

4.9 Local Economic Development Capacity of Ejisu

4.9.1 Size of the Economy in Ejisu

Ejisu is the capital of the Ejisu-Juaben municipality in the Ashanti Region. It is about 30 minutes drive from Kumasi. The estimated population for the year 2010 is 14016 with an intercensal growth rate of 2.5 percent. Out of the total male population employed, males constitute about 46.42 percent whilst females constitute 53.57 percent. Likewise, out of the total unemployed population, 39.58 percent are males whilst 60.41 percent are females. The information gathered shows that there is relatively high female unemployment even though the number of females employed supersedes males employed in Ejisu.

4.9.2 Sectors of the Economy in Ejisu

The agriculture sector employs 10.3 percent of the working class but contributes 33 percent to household incomes. Industry employs only 7.1 percent of the working class and contributes 21 percent while commerce and service employ 82.5 percent of the working class and contribute 46 percent to household income. This clearly indicates that the agriculture sector has lost its place as the moving sector to commerce and service. The agriculture sector is made up of 90 percent food crop farmers and 10 percent animal husbandry. At the expense of the industrial sector, commerce and service are growing rapidly in these peripheral centres thereby serving as marketing centres for other economies.

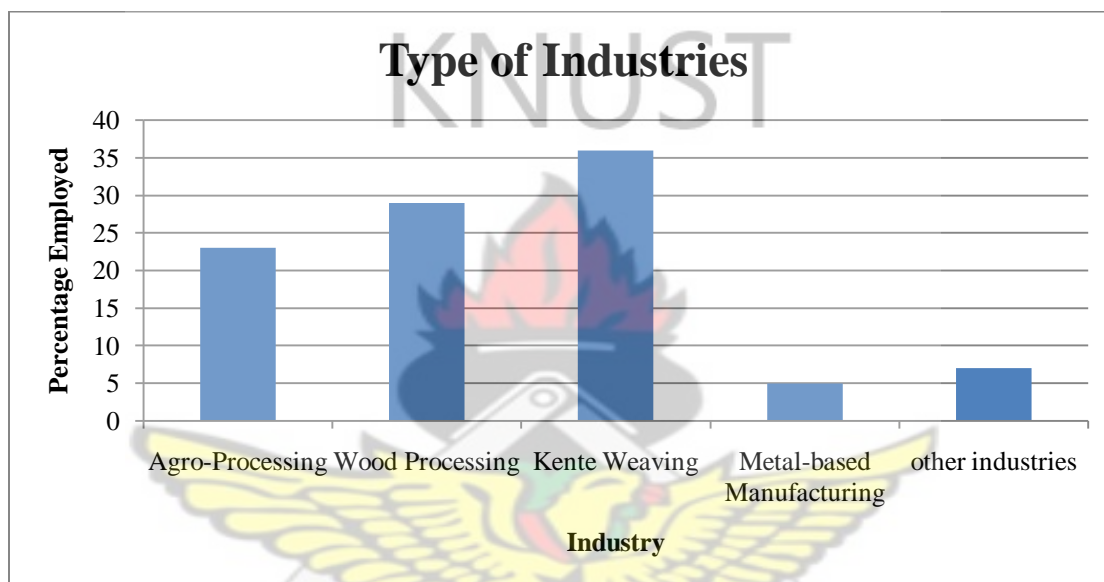
Table 4.1: Employment by Sectors in Ejisu

Sector	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture	16	10.3
Industrial	11	7.1
Commerce and Service	128	82.5
Total	155	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

This situation is a clear picture of what is pertaining in Ghana and other developing countries whereby there is importation and retailing of manufactured goods from developed economies while stifling young local industries. This is evident in the over 80 percent of firms in retailing and 5 percent in wholesaling of manufactured and agriculture produce and 15 percent in petty trading.

Figure 4.2: Types of Industries in Ejisu



Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

Figure 4.2 shows that the industrial sector consists of 23 percent agro-processing, 29 percent wood processing, 36 percent Kente weaving, 5 percent metal based manufacturing and 7 percent other industries. With the average industry employing less than twenty workers, it is not surprising that a high percentage of the labour force is into non-industrial activities. The situation can be explained by the low access to credit and capital by industrialists.

Table 4.2 Type of Economic Activity Engaged in and Place of Work

		Place of Work				Total	%
		In the Town	%	Outside the Town	%		
Type of Economic Activity	Agriculture	10	6.4	6	3.9	16	10.3
	Industrial	4	2.6	7	4.5	11	7.1
	Commerce	51	32.9	6	3.9	57	36.8
	Service	60	38.7	11	7.1	71	45.8
Total		125	80.6	30	19.4	155	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

The study revealed that 80.6 percent of all economic activities take place within the town. This is encouraging as investments in the town are likely to be welcomed. However, 63.6 percent of industrial activities undertaken by respondents happen outside Ejisu while the remaining 36.4 percent take place within Ejisu. Table 4.2 shows that majority of commerce takes place within the town rather than outside. This is explained by the weekly market where all kinds of agriculture produce are brought from surrounding rural areas and major manufactured goods sent from Kumasi to be sold. Thus Ejisu serves as a net exporter of agriculture produce and a net importer of manufactured goods. Having a relatively large proportion of respondents working in the town is quiet encouraging and it presents a great asset worthy of exploitation for future development.

Table 4.3 reveals that only respondents who are indigenes of Ejisu engaged in some agricultural activities whilst all those engaged in the industrial sector are non indigenes of Ejisu. It is interesting to note that both indigenes and non indigenes are mostly engaged in commerce and service. About 52.2 percent of non indigenes are in the commerce and service sector while 30.3 percent of indigenes are employed in the same sector. In all, about 82.6 percent of respondents are engaged in commerce and service.

Table 4.3 Origin of respondents and Type of Economic Activity Engaged in

	Type of Economic Activity Engaged In						Total	%
	Agriculture		Industrial		Commerce and Service			
	Abs.	%	Abs.	%	Abs.	%		
Indigenes	16	10.3	0	0.0	47	30.3	63	40.6
Non indigenes	0	0.0	11	7.1	81	52.2	92	59.3
Total	16	10.3	11	7.1	128	82.6	155	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

Agriculture production in the town is losing its importance as lands are being rapidly converted to residential and commercial uses. Due to the proximity to Kumasi, Ejisu easily becomes a dormitory town and considered often as a branch of Kumasi. Thus non indigenes are mostly interested in economic activities that do not require a lot of land space as rent is increasingly becoming expensive in the town as the city expands.

4.9.3 Financial Resources in Ejisu

About 67 percent of industrialists' start-up capital is from personal savings whilst only 5.8 percent are credits from financial institutions. However, 35 percent of the service sector has access to credit. These include banking services, hospitality and tourism and communication services. These have access to credit because they constitute a lower risk to financial institutions in terms of payment of loans and their interests. This cannot be said about the agriculture and the manufacturing sectors. The agriculture sector is a high risk area for most financial institutions because of the sector in Ghana basically relies on the natural elements and so any change in the climatic pattern will bring about losses which implies that farmers will not be able to pay back their loans and their interests. Likewise the industrial sector usually requires huge capital base to start-up and financial institutions are skeptical about their successes and their ability to pay back loans. Thus there is little opportunity for industrial development as well as large scale agriculture and agro-processing industries in the town.

4.9.4 Size of the Informal Economy in Ejisu

The informal economy is the largest in the town. This is because the entire agriculture sector is in the informal sector, again, 60 percent of the service sector and 85 percent of small scale industries are in the informal economy. The large size of the informal economy presents a big challenge in gathering information about the local economy. This is because activities that are undertaken are not documented. Again book keeping is poor thus business men are not able to keep track of their revenue and expenditure. Growth or decline of businesses is difficult to measure making it extra difficult for financial institutions to trust individual small and medium scale enterprises with credit.

4.9.5 Infrastructure

Ejisu can boast of about 163 km of tarred roads and about 35 percent of roads in good conditions. The remaining 65 percent of the roads range between fair and poor conditions. There is a host of educational infrastructure and facilities from basic education to tertiary level. These are both government owned and privately owned facilities. The town is connected to the national grid thus; there is constant supply of electricity.

4.9.6 Market

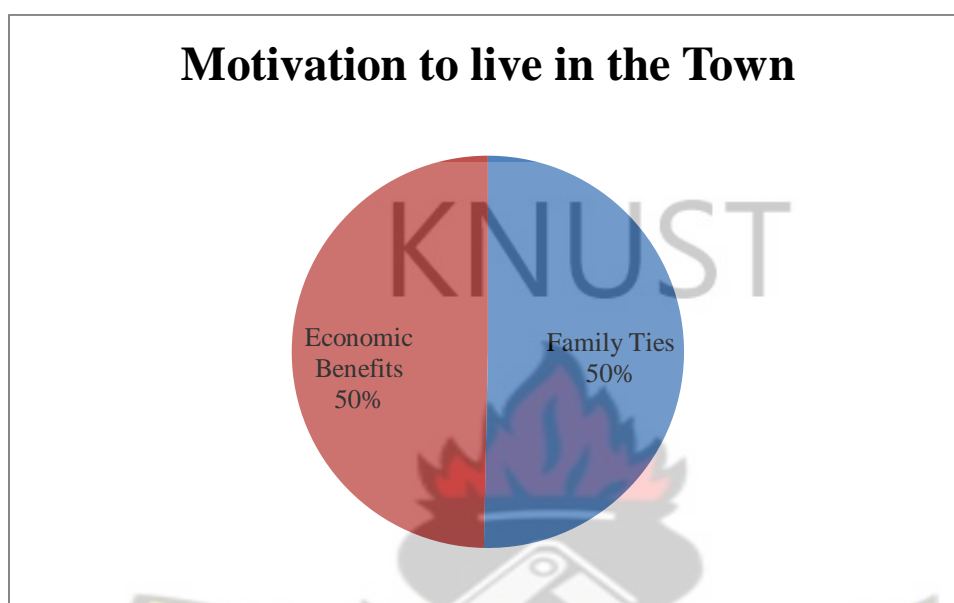
As a commercial centre, there is a market day every Sunday where both agriculture produce and manufactures goods are brought from various place to sell. Most agriculture produce are from surrounding settlements, however due to the poor nature of roads leading to these areas, the cost of conveying the goods to the market is high thereby they are transferred to the items to be sold. The results are that, things in the market are expensive making commuting to Kumasi more attractive.

