

# **ACHIEVING THE MDGs WITH EQUITY IN GHANA: UNMASKING THE ISSUES BEHIND THE AVERAGES**

**A TECHNICAL PAPER**

**FINAL REPORT**



**NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING COMMISSION (NDPC) & UNITED  
NATIONS SYSTEM IN GHANA**

**JUNE 2012**

## Acknowledgements

This paper was written through the collaborative efforts of the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) and the United Nations System in Ghana. The team is grateful to the NDPC for its leadership in the authorship of the paper especially Dr. Regina Adutwum, Mr. Kenneth Owusu, Dr. I. F. Mensa-Bonsu and Mr. Charles Konglo. The team is also grateful to the UNDP for the technical and financial support, specifically to Kamil Kamaluddeen, Pa Lamin Beyai, Jeremias Blaser, Lawrence Lachmansingh, Tolu Lewis-Tamoka, George Marbuah and Kordzo Sedegah. We acknowledge with gratitude useful technical inputs received from the following UN staff: UNICEF, Ms Iyabode Olusanmi, Julianna Lindsey, and Jane Mwangi; and WHO, Dr. Idrissa Sow, Dr Charles Fleischer-Djoleto and Mr. Selassi D'Almeida. We are indebted to Dr. William Baah-Boateng of the University of Ghana for drafting this paper. Notwithstanding the major inputs from the above-mentioned, this paper would not have reached this stage without constructive suggestions from the Consultative Group (CG)/MDBS Joint Task Team members. We would like to extend our sincere apologies to all those we may have inadvertently omitted in this acknowledgement. We would like to state that all opinions expressed in this paper are entirely ours and do not necessarily represent those of our respective organizations. We also take responsibility for any errors and/or omissions.

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## **1. Introduction**

Ghana has made considerable progress in achieving key MDG targets especially those of poverty eradication and food security, education and access to safe water. However, there are challenges in the area of health under MDG 4 and 5 (i.e. child mortality and maternal health) and MDG7 in relation to environmental degradation and sanitation. Progress towards the realisation of gender equality and women empowerment particularly in relation to women's access to quality employment and participation in political decision making has not been encouraging. In the areas where gains have been made, obvious concerns remain when the analysis go beyond the averages to consider disparities in terms of geographical, gender and socioeconomic groups.

The main objective of the paper is to "unmask" the issues behind the averages and examine the country's progress beyond the national level. The paper focuses on geographical disparities and gender dimension of selected goals of MDGs 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7 and corresponding targets. It also suggests some recommendations for addressing emerging equity issues and if possible, identifies the necessary partnership and synergies that could be formed between government and development partners in addressing emerging concerns.

The main sources of data for analysis are the last three rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS), Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS), and institutional data from Government Ministries, Department and Agencies. The paper however suffers from a major challenge related to the difficulty in obtaining a more current data source for the analysis. Although, some data were available from some international organisations, it could not be used due to comparability problem. Where possible, more current and reliable data and statistics have been used in the analysis.

## **2. Poverty, Employment and Food Security**

The main focus of the MDG Goal 1 is the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. The three main targets under this goal are:(a) to have nobody live in extreme poverty by 2015;(b) achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all including women and young people; and (c) reduce hunger by halving between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

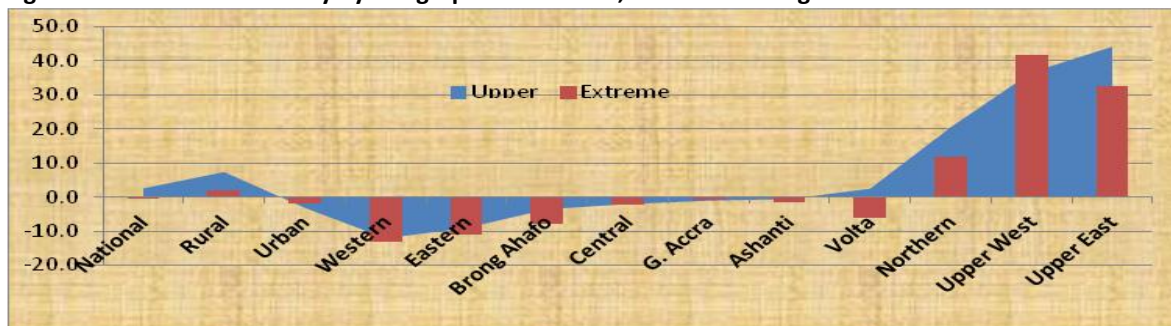
### ***2.1 Eradication of Extreme Poverty***

Ghana's performance in eradicating poverty has been quite remarkable at the national level and urban areas. However, there are worrying trends in terms of disparities across the 10 regions and socio-economic groups in terms of the poverty incidence and the depth. The country managed to halve extreme poverty from 36.5% to 18.2% between 1991 and 2006, and almost halve the proportion of people living below upper poverty line from 51.7% to 28.5% over the same period. However, the three northern savannah regions and food crop farmers have not benefited from this remarkable decline in poverty incidence.

The incidence of poverty remains very high and far above the national average at 52% in the Northern, 70% in Upper West and 88% in the Upper East regions. The Northern Region managed to reduce upper poverty incidence from 63% in 1991 to 52% in 2006 while Upper East recorded an increase from 67% to 70% over the same period. The Upper West saw a decline in poverty incidence from 88% in 1991 to 84% in 1999 but increased again to 88% in 2006. The remaining regions managed to halve upper (except Volta region) and extreme poverty ahead of 2015. This is depicted in figure 1 with the three northern savannah regions high above the horizontal axis underscoring a distance away from the target. Volta Region has a distance of 2.5 percentage point from reaching upper poverty target.

The high poverty incidence in rural Ghana and the three Northern regions is also reflected in the distribution of poverty in the country. As reported in Appendix A, about a quarter of the poor in Ghana in 2006 are estimated to come from the Northern Region while the Upper East and West regions contribute about 16% each. On the contrary, only one out of every 10 poor people in Ghana comes from the Ashanti Region. Four regions, Western, Central, Greater Accra and Eastern regions account for less than 5% each of national poverty while Volta and Brong Ahafo regions contribute 6% and 8% respectively to national poverty.

**Figure 1: Incidence of Poverty by Geographical Location, Distance to Target as at 2006**

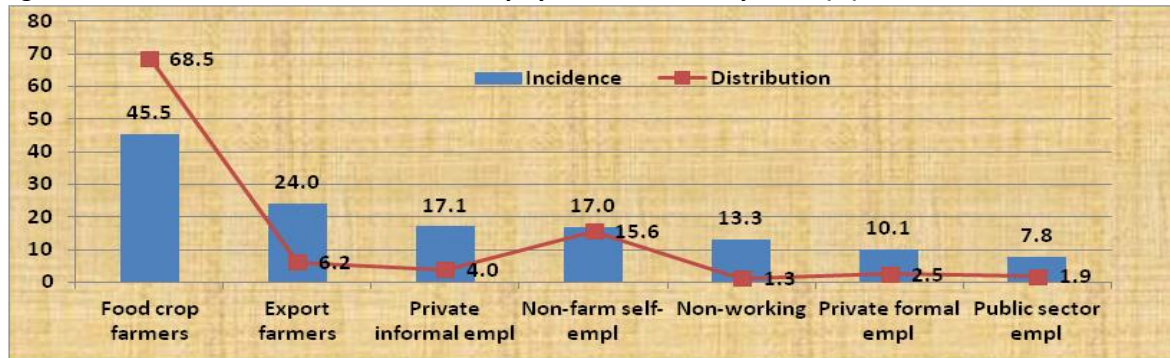


Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2007)

### Poverty and Economic Activity

Incidence of poverty could largely be explained by economic activities of individuals and households. Poverty is highly endemic among food crop farmers at 46% and minimal among formal sector workers (see Appendix Table C). Workers in the public and private formal sectors have the lowest poverty incidence of 8% and 10% respectively in 2006. They also account for 1.9% and 2.5% of national poverty in the same year. Almost every 7 out of 10 poor households are engaged in the food crop sectors compared with 16% in non-farm self-employment, 6% in export farming and 4% in the private informal employment. The low poverty incidence among formal sector workers is largely linked to consistent increase in National Daily Minimum Wage (NDMW) with improving effect on formal sector wages. In contrast, food crop farming is at subsistence level with very little government support and often at the mercy of the weather. Unlike the cash crop farming, food crop farmers do not enjoy guaranteed prices with fluctuating incomes making them vulnerable to negative shocks. Government support for export or cash crop farming in terms of guaranteed prices and ready market largely explains why export farmers witnessed the highest decline in poverty incidence from 64% in 1991 to 24% in 2006.

