

GHANA MILLENNIUM CHALLENGE ACCOUNT PROGRAM

COMPACT II



Powering Ghana for Accelerated and Sustainable Economic Growth

SOCIAL AND GENDER ANALYSIS

SUBMITTED TO
MILLENNIUM CHALLENGE CORPORATION
WASHINGTON D.C

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ACRONYMS

AA	Affirmative Action
ADF-OSHD	African Development Fund -
ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
ADVANCE	Agricultural Development and Value Chain Enhancement
BfA	Beijing Platform of Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CHPS	Community-Based Health Planning Services
DV	Domestic Violence
EDIF	Export Development Investment Fund
EFA	Education For All
FIDA	Federation of Women Lawyers
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
GADS	Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy
GDOs	Gender Desk Officers
GDHS	Ghana Demographic and Health Survey
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GEST	Gender Equality Sector Group
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GOG	Government of Ghana
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GRATIS	Ghana Regional Appropriate Technology Industrial Service
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
IFIs	International Financial Institutions
LAP	Land Administration Project
LPG	Liquefied Petroleum Gas
MCC	Millennium Challenge Corporation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
MoWAC	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NGOs	Non-governmental Organizations
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
PNDCL	Provisional National Defence Council Law
SADA	Savanna Accelerated Development Authority
SIP	Strategic Implementation Plan
MSMEs	Medium and Small Manufacturing Enterprises
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
WILDAF	Women in Law and Development
WISE	Women Initiative for Self Empowerment
UG	University of Ghana
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Context and Purpose of Social and Gender Analysis

After successfully implementing the innovative Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) Compact I, Ghana, again, has been nominated for another Compact Program. The Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) and Ghana Government have chosen to focus Compact II on alleviating the problems of inadequate and unreliable supply of electricity. The MCC Gender Integration Guidelines and MCC Gender Policy Document specify guidelines to ensure social and gender integration throughout the stages of a Compact program. The existence of gender inequality or disparity in the socio-economic opportunities available to women and men in Ghana make social and gender integration in Compact design a critical requirement for achieving poverty reduction through private sector led economic growth as envisaged by Compact II.

The impact of Compact II will be measured, in part, by the extent to which reforms and improved efficiency in the energy sector, has been able to positively change the lives and livelihood of the poor in the implementation locations. Impact will also be measured as to how gender equity, and the empowerment of women have been core and central to the implementation process. The purpose of this document is to argue the case why Compact II should concentrate on social and gender issues while tackling the technical gaps.

Social and Gender Constraints in Ghana

Legal, institutional and political context

The overall legal and regulatory framework in Ghana promotes the principles of gender equality. The 1992 Fourth Republic Constitution, Act 17(3) prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender, and constitutes Ghana's commitment and the basic legal framework for gender equality and women's empowerment. Ghana has also ratified the major international conventions, treaties and protocols on the rights of women and children. The Ministry of Women and Children (MOWAC), in collaboration with its partners, is spearheading the implementation of legislation to support women and children. In spite of the fact that many laws have been passed, cultural and societal perception of women and institutional and procedural barriers makes it difficult for women to occupy positions particularly in governance as well as assert their rights and pursue redress when those rights are violated.

Cultural prejudice rooted in gender stereotypes; women's unwillingness to take up political challenges; the negative self-confidence and perception that many women hold about themselves; difficulties faced by women in gaining access to productive resources are some of the several factors that contribute to women's low participation in decision making. Physical and cultural barriers that stigmatize women who pursue their rights and pressurized into withdrawing reported cases, frustrations occasioned by administrative delays, the attitude of some law enforcement agencies towards women, and the lack of knowledge about the court systems, administrative and medical costs and time constraints all contribute to impeding women's access to justice.

Moreover, MoWAC also has limited capacity to undertake its mandate particularly in the area of monitoring and evaluation and the coordination of activities across and among sector ministries.

More pragmatic measures must therefore be instituted towards addressing the challenges that women continue to face. This must include strengthening linkages between institutional mechanisms at all levels, including structural and communication challenges.

Socio-economic Context

Education

Ghana's commitment to the Beijing Platform of Action (BfA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have brought about increased commitments to girls' education and there have been several educational reforms to address the gaps and inequities in education. However, gender and social disparities in education and literacy levels exist particularly at the secondary level and after secondary level education. As a result, public universities have instituted processes of affirmative action to improve gender representation in enrolments and this has resulted in the narrowing of gaps at that level. But enrolment in science-oriented programs is still a challenge for girls.

Health

The Ghana 2010 Report on the MDGs highlights the fact that though maternal health care has improved over the past 20 years, the pace has been slow and it is unlikely that Ghana will achieve MDG 5 target of reducing the maternal mortality rate by three quarters by 2015.