4.10 Relationship between Kumasi and Ejisu

In ascertaining why people will like to live and work in Ejisu, it was important to know what motivates them to live in the town. Nearly half of the people lived in the town due to family ties, that is, either because they were born and bred in Ejisu or they come from the town. The other half of respondents claimed that they lived there for economic

reasons. Some of them were there because of lower rent charges compared to that of Kumasi and also because they engaged in one economic activity or the other.

Figure 4.3: Motivation to Live and Work in Peripheral District Centres



Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

In determining why people live in Ejisu it was important to find out how many natives lived there for what reasons. Interestingly, 47.6 percent of natives lived in the town because it is their hometown and they had no alternatives to leave to. Again, 33.7 percent of non indigenes lived in the town because of family ties, these include people who have been married to natives and brought to the town and others who are married to none native but their spouses or parents live in the town. Although these people are not directly natives of Ejisu, they hold strong ties to the town.

In Table 4.4, it is evident that a considerable proportion of non natives that is 39.4 percent live in Ejisu for economic benefits. These benefits range from the ownership and operation of businesses to being in formal employment. In all, 49.7 percent of respondents live in the town for economic benefits while 50.3 percent reside in the town because it is their hometown or have some family ties with the people. It is surprising to note that only 10.3 percent of respondents who are natives of the town still live in the

town because they have some economic attachments to the town. Ejisu can be said to host more non indigenes than indigenes and this can be attributed to its proximity to Kumasi.

Table 4.4: Origin and Motivation to Live in the Town

	Motivation to live in the Town				Total	%
	Family Ties	%	Economic Benefits	%		
Indigenes	47	30.3	16	10.3	63	40.6
Non Indigenes	31	20.0	61	39.4	92	59.4
Total	78	50.3	77	49.7	155	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

4.10.1 Motivation to Work or Live in the City

Even though Ejisu is very close to Kumasi, 40 percent of the population seldom goes to Kumasi. Another 36.1 percent visit the city on weekly basis and the remaining 23.9 percent commute on a daily basis. About 49.7 percent of commuters do so for economic reasons while the remaining 50.3 percent do so for social reasons. The latter include attending funerals and visiting relatives and a substantial number of people assessing social services such as schools and hospitals. Others live in Kumasi and rather visit Ejisu for economic reasons. Thus there is always a back and forth movement of people between Ejisu and Kumasi.

Table 4.5 Motivation to Live in the Town and Frequency of Movement to Kumasi

		Frequency of movement to Kumasi in Percentage			Total
		Daily	Weekly	Seldom	
Motivation to live in the Town	Family Ties	7.1	22.6	20.6	50.3
	Economic Benefits	16.8	13.5	19.4	49.7
Total		23.9	36.1	40.0	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

Those who travel to Kumasi on weekly basis as well as others who seldom do so for economic reasons are mostly business owners who require stocking their shops. It is worth noting that there is a large number of people who do not have specific cut out times they visit the city. As some visit the city on yearly intervals, others travel between Kumasi and Ejisu several times in a day to execute one task or the other. It is quite difficult categorizing these people into specific time schedules. Table 4.5 gives the breakdown of the frequency and reason for movement between Ejisu and Kumasi.

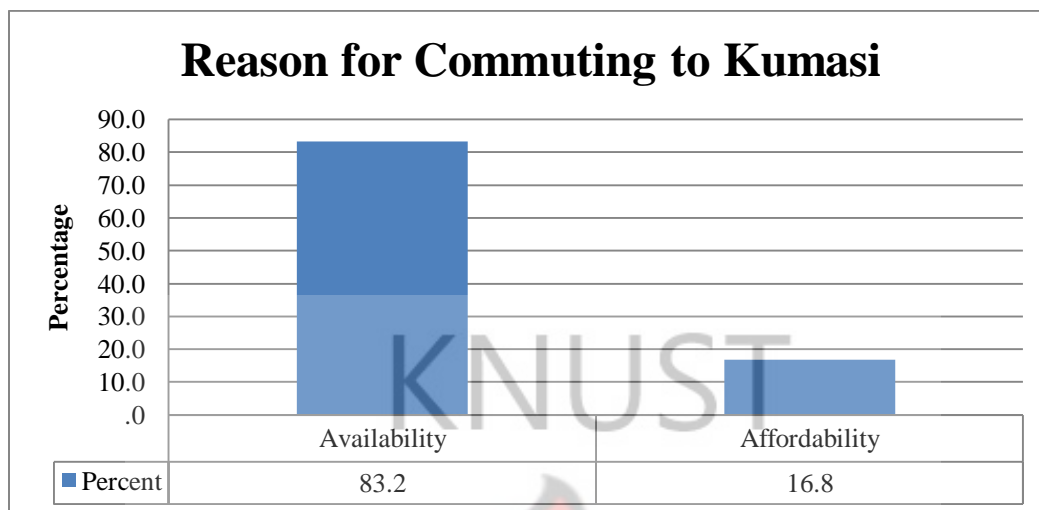
About 69.7 percent of respondent knew of alternative towns to Kumasi where they could access goods and services while the remaining 30.3 percent had no alternative towns where they could access facilities. A further analysis revealed that although majority of respondents had alternatives to Kumasi, they still accessed their services in Kumasi because of price differentials between Kumasi and their alternative.

Table 4.6 Alternative Town to Access Services and Reason for Preference

Reason for Preference to Access Services from Kumasi in Percentage					Total
	Price Differentials	Convenience	Various Options	Prestige	
Alternative Town	20.0	40.0	3.2	6.5	69.7
No Alternative Town	20.6	0.0	9.7	0.0	30.3
Total	40.6	40.0	12.9	6.5	100.0

Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

About 20.0 percent of respondents attested to this fact while 40.0 percent of them indicated that it was more convenient to access the services in Kumasi than elsewhere. About 89.7 percent of respondents would prefer to access the services in the town without having to travel to Kumasi while 10.3 percent maintained that they would continue to commute to Kumasi even if they could make use of the service in Ejisu. The discussion shows that people in Ejisu are willing to access facilities and services within their local area if they are available and accessible financially and physically and no price differentials between commodities in the city and those in Ejisu.

Figure 4.4: Reason for Commuting to Kumasi

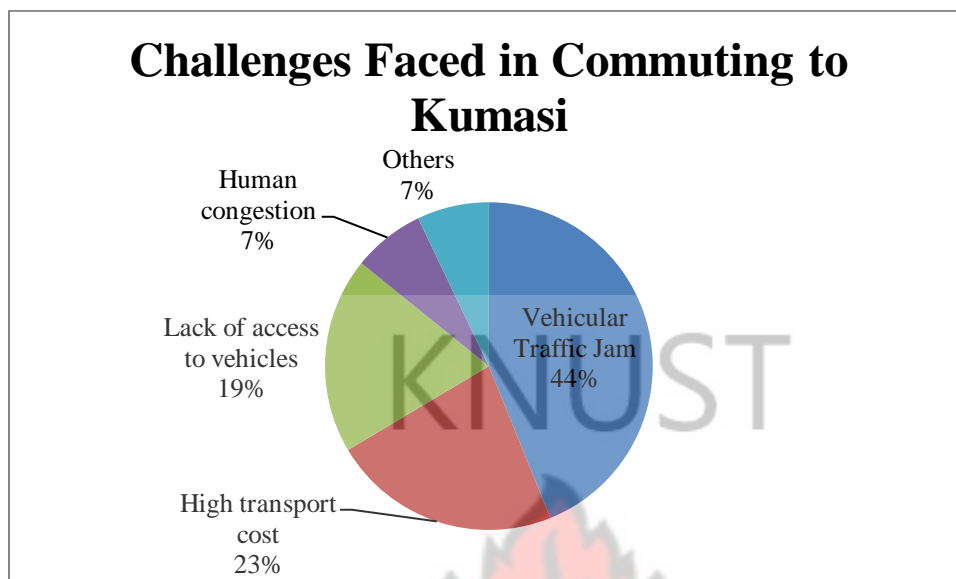
Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

Availability of goods and services to be accessed accounted for 83.2 percent of respondents' reasons for frequent movement between Kumasi and Ejisu. About 16.8 percent cited affordability of goods in Kumasi as compared to prices of the same commodities in the town. The issue of Kumasi being a one stop shopping center for commodities was not a concern for any of the respondents. The picture painted indicates that the concept of range is very much at work between the two settlements. The availability of higher order services and facilities in Kumasi meant that, Ejisu falls within the functional region of some facilities and services in Kumasi. It therefore becomes inevitable to travel to Kumasi to access these facilities.

4.10.2 Challenges Faced by Commuters

The survey revealed that about 44 percent of respondents complained of vehicular traffic. They spend more time on the road compared to what they would have without vehicular traffic and inhale fumes from the exhaust of other vehicles. The effects of these on the health of passengers especially commuters are often down played. However, serious problems are created on the respiratory organs of commuters coupled with stress in their bodies which cannot be measured.

Figure 4.5: Challenges Faced in Commuting to Kumasi



Source: Ejisu Field Survey, 2011

Challenges people face in commuting to Kumasi as presented in Figure 4.5 include high transport fares and lack of access to vehicles. These problems take a different toll on Mondays. This is because on Mondays, public transport operators refuse to run the full distance but rather convey people and goods on trip segmentation so the passenger ends up twice or thrice the normal fare. As vehicular traffic increases on the road, more vehicles are delayed thus it takes a longer time to travel to Ejisu and re-load. This explains why it is difficult to get access to vehicles on Mondays which otherwise would not have been a problem.

The strategies people use to overcome the hustle of struggling to board a vehicle or spending long hours waiting for vehicles especially from the city centre to the town include avoiding traveling on Mondays and others choose leave late in the morning and return early. Those who suffer the worst are people in formal employment who work with fixed schedules.

The analysis revealed that Ejisu has land available to accommodate physical growth but has not developed its resources to attract growth in itself. The town has been dependent on Kumasi and has failed to develop its natural resources for industrial purposes.