**Figure 2: Incidence and Distribution of Poverty by Economic Activity, 2006 (%)**



Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2007)

The incidence and distribution of poverty by economic activity has a direct linkage with regional disparities of poverty in Ghana. Specifically, food crop farming is the main economic activity in the three northern regions while very few households in these areas are engaged in formal employment. On the other hand, the remaining regions tend to benefit from high incomes in formal sector employment with its declining poverty effect. Moreover, high incidence of poverty among food crop farmers also explains why poverty is deemed to be a rural phenomenon in Ghana.

### Gender and Poverty

Although, it is difficult to analyse poverty by gender (except on the basis of the sex of household head), studies have shown that, women are more likely to be poor compared with their male counterparts. Using asset poverty, Oduro *et. al*, (2011) found the total and mean value of gross wealth of women to be lower than those of men for all asset categories. In addition, wealth by gender in Ghana is biased in favour of men. In terms of distribution of wealth by quintiles, women have a greater share of wealth in the poorest quintiles and the reverse is also true. It is also estimated that average hourly earnings of women in Ghana is 57% of that of men and that regardless of the type of employment, education, age etc., women earn lower than men (Baah-Boateng, 2009). Moreover, while formal sector employment where poverty is low is highly dominated by men, women far outnumbered men in non-farm self-employment and private informal employment where earnings are relatively low. In effect, gender dimension of poverty is likely to be biased against women.

### 2.2 Achieving Productive and Decent Employment

Productive and decent employment is a major channel through which poverty alleviation can be realised. Under the MDG1B, four basic indicators are used in assessing country performance in achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all including women and young people. The indicators are growth rate of labour productivity, employment-to-population ratio, vulnerable employment rate, and working poverty rate. The report focuses on three indicators in measuring Ghana's performance in generating productive and decent employment due to the challenge in obtaining annual series of employment data.

The employment-to-population ratio which measures the quantity of employment shows the ability of an economy to provide employment (ILO, 2009) and is defined as the proportion of the working-age population that is employed. A low ratio means a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, while a high ratio means a large proportion of a country's population is employed. Technically, there is no optimal employment-to-population ratio but evidence shows that developed economies tend to have lower ratios than developing countries (see ILO, 2009). In Ghana, the employment-to-population ratio at the national level dropped from 75% in 1991/92 to 67% in 2005/06. This was driven largely by decreases in the ratios for youth on account of higher enrolment rates in education and a surge in youth unemployment rate during the period (Sparreboom and Baah-Boateng, 2011). The ratio is reported to be slightly lower among females than males by 3.5 percent, in line with the lower participation rate of females than males in the labour market (Table1). A more pronounced difference is observed between rural and urban ratios with most rural workers engaged in agriculture. Estimates from the GLSS5 indicate no significant regional difference in the ratios ranging from about 58% in Greater Accra region to 73% in the Northern region.

While employment-to-population ratio only measures quantity of employment, vulnerable employment and working poverty rates under the MDG1B are measures of decent and quality employment. Workers in vulnerable employment often lack formal arrangements and are therefore more likely to lack elements associated with decent employment such as adequate social security and effective social dialogue mechanisms. In Ghana, it is estimated that every 3 out of 4 employed Ghanaians are engaged in own account or contributing family work considered to be vulnerable (Table 1).

The phenomenon is more prevalent in rural than in urban areas with a gap of 25 and 35 percentage points in 2000 and 2005/06. Vulnerable employment is also far higher for women than men with the gap widening from 13.5 to 20.5 percentage points between 2000 and 2006 (Table 1). This may reflect lower female education than males and the need for women to engage in flexible jobs that will enable them to effectively combine home and market work (Baah-Boateng, 2009). Analysis of the poverty status of working people indicates that, at least one out of every four employed people live in poor household in 2006 with the rate being marginally higher for women (26%) than their male (25%) counterparts (Table 1). In addition, about 16% of working people live in households considered to be extremely poor with less than 1 percentage point higher for women (16.4%) than men (15.6%). Upper working poverty rate is also estimated to be more than four times higher in rural areas (35.2%) than among urban (8.3%) dwellers while the rate is more than five times higher in terms of extreme working poverty in rural areas (22.7%) than in urban (4.3%) areas. In effect, although about 7 out of every 10 adult Ghanaian are employed, the quality of employment is very low with obvious challenge for income generation and poverty reduction.



**Table 1: Employment Indicators in the MDG**

Indicator	Male		Female		Rural		Urban			
	2000	2005/06	2000	2005/06	2000	2005/06	2000	2005/06		
<b>National</b>										
Employment-to- Population Ratio	69.1	69.2	64.8	65.7	72.4	73.0	60.7	59.1	66.9	67.3
Vulnerable Employment rate	68.2	64.8	81.7	85.3	85.6	87.0	60.5	54.7	74.9	75.4
Upper Working Poverty rate	---	25.0	---	26.0	---	35.2	---	8.3	---	25.6
Extreme working Poverty rate	---	15.6	---	16.4	---	22.7	---	4.3	---	16.1

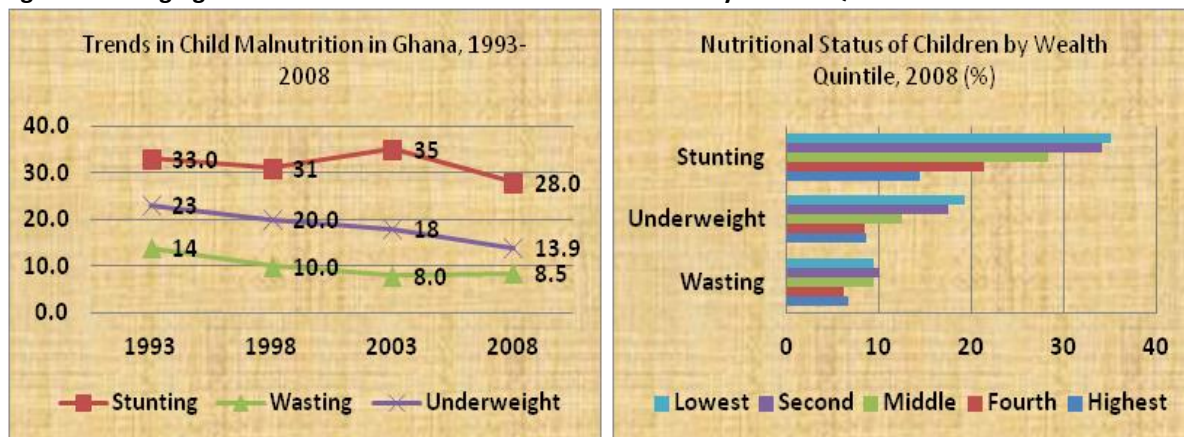
**Source:** Computed from GLSSV, GSS

### 2.3 Ensuring Food Security

The MDG target for food security seeks to halve between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. The major indicator is prevalence of underweight children of below five years of age. Ghana has made considerable strides in reducing the prevalence of wasting and underweight children but not so well in terms of incidence of stunting children. As shown in Figure 3, the prevalence of wasting declined from 14% in 1993 to 8.5% in 2008 short by 1.5 percent of reaching the target of halving the prevalence rate by 2015. Similarly, the proportion of underweight children also declined from 23% to 14% over the same period with only 2.5 percentage point of hitting the target ahead of 11.5% in 2015. However, the incidence of stunting among children has not witnessed significant improvement. Ghana managed to reduce the proportion of stunting children from 33% in 1993 to 28% in 2008. These observations suggest that, while the country is poised to achieve the target of halving the prevalence of wasting and underweight among children ahead of 2015 with some extra effort, reaching the target of halving the prevalence of stunting children remains a challenge.

There are disparities in nutritional status among children by geographical and socioeconomic groups. The prevalence of stunting is higher in rural (32%) than in urban (21%) areas and varies by region. Four regions; Eastern, Upper East, Central, and Northern reported incidence of stunting of at least 32% while the remaining 6 regions recorded lower incidences than the national average of 28% (see Appendix Table D). A higher prevalence rate of wasting of at least 10% above national average of 8.5% is reported in the Central and three Northern regions while Volta, Brong Ahafo, Western and Greater Accra regions recorded incidences of wasting of less than 6%. The highest proportion of underweight children was reported in the Upper East (27%) and Northern (21.8%) regions while Greater Accra and Eastern regions witnessed lowest (6.5% and 8.7% respectively) proportion of underweight children.