Economic Activity and Access to Major Productive Resources

Women represent 50.1% of the total labour force with the majority in the informal economy, in agriculture and other small and micro businesses. In agriculture, women make up of over 70 percent of food crop farmers. In spite of their significant contribution, they have limited land access and ownership as compared to men. About 80 percent of rural land is regulated by customary law, under the custodian and guardianship of traditional authorities. According to customary law, all members of a lineage are entitled to usufructuary rights (the use of land) regardless of sex. But in practice, gender is one of the determinants in positioning individuals in having primary or secondary rights to accessing land.

Extension services to women in particular are generally low in Ghana as a result of inadequate extension agents particularly females to offer services to female farmers. Also access to markets remains a challenge and these have implications for women's poverty. Access of the poor to formal financial services is also low in Ghana particularly for women, who operate many small businesses and the rural population. Credit, thus remains a major challenge.

Gender and the Energy Sector

National level Issues

At the national level, the national development plans often give some focus and attention to energy, but little attention to the linkage between gender and energy. The Ministry of Energy which has the responsibility for developing and implementing the sector's policy for the country and does so by working closely with its sector departments and agencies including the Energy Commission, the Public Utilities Regulatory Commission (PURC) and the Electricity Company of Ghana, has very limited staff capacity in gender issues, to effectively apply gender analysis and integrate gender into its programs and activities. Thus within the Ministry and many of its partner organizations, there may be a limited perspective on understanding the relationship between social and gender issues with regards to energy.

Challenges identified in the energy sector with regards to gender include the lack of energy sector sex disaggregated data which makes it difficult to estimate the number of women and men who have access to energy services, lack of personnel and gender experts within the energy sector due to lack of training in gender, no budget for gender integration activities, limited involvement of women in the planning and management of energy services at national, regional and district levels. Currently, there is only one (1) woman as against seven (7) men at the board level. The energy sector is thus one that is highly male dominated.

Community level Issues

At the community level, fuel wood and cooking are known to be the most time-consuming activities carried out by particularly rural women. As a result, women are relatively time poor as they spend time and effort in cooking, fuel wood collection and food processing. This has health and poverty implications. The availability of energy can however reduce the drudgery of arduous tasks of women, such as grinding, milling and food preparation, thereby saving time and increase opportunity for enterprise and income generation activities.

Recommendations for Social and Gender priority areas and opportunities for Compact II

Based on the Ghanaian social and gender constraints and particularly in the energy sector, the following recommendations have been made based on the five programs areas identified under Compact II.

1. Access and Productive Use Program

- **Electrification of Markets, Schools and Community Clients/ Health Posts**

This will have positive impact on the socially poor and will enhance the economic empowerment of particularly women. For this to happen, large markets in urban communities as well as potential rural markets that serve as aggregating points for many rural people, as well as economic enclaves for many women, should be targeted. Deprived schools in poor rural communities should also be targeted.

- **Solar Systems for Isolated Communities**

Isolated communities should be targeted as this will help such communities to get electricity, and enhance economic activities. Considering the current power outages, this project could be piloted in low income urban communities. The success of this pilot could influence policy change on promoting renewable energy sources.

- **Electricity Upgrades for Economic Enclaves**

Women-owned micro and small enterprises should be given special preference as this will help in the process of economic empowerment of women towards poverty reduction. Small and micro businesses such as clients of GRATIS Ghana Foundation should also be considered. One issue that may pose as a challenge in this activity may be the issue of land ownership, for instance, in the siting of electric poles. In such cases, it is expected that owners are duly compensated.

- **Intensification of Peri-Urban Networks**

Deprived peri-urban communities should be selected for this project. The policy of service connection fee must be looked at again to enable as many as possible to have access and make productive use of it.

- **Installation of Multifunctional Platforms (MFPs)**

A modified MFP, using electric power, can be introduced in targeted market sites and schools to help in processing of grains for both commercial use and household consumption. This will not only help reduce the daily drudgery of women but also improve the income levels of women. Young female students studying science in the tertiary institutions could be part of the maintenance training programs as a way of introducing girls into the electricity sector.

- **Effective Consultation at the local level**

For the program to meet gender equity in community decision making, it is important that effective consultation be undertaken at the local level. Conscious efforts should be made to bring women into the process of decision making as to the siting of these facilities. This will enhance community ownership of the process.

2. Demand Side Management Program

- **Community Education on Power Use**

COMPACT II should collaborate with the Energy Foundation and Energy Commission to educate the electricity consuming public, and potential clients (new connections) on benefits of electricity conservation and efficiency. The nationwide public education and awareness creation campaign education should utilize all available mass publicity campaign methods: Print and Electronic Media, Radio and Television, Public fora and Durbars; Focus group meetings, use of National Council for Civic Education (NCCE) personnel and facilities.