However, it offers relatively cheaper rent to people as compared to Kumasi and with its proximity to Kumasi, commuting becomes an easy option to choose. Labour cost in Ejisu is similar to that of the city and so does not offer any advantage over labour in Kumasi. Thus considering differences in rent charges and similar labour cost between Ejisu and Kumasi, it becomes more attractive to live in Ejisu and commute to Kumasi.

4.11 Local Economic Development Capacity of New Offinso

4.11.1 Size of the Economy

New Offinso is the capital of Offinso South Municipality, located about an hour drive and some 20 kilometers from Kumasi. The 2000 population census put the population of the town at 36,190 with a growth rate of 3.5 percent. It is the largest community in the municipality seconded by Abofuor with a population of 11,177.

4.11.2 Sectors of the Economy in Offinso

About 48 percent of the sample population is employed in the Agriculture sector while 21.8 percent and 23.1 percent are employed in the commerce and service sectors respectively. The industrial sector employs just 6.4 percent of the labour force and these are mostly small scale industries making use of local raw materials such as wood treatment, saw mills, oil palm processing and ‘pito’ brewing. Table 4.7 gives a representation of the employment by different sectors of the population sampled. Agriculture contributes about 75 percent to household incomes comprising both food crops and livestock.

Table 4.7 Employment by Sectors in Offinso

Economic Activity	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture	76	48.7
Industrial	10	6.4
Commerce	34	21.8
Service	36	23.1
Total	156	100.0

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

Commerce is undertaken both between smaller and larger settlements. Larger settlements such as Kumasi and Accra serve as supply centres for manufactured and processed commodities while smaller settlements serve as demand centres for these commodities. Inversely, agriculture produce are mostly demanded by the larger settlements as these are produced in and around New Offinso. Prominent among major market centres is the Abofuor Market noted for the marketing of maize, plantain, yams and cassava.

About 19.9 percent of employment in the commerce and service sector is located within the town while the remaining 25 percent are engaged outside the town. Despite the number of commercial workers located within the town they depend on Kumasi for the supply of commodities that are sold. About 35.9 percent of agriculture work takes place within the town and 3.8 percent of all industrial activities also take place within New Offinso. The picture indicates that the town is largely agrarian with 80.8 percent of the population being indigenes of the land. Table 4.8 gives a picture of the type of economic activities undertaken within and outside the town.

Table: 4.8 Type of Economic Activity Engaged in and Place of work

Type of Economic Activity Engaged In		Place of Work in Percentages				Total	%
		In the Town	%	Outside the Town	%		
	Commerce and Service	31	19.9	39	25.0	70	44.9
	Industrial	6	3.8	4	2.6	10	6.4
	Agriculture	56	35.9	20	12.8	76	48.7
Total		93	59.6	63	40.4	156	100.0

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

In Table 4.9, cross tabulation of the origin and type of economic activity undertaken by indigenes shows that about 44.2 percent of indigenes are employed in the agriculture sector; this is because land is owned by families and access to land for farming is easier by indigenes compared to foreigners.

The land tenure system operational in the town and most parts of the country does not allow ownership of large tracts of land. This is because parcels of land are shared among siblings and subsequently by children thus individuals continue to possess smaller parcels depending on how many children exist in the family. This makes ownership and development of land by non indigenes difficult explaining why no foreigner is involved in industrial activities.

Table 4.9 Origin of Respondents and Type of Economic Activity Engaged In

	Type of Economic Activity								Total	
	Service		Industrial		Commerce		Agriculture			
		%		%		%		%		%
Indigenes	18	11.5	10	6.4	29	18.6	69	44.2	126	80.8
Non Indigenes	18	11.5	0	0.0	5	3.2	7	4.5	30	19.2
Total	36	23.0	10	6.4	34	21.8	76	48.7	156	100.0

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

4.11.3 Financial Resources in Offinso

Another factor contributing to the absence of foreign investment in the town is the lack of financial assistance in the form of credit in the town. Although there is a commercial bank and one rural bank in the town, access to credit is very scarce and that does not promote investment.

4.11.4 Size of the Informal Economy in Offinso

The informal sector is bigger and contributes largely to household incomes than the formal sector. The informal sector includes the whole of the agriculture, commerce and industrial sectors and 83.3 percent of the service sector. That makes the formal sector just 16.7 percent of the entire economy. The large sector of the informal economy makes it difficult access wealth in the town. This is because the informal sector is characterized by poor book keeping and records of revenue and expenditure patterns. Capital and profit are not separated thus business men are unable to ascertain whether they make profit or loss and thus make it difficult to assess credit in an already credit scarce market. The inability

of small and medium scale enterprise owners to keep records make them high risk clients for any financial institution to give credit.

4.11.5 Natural Resources in Offinso

New Offinso has favourable climatic conditions that promote agriculture production including rainfall and temperature. Coupled with fertile soil, agriculture thrives well in the area. Despite these natural conditions, agriculture's contribution to household incomes is low and primitive methods are still used for production. The vegetation in the town and its resource area is that moist semi-deciduous forest with tree species such as Wawa, Cedar, Odum, Ofram, Emire and others. The trees provide the town with revenue from timber firms and saw millers.

Among the many natural resources in the town are large deposits of sand and clay for winning on commercial basis and granite rocks also serving as potential for quarrying. These resources can be tapped for major industry that could support agriculture production and contribute hugely to household incomes. However, quarrying is done on small-scale using traditional and simple tools. Thus its contribution to household incomes is minimal.

4.11.6 Infrastructure

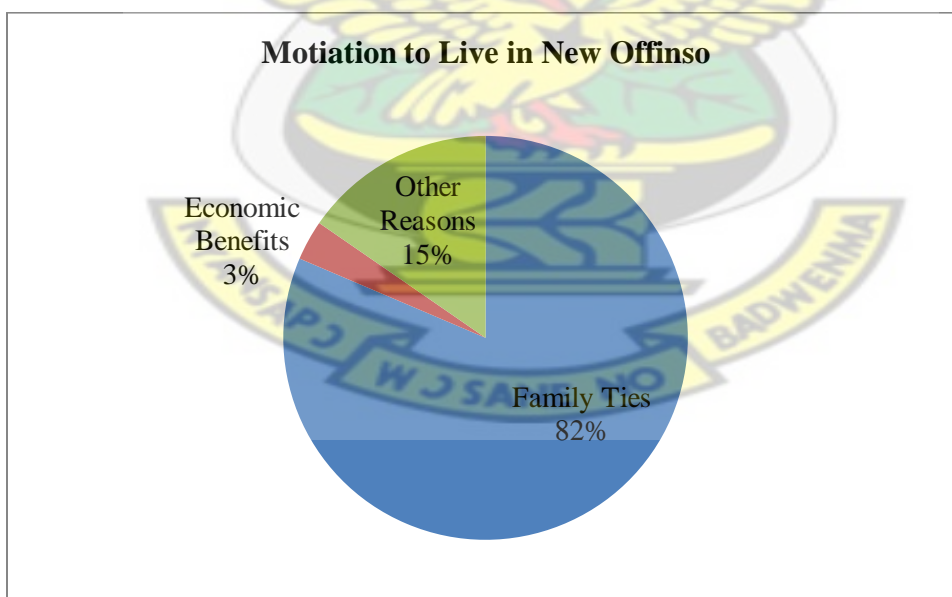
New Offinso is endowed with good roads and located on the major highway linking Kumasi to the Northern part of the country. It effectively links smaller settlements with feeder roads such as Abofour, Kokote and Anyinasosu. Telecommunication facilities are privately owned by companies outside the town. Mobile communication companies have provided employment to many people in addition to improving communication in the town. These have come as an addition to the only post office in the town serving the town and its environs. There also exists a telephone exchange in the town with limited fixed lines coverage. The town is connected to the national electricity grid thus electricity supply in the whole of New Offinso.

4.12 Relationship between Kumasi and New Offinso

4.12.1 Motivation to Live and Work in Offinso

In order to assess how Offinso can be integrated in the growth and management of Kumasi, it is important to ascertain why people live in Offinso and the possible reasons why they are likely to stay to support any interventions to be made in the town. From the survey, it was realized that about 83 percent of the population live in Offinso due to family ties. Majority of the people live in Offinso because it is their hometown and as such they consider it to be their home. Others do not have alternatives elsewhere and thus think it convenient to live in the town. Just about 3 percent of respondents live in the town for economic reasons and 15 percent of respondents live in New Offinso for other reasons aside Family and economic reasons. The other reasons include schooling and religious ties. Others live there as a dormitory town so they could have access to relatively cheaper accommodation to Kumasi and still be able to attend to their businesses in the city.

Figure 4.6 Motivation to live in Offinso



Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

Figure 4.6 and Table 4.10 gives the picture in a clearer sense where 113 respondents making 89.7 percent indigenes live in New Offinso just because they were born and bred there. Only 0.8 percent of respondents who are indigenes continue to live there because they derive some economic benefits from the town.

The remaining 9.5 percent who live in the town for other reasons include their inability to find alternative places to migrate to or their inability to gather enough resources to relocate is critical for consideration as these people can easily migrate out of the town and very likely to end up in Kumasi. About 13.3 percent of non indigene respondents live in the town because they derive some economic benefits from it. These are mostly people who are formal employees and have moved into the town by transfers and small-scale service providers who find reasonable market in the town for their services.

Table 4.10 Origin of Respondents and Motivation to live in New Offinso

	Motivation to live in the Town						
	Family Ties	%	Economic Benefits	%	Other Reasons	%	Total
Indigenes	113	72.4	1	0.6	12	7.7	126
Non Indigenes	14	9.0	4	2.6	12	7.7	30
Total	127	81.4	5	3.2	24	15.4	156

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

In Table 4.11, it becomes evident that all respondents who are living in Offinso for other reasons apart from family ties and economic benefits go to Kumasi on a daily basis. It is interesting to note that out of indigenes that live in Offinso, a majority of 66.1 percent commute to Kumasi daily while about 26.0 percent of them visit the city on weekly basis. This clearly shows that Offinso depends on Kumasi for several economic and social facilities and commuting is a daily routine.

4.12.2 Motivation to Live in the City

About 21.2 percent of respondents who visit the city for economic reasons visit on weekly basis. They consist of retailers who purchase manufactured goods such as clothes, provisions, farm implements, footwear, textiles and utensils among others for resale in

the town. They also include service providers such as dressmakers, hairdressers and repairers who need to purchase accessories and materials for their work. The survey revealed that most people who visit the city daily do so to shop mostly for household items, and contribute to the human congestion and vehicular traffic jams in the city.