**Figure 3: Changing Pattern of Nutritional Status of Children and by Wealth Quintile in Ghana**



Source: GDHS, 2008

Malnutrition among children is reported to generally decline with increasing mother’s education level and thus underscoring the importance of mother’s education towards improving the nutrition status of children. As reported in Appendix Table D, all the three measures of malnutrition reported highest incidence among mothers with no or primary education and lowest among those with secondary education or better. In addition, nutritional status of children is observed to be directly related to wealth quintile such that the lowest incidence of stunting, underweight and wasting were reported among children in the highest or fourth quintile while highest prevalence rate of the three measures of malnutrition was observed among children in the lowest or second wealth quintile.

### 3. Education

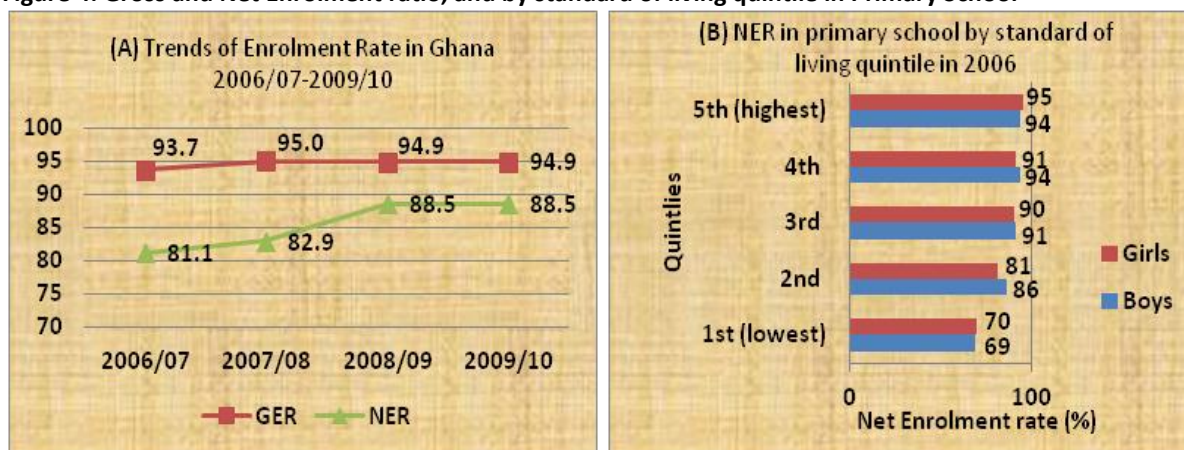
Goal 2 of the MDG seeks to achieve universal primary education with a target of ensuring that children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. Two indicators under consideration in this paper in assessing Ghana’s education performance in the MDG are the Gross Enrolment and Net Enrolment ratios in primary education and the proportion of pupils starting Grade 1 who reach last grade of primary 6 (Survival rate). Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) measures the number of pupils or students at a given level of schooling, regardless of age, as a proportion of the number of children in the relevant age groups. Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) measures the number of appropriately aged pupils or students enrolled in school as a proportion of total number of children in the relevant age groups.

#### 3.1 Primary Enrolment Ratio

Significant progress has been made in terms of primary school enrolment particularly over the past few years on account of social protection strategies towards improved access to education such as school feeding programme, capitation grant and free school uniforms. While, the GER at 95% in 2007/08 has virtually remained at that level for 3 years, the NER in primary school has increased from 81% in 2006/07 to 88.5% in 2009/10 (Figure 4). The GER at the national level remains higher among boys than girls with female Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 0.96 since 2007 (see Appendix Table F). Variation however exists across regions and socioeconomic groups. For instance, four regions:

Central, Western, Brong Ahafo, and Upper West regions recorded GER of more than 100% in 2010. The Central Region recorded the highest NER of 97% and the lowest NER was reported in Greater Accra. The remaining eight regions recording NER within the 81–90% range (see Appendix Table F). This seems to suggest that only Central region, and to some extent, Western (89.8%), and Brong Ahafo (88.2%) regions are more likely to attain the NER target of 100% by 2015.

**Figure 4: Gross and Net Enrolment ratio, and by standard of living quintile in Primary School**



Source: Ministry of Education

Source: GLSSV, GSS

The Upper East and Upper West regions are the only two regions that have managed to reach the target of 1.00 GPI in 2010 ahead of 2015 while the Northern region recorded the lowest GPI of 0.87. The remaining 7 regions recorded GPI ranging from 0.93 in Volta to 0.98 in the Ashanti and the Greater Accra regions, which are more likely to achieve the target by 2015.

The linkage between school enrolment and poverty can be analysed from NER by wealth quintile. As shown in figure 4A, NER is observed to increase with wealth quintile with no significant difference between enrolment of boys and girls. This is also confirmed by disparities in enrolment ratio by poverty status reported in Table 2 which shows higher GER and NER in primary, Junior High School (JHS) and Senior High School (SHS) for non-poor than for poor households. This suggests that children from poor households are more likely to stay out of school than children from wealthier households.

**Table 2: Enrolment rate by Poverty Status of Households, 2006**

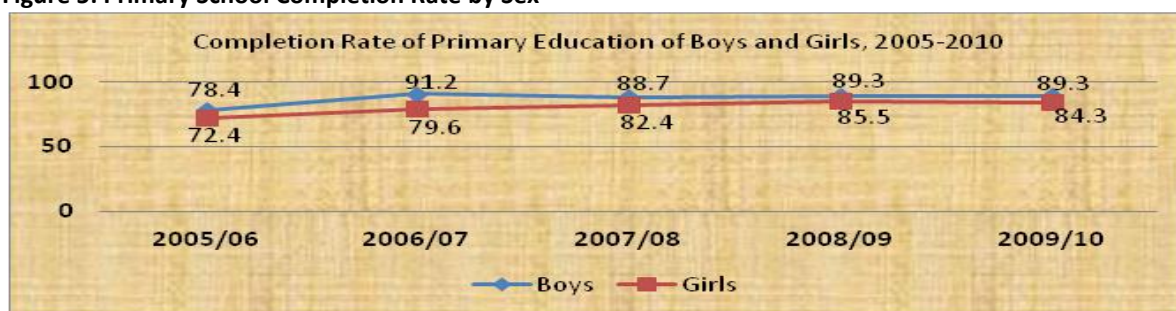
Socio-economic Group	GER			NER		
	Primary	JHS	SHS	Primary	JHS	SHS
Poor	98.8	51.7	12.6	55.8	11.5	2.8
Non-poor	111.9	77.8	37.6	73.0	30.4	16.7

Source: Computed from GLSSV, GSS

### 3.2 Survival Rate of Primary Education

Ghana continues to record increasing primary school completion rate but at a slower rate. The rate increased from 85.5% in 2007/08 to 86.3% in 2008/09 and remained at that level in 2009/2010 creating some doubts about the ability of the country to reach the 100% target in 2015. The rate is marginally higher for boys than girls with gap gradually narrowing since 2005 (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Primary School Completion Rate by Sex



Source: Ministry of Education

The only region reported to have achieved full completion rate of 100% overall and for boys in 2010 is the Central Region. The region is 1.1 percentage points away from the target for girls (Appendix Table G). Three regions; Brong Ahafo, Northern and Western regions are close to reaching full primary school completion rate for boys at 92.2%, 94.3% and 96.3% respectively. Eastern Region recorded the least completion rate for both boys and girls at 80.5% and 77.5% respectively in 2009/10. The Upper East and Upper West regions saw a higher completion rate for girls than boys with the reverse being the case for the other eight regions. Poverty does not seem to have adverse effect on primary school completion rate. This is based on the evidence that the two regions with the lowest completion rate (Greater Accra and Eastern regions) have the lowest poverty incidence (Appendix A) while the Upper West, Upper East and Northern regions ranked 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> in terms of primary school completion rate (see Appendix G), have high poverty incidences. The performance of the three northern savannah regions in terms of primary school completion rate against the backdrop of high poverty incidence could be explained by the policy of long period of free education enjoyed by children in these regions.