3. Improved Generation Capacity Program

- **Community Consultation and Compensation on the Establishment of Gas to Power Park**

This project may have significant effect on the socioeconomic lives of the community members as the availability of electricity may be put to productive uses. However, it may affect poor rural men and women's farms, which may be a major source of their livelihood. Community consultation including the voices of both men and women should be done. In the event that farm lands will be lost or affected due to the generation and transmission of the power, the affected persons (be they indigenes or migrant communities) must be duly compensated.

- **Private Sector Involvement in Power Generation**

Private sector involvement in power generation will be positive for the country. The social and gender equity issues are that in ensuring full cost recovery, its implications for the poor should be carefully considered. It is proposed that there should be a national debate and consensus building on the "cost reflective tariff vis-à-vis inadequate supply of electricity".

- **A National Gender Study on Lifeline Tariffs**

It is proposed that COMPACT II undertakes a nationwide gender study on life line tariffs to identify the real challenges associated with this policy from a gender perspective. Issues of gender, safety nets vis-a-vis government affordability should be considered in the study.

4. Distribution System Reinforcement Program

The Tamale and Tema Operational areas will concentrate on the reinforcement of the Tamale Power System and the Tema Operation Area Power System which may include institutional reforms. As much as possible, qualified females should be brought on board as part of the management structure of the utilities, as a way of bridging the gender gap in the electricity sector.

5. Revenue Improvement Program

As part of ensuring efficient metering and billing systems, females should as much as possible be trained to be meter readers as a way of improving female participation in the electricity sector.

ECG should be “rebranded” to change the public image of the company. There should be capacity building in gender issues for all management and staff of the utility services. This will make their services more gender-sensitive.

Other Recommendations

- The reform of the Regulatory bodies should take account of Government’s Affirmative action of 40% female representation on Statutory Boards, Commission and Committees. Young female students pursuing engineering related courses in tertiary institutions could be enticed to be part of the pilot schemes in selected communities to generate interest.
- To ensure the successful implementation of the productive use of electricity from a social and gender perspective, complementary activities linked to the productive uses of electricity should be undertaken. This could include the following:
 - Low electricity tariff and low service connection fees.
 - Access to education (functional and formal)
 - Transportation system.
 - Marketing outlets to sell finished products.
 - Availability of resource mobilization schemes to support potentially profitable micro and small scale enterprises.
 - Construction of feeder roads to open up critical areas for productive use of electricity.
- Due to limited information on the social and gender dimensions of the productive use of electricity, the following studies are also recommended:
 - A national study on decisions concerning electricity purchase and use at the household level.
 - Socio-economic analysis of targeted communities, small hamlets and island villages, to provide data on men and women of the communities, inform on their respective economic activities, access to productive resources, revenue etc.
 - A study on the use of pre-paid meters (its current use, the monitoring of the meters, perception and effects of pre-paid meters on the poor and vulnerable groups).

CHAPTER 1

1.0 CONTEXT AND PURPOSE OF SOCIAL AND GENDER ANALYSIS

1.1 CONTEXT

After successfully implementing the innovative Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) Compact I introduced by the United States Government, and administered by the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) to help fight against global poverty, Ghana, again, has been nominated for another Compact Program. Ghana's nomination for Compact II provides another window of opportunity to fast track recent gains made in its economic growth and social development.

To properly identify key factors that stifle the growth of Ghana's economy and to judiciously target Compact investments, the Government of Ghana and MCC conducted a Constraints Analysis which identified Power, Credit and Land Property Rights as binding constraints to economic growth. The Ghana Government and MCC have chosen to focus Compact II on alleviating the problems of inadequate and unreliable supply of electricity.

Though the process of identifying and prioritizing what needs to be done is necessary, equally critical to the achievement of the Compact's objective to maximize its benefits, is the recognition and integration of social and gender issues in Compact programs and projects. Gender inequality or disparity can create a serious constraint to economic growth and poverty reduction.

The MCC Gender Integration Guidelines¹ and MCC Gender Policy Document² specify requirements to ensure gender integration throughout the stages of a Compact program. It states that based on an analysis of gender differences and inequalities, countries are to identify project beneficiaries disaggregated by sex and provide an explanation of how the Compact program components will be designed to take into account gender differences and correct gender inequalities that are constraints to economic growth and poverty reduction.

The existence of gender inequality or disparity in the socio-economic opportunities available to women and men in Ghana, and regional economic disparities and evidence of significant income inequalities make social and gender integration in the Compact design a critical requirement for achieving poverty reduction and accelerating economic growth as envisaged by Compact II.

1.2 Purpose of Document

The social and gender constraints to Poverty Reduction Analysis is a gender milestone required by MCC to be completed in two phases. This analysis is conducted from a pro-poor/social inclusion perspective and is to inform and guide the developments of the projects. The purpose of this document is to argue the case why Compact II should concentrate on social and gender issues while tackling the technical gaps in the energy sector.