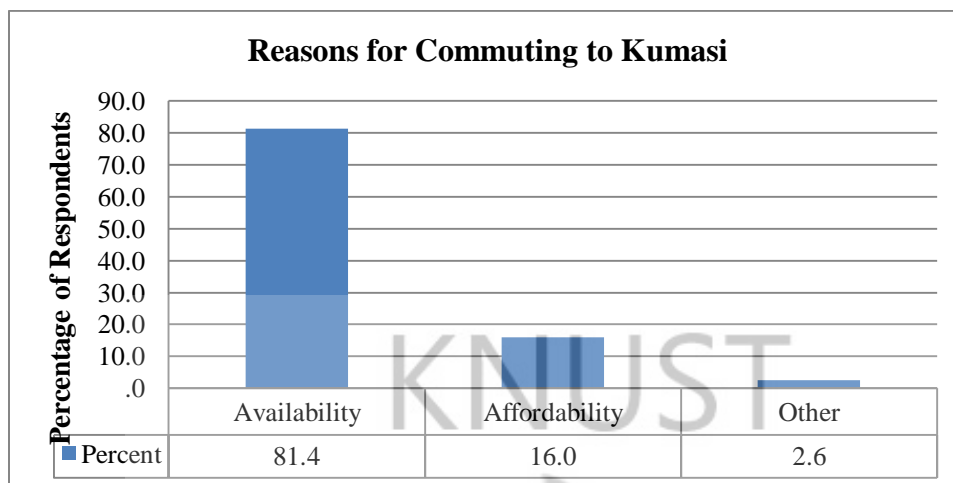
Table 4.11 Motivation to live in Offinso and Frequency of Movement to Kumasi

Motivation To live in		Frequency of movement to Kumasi			Total
		Daily	Weekly	Seldom	
New Offinso	Family Ties	53.8	21.2	6.4	81.4
	Economic	0.0	2.6	0.6	3.2
	Other Reasons	24	0.0	0.0	15.4
Total		69.2	23.8	7.0	100.0

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

In all, 69.2 percent of respondents commute to Kumasi on a daily basis from Offinso. As shown in Figure 4.7, 81.4 percent of respondents asserted that they commute to Kumasi because goods and services being accessed are only available in Kumasi while 16 percent revealed that what they seek to access are relatively cheaper in Kumasi compared to New Offinso even though they are available there. None of the respondent chose difference in quality of goods and services between Kumasi and New Offinso as a reason to commute; they were basically a matter of availability and affordability.

Following these assertions 67.9 percent respondents revealed that they had alternative towns to access the goods and services they commute to Kumasi to access. About 32.1 percent of respondents on the other hand indicated that they had no other alternative to access goods and services apart from Kumasi.

Figure 4.7 Reasons for Commuting to Kumasi

Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

According to Table 4.12, about 67.9 percent of respondents who knew of alternative places to Kumasi that they could access the goods and services they commute to Kumasi for, cited price differentials of commodities in these two place as a reason for commuting to Kumasi even though what they seek could be assessed easily and in a shorter distance from New Offinso. In addition to that 43.6 percent also indicated that it is convenient to access goods and services in Kumasi even though they are aware of an alternative closer to them. The reasons given are that Kumasi provides a one stop shopping centre for several commodities and relatively easier to commute in terms of getting a vehicle to convey the goods purchased. It also gave them opportunity to see new things and do other activities which otherwise they would be unable to do at one place. Less than one 1 percent of respondents however saw the availability of several options of goods and services to choose from as the only reason to commute to Kumasi.

Again, 68 percent of respondents who did not have alternative towns to Kumasi for their goods and services also indicated that even if there were, their prices would not be the same and so would still travel to Kumasi to access those commodities.

Table 4.12 Alternative Town to Access Services and Reason for Preference to Access Services from Kumasi

	Reason for Preference to Access Services from Kumasi			Total
	Price Differentials	Convenience	Various Options	
Alternative Town	34.0	33.3	0.6	67.9
No Alternative Town	21.8	10.3	0.0	32.1
Total	55.8	43.6	0.6	100.0

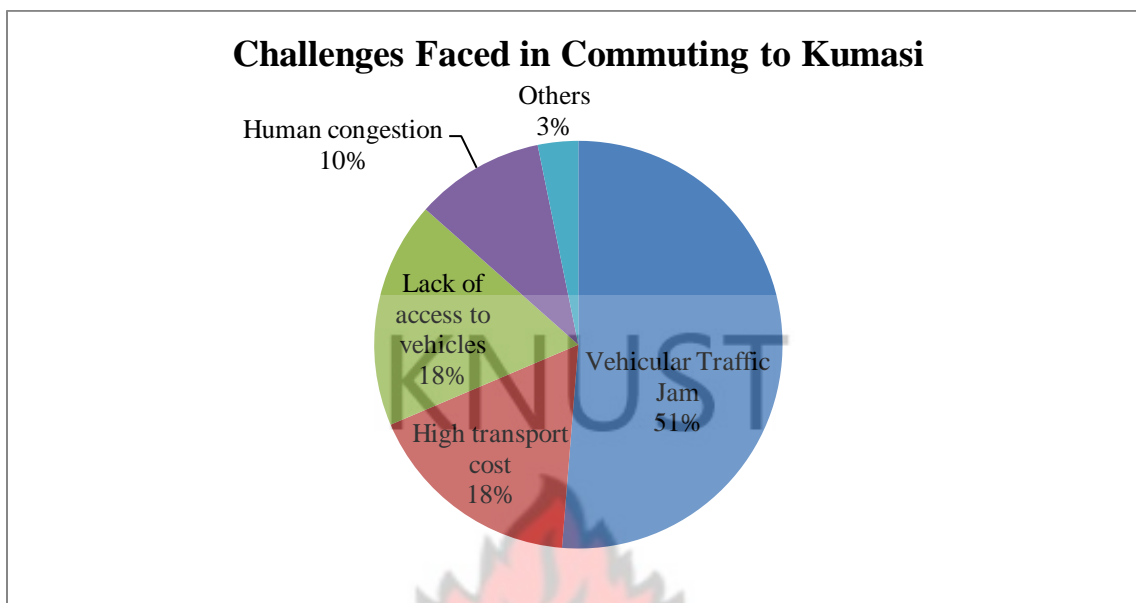
Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

It is interesting to note that 66 percent of respondents in New Offinso would prefer accessing goods and services in their town without having to go to Kumasi. The remaining 34 percent however indicated their non-preference to access commodities in their town even if the prices were the same. The reason is that the city is bigger as they would always find new things and wider variety.

4.12.3 Challenges in Commuting to Kumasi

Although 51 percent of respondents cited Vehicular traffic jam as a challenge in commuting as shown in Figure 4.8, it still does not deter them from commuting. The situating is exceptionally difficult on Mondays and Fridays. When there are huge traffic jams, drivers exploit passengers by charging extra fares for the same distance. It accounts for the 18 percent who responded that their major challenge in commuting to the city is high transportation fares. Another 18 percent indicated that it is difficult to get access to vehicles to the city.

Figure 4.8 Challenges Faced in Commuting to Kumasi



Source: Offinso Field Survey, 2011

The situation can be said about Mondays and Fridays but cannot be generalized for other days of the week since the waiting time analysis showed that about 50 percent of respondents spend less than 5 minutes to board a vehicle to the city. In all, 84 percent of respondents spend less than 20 minutes waiting to board a vehicle to Kumasi. However, 16 percent of respondents waited more than 20 minutes before boarding a vehicle to Kumasi. This showed that the city is easily accessible to the town and their linkages strong for social and economic interactions.

Strategies that majority of the population in the informal sector adopt is to travel outside the peak hours especially on Mondays. They are forced to leave New Offinso late and hurriedly go through their activities in the city so they can travel back before the traffic jam begins. Others leave home very early and return late to avoid being caught up in traffic jams for long hours. People in formal employment who need to work according to stipulated schedules are always at the mercy of public transport drivers and traffic jams as they often have limited alternatives as to their time schedules.

4.13 Local Economic Development Capacity of Bekwai

4.13.1 Size of the Economy of Bekwai

The demographic characteristics of Bekwai show that over 48 percent of the population is in the economically active labour force, whilst the 52 percent are classified as inactive. The active labour force include people in the age groups 15 to 64 years while those in the inactive labour force include children below 15 years and the aged population 65 years and above. Out of the percentage of the active labour force, over 33 percent are employed whilst the rest are unemployed.

4.13.2 Sectors of the Economy in Bekwai

The study revealed that the dominant occupation in Bekwai is commerce, accounting for 60 percent of respondents followed by Service also accounting for 20 percent of total respondents. The industrial sector accounted for 5.8 percent while 14.2 percent of respondent were in the agriculture sector.

Table 4.13: Type of Economic Activity Engaged In

Sector	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture	22	14.2
Industrial	9	5.8
Commerce and Service	124	80.0
Total	155	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

The distribution of occupation in the various sectors of the economy indicates that there is a lot of movement between the town and other places. The 80 percent respondents engaged in commerce and service suggests that there is a relationship between Bekwai and other communities whether larger or smaller, agrarian or commercial. Trading between settlements is in terms of manufactured goods which are produced outside the community as well as agriculture produce cultivated both within Bekwai and its surrounding rural areas. The town therefore becomes a net exporter of agriculture produce and net importer of manufactured goods. All respondents engaged in industrial activities as well as services undertake their activities within the town while 16.1 percent

of respondent engaged in commerce undertake their activities outside Bekwai as shown by Table 4.14. Respondents engaged in commerce either acquired their goods from outside the town to be sold in the town or sell goods produced in the town outside it. Industrial raw materials are acquired mostly from Kumasi and finished goods are sold in Bekwai.