## 4. Gender Equality and Women Empowerment

Gender equality and women empowerment stipulated by the MDG3 is assessed on the basis of two of the three indicators in this paper. These are the share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector and proportion of seats held by women in parliament.

### 4.1 Women in Wage Employment

Women continue to face challenges in accessing wage employment in Ghana on account of their preference for flexible type of employment (particularly self-employment) that allows them to combine market work and home production (Baah-Boateng, 2009). In 2006, one out of every four wage employees in Ghana was a woman and the reverse was the case for non-agriculture self-

employees. Indeed, the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment declined in the 1990s and increased marginally in 2005/06. This could be explained by the improved level of education of women (Table 3). An improved share of women in non-agriculture wage employment contributes to lower income of women and their empowerment since earnings are lower for this category of employment than for wage employment.

**Table 3: Share of Women in non-agricultural Wage Employment**

Group	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06
All	29.8	24.8	25.4
Youth	40.2	39.8	40.3
Rural	20.5	21.1	17.6
Urban	35.5	27.5	28.6
Basic Education	---	---	19.7
Secondary+	---	---	30.1

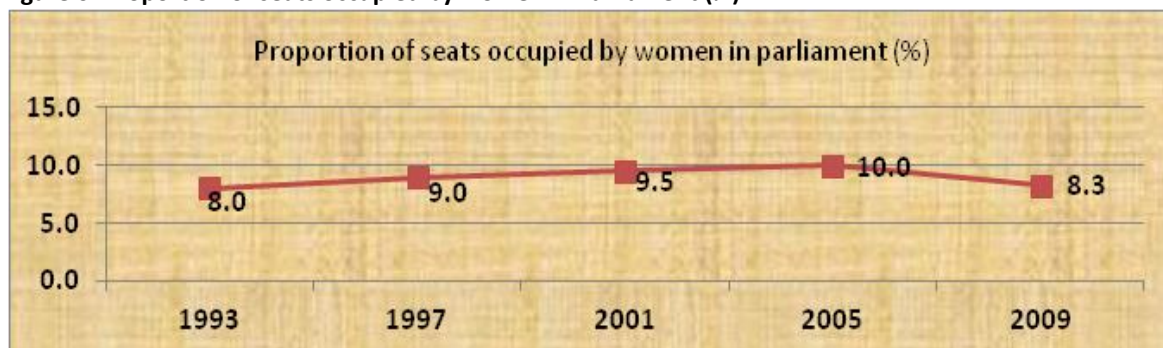
**Source:** Computed from GLSS III, IV & V, GSS

The women’s share in non-agricultural wage employment is higher in urban than in rural areas, and among the youth than the older age groups. The share also increases with education. Higher education for women has the tendency to create the opportunity for women to access non-agriculture wage employment and in the process raise their incomes and empowerment.

#### 4.2 Women in Political Position

Women are seriously underrepresented in major political positions in the country. Progress towards improving the proportion of women in Parliament suffered a setback in 2009 when the share of seats held by women in Parliament dropped from 10% in 2005 to 8.3% in 2009 (Figure 6). The proportion of elected district assembly members also dropped from 11% in 2009 to 7% in 2010 and district appointees reduced from 28% in 2008 to 7% in 2009. Specifically, there are no women MPs in Brong Ahafo and Eastern Regions, while Ashanti and Greater Accra regions have 4 MPs each (see Appendix H2). Going by the results of the primaries so far held by the various parties, the situation is not likely to significantly improve in the next Parliament in the absence of any deliberate policy by the stakeholders.

**Figure 6: Proportion of seats occupied by women in Parliament (%)**



**Source:** Parliament of Ghana



Women's share in other major political position is also low with only 19% and 20% for ministers and deputy ministers respectively. Similar pattern obtains in the Judicial Service. The proportions of Supreme Court and High Court Judges that are women are 29% and 25% respectively. In the Civil Service, only 24% of Chief Directors are women. The trend has not changed since 2008. At the local government level, only 14 of the 170 (8.2%) MCE/DCEs representing are women. In terms of regions, Central Region has three women District Chief Executive (DCE)/Municipal Chief Executive (MCE), and Ashanti, Eastern and Western regions each as two women DCE/MCE. Five regions; Brong Ahafo, Greater Accra, Upper East, Upper West and Volta each has one MCE/DCE while there is no woman DCE/MCE in the Northern region (see Appendix Table H2). This trend appears to run counter to the country's commitment to promote women's involvement in decision making. Clearly, Ghana's performance in ensuring gender equality and women empowerment requires strong commitment of the state to reverse the situation through affirmative action and advocacy in education and political appointment without compromising competence.

## **5. Maternal Health**

The Goal5 of the MDG seeks to reduce by three-quarters, the maternal mortality between 1990 and 2015. The target is monitored using maternal mortality ratio and proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.

### **5.1 Maternal Mortality**

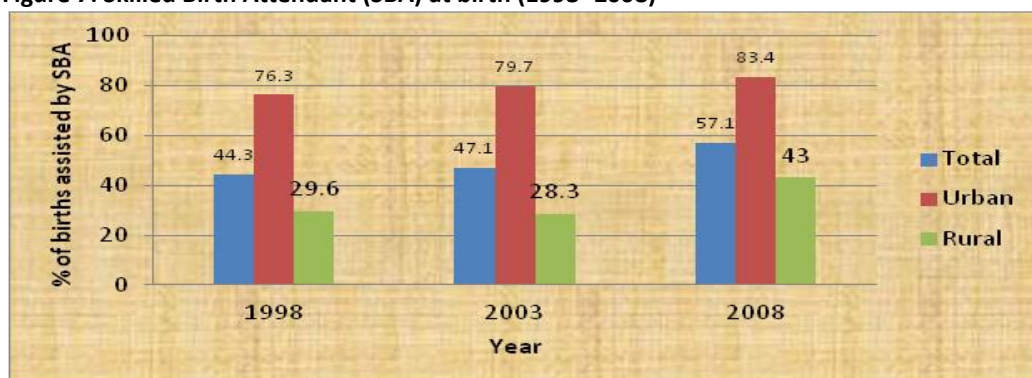
Ghana seems to have made some progress in the reduction of maternal mortality. Although the rate has been worryingly high, various health survey results indicate a fall from a high of 740 per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 451 per 100,000 live births in 2008 (Ghana Health Sector Review, 2009). Institutional maternal mortality ratio also indicates a decline from 216 per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 164 per 100,000 live births in 2010(IMMR). If the current trends continued, achieving the MDG target of 185 per 100,000 live births (from survey results) and 50 per 100,000 live births (from IMMR) would remain a big challenge. The introduction of free maternal health in 2008 and other similar interventions are expected to improve maternal health in the country, but a reduction of about 60% to 70% will be required by 2015 for Ghana to achieve this target.

There are regional disparities and age group in maternal health in the country. As per DHS 2008, maternal mortality ratio decreased in all regions except Greater Accra where it has worsened by 87.6 per 100,000 (Ghana Health Sector Review, 2010). Variations also exist among the age groups. The pregnancy-related mortality ratio (PRMR) for the 10 years preceding the 2008 health survey indicates that the risk of death per birth is higher for younger women (age 15- 19) and older women (age 35-44), compared with women age 20-34.