¹ MCC Gender Integration Guidelines, March 2011

² MCC Gender Policy, May 18, 2011 DCO-2011-1.3

An efficient cost effective electricity in Ghana may directly benefit a large segment of the population. But the poor may be by-passed and sidelined in the process. The private sector may invest and lead economic growth, but how these affect the poor socially and economically within poverty endemic regions should be of concern.

The impact of Compact II will be measured, in part, by the extent to which reforms and improved efficiency in the energy sector, has been able to positively change the lives and livelihood of the poor in the implementation locations. Impact will also be measured as to how gender equity, and the empowerment of women have been core and central to the implementation process.

The Government of Ghana in its GPRS II development document³ did a comprehensive social and safety net analysis, which outlined the socially deprived groups in the country, and suggested initiatives to help them out of their poverty for a better life. Compact II will take a cue from this document and suggest best practice activities for the socially vulnerable.

Gender analysis is the methodology for collecting and processing information about gender issues. It provides disaggregated data by sex on any social issue. Gender integration is a follow-up process to gender analysis. It takes the information analyzed, and ensures that women and men have equal access and control over resources, development benefits and decision making at all levels of the development process, (projects, programs and policy). It also ensures that social justice is ensured and inequality is not perpetuated.

Despite the numerous benefits of integrating social and gender concerns into energy programs, this is seldom done. Instead, energy policies and programs tend to focus on energy supply, rather than the needs and energy demands of the poor. Furthermore, when a least cost approach is applied, it is less likely that benefits will reach the more disadvantaged. To successfully realize these benefits, social and gender needs must first be identified and then integrated into energy sector policy and planning. This can be accomplished through social and gender analysis, that determines the different needs, uses, constraints and opportunities of electrification for individuals, households and communities. Social and gender analysis should also be conducted for the purpose of preventing any otherwise unforeseen and harmful impacts. These findings should then be applied to project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This will help bolster the overall sustainability and success of power sector projects, including Compact II.

The thrust and vision of this document is therefore to provide the necessary information and analysis on social and gender issues in order to strengthen Compact II's objective to contribute to poverty reduction through economic growth. It is also to strengthen the monitoring process of Compact II, by providing guidelines, monitoring indicators and a "gender lens" in all aspects of project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Gender consideration in many projects and programs are either overlooked, or treated as an "after-thought". This is because understanding the concepts and practice of gender integration is relatively new to many development practitioners including those in Ghana.

³ GOG-GPRSII - FVDPC

1.3 Methodology and Organization of Document

1.3.1 Methodology

The Social and Gender Analysis document was guided by many approaches to provide the best result within a relatively short period of time. The following were some of the pedagogical tools used:

- Literature Review: from Project reports, Research documents and internet search
- Working Sessions: This involved the sharing of ideas between the social and gender specialists, and Resource Persons from the Millennium Challenge Corporation, and the National Co-coordinator. These discussions helped develop the framework and structure of the document.
- Reference to the Report of Focal Group discussions organized by the Project Team for some stakeholders in the Energy and Gender sectors.
- Best Practices were studied and valuable information sourced from there.
- In-depth interviews on electricity outages and coping mechanisms
- Stakeholders Consultation Reports (Regional, Sector and Identified groups)

1.3.2 Organization of the Document

This document is organized into four chapters.

Chapter 1 provides a context analysis and purpose of the document, methodology and organization of the document. Chapter 2 deals with a Social and Gender Profile of Ghana. This includes a context analysis of the political, legal, socio-economic, institutional and legal framework and poverty profile analysis. Chapter 3 provides key gender gaps and constraints in relation to the energy sector and in relation to poverty in Ghana. Chapter 4 makes recommendations concentrating on the priority areas and opportunities for Compact II, taking a cue from preceding analysis, especially lessons learnt from other experiences.

CHAPTER 2

SOCIAL AND GENDER PROFILE OF GHANA

This section discusses the legal, institutional, policy and political frameworks supporting gender equality issues in Ghana. It highlights the constitutional and legislative provisions, decision making and political participation at the national, community and household levels. The socio-economic context focuses on the gender differentials in access and utilization of productive resources and their implication for poverty reduction.

2.1 Legal, institutional and political context

2.1.1 Legal Context

The overall legal and regulatory framework in Ghana promotes the principles of gender equality. The 1992 Fourth Republican Constitution, Article 17 (3) which prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender and other grounds, constitutes Ghana's commitment and legal framework for gender equality and women's empowerment. Ghana has also ratified the major international Conventions, Treaties and Protocols on the rights of women and children. Notable among them are the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which Ghana signed in 1980 and ratified in 1986 without reservations, and the Beijing Platform of Action (BfA).

The State Legal Aid exists but due to financial constraints, it is almost non-operational. There are private Legal Aid Schemes such as Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA) and the Legal Resources Centre that target women. The Legal Aid Schemes also use Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanism to settle numerous cases, with designated centres for ADR in all the regional capitals in Ghana (MoWAC 2009).