Table 4.14: Type of Economic Activity Engaged in and Place of Work

Type of Economic Activity Engaged In		Place of Work					
		In the Town	%	Outside the Town	%	Total	%
	Agriculture	15	9.7	7	4.5	22	14.2
	Industrial	9	5.8	0	0.0	9	5.8
	Commerce	68	43.9	25	16.1	93	60.0
	Service	31	20.0	0	0.0	31	20.0
Total		123	79.4	32	20.6	155	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

About 67.1 percent of respondents are indigenes of Bekwai, out of which 14.4 percent are engaged in agriculture activities, 6 percent engaged in industrial activities, 58.7 percent in commerce and the remaining 20.2 percent in service. The small proportion of indigenous people engaged in agriculture is a clear indication that the town has lost its agrarian identity to become a commercial town. The critical issue to be considered is the source of goods that are being sold in the town. The survey revealed that only nine respondents representing 5.8 percent are engaged in industrial activities and these are mainly micro and small scale industries such as footwear makers and operators of corn mills.

These small scale activities are not strong enough to build a local economy for development thus most youth in the town are unemployed accounting for about 67 percent unemployed labour force. There is therefore the need for industrial development to serve as a backbone to the local economy as commerce only succeeds in marketing manufactured goods from other economies both within and outside the country.

Table 4.15: Origin of Respondents and Type of Economic Activity Engaged in

Type of Economic Activity Engaged In									Total	
	Agriculture		Industrial		Commerce		Service			
	Abs.	%	Abs.	%	Abs.	%	Abs.	%	Abs.	%
Indigenes	15	9.7	7	4.5	61	39.4	21	13.5	104	67.1
Non indigenes	7	4.5	2	1.3	32	20.6	10	6.5	51	32.9
Total	22	14.2	9	5.8	93	60.0	31	20	155	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

Table 4.15 shows that the indigenous people dominate in all economic activities thus a strong basis for local investment as development will be spearheaded and engaged by indigenes. This promotes community ownership and commitment. In looking at the size of the economy as well as the possibilities of local economic development, it is important to assess the financial strength and accessibility to the people.

4.13.3 Financial Resources in Bekwai

The people of Bekwai have access to Banking and non banking financial services. Major Banks in the Municipality are Ghana Commercial Bank and Agricultural Development Bank. The services that these banks offer include financial assistance to farmers, workers and businessmen in the Municipality. They facilitate the mobilization of savings as well as the granting of loans to small and medium scale enterprises. These banks offer credits to their customers and handle Government Payrolls. They are also ready to assist in disbursing the Micro-finance component of the Municipality. The informal sector is not denied access to financial service. There are non-banking services such as 'Susu' collectors operational among self employed service providers and the market.

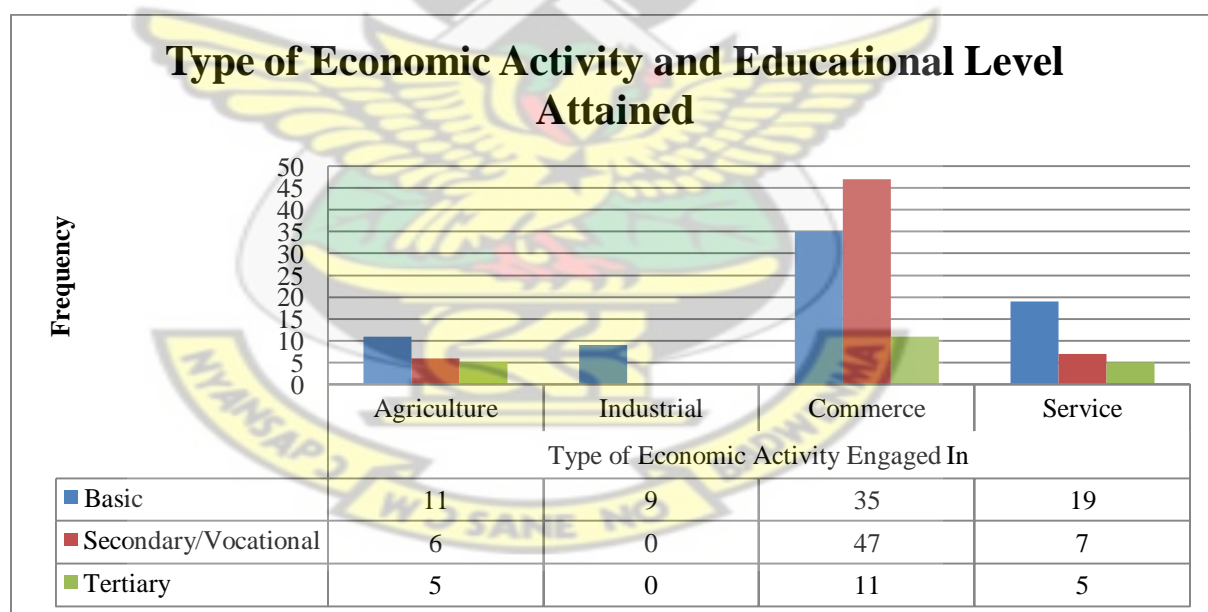
4.13.4 Size of the Informal Economy in Bekwai

The informal sector in Bekwai is far bigger than the formal sector. The situation is not surprising and follows the trend in the country. The informal sector is made up of the whole of the agriculture sector, industrial and commerce sectors. The three sectors make up about 80 percent of the economy in addition to 38.7 percent of the service sector.

Majority of the service sector, that is 61.3 percent are engaged in the formal sector both within and outside the community. Since the informal sector is so large in Bekwai, making up about 80 percent of respondents, interventions at local economic development should be directed at the informal sector concentrating on youth employment and industrial development.

In Figure 4.9, the educational background of respondents indicated that 50 percent of respondents in the agriculture sector had education up to the basic level while all involved in industrial activities had only basic education. In all, 38.7 percent of respondents had secondary or vocational education and only 13.5 percent had some tertiary education. The low level of post basic education in the town implies that any major technological investment will require the importation of skilled labour with the technical know-how to manage the economy.

Figure 4.9: Type of Economic Activity and Educational Level Attained



Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

4.13.5 Infrastructure

As the municipal capital, Bekwai is endowed with substantial infrastructure that can be taken advantage of for development. The infrastructure is both public and privately

owned and include social and economic infrastructure. The public infrastructure available in Bekwai includes the District Hospital, District Tribunal, Public Library, Agriculture Extension, Post Office and Police Station. There are hosts of public and private schools from the basic to the secondary level located in the town. Commercial private infrastructure that enhances economic development in the town includes filling stations, Restaurants, Guest House, Rural and Commercial Banks.

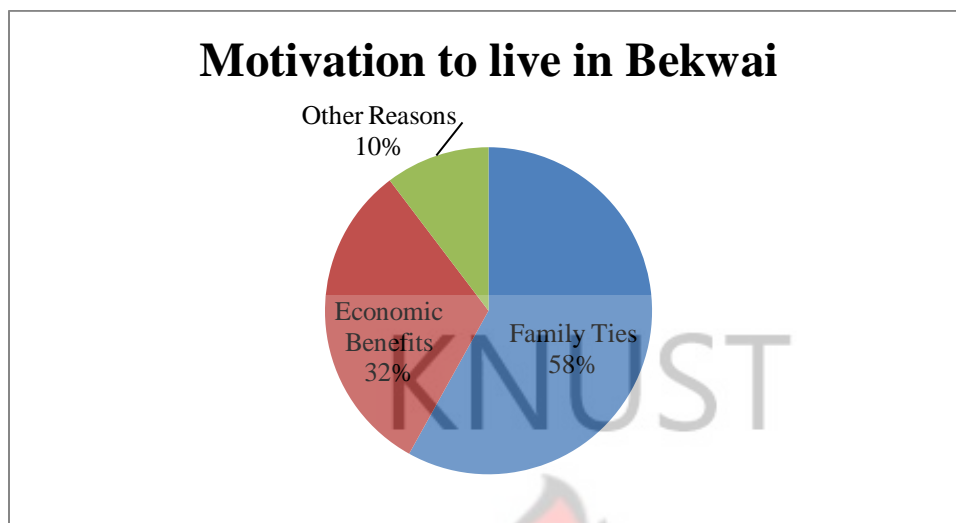
There are both 1st and 2nd class roads running through the town as well as connecting to Kumasi and the central region. The town is connected to the national electricity grid and also covered by pipe borne water. Telecommunication and Information and Communication Technology facilities are also available with a host of people connected by mobile phones. Thus Bekwai can be compared to any modern town in Ghana with major infrastructure to attract investment.

4.14 Relationship between Kumasi and Bekwai

4.14.1 Motivation to Live and Work in Bekwai

Considering the infrastructure base of Bekwai, it is important to understand what motivates people to live in the town. The study revealed as in Figure 4.10 that 58 percent of respondents lived in Bekwai due to family ties. These have been born in the town or married to a native in the town. Another 32 percent of respondents live in the town for economic reasons. They include those who have established some businesses which require them to live there to take care of their businesses. There are some respondents who gave other reasons for living in Bekwai such as those who are accessing educational facilities from nearer smaller settlements.

According to Table 4.16, 67 respondents who make up 64.4 percent of indigenes live in the town because of family ties. These people may not necessarily have a substantial source of livelihood but also do not have any alternative places to live except to live in their home town. There are also 24 percent of respondent natives who live in the town not because it is their hometown but because they have a source of livelihood that is established or linked to the town. Another delicate 11.5 percent of respondents who although are natives live there for other reasons aside family ties or economic benefits.

Figure 4.10: Motivation to Live in Bekwai

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

These people are delicate since they are unstable and prone to migration. They include people who desire to leave the town elsewhere but have not found the means to do so. Some of these people claim not to have alternative places to migrate to or that they have not found enough funds to cater for their needs if they left their hometown.

Table 4.16: An Indigene of the Town and Motivation to Live in the Town

	Motivation to Live in the Town			Total
	Family Ties	Economic Benefits	Other Reasons	
Indigenes	43.2	16.1	7.8	67.1
Non Indigenes	14.8	15.5	2.5	32.9
Total	58.0	31.6	10.3	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

Out of the total non indigenes interviewed, 43.2 percent lived in Bekwai due to family ties. Majority of people in this category are those who have been brought to the town by way of marriage or have followed a relative who is married to someone in the town or to work. Non indigenes who live in the town for economic reasons include those in formal

employment and public establishments who get transferred to work in the town. Others have also come to take advantage of the opportunities in the town especially in the area of commerce and service.