## 5.2 Births attended by Skilled Health Personnel

A critical element in maternal health is care provided by skilled professionals during pregnancy and childbirth. In Ghana, three quarters of all maternal deaths occur during birth and the immediate post-partum period. However, skilled birth attendance (SBA) remains low, and significant equity gap exists between urban and rural settlements. Out of the 62% of births reported to occur in rural areas, less than half, 43%, were assisted by SBA. The overall national average is 57% of births (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Skilled Birth Attendant (SBA) at birth (1998 -2008)



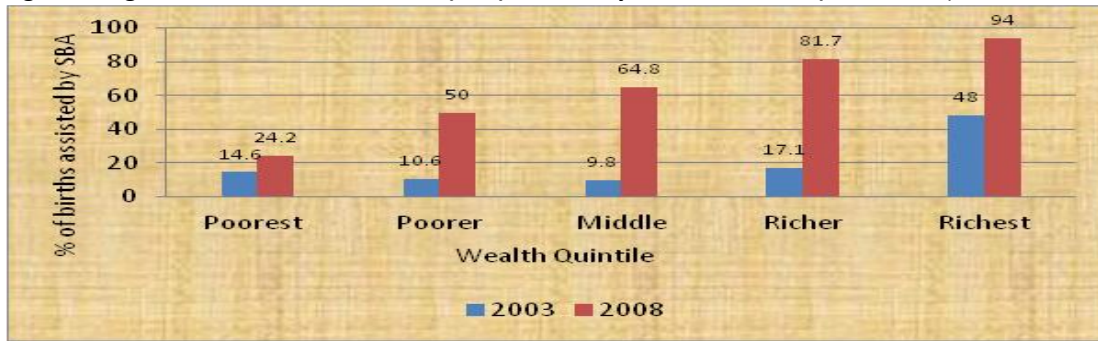
Source: GDHS, 1998, 2003 and 2008

With regard to regional variations, the utilization of SBA ranged from a high of 84% in the Greater Accra region to a low of 27% in the Northern areas in 2008 (Appendix I). According to the recent data on supervised deliveries in 2010, disparities among the regions appear to have worsened. Six of the country's 10 regions reported improved coverage of supervised delivery between 2009 and 2010, while four regions, Western, Eastern, Greater Accra and Volta regions experienced drops (Appendix Table J). Upper West Region reversed the negative in 2009 to improve coverage of supervised deliveries from 36.7% to 46.1% in 2010 (see Appendix Table J).

### Poverty, ANC and skilled birth attendance in Ghana

An analysis of the GDHS (2008) report, suggests that in 2008, at national level, 57% of births received skilled assistance (Figure 9). However, births to women in the poorest quintile had approximately 3 times less access to skilled care compared to their richest counterparts. Substantial increase in the SBA coverage was observed across all the wealth groups in the two surveys. However, coverage gap in accessing skilled care by the poorest and the richest remained wide. A further analysis of the data relating to problems women encounter in accessing health facilities confirms that poverty plays a critical role in women's decision to seek medical treatment or ANC. The greatest problem they face in accessing health care for themselves was lack of money, 45.1% (GDHS, 2008). Other problems cited were concerns that no drugs were available (45%), followed by non-availability of healthcare providers (44%) and then distance to health facility (26%). It is noteworthy that, free maternal health care policy that started in 2008 was not in place at the time of the said survey. Therefore, the picture may likely be different now.

**Figure 8: Figure: Skilled Birth Attendant (SBA) at birth by Wealth Quintile (1998 -2008)**



Source: GDHS (2003, and 2008)

## 6. Environment and Sanitation

The analysis of MDG7 of ensuring environmental sustainability in this paper focuses on three targets: integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources; halve by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation; and to have achieved by 2020, a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.

### 6.1 Sustainable Development and National Policies

Three indicators are used in assessing the Goal 7 target of integrating the principles of sustainable development into Ghana's policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources. These are (i) the cost of environmental degradation as a percentage of GDP; (ii) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, total, per capita and per \$1 GDP (PPP); and (iii) energy consumption per capita.

#### Cost of environmental degradation and implication for proper environmental governance

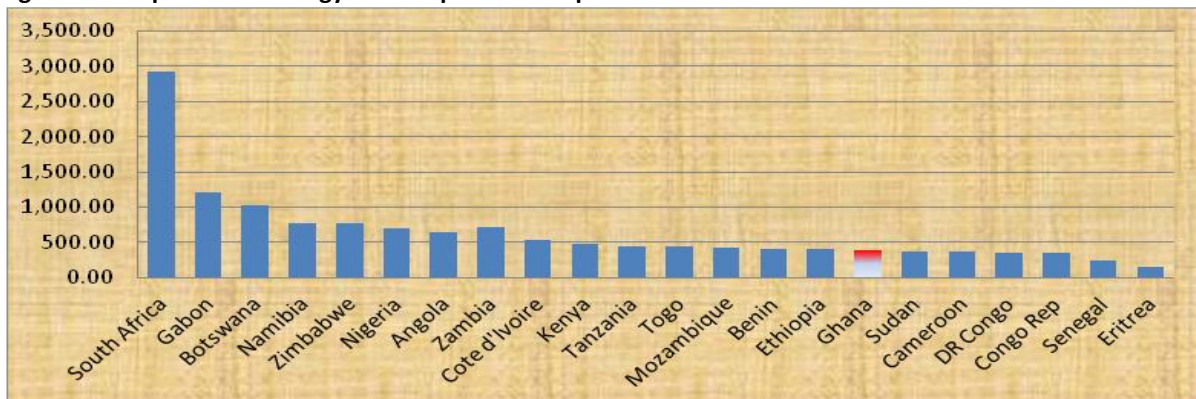
The fast growing population of Ghana continues to exert immense pressure on national resources and create waste management problems in the major towns and cities and rapid loss of biodiversity and wildlife populations. Between 1990 and 2010, Ghana has lost an average of 125400ha (or 1.68%) of forest per year or a total loss of 33.7% (i.e. around 250800ha) of the country's forest cover over the period (Appendix Table K). The cost of environmental degradation to the economy of Ghana is estimated at 7% of GDP for 2011 putting the estimated cost of the degradation at about \$2.7 billion per annum. This cost is captured in the form of loss of forest cover and arable land for farming, drying up of water bodies, decline in wildlife population and biodiversity and increasing risk associated with health related pollution. The estimated cost of environmental degradation has a significant impact on the capacity of the country to sustain its growth, as it substantially reduces the genuine savings rate. The rapid deforestation has serious welfare and livelihood effects on the people.



## Energy Consumption Per capita

Although energy consumption per capita is one of the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 9) and has not seen much significant increase since 1972, emissions from the energy sector in Ghana represent the fastest growing source of greenhouse gas emissions. The country's energy consumption per capita stood at 387.86 kg in 2009 from 345.6 in 1972, representing a marginal increase of about 12% (Appendix Table L). According to the GSNC/EPA (2011) report, total greenhouse gas emissions from the energy sector amounted to 5.9MtCO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2000, representing an increase of 79.5% above 1990 levels and an overall increase of 182.9% between 1990 and 2006. Within the energy sector, transport is the largest source of emissions (contributing 47% as against 35% by residential and 14 percent by manufacturing), although it declined by 9% between 2000 and 2006 due largely to the increase in importation of fairly new vehicles into Ghana as a result of government policy on importation of used cars. Government's policy on the promotion of wider use of liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) as a substitute for fuel-wood for household, incidentally led to the increased use of LPG as fuel in the road sector, largely because prices became far cheaper than the gasoline.

**Figure 9: Comparison of Energy Consumption Per Capita in Selected Countries in Africa**



*Source: World Development Indicator, World Bank 2009*

## Negative impacts of greenhouse gas (climate change)

The country is particularly vulnerable to climate change due to lack of capacity to undertake adaptive measures to address environmental problem and socio-economic cost of climate change. The extreme weather conditions over the years have resulted in floods, drought, bush fires, unpredicted rainfall patterns, sea level rise along the eastern coast, increased desertification/land degradation, and consistent loss of forest cover and loss of some biodiversity among others. Drought occurrences, which emanate from climate change impact negatively on poverty by increasing poverty incidence. For example, overall, a total number of 228,328 persons were displaced by disasters in 2011 across the country. This adds to the 2010 displaced people which stood at 334,869. Women (59,765) were the worse victims as compared to men (51,990). Flooding denies casualties access to basic necessities such as shelter, cloths etc. and exacerbate poor household's hardship.

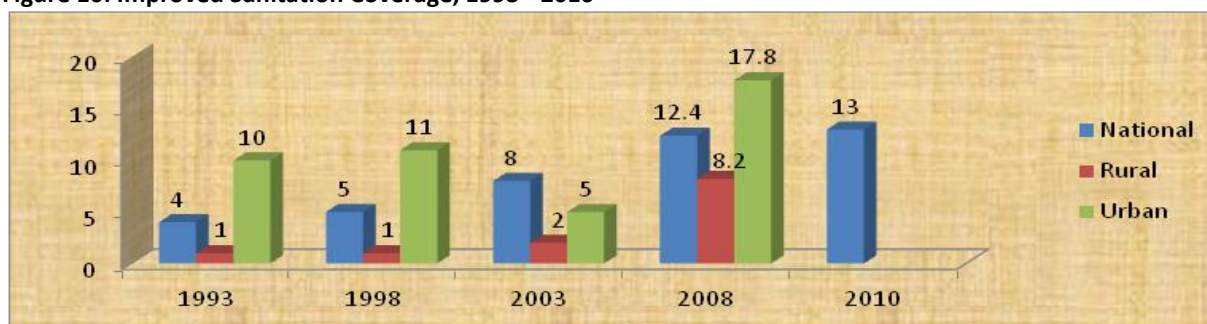
In the areas of agriculture, climate change has contributed to the deterioration of livelihood among rural communities in the coastal and the northern regions, which is reflected in declines of rural incomes, increased malnutrition and hunger.