Several laws that affect women, girls and other vulnerable groups specifically have also been passed. Prominent among them include the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732), Juvenile Justice Act, 2003, Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and the Disability Act. An Amendment to the Interstate Succession Law PNDCL 111 and the Property Rights of Spouses Bill are before Cabinet. The Consolidated Criminal code also makes provision for laws on harmful cultural and traditional practices such as Trokosi, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) and Widowhood rites.

The Ministry of Women and Children (MoWAC) have since the enactment of the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732) organized a series of public sensitization and awareness creation programs on the Act. It has also established a secretariat to supervise the operations of the Act. An evaluation of the secretariat is currently on-going. A National Policy and Plan of Action has been developed to cover a 10-year period from 2009-2019 to facilitate the implementation of the Act. A 13-member Management Board has been established under the Domestic Violence Act, 2007, and this is chaired by the Minister of MoWAC.

The 1992 Constitution guarantees equal rights of men, women, children and that of vulnerable and other disadvantaged groups such as the aged and people with disabilities. Many laws have been passed by Parliament to affirm this, yet cultural and societal perception of women and institutional and procedural barriers makes it difficult for women to assert their rights and pursue redress when those rights are violated. The access to justice for women thus remains a challenge. For example, physical and cultural barriers stigmatize women who pursue their rights and are pressurized into withdrawing reported cases, frustrations occasioned by administrative delays, the attitude of some law enforcement agencies towards women, and the lack of knowledge about the court systems, administrative and medical costs and time constraints all contribute to impeding women's access to justice. To address these challenges Ghana's Chief Justice has set up a dedicated Human Rights Courts, and Family Courts, to try family, gender-based and sexual offences on a pilot basis, in Accra. It is expected that this will be replicated in all ten regions of the country (MoWAC 2009; Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012).

2.1.2 Institutional Context

The institutional mechanism for the advancement of women in Ghana comprises of a number of institutions at the national, regional, district and local levels. At the national level, the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWAC) established in year 2001, headed by a Cabinet-level Minister, has the mandate of promoting the development and welfare of women and children in Ghana. MOWAC has under it, the Department of Women responsible for women's issues and the Department of Children responsible for children's issues. MOWAC collaborates with development partners, civil society organizations and other stakeholders to facilitate the integration of women and children's issues in national development. Other mechanisms promoting the advancement of women at the national level include the Inter-ministerial sector Gender Policy Committee, Parliamentary Sub-Committee on Gender and the Women's caucus in Parliament. MoWAC has developed a vision of sustained focus and developed a series of legislative actions to support this.

The National Plan of Action for Women, the Gender and Children's Policy and its Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) and the creation of Gender Desk Officers (GDOs) and gender focal persons have been put in place in the Ministries Departments and Agencies (MDAs) and District Assemblies to guide the mainstreaming of gender and children's issues into national policies and programs (MoWAC, 2009). This is in order to improve the social, legal/civic, political, economic and cultural conditions, particularly of women and children. This vision affirms the importance of addressing gender and children's concerns at the district, area council and unit committee level and complimentary sectoral policies should be developed to reduce poverty. In line with government development objectives, three key areas, namely Good Governance, Human Resources Development and Private Sector Development were highlighted in the Strategic Implementation Plan (SIP) for the period 2005-2008. MoWAC is currently revising its Gender Policy.

Some progress made by MoWAC since its establishment is its ability to influence national policies and legislation on key issues affecting women and children in collaboration with its partners. Some notable achievements in this area are the Orphan's and Vulnerable Children are Policy Guidelines, the Domestic Violence Act of 2007 and its Policy and Plan of Action. MoWAC's advocacy towards implementation of Gender Responsive Budgeting has led to the Aid discourse in the country, through the development of new modalities to ensure aid effectiveness and Gender Equality. Currently, 5 percent of all Common Fund at the district level is expected to be used for gender-related activities. MoWAC has also influenced the establishment of a Gender Equality Sector Group

(GEST) made up of the Ministry, development partners and relevant stakeholders. The budgetary allocation of MoWAC which has been less than 1 percent of the national budget is expected to be increased as projected in the 2012 Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) ceilings' to MDAs (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012).

There is also the development of gender sensitive indicators to monitor progress in aid effectiveness and poverty reduction. Currently, the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) has developed a gender sensitive checklist for District Assemblies, to ensure that gender is integrated into all districts activities and programs. Other policies enacted to address vulnerable groups in society include the Early Childhood Care and Development Policies, the National Policy Guidelines on Orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS.