4.14.2 Motivation to Work and Live in the City

Although 43.2 percent of indigenes live in the town because of family ties, 44 respondents out of 72 representing 48.9 percent of respondent commute to Kumasi daily to undertake some activities. They constitute those who own some business or sources of livelihoods in the city but live in Bekwai. These 48.9 percent of people have lower rent charges but high transport expenditure since rent in the town is cheaper than in the city. Thus commuting is an everyday activity for these people. They leave the town between 6:00 am and 10:00 am in the morning and return between 4:00 pm and 8:00 pm in the evening. In Table 4.17, about 46.5 percent of the total number of respondents commute to Kumasi daily while 32.9 percent travel to the city on weekly basis. About 12.3 percent of respondents who travel to Kumasi weekly do so for economic reasons and they are mainly those in the service sector who go to purchase accessories for their work.

Table 4.17: Motivation to Live in the Town and Frequency of Movement to Kumasi

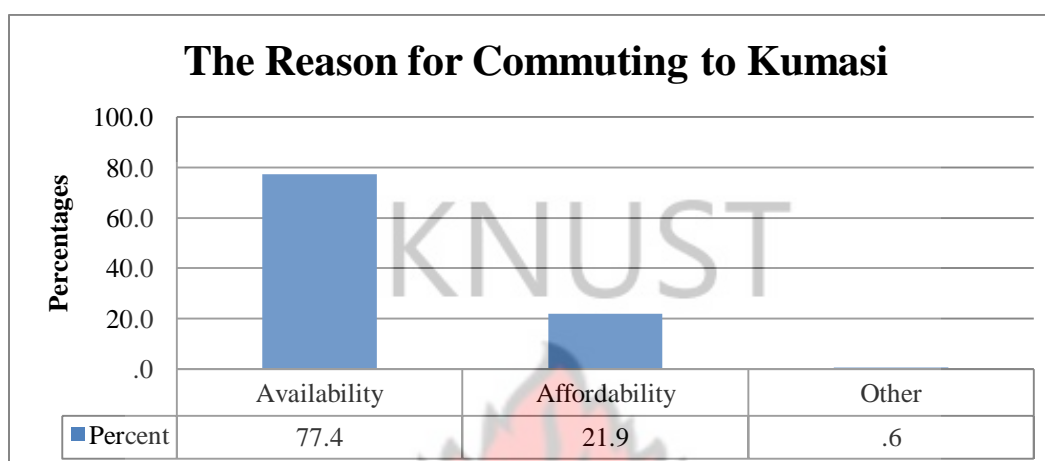
		Frequency of Movement to Kumasi			Total
		Daily	Weekly	Seldom	
Motivation to live in the Town	Family Ties	28.4	18.1	11.6	58.0
	Economic Benefits	11.6	12.3	7.7	31.7
	Other Reasons	6.5	2.5	1.3	10.3
Total		46.5	32.9	20.6	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

The reasons respondents gave for commuting to Kumasi include the availability of services they wish to access, affordability of goods and services compared to those available in the town among others. About 77.4 percent of respondents admit that they commute to Kumasi to access various goods and service because they are only available in the city while another 21.9 percent travel to the city because goods and services are

more affordable compared to the same amount of goods available in Bekwai. Figure 4.11 gives a picture of the reasons why respondents commute to Kumasi.

Figure 4.11: Reasons for Commuting to Kumasi



Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

Respondents were asked if they knew of alternative towns to access goods and services for which they commute to Kumasi for and the why they still prefer to travel to Kumasi though they had alternatives. About 61.3 percent of respondents knew of alternative places to Kumasi to access goods and services while the remaining 38.7 percent of respondents knew of no alternatives to access goods and services. Table 4.18 indicates the various reasons for which respondents still travel to Kumasi despite their knowledge of alternative settlements from which they could access goods and services.

Table 4.18: Alternative Town to Access Services and Reason for Preference Kumasi

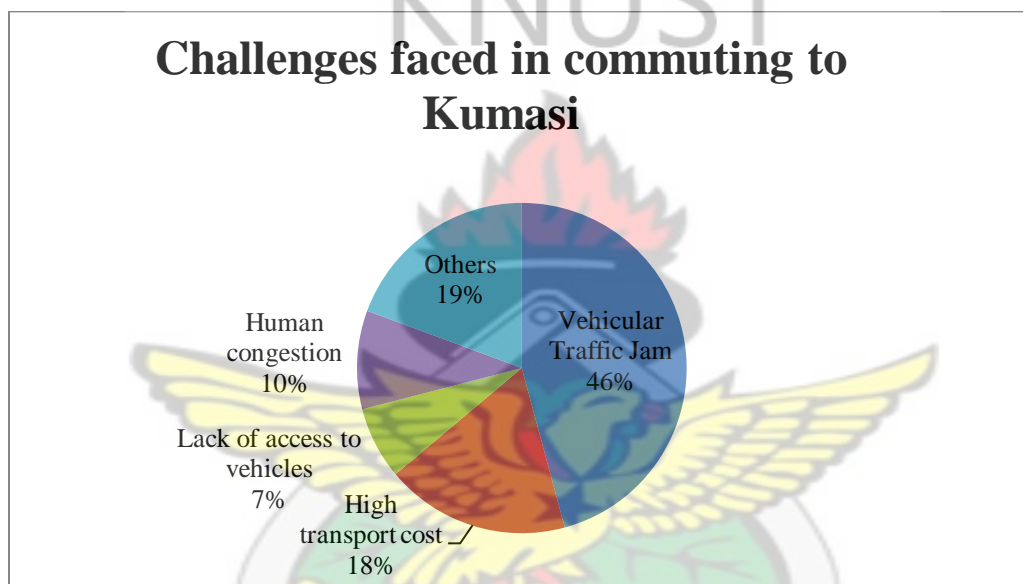
Reason for Preference to Access Services from Kumasi					Total
	Price Differentials	Convenience	Various Options	Prestige	
Alternative Town	18.1	40.6	0.0	2.5	61.3
No Alternative Town	21.3	12.3	4.5	0.6	38.7
Total	39.4	52.9	4.5	3.1	100.0

Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

4.14.3 Challenges in Commuting to Kumasi

In commuting to Kumasi, respondents complained of several problems they faced and chief among them was vehicular traffic jam accounting for 46 percent of responses. This was followed by high transport cost constituting 18 percent of respondents. Human congestion was also seen by 10 percent of respondents as a problem and this they attested was worse during festive seasons like Christmas and Easter.

Figure 4.12 Challenges in Commuting to Kumasi



Source: Bekwai Field Survey, 2011

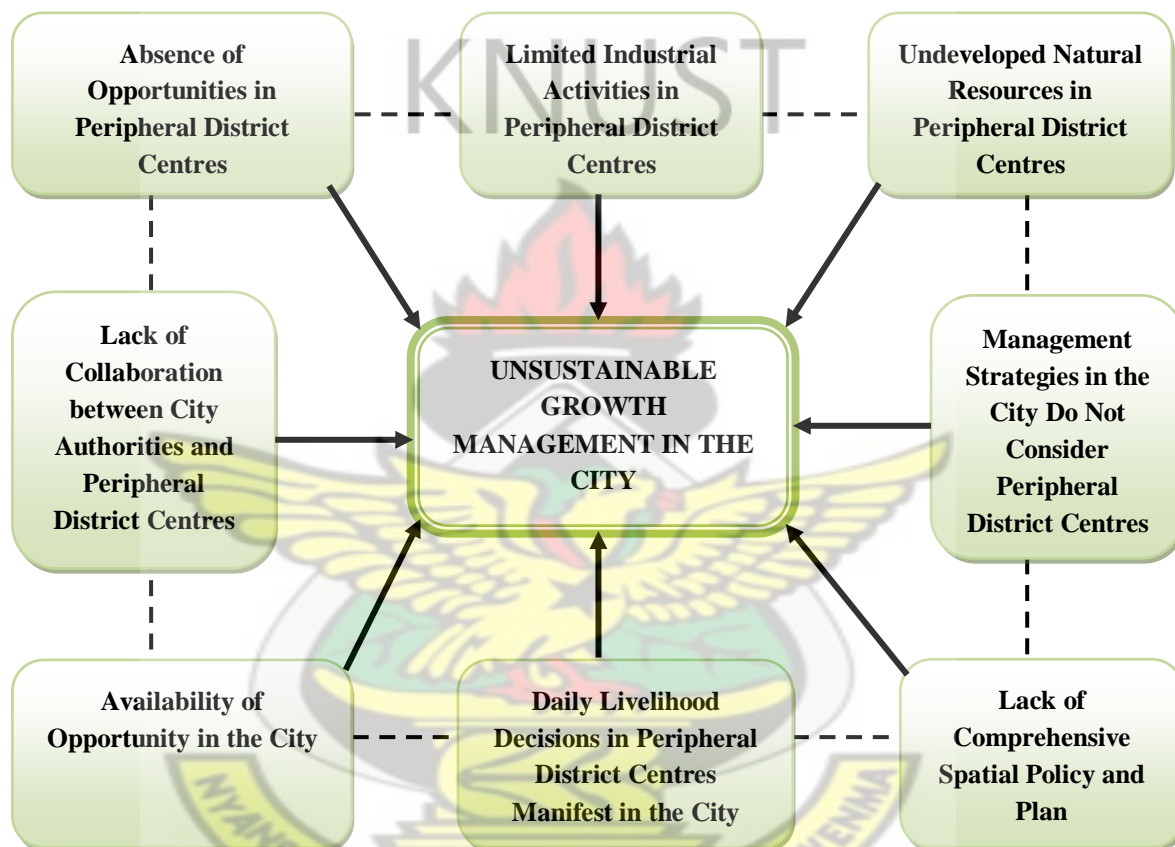
In Figure 4.12 about 7 percent of respondents complained that it was difficult in getting access to vehicles to the city. The difficulty was experienced by mostly respondents who travel on Mondays to the city. During Mondays many people travel to the city and so constitute huge vehicular traffic which delays the vehicles on the road.

4.15 Conclusion

The analysis revealed almost the same trend in all three Peripheral District Centres in terms of Resource Availability, Economic Activities Engaged in by Residents and general planning processes in the country. The autonomous nature of districts in the country makes it difficult for inter-district consultations for planning purposes. Thus, the

Kumasi metropolitan Assembly and its agencies focus their attention on the city without due consideration of the adjoining districts who undoubtedly form part of its functional regions for most facilities and services.