As the majority in the agriculture, women bear the brunt of these effects. Increased incidences of flooding and drought aggravate sanitation problems experienced in urban areas and also pose multiple health risks. Poor sanitation related to diseases such as malaria and cholera put pressure on the national budget to prevent disease outbreaks. Climate change has also resulted in the increase sea level in various part of the coastal line.

## 6.2 Access to Safe Drinking Water and Basic Sanitation

Ghana continues to be on track to meeting the MDG target of halving the proportion of population using improved drinking water source but the same cannot be said for sanitation. While the MDG target for the country is 53%, by 2015, the national coverage for improved sanitation increased from 4% to 13% in 2010 (Figure 10). The implication is that, about 1.2 million people will need to have access to or use an improved sanitation facility each year till 2015. The urban areas saw considerable access to improved sanitation coverage between 1998 and 2003 from 11% to 15% respectively while the rural population saw an increase in coverage from 2% to 8.2% between 2003 and 2008 (see Appendix Table M). The improved sanitation is reflected in the increased proportion of households with access to toilet facilities (a flush toilet or the KVIP toilet) between 1991 and 2006 (Appendix Table N). However, the changes observed in rural areas have been rather small. Further analysis reveals that the increase in access is predominantly due to large increase in the use of KVIP toilets in urban areas over a 15 year period. Wealthier groups are found to have benefited much more than poorer households in both urban and rural areas based on wealth quintile (Appendix Table N). This indicates that wealthier and urban households are more likely to have access to adequate sanitation than poorer and rural households.

**Figure 10: Improved Sanitation Coverage, 1993 - 2010**



Source: JMP

## 6.3 Improvement in the lives of slum dwellers

Ghana's urban population is expected to double between 2000 and 2015. With an estimated population of at least 24 million in 2010, the number of people living in slum is estimated to be 4.6 million representing 43% of urban population. This is mainly explained by population growth and rural-urban migration. Like most slum dwellers around the world, Ghana's urban poor struggle with issues of secure land, poor housing, sanitation, infrastructure, fires and flooding and threats of forced evictions.

**Table 4: Population Living in Slum Areas in Ghana**

Year	Slum Population (in millions)	Slum population as % of urban population	Slum Population as % of total population
1990	4.10	80.4	27.2
2001	4.99	69.6	25.5
2005	---	45.4	21.0
2006	---	---	20.7
2007	---	---	20.0
2008	5.50	---	19.6
2010	---	---	18.7

*Source: GDHS, 2003 & MWRWH, NDPC, 2010*

Ghana has however made some progress in reducing the proportion of urban dwellers living in slums from 27.2% in 1990 to about 19.6% in 2008 in spite of the increase in population (Table 4). Similarly, the proportion of people living in slums in the country showed a decline from 80.4% in 1990 to about 45.4% in 2005. In absolute terms however, the total number of people living in slums increased from an estimated 4.1 million in 1990 to 5.5 million in 2008 (Table 4). Though, Ghana has witnessed considerable reduction in the number of people living in slums over the years, its current trend will leave some remarkable proportion of about 14% of the population still living in slum areas by 2020.

## **7. Conclusion and Recommendations**

The need for sustained effort in alleviating poverty in Ghana is premised on the fact that poverty has implications for other MDGs. The relationship between poverty and other key goals is quite clear. Indeed, lower primary school enrolment ratio is observed among children from poor households than non-poor households. In addition, poverty is observed to prevent women from accessing health facilities as a result of the difficulty in paying for treatment. Poverty is also found to be linked to access to basic sanitation. As such, the wealthy have benefited from improved access to basic sanitation than the poor.

### **Poverty Alleviation**

The high incidence of poverty in the three northern regions and among food crop farmers at the national level and in rural areas should engage the attention of policy makers and relevant stakeholders. Strategies to further reduce poverty therefore need to account for geographical, gender and socioeconomic disparities in poverty incidence. In this regard, the following recommendations are worth noting:

- High incidence of poverty among food crop and export farmers requires the need for a sustained policy focus on agriculture with increased access to affordable credit by farmers, provision of adequate extension services, and market for farm produce.
- The on-going buffer stock system should be sustained to ensure food security and also protect the incomes of farmers especially during periods of bumper harvest.
- The provision of necessary support for the three northern savannah regions where poverty is higher through rapid transformational development strategy should be a top priority.

- The on-going effort through the Savannah Accelerated Development Initiative, which aims to increase agricultural productivity and reduce the exposure of the people to collective risk among others, is one of such progressive measures for the realisation of sustainable poverty alleviation. After the establishment of the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA) as the coordinating and implementing agency, the necessary funds should be provided for implementation.
- Attention should also be paid to addressing the perennial flooding caused by the opening of the Bagre dam in Burkina Faso through proper coordination between officials of Ghana and Burkina Faso, backed by measures to harvest the excess water from the dam for productive use.
- The on-going social protection interventions such as cash transfer system under the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) should be properly targeted and extended to cover more people who may be chronically poor regardless of the region they reside.

### **Food Security**

The adoption of pragmatic policy strategy to further improve domestic food production is one major condition to facilitate rapid decline in stunting to meet the 2015 MDG target. Since 2008, Ghana has recorded surplus in the supply of most domestic food crop (see Appendix Table E). This should be sustained to facilitate the improvement in nutritional status of children and adults in the country. Furthermore, the education of the girl child has positive results on improving nutritional status of children.

### **Employment Generation**

In all, government should see productive and decent employment generation as the best and sustainable means of alleviating poverty in Ghana. Consequently, treating employment generation as a core of government policies should be a priority. Although, economic growth has been quite remarkable, averaging 8.3% between 2007 and 2011, the generation of decent and productive employment continues to elude the country. This calls for a review of current macroeconomic and sectoral policies with the introduction of targeted and more employment oriented initiatives to reverse the problem of weak employment friendly growth. Measures to sustain macroeconomic stability should be complemented with targeted interventions towards the promotion of private sector development. This includes rapid infrastructural development, review of external trade policies to support the growth of domestic manufacturing enterprises, and put in place measures to ensure the flow of affordable credit to Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs).

### **Universal Basic Education**

The stagnation in primary school enrolment ratio, GPI, and primary school completion rate create some doubts about the country's ability to achieve the target of universal basic education. Increased efforts by government at building new schools in deprived areas should be sustained to ensure the complete removal of all "schools under trees" to step up primary school enrolment across the country. A complete abolishing of all fees in basic schools, the expansion of school feeding programme, and free school uniforms and books is one other sure way of ending the stagnation of enrolment ratio towards the realisation of the universal basic education target.

## **Promoting Gender Equality and Women Empowerment**

Although, women's education has seen remarkable improvement in recent times, the very low share of women in non-agriculture wage employment and their underrepresentation in national Parliament and other political positions require stronger policy effort to improve gender equality and promote the empowerment of women. An introduction of support or incentives such as tax rebate for employers who offer the mandatory three month pay maternity leave for women as stipulated in the Labour Act (Act 651) will help promote access to wage employment by women. In addition, political parties should be encouraged to reserve a proportion of "safe parliamentary seats" for only women to compete as a means to getting more women into Parliament. That will in turn facilitate the appointment of more women into government. Besides, government should increase its commitment in promoting women's involvement in decision-making at the local level by appointing more women to the DCE/MCEs positions.

## **Maternal Health**

Improvement in maternal health has been quite slow with regional disparities on account of low rate of birth attended by skilled birth attendants. To overcome these problems, Ghana should fully implement the recently developed MDG Acceleration Framework (MAF) for maternal health that was used to secure 52 million Euros. The three key intervention areas of the MAF: improving service delivery, Family Planning services and Emergency Obstetrics and Neonatal care (EmONC) when implemented as planned may go a long way towards addressing the country's maternal health challenges<sup>1</sup>.