Key challenges identified by the Ministry are: limited capacity to undertake its mandate particularly in the area of monitoring and evaluation and the coordination of activities across and among sector ministries (MoWAC 2010). Gender Desk Officers have been appointed for some public sector institutions to give focus and direction to gender integration. As MoWAC's main mandate is limited to the work of policy formulation, coordination, monitoring and evaluation at the national level, much of the gender mainstreaming and the development of women targeted initiatives, need to spearheaded by the respective line ministries, departments and agencies at both central government and regional / district levels (ADF-OSHD, 2008).

Moreover, many of the Gender Desk Officers (GDOs) are not working on full-time basis and have minimal training in gender issues. Only a few District Assemblies have appointed gender focal persons suggesting that gender planning and monitoring is weaker at the lower strata of the government structure (ADF-OSHD, 2008). Linkages between institutional mechanisms at all levels, including structural and communication challenges, must be strengthened. Capacity building of relevant institutions in understanding gender mainstreaming is critical and must be made a priority concern.

Significant efforts are also being made by many international and national NGOs to achieve poverty reduction and women's empowerment in Ghana. These organizations provide human-centered integrated development programs such as provision of educational and health facilities, counseling and legal services particularly to women in both rural and urban communities. Some notable women's rights organizations include Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA), Women in Law and Development (WiLDAF), Ark Foundation and Women Initiative for Self Empowerment (WISE).

2.1.3 Political Context

Since the return of Ghana to multi-party constitutional rule in the 1990s, women's groups all over the country have supported the candidature of women seeking political office (at both national and district levels). In compliance with the Constitution, the Government issued a policy guideline on Affirmative Action (AA) to encourage women's participation in decision making at the national, regional and district levels. The formulation of the AA is to reach 40 percent representation of women at all levels of governance and administrative leadership positions.

Based on this, political parties are encouraged to select women as candidates, particularly in their strongholds and institute measures to ensure equal representation of women in their leadership

structures. Although Ghana made history by electing the first female Speaker of Parliament and was sworn in by the first female Chief Justice, who had been appointed in 2008, the political representation of women is still low at all levels of governance and leadership positions. In terms of representation in parliament, there was steady growth from 8% in 1992 to 11% in 2004. 2008 elections saw a decrease in Parliamentary representation to 8.6% women's representation as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Parliamentary Representation By Sex

Year	Total number of seats	Women	Men
1992	200	16 (8%)	194 (92%)
1996	200	18 (9%)	182 (91%)
2000	200	19 (9.5%)	181 (90.5%)
2004	230	25 (10.9%)	205 (89%)
2008	230	20 (8.7%)	210 (91%)

Source: MoWAC, 2009.

The representation of women at the district (local) level which increased from 2.9 percent in 1994 to 9.8 percent in 2006, declined to about 7 percent in the 2010 elections (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012). The appointment of personnel into key decision making positions also shows biases as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Appointment into Key Decisions Making Positions by Sex

	Total membership	Women	Men
Ministers	37	8 (22%)	29 (78%)
Deputy Ministers	27	5 (19%)	22 (81%)
MMDCEs	164	12 (7.18%)	152 (93%)
Chief Directors	25	6 (24%)	19 (76%)

Source: Compiled from data from MoWAC, 2009.

The participation of women in administrative leadership positions has also not improved. Representation of women on Boards and Commissions has not reflected the quota of 40 percent representation of women as spelt out in the Affirmative Policy Guidelines to address governance and administrative leadership positions of women. Out of the 28 boards sampled, only three of the reconstituted Boards and Councils met the Affirmative Action requirement. These are the Export Development Investment Fund (EDIF), The National Disability Council and the Ghana Free Zones Board with 40 percent, 75 percent and 44.4 percent respectively. Table 3 shows some selected

Boards and Commissions. The Energy Commission currently has one woman represented on its Board.

Table 3: Representation on Selected Boards and Commission By Sex As At September 2012

Name of Selected Boards	No. of Women	No. of Men
State Insurance Board	1 (12.5%)	7 (87.5%)
Energy Commission	1 (14.3%)	6 (85.7%)
National Communications Authority	2 (20.0%)	8 (80.0%)
Public Utilities Regulatory Commission	0 (0.0%)	9 (100.0%)

Source: GOG Press Releases published at www.ghana.gov.gh

Factors that account for women’s low participation in public decision making include: socio-cultural prejudice rooted in gender stereotypes; women’s unwillingness to take up political challenges; the negative self-confidence and perception that many women hold about themselves; difficulties faced by women in gaining access to productive resources; limited involvement in decision making and therefore low bargaining powers, and limited access to information (ADF-OSHD, 2008; Tsikata 2009).

The reduction in the number of women in parliament and at the local levels has called for more pragmatic measures to be instituted towards addressing the issue of low representation of women in decision making and leadership positions. For instance, the MoWAC established a “Women in Local Governance Fund” to assist female contestants’ in District Assembly elections. This has however not worked well as cash flow into the fund is stunted (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012). A technical committee with membership from Parliament, the Academia, Private sector, Civil society organizations, representatives from political parties, traditional leaders and public servants, has been constituted to take the necessary processes towards the enactment of an AA law. This is to address inequalities in women’s participation in decision making at all levels of governance.