Figure 4.13: Relationship between City Management and Peripheral District Centres



Source: Author's Construct, 2011

Figure 4.15 seeks to explain how various decisions made by both technical and average citizens about their livelihoods and professions in the peripheral areas affect the management of the city. The neglect of these components has resulted in the unsustainable strategies employed in the city and their short lived successes. It has therefore become important.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTEGRATING PERIPHERAL DISTRICT CENTRES IN KUMASI'S GROWTH MANAGEMENT

5.1 Findings

5.1.1 Growth Management Practices and Successes in Ghanaian Cities

- The study revealed that problems encountered by authorities in the city are mostly generated from outside the city. Decisions that create traffic jams and congestion are taken miles away from the city, several hours before the start of the day.
- However, decisions about how the city is managed are done in isolation of adjoining districts even though these problems transcend district boundaries. Decisions made by the majority of people who live in the peripheral district centres of Kumasi manifest in the city without the control of city authorities.
- The KMA has use right to land and not ownership right thus plans are often thrown out of gear if chiefs refuse to give out land for planned purposes. Again chiefs develop schemes for their communities without the consent of the Town and Country Planning of the KMA who is supposed to have the sole prerogative to do such.
- It also came out that growth management strategies are on ad hoc basis and supply driven. Various departments develop their own means to execute their duties without full integration of other agencies. Thus, procedures are not coordinated and integrated to provide a comprehensive plan to cater for the day-to-day management of the city.
- There is a great data gap in the in the administration of the city as well as the peripheral district centres. Data concerning how many people on the average

travel to the city as well as how many vehicles operate in the city are not available and where they are, they are scattered and inconsistent. This makes it difficult for projections and totally defeats the whole process of providing off-street parking facilities as well as other facilities in the city. There is generally low commitment to research on gathering information in the country that facilitates planning and projections.

- Authorities are taken by surprise at the emergence and development of slums in the city. They have little control against their formation and lack the political will to clear them. Thus, management of slums has taken the form of periodic provision of potable water, electricity and safety.
- The main method of city authorities in ensuring a favourable environment for movement and a physical appeal of the city has been through periodic decongestion exercises as well as the establishment of a taskforce that ensures adherence to mobility regulations in the Central Business District.
- Authorities have been innovative in using fines from defaulters to put up guard rails that help to regulate movement in the Central Business District. Human congestion however, has not been tackled.
- Few vehicles carry more people using few road spaces but more private vehicles carry less people and use more road space. The incompleteness of major roads in the city has exacerbated traffic congestion in the city.

5.1.2 Integrating Peripheral District Centres into City Management

Size of the Local Economy

- All three peripheral centres dominate in commerce and service activities. Apart from Offinso who has about 48.7 percent of respondents involved in agriculture and 44.9 percent engaged in commerce and service, the commerce and service

sectors of Ejisu and Bekwai are 82.6 percent and 80.0 percent respectively. Out of this number, about 33.9 percent of all respondents engaged in service and commerce commute to Kumasi on daily basis and another 27.0 percent visiting at least once a week. About 80.7 percent of all respondents admitted that they commute to the city because of the availability of goods and services they intend to access.

- The implication is that there are no alternatives for people who live in peripheral district centres to access goods and services they commute to the city for. Even in cases where alternative towns exist, they provide inadequate and unequal opportunities.
- This implies that the peripheral areas around the city are actively involved in the day to day activities of the city and intensively contribute to the problems that are created daily. It is a mistake to assume that the problems of the city are created in the city and thus must be solved within the city. Since the root cause of the problem is from outside the city's boundaries, it is important to tackle it from outside.
- Industrial activities are very low in all three peripheral centres. In all, 6.4 percent of respondents were engaged in some industrial activities across the three peripheral district centres. The figure is not uncommon in Ghana and other developing countries where capital formation and mobilization is low and FDIs are concentrated in the already large cities.

Availability and Development of Local Resource Endowments

- None of the districts has a distinctive economic identity that can be harnessed for its development. Economic activities are diverse in all peripheral centres but dominated by the informal small scale sector. There is therefore limited specialization that will require expansion and attraction of other related industries. Thus incomes are generally low derived from many small scale firms competing for the same limited market.

- There are limited economic opportunities in the periphery as all important investments are concentrated in the core region. The peripheries rely on their environment for survival which unfortunately has not been developed, that is in places where non agricultural resources exist. In reality, most peripheral centres have not identified non agricultural resources that can propel growth and give them an identity. Instead, they all follow the usual format of commuting to the centre to purchase goods to be resold in the periphery or sending primary agriculture goods to the city for sale.
- The result of this process can be likened to the world economic system where rich industrialized countries produce expensive sophisticated manufactured goods for sale in the poor developing countries while the latter produce cheaper primary unprocessed goods to be purchased by the former. The result is always a trade deficit against the poor peripheral region and a general feel of exploitation and extortion.

Employment Opportunities and Availability

5.1.3 Policy Direction towards Human Settlement Growth and Management

- At the heart of all urban management problems in the country is weak urban governance and poor spatial planning. This is because government policies on human settlements are limited and have not given smaller towns the due attention.
- There exist smaller towns in relation to the large primate cities where there is less congestion and better environmental conditions. However, they possess inadequate infrastructure, diverse economic activities as well as employment opportunities especially for the youth.

- Majority of economic opportunities are concentrated in the core and continue to attract more investments and FDIs.

5.2 Recommendations

The Role of Government

- There should be policies that will restrain the growth of extra large cities and reclassification of towns and urban centres. Some effort has been made in the drafting of the human settlement policy to this effect. However, the policy needs to implement given the necessary attention. This should go alongside with commitment to the provision of infrastructure and services that will match the level or rank of the town.
- By way of Policy, there should be the development of a greater metropolitan area that gives legal access to planning authorities in the city to include peripheral centres that adjoin them in their planning and administration processes. This will require the re-demarcation of settlements under different planning jurisdiction for different purposes. This can be done by formulation of a comprehensive National Spatial Policy Framework and Plan.
- Foreign Direct Investments should be directed by policy to peripheral District Centres instead of already primate cities. By this, investments will be diffused from the centre and consciously redistributed to other secondary towns to ensure equitable access to services and infrastructure.
- Secondary cities should be developed to offer migrants greater economic opportunities and lower living costs. By this, Peripheral District Centres will be more attractive to migrants rather than the main city as they would offer good sources of employment and relatively cheaper cost of living.

- Legislative Instruments should be put in place to give the planning authority power to prosecute people who develop lands contrary to provisions in the schemes they have prepared and also give them the sole right to prepare schemes for any area in the country.

The Role of Kumasi Metropolitan Authority

- There is the need for city authorities to consider adjoining peripheral district centres in their planning efforts. Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly should liaise with Peripheral District Centres in decision making concerning the management of the city. This should not dissolve the powers of the Peripheral District Centres but rather aid in the sustainability of strategies put forward to manage the city.
- City Authorities should formulate policies and draw out comprehensive growth management plans that will direct how growth should occur in the city. There be a Smart Growth Plan to influence the quality of growth while at the same time minimizing the negative effects that come with them. A Smart Growth Plan will adopt strategies that will enhance living conditions in the city and also anticipate and accommodate new developments.
- Various departments and agencies tasked with the management of the city should come together and coordinate and integrate their activities in a comprehensive medium to long term plan for managing the city. This will help remove the ad hoc nature of management in the city making way for well laid out and continuous plan.
- Again, city authorities can regularize accommodation for migrants who hitherto would be found on the streets or in slum communities. Low cost accommodation facilities in the form of night shelters can be put up and managed by the city to cater for the needs of migrants.

- Bye-laws can be instituted to prohibit living on the street so that all migrants who cannot afford rent in the city will make use of the state shelter. By this information about occupants could be gathered as well as deter others from the remote villages that otherwise would have landed in the city from coming.

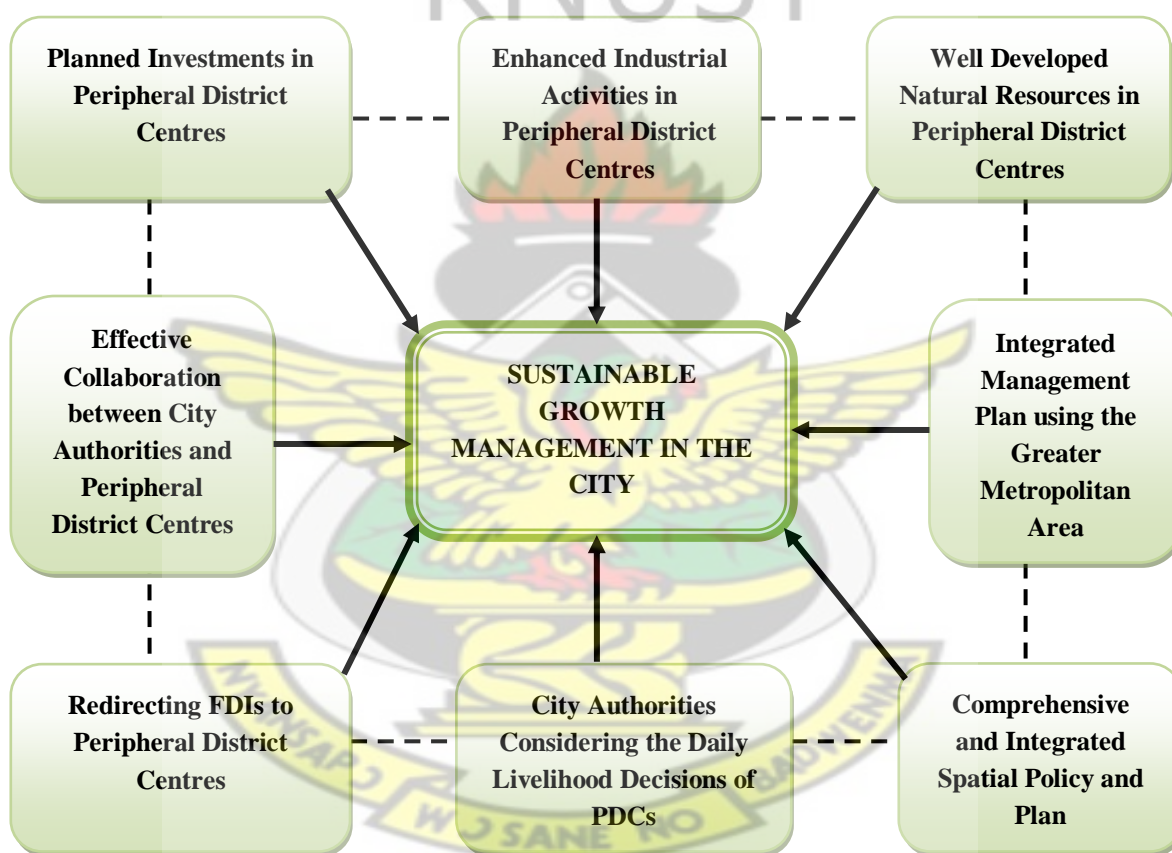
The Role of Peripheral District Centres

- There is the need for new and planned investments in natural resource that will make use of local natural resource endowments. This will help the local economy to grow faster and more sustainable.
- Investments in natural resources must go alongside investment in human capital, enhancement in institutional capacity and improvement in transport and social infrastructure. Economic investments can be in the areas of agro processing, quarrying brick and block making and the use of local resources. Where there are no natural resources that can be developed for distinctive industrial activities, the town can make use of commercial activities.
- For example, Ejisu can be made a commercial centre for agricultural produce, whereby all primary agriculture produce bound for the northern sector of the country will be concentrated and redistributed. This can be coupled with making the town a major transportation terminal for trips bound to the eastern part of the country and beyond to the West African sub region. It also has a potential for expanding agro-processing on large scale given the needed financial backing.

As per these recommendations, the vicious cycle of unsustainable growth management in Ghanaian cities will be turned around to be a virtuous one. Figure 4.14 indicates that the intervention of policy will create economic opportunities in the Peripheral District Centres while improving industrial activities in these areas. This will require the identification and development of both natural and artificial resources in these areas. Thus local economic development in the peripheral District Centres will make use of Local resources. The role of government will be to redirect Foreign Direct Investments to

the development of Peripheral District Centres giving incentives to developers and investors there by making these areas attractive for investment. It will also require legal instruments that will re-organize the spatial form as well as the authorities of some districts so as to enhance the benefits of the entire country. Thus national interest should be placed above individual districts and settlements. These will result in the creation of a sustainable city where maximum benefits will be derived at the same time reduce the negative effects of growth on its immediate environment.

Figure 4.14: Creating a Sustainable City Growth Management



Source: Author's Construct, 2011

5.3 Conclusion

Ghanaian cities have experienced excessive growth that outpaces the development of infrastructure and services. Smaller towns and rural areas have not experienced the same rate of growth as compared to the large cities. This has made the already inadequate

facilities in the large cities attractive to smaller towns and villages. The consequences of the situation have been the influx of migrants from the smaller settlements and commuting of people from areas that are close to the city in order to make use of the opportunities in the city.

Growth management in the city has on the one hand been in isolation of peripheral districts while development of these districts has also been done without consultation with the city. Strategies directed at managing the growth in the city have been on ad hoc basis and independent to various agencies and departments.

Even though the city offers many benefits to majority of the population, the negative impact of an unplanned and poorly managed city is unbearable. As it stands, the periphery centres offer less economic benefits in term of employment generation and diversification of economic activities but the advantages of living in clean and less polluted environment cannot be easily quantified but has great benefits.

Peripheral districts can offer cheaper accommodation and economic benefits if they are given the opportunity by way of directing policy in that regard. There is therefore the need for a comprehensive and integrated policy that includes all settlements related to each other. This plan will give distinctive roles and functions to each settlement while making use of local resources without duplicating effort in closely related settlements.



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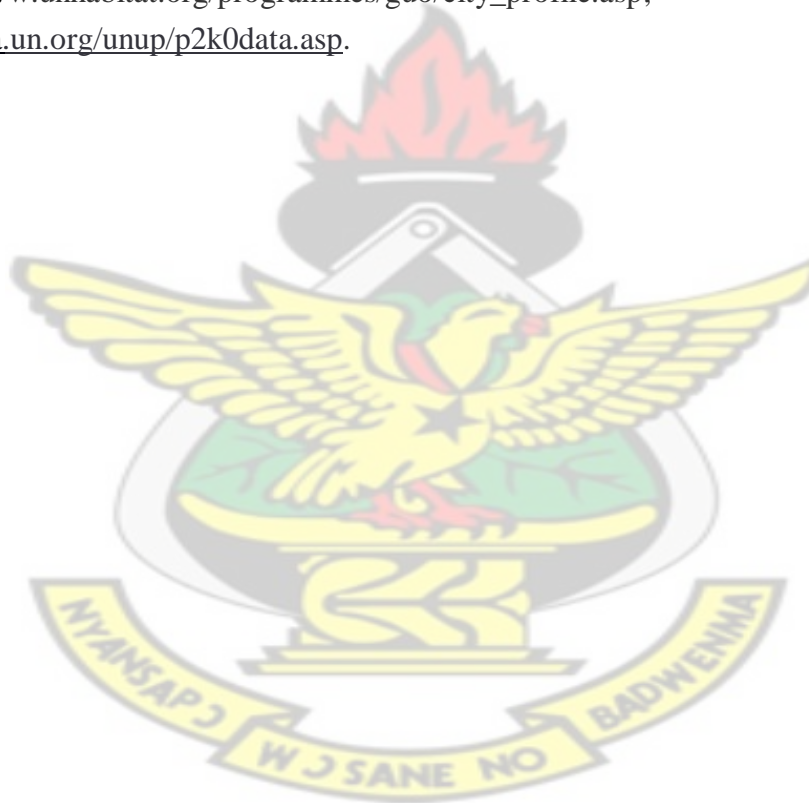
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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Guide for Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly Development Planning Department

Size of Economy

- 1) What is the Percentage of the population employed in the city?

Sectoral Structure and Specialisation

- 2) What percentages of the population are employed in the various sectors of the economy?

Investment

- 3) What are the economic and social opportunities available in the city?
- 4) What is the total number and size of investment in the city? (small, medium and large scale)

Informal Economy

- 5) What percentage of the population is in the informal sector?

Demographics

- 6) What are the population characteristics of the city?
- 7) What is the average day and night densities of the city?
- 8) What accounts for the difference?

City Management Approaches

- 9) How accessible are social services in the city?
- 10) What is the role of the MPU in the growth management of the city?
- 11) What is the management approaches adopted in the Kumasi city?
- 12) How Effective have been these approaches in terms of
 - i. Controlling excessive growth
 - ii. Curbing congestion
 - iii. Improving accessibility and mobility
 - iv. Controlling formation of slums
- 13) What is the way forward with controlling growth in the city?

Appendix B: Interview Guide for Peripheral District Centres' Development Planning Department

1. How many people are employed in the town, how many are not?
2. What are the main occupations of the people in the town?
3. What percentages of the population are employed in the various sectors of the economy?
4. What is the total number of firms in the town by sectors?
5. What is the total number of new business startup per year? (small, medium and large scale)
6. How many firms are in the informal economy?
7. Where do they undertake their activities?
8. What are the employment opportunities available in the town?
9. Is there Capacity for Local Economic Development in terms of
 - i) Land availability (size)
 - ii) Natural resources (list them)
 - iii) Human resources (technical knowhow)
 - iv) Financial resources (credit and savings)
 - v) Infrastructure (Inventory and Profile)
 - vi) Market (Accessible catchment area)
 - vii) Social Capital
10. How have these resources been developed?
11. If they have not been developed why?
12. What is the distance and travelling time to key market centres outside the town?
13. Are there plans for future growth and development of the town and its management?

Appendix C: Questionnaires to Peripheral District Centres

A. Motivation to Live and Work in Peripheral District Centres

1. Are you an indigene of this town? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

2. How long have you lived in the town? (a) Less than 1 year ☐ (b) 1-4 years ☐
(c) 5-10 years ☐ (d) 11-15 years ☐

3. What motivates you to live in this Town? (a) Social Ties ☐ (b) Economic ☐
Benefits (c) Other ☐ reasons (specify)
.....
.....

4. What is your educational background? (a) Basic ☐ (b) Secondary/Vocational ☐
(c) Tertiary ☐ (d) None ☐ (e) Apprenticeship ☐

5. What is your employment status? (a) Employer ☐ (b) Employee ☐ (c) Self
Employed ☐ (d) Unemployed ☐

6. If you are an employer, how many people do you engage? (a) Less than 10 ☐
(b) More than 10 ☐

7. What economic activity do you engage in? (a) Agriculture ☐ (b) Industrial ☐
(c) Commerce ☐ (d) Service ☐

8. Where do you engage your occupation? (a) In the town ☐ (b) Outside the ☐
Town (specify).....

B. Motivation to work in the city

9. How often do you go to Kumasi? (a) Daily ☐ (b) Weekly ☐ (c) Seldom ☐

10. What activities you do undertake in Kumasi? (a) Economic ☐ (b) Social ☐
 (c) Religious ☐ (d) Other ☐ (specify).....

11. Why do you go to Kumasi for such Activities (a) Availability ☐
 (b) Affordability ☐ (c) Better Quality ☐

12. Would you prefer assessing the service within the town? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐
 (Give reasons)

.....

13. Is there an alternative town to access the service? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

14. If yes, why do you still prefer Kumasi? (a) Price differentials ☐ (b) ☐
 Convenience (c) ☐ as options ☐) Prestige

15. What challenges do you face in commuting to Kumasi and Back?

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C. Trip Patterns between the City and the Peripheral District Centres

16.

Time	Place	Activity
Before 6:00am		
6:00am - 8:00am		
8:00am –		

12:00pm		
12:00pm - 2:00pm		
2:00pm – 4:00pm		
4:00pm - 6:00pm		
6:00pm – 8:00pm		

D. Transportation Costs (Time and Money)

17. What is the waiting time to access transportation? (a) less than 5 mins ☐
 (b) 5-10mins ☐ (c) 10 -15 mins ☐ (d) 15-20 mins ☐
18. What is the average time spent on the road to the city? (a) less than 30 mins ☐
 (b) 30 mins - 1hr ☐ (c) 1hr- 2hrs ☐ (d) more than 2hrs ☐