## **Environment**

There are a number of existing provisions and legislations sufficient to deal with natural resources management, environmental degradation, and sustainability of growth issues, but enforcement has been a major problem. Some of the constraints for effective policing of the environment include weak policy environment, weak coordination among partner organisations; inadequate knowledge management system; and poor staff remuneration. The attendant effects are poor service quality, low implementation of programmes, and inadequate mainstreaming environmental issues in sector programmes. Overcoming these challenges may improve the environment.

## **Sanitation**

The challenges facing the country's bid to meet the MDG 7 target on sanitation is enormous and require urgent multi-stakeholder action plan to address them. The country continues to face waste disposal challenges such as poor development planning/poor infrastructure, inadequate funding for logistics, infrastructure and landfills; negative public attitude towards sanitation; and ineffective coordination of sanitation delivery agencies at the regional and district levels. Ghana therefore needs to improve on its strategies to expedite the progress towards MDG 7, especially sanitation.

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<sup>1</sup>see MAF – Country Action Plan for Maternal Health, 2010

At the current pace of increase in the use of improved sanitation, the number of people in Ghana who would be without improved toilet facilities will be 18.7 million by 2015. Ghana has also developed another MAF for Sanitation in order to fast track the attainment of MDG 7C by 2015. The three key strategic intervention areas identified for improving basic sanitation under the MDG Acceleration Framework (MAF) are, scaling-up Community-Led Total Sanitation (CLTS) country-wide, implementing decentralised treatment/disposal systems incorporating harvesting/re-use of biogas, and rolling out targeted Micro-finance credit scheme for household latrine construction. Government and development partners should work together to mobilise resources for the implementation of MAF for sanitation and other interventions.

#### **Data for Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation**

There is need for conscious efforts on the part of government and development partners to take keen interest in investing in the production and publication of regular, accurate, and timely socio-economic data to facilitate effective planning, monitoring and evaluation of the outcome of government policies and programmes. Therefore, the on-going capacity strengthening of the Ghana Statistical Service should continue.

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## Appendices

**Table A: Poverty Incidence by Region and Location**

Region/Location	Upper Poverty				Extreme Poverty			
	Incidence		Distribution		Incidence		Distribution	
	1998/99	2005/06	1998/99	2005/06	1998/99	2005/06	1998/99	2005/06
Western	27.3	18.4	8.0	6.5	13.6	7.9	5.9	4.4
Central	48.4	19.9	11.0	6.1	31.5	9.7	10.5	4.7
Greater Accra	5.2	11.8	1.6	5.8	2.4	6.2	1.1	4.7
Eastern	43.7	15.1	12.9	7.1	30.4	6.6	13.2	4.9
Volta	37.7	31.4	11.9	8.2	20.4	15.2	9.5	6.2
Ashanti	27.7	20.3	11.8	11.9	16.4	11.2	10.3	10.4
Brong Ahafo	35.8	29.5	7.9	9.5	18.8	14.9	6.1	7.5
Northern	69.2	52.3	18.0	22.3	57.5	38.7	21.9	25.9
Upper East	88.0	70.4	10.1	11.7	79.6	60.1	13.4	15.8
Upper West	83.9	87.9	6.9	10.9	68.3	79.0	8.2	15.5
Rural	49.5	39.2	83.4	85.7	34.6	25.6	85.4	88.1
Urban	19.4	10.8	16.6	14.3	11.6	5.7	14.6	11.9
National	39.5	28.5	100	100	26.8	18.2	100	100

*Source: GLSS IV & V, GSS*

**Table B: The Depth of Poverty and Share of Poorest Quintile in National Consumption**

Region/Location	Poverty Gap Ratio			Share of Poorest Quintile		
	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06
Western	23	25	34	8.4	8.2	7.5
Central	22	31	29	7.6	8.2	7.1
Greater Accra	26	20	25	7.5	8.6	6.1
Eastern	23	36	33	8.3	6.9	8.3
Volta	23	26	35	8.0	8.6	7.9
Ashanti	26	32	31	7.0	6.1	6.6
Brong Ahafo	26	27	35	8.2	8.2	7.3
Northern	40	43	47	5.7	7.5	6.0
Upper East	46	50	43	7.3	8.8	6.2
Upper West	55	47	47	9.3	8.5	6.2
Rural	38	37	34	7.7	6.6	6.4
Urban	27	28	29	7.5	6.8	6.5
National	36	35	34	6.8	5.8	5.6

*Source: GLSS IV & V, GSS*



**Table C: Poverty Incidence by Main Economic Activity**

Economic Activity	Poverty Incidence			Contribution to National Poverty		
	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06
Public sector employment	34.7	22.7	7.8	9.1	6.2	1.9
Private formal employment	30.3	11.3	10.1	2.3	1.4	2.5
Private informal employment	38.6	25.2	17.1	2.3	1.9	4.0
Export farmers	64.0	38.7	24.0	7.8	6.9	6.2
Food crop farmers	68.1	59.4	45.5	57.3	58.1	68.5
Non-farm self-employed	38.4	28.6	17.0	20.5	24.5	15.6
Non-working	18.8	20.4	13.3	0.7	1.1	1.3

**Source:** GLSS IV & V, GSS

**Table D: Nutritional Status of Children by geographical location and Mother's Education**

Region	Stunting	Underweight	Wasting	Location/ Education	Stunting	Underweight	Wasting
<b>Region</b>				<b>Location</b>			
Western	27.0	10.3	5.6	National	28.0	13.9	8.5
Central	33.7	17.2	12.0	Rural	32.3	16.0	9.1
Greater Accra	14.2	6.5	5.9	Urban	21.1	10.6	7.6
Volta	26.8	13.6	5.2	<b>Mother Education</b>			
Eastern	37.9	8.7	6.4	No education	29.6	17.2	11.4
Ashanti	26.5	12.1	9.2	Primary	31.6	13.5	7.7
Brong Ahafo	25.2	13.5	5.4	Middle/JSS	25.1	12.4	8.3
Northern	32.4	21.8	12.9	Secondary+	17.5	6.8	5.4
Upper East	36.0	27.0	10.8				
Upper West	24.6	13.1	13.9				

**Source:** GDHS, 2008

**Table E: Total Domestic Production and Deficit/Surplus of Key Staples 2008-2010**

Staple Food Crop	Domestic Production			Deficit/Surplus		
	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010
Cassava	11,351	12,260	13,504	4,370	4,889	5,681
Cocoyam	1,688	1,504	1,355	668	468	300
Cowpea	180	205	219	36	54	63
Groundnut	470	205	219	142	185	182
Maize	1,470	1,620	1,872	66	146	311
Millet	194	246	219	145	190	166
Rice (Milled)	302	391	492	-404	-372	-336
Sorghum	331	351	324	276	293	270
Soyabean	75	113	145	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Yam	4,895	5,778	5,960	2,936	3,616	3,735

**Source:** Ministry of Agriculture

**Table F: Enrolment Rates in Primary School by Region, 2007–2010**

Region	GER			NER			GPI		
	07/08	08/09	09/10	07/08	08/09	09/10	07/08	08/09	09/10
Ashanti	92.0	93.2	92.3	83.2	89.4	82.9	0.97	0.97	0.98
Brong Ahafo	98.3	99.8	101.0	87.5	95.9	88.2	0.95	0.96	0.97
Central	108.8	107.7	109.2	99.4	103.6	96.9	0.97	0.97	0.97
Eastern	95.8	93.6	90.1	83.9	86.0	80.2	0.97	0.97	0.97
Greater Accra	87.7	85.9	85.8	80.0	79.6	75.8	0.98	0.98	0.98
Northern	92.1	93.5	96.0	71.8	84.0	82.8	0.88	0.87	0.87
Upper East	96.9	94.1	93.8	77.7	80.7	81.1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Upper West	98.1	100.0	100.2	77.2	79.1	85.8	1.05	1.04	1.04
Volta	89.7	89.9	88.7	77.9	83.2	76.2	0.93	0.92	0.93
Western	98.7	98.9	100.3	86.6	96.5	89.8	0.95	0.96	0.97
<b>National</b>	<b>95.0</b>	<b>94.9</b>	<b>94.9</b>	<b>82.9</b>	<b>88.5</b>	<b>88.5</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.96</b>