Whilst decision making role of women at higher levels remain a challenge, the decision making role of women at the household level appears encouraging. Joint decisions between husbands and wives over household purchases and needs are improving as a result of economic contributions of women to household budget. Data from the Ghana Demographic and Health surveys reveals that the decision making role of women at the household level is improving with a higher proportion of women involved in decision making in 2008 than in 2003 as presented in Table 4.

Some recent ethnographic studies in certain rural and urban communities in Southern Ghana have revealed that women are increasingly participating in decision making in the home as they make substantial economic contributions to household budget, in the area of food, health and educational needs of the household. Certain factors such as the increasing high cost of living and men’s inability to fulfill their traditional expected roles as sole ‘breadwinners’, the increasing process of

globalization and its associated effect, increasing education and economic empowerment of women are all contributory factors to this growing trend (Wrigley-Asante 2008, 2012).

Table 4: Percent distribution of currently married women (15-49 years) who usually participate in decision making

	Own healthcare		Major household purchases		Daily household needs		Visit to family	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
Mainly wife	37.0	25.0	20.9	20.3	28.8	44.4	20.9	22.9
Wife and husband jointly	20.6	43.8	30.2	42.0	32.3	35.2	37.9	60.4
Mainly husband	34.9	30.3	40.9	36.6	31.8	19.3	33.7	15.7
Someone else	6.6	0.4	6.3	0.8	5.5	0.9	5.4	0.7

Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

This increasing economic role of women thus seems to have boosted their decision making roles at the household level (Oppong 2005; Wrigley-Asante 2012). It is being argued that the relative position of spouses is influenced by the comparative resources such as education and income, which husbands and wives bring to the marriage. The more equal the spouses' contribution, the more likely they take part in household decision-making. Women who earn an income therefore have a greater influence in household decision-making (Oppong 2005). This implies that structural transformation of the Ghanaian society has changed the status quo, creating more freedom for women to take independent decisions and assume more responsibilities in the affairs of the household. In this way, women could become more conscious of their rights due to increased self confidence, increased mobility, social networks and better cooperation with husbands, resulting in increased respect and increased role in decision-making. It could also create tensions in the home and violence at the household level if the reverse exists. The challenge however is how these tensions could be addressed.

2.1.4 Gender Equality and Poverty Reduction in National Policies, Strategies and Programs

Since 1999, the International Financial Institutions (IFIs) have required countries to formulate nationally owned participatory poverty reduction strategies, in the form of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), as a condition of receiving concessional lending and debt relief under the enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative by the World Bank. The government initiated the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy GPRS in 2000 as an integral part of the HIPC initiative. Its main goal is to ensure sustainable equitable growth, accelerated poverty reduction and the protection of the vulnerable and the excluded within a decentralized democratic environment. It has an overall target of achieving virtual eradication of poverty by 2020 through private sector-led growth (GOG, 2004). The GPRS aims at ensuring sustainable growth, accelerated

poverty reduction and protection of the vulnerable and excluded which women form a part. The strategy is to stabilize the economy through the deepening of market-oriented reforms, fundamentally improving the investment climate and laying a strong foundation for sustainable accelerated growth propelled by rapid agro-based industrial growth (GPRS, 2003).

The Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) was made gender sensitive as a result of participation of women's groups at national and district level in its formulation process. The goal of the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) is to attain a middle-income status by the year 2015, within a decentralized democratic environment. This is to be complemented by the adoption of an overall social protection strategy, aimed at empowering the vulnerable and excluded, especially women, to contribute to and share in the benefits of growth of the economy, thus ensuring sustained poverty reduction (MoWAC, 2009).

Gender is also increasingly becoming an important part of the planning process. For instance in the Savanna Accelerated Development Authority (SADA) established under ACT 805, 2010, for the development of the three northern regions in Ghana, has integrated gender in its implementation strategy. SADA has the potential to address poverty and development needs of women and children but the challenge is to ensure that poor rural women are included and benefit from this program.

2.2 Socio-economic context

2.2.1 Education

Ghana's commitment to the Beijing Platform of Action (BfA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have brought about increased commitments to girls' education and there have been several educational reforms to address the gaps and inequities in education. One such policy reform is the National Plan of Action on Girl's Education (1995) which led to the creation of the Girls' Education unit within the Ministry of Education in 1997. Subsequently there was the creation of a Minister of State for Primary, Secondary and Girl-Child Education. Other educational reforms to enhance the education of the girl-child, especially were in the areas of mathematics, science and technology and in vocational skills training. More recently, the policy goal 10 of the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2003-2015 of Ghana, which embodies the goals of Education For All (EFA), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategies (GPRS I & II) have been embraced, all aimed at providing girls with equal opportunities to access the full cycle of education (NDPC/UNDP 2010). These measures have achieved significant improvements at the lower levels with persistent increases in enrolment and completion rates at all levels of basic schools between 1991 and 2008. At the Kindergarten level, Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) has increased from 74 percent in 1991 to 89 percent in 2008, while at the primary level GER has increased from 70.2 percent in 1991 to 95.2 percent in 2008 (NDPC/UNDP, 2010). The primary completion rate has also improved for girls as shown in Table 5 but the worrisome fact is that, the completion rate for boys at this level appears to be decreasing and this calls for concern as well.

The Ghana Millennium Development Goals (MDG) Report (2010) acknowledges the fact that Ghana is on track in achieving both the gross and net enrolment targets of MDG 2 by 2015. However gender and social disparities in education and literacy levels exist particularly at the secondary level and after secondary level education. The proportions of females and males that have

secondary school or higher education are 9.7 percent and 17.9 percent respectively.⁴ The 2008 Demographic and Health Survey show that 63 percent of women as compared to 77 percent of men are literate, while 37 percent of women as compared to 22 percent of men cannot read at all. There is also a strong urban-rural difference in literacy for both sexes. Fifty percent of rural women are literate, compared with 77 percent of urban women.

Table 5: Completion Rate at Primary level by Sex (%)

Year	Total	Male	Female
2004/2005	78.7	82.3	75.1
2005/2006	75.6	78.7	72.4
2006/2007	85.4	91.2	79.6
2007/2008	88.0	88.9	82.4
2008/2009	88.7	74.0	85.5

Source: MoWAC, 2009

Similarly, 67 percent of rural men are literate, compared with 89 percent of urban men (GSS, 2009)⁵. Since the inability to read and write limits the capabilities of people and may have poverty implications, the limited number of female literate population puts them in unfavorable positions as it limits their life choices. It also limits their access to business information and technology (including improved energy sources and technology), reduce their capacities to improve economic productivity and reduce poverty.

At the tertiary level, public universities have instituted processes of affirmative action to improve gender representation in enrolments (Tsikata, 2009) and this has resulted in the narrowing of gaps at that level. Data from the University of Ghana shows a marked improvement in the enrolment rate of females at the undergraduate level. In 1961, only 9.1 percent of females were enrolled in the university. This has increased to 45.4 percent by 2010 (UG Basic Statistics, 2011). Female student enrolment in public and private tertiary institutions has increased from 34.5 percent in 2005 to 38 percent in 2009 (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012).

But enrolment in science-oriented programs continues to be a challenge for girls. In terms of the Gender Parity index for education, available data indicates that the percentage of females at the Senior High School and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) levels were 44.7 percent in 2010, and only 32 percent of the total enrolments in public universities in 2010 were females, compared with 30 percent for polytechnics.⁶ Table 6 shows the enrolment trend at the University in Ghana, where many more girls are found in the humanities than in science-oriented programs.

⁴ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

⁵ Ghana Statistical Service (2009), Ghana Demographic and Health Survey 2008

⁶ NDPC (2011), Implementation of the Ghana Shared Growth & Development Agenda: 2010-2013, 2010 Annual Progress Report

Table 6: Undergraduate Student Enrolment By Program and By Sex at the University of Ghana

Enrolment year	Humanities		Engineering		Science	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2004/2005	9283 (57.9%)	6743 (42.1%)	29 (80.6%)	7 (19.4%)	1708 (65.6%)	894 (34.4%)
2005/2006	9136 (56.5%)	7030 (43.5%)	61 (88.4%)	8 (11.6%)	1705 (65.4%)	904 (34.6%)
2006/2007	8731 (56.1%)	6839 (43.9%)	113 (86.3%)	18 (13.7%)	1826 (65.3%)	971 (34.7%)
2007/2008	8078 (56.4%)	6247 (43.6%)	143 (83.6%)	28 (16.4%)	1850 (66.8%)	921 (33.2%)
2008/2009	7621 (56.7%)	5821 (43.3%)	201 (81.4%)	46 (18.6%)	1960 (67.7%)	935 (32.3%)
2009/2010	6938 (57.6%)	5108 (42.4%)	202 (80.8%)	48 (19.2%)	2006 (69.0%)	901 (31.0%)

Source: UG Basic Statistics, 2011.

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) is one of the public tertiary institutions mandated to train Engineers and Scientists. Data from KNUST show that fewer females are found in science-oriented programs and in engineering (Table 7). This situation is even more critical in the enrolment and training of electrical engineers, likely to work in the power sector of the country. With the relatively low enrolment of women in electrical engineering in particular, the desired increased involvement of women in decision-making at the higher technical level will be a challenge. The situation appears