Source: Ministry of Education

**Table G: Completion Rate of Primary Education**

Completion Rate	Boys			Girls			All		
	07/08	08/09	09/10	07/08	08/09	09/10	07/08	08/09	09/10
Ashanti	88.4	89.5	88.7	80.5	82.2	82.3	84.5	85.8	85.5
Brong Ahafo	89.4	90.3	92.2	79.6	82.0	85.2	84.5	86.2	88.7
Central	102.6	101.6	103.9	99.1	97.7	98.9	100.9	99.7	101.5
Eastern	86.3	83.9	80.5	82.1	79.5	77.5	84.2	81.8	79.0
Greater Accra	88.0	85.4	85.7	81.5	81.2	81.0	84.6	83.2	83.2
Northern	85.6	90.0	94.3	72.6	76.7	82.5	79.4	83.7	88.7
Upper East	77.3	81.2	83.9	80.7	84.8	87.3	78.9	82.9	85.5
Upper West	76.9	83.3	89.2	80.9	88.1	91.3	78.8	85.6	90.2
Volta	84.2	85.7	84.2	75.7	76.3	76.1	80.0	81.1	80.3
Western	96.2	96.8	96.3	90.0	90.3	92.5	93.2	93.6	94.4
National	88.7	89.3	89.3	82.3	83.2	83.2	85.5	86.3	86.3

Source: Ministry of Education

**Table H1: Share of Women in Key Political and Administrative Positions (%)**

Position	2008	2009	2010
Ministers	n.a	21.0	18.9
Deputy Ministers	n.a.	20.0	20.0
Supreme Court Judges	29.0	29.0	29.0
High Court Judges	25.0	25.0	25.0
Chief Directors	24.0	24.0	24.0
District Assembly Appointees	28.0	7.3	n.a
Elected District Assembly members	11.0	11.0	6.8

*Source: Government of Ghana, 2011*

**Table H2: Gender Distribution of DCE/MCEs and MPs by Region**

Regions	DCE/MCE		Total	Women's Share (%)	Members of Parliament			Women's Share
	Male	Females			Male	Female	Total	
Ashanti	25	2	27	7.4	35	4	39	10.3
Brong Ahafo	21	1	22	4.5	24	0	24	0
Central	14	3	17	17.6	18	1	19	5.3
Eastern	19	2	21	9.5	25	3	28	10.7
Greater Accra	9	1	10	10.0	23	4	27	14.8
Northern	20	0	20	0	25	1	26	3.8
Upper East	8	1	9	11.1	13	0	13	0
Upper West	8	1	9	11.1	9	1	10	10.0
Volta	17	1	18	5.6	20	2	22	9.1
Western	15	2	17	11.8	19	3	22	13.6
All	156	14	170	8.2	211	19	230	8.3

*Source: Ghana Districts, A Repository of all Districts in Ghana, <http://ghanadistricts.com>*

**Table I: % of Birth attended by Skilled Birth Attendant (SBA) by Region 1998 -2008)**

Region	1998	2003	2008
Greater Accra	72.6	73.5	84.3
Ashanti	58.0	57.6	72.6
Brong Ahafo	51.3	51.6	65.5
Western	44.6	44.8	61.7
Eastern	47.3	48.3	60.8
Central	44.8	40.3	54.0
Volta	34.4	36.0	53.7
Upper East	19.1	22.5	46.7
Upper West	16.8	16.8	46.1
Northern	11.1	11.1	27.2

*Source: GDHS 2008*

**Table J: Supervised deliveries by Region 2006 – 2010 (%)**

Region	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Greater Accra	42.2	43.1	50.2	47.9	45.0
Ashanti	40.8	26.7	35.0	42.4	44.6
Brong Ahafo	47.4	34.5	49.8	53.7	55.2
Western	34.8	17.6	39.1	42.6	42.0
Eastern	38.7	43.1	48.0	52.1	51.3
Central	74.0	22.3	56.3	52.5	54.1
Volta	35.4	33.3	37.5	39.4	33.4
Upper East	38.4	43.5	40.4	52.6	59.9
Upper West	28.8	32.9	40.6	36.7	46.1
Northern	25.1	27.7	26.0	36.1	35.5
National	44.5	32.1	42.2	45.6	48.2

*Source: CHIM*

**Table K: Rate of forest deforestation and Percentage of Forest Land in Ghana (1990 -2007)**

Year	Forest Cover (% of land area)	Rate of Deforestation	Year	Forest Cover (% of land area)	Rate of Deforestation
1990	32.73	---	1999	27.38	-2.13
1991	32.14	-1.82	2000	26.78	-2.17
1992	31.54	-1.85	2001	26.27	-1.89
1993	30.95	-1.89	2002	25.77	-1.93
1994	30.35	-1.92	2003	25.26	-1.97
1995	29.76	-1.96	2004	24.75	-2.01
1996	29.16	-2.00	2005	24.25	-2.05
1997	28.57	-2.04	2006	23.74	-2.09
1998	27.97	-2.08	2007	23.23	-2.14

*Source: FAO of UN's Global Forest Resources Assessment (2005 & 2010) and the State of the World's Forests (2009)*

**Table L: Energy Consumption per capita (kg), 1972 – 2009**

Year	Energy Consumption	Year	Energy Consumption
1972	345.6	1992	362.2
1974	364.5	1994	373.5
1976	362.0	1996	384.1
1978	370.7	1998	403.4
1980	368.4	2000	403.8
1982	372.3	2002	418.0
1984	314.9	2004	400.5
1986	341.3	2006	400.1
1988	342.6	2009	387.9
1990	357.7		

*Source: World Development Indicator, World Bank 2009*

**Table M: Trends in access to improved sanitation, 1993 – 2010**

Year	Rural	Urban	National
1993	1.0	10.0	4.0
1998	1.0	11.0	5.0
2003	2.0	15.0	8.0
2008	8.2	17.8	12.4

*Source: GDHS (1993, 1998, 2003 & 2008)*

**Table N: Percentage of households using a flush or a KVIP toilet, by locality and standard of living quintile**

Locality	Quintile	1991/92	1998/99	2005/06
Urban	Lowest	55	55	76
	Second	68	69	86
	Third	77	77	84
	Fourth	79	84	86
	Richest	84	94	91
Rural	Lowest	32	45	64
	Second	32	46	60
	Third	35	50	61
	Fourth	34	52	66
	Richest	41	58	67

*Source: GLSS (1991, 1998 and 2006)*

Table O: Summary of selected MDGs and their indicators

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)		
Goals and Targets (from the Millennium Declaration)	Indicators for monitoring progress	
<b>Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</b>		
<b>Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day</b>	1.1 Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) per day 1.2 Poverty gap ratio 1.3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends – gender, geographical disparities, socio-economic groups?</li> <li>• Will gains be sustained?</li> </ul>
<b>Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people</b>	1.4 Employment-to-population ratio 1.5 Proportion of employed people living below \$1 (PPP) per day?? (if possible)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends – gender, location, socio-economic groups?</li> <li>• Have opportunities for full and productive employment remained particularly slim for women</li> </ul>
<b>Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger</b>	1.6 Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends –geographical disparities, socio-economic groups?</li> <li>• Have the poorest children made the slowest progress in terms of improved nutrition</li> </ul>
<b>Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education</b>		
<b>Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling</b>	3.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.1 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends – gender, location, socio-economic groups?</li> <li>• Will being poor or female increases the probability that a child will be out of school?</li> </ul>
<b>Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women</b>		
<b>Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015</b>	3.2 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector 3.3 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends – location, and socio-economic groups?</li> <li>• Are opportunities for woman participation in political governance decreasing?</li> </ul>
<b>Goal 5: Improve maternal health</b>		
<b>Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio</b>	5.1 Maternal mortality ratio 5.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends – primarily focusing on geographical disparities as a means to targeting interventions</li> <li>• Will being a poor increases the vulnerability of mothers to mortality (Socio-economic dimension or child mortality)?</li> <li>• Possibility of discussing child mortality issues under this</li> </ul>
<b>Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</b>		
<b>Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources</b>	7.1 Cost of environmental degradation as a percentage of GDP (discuss its implication for proper environmental governance) 7.2 CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per \$1 GDP (PPP) 7.3 Energy consumption per capita	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends in the overall attainments of goal and targets?</li> <li>• Analyse implication of CO2 emission for climate change interventions in Ghana</li> </ul>
<b>Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation</b>	7.4 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there any worrying trends in the overall attainments of target?</li> <li>• Has progress been uneven in improving sanitation</li> </ul>
<b>Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers</b>	7.5 Proportion of urban population living in slums <sup>ii</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has improving the lives of a growing number of urban poor remains a challenge?</li> </ul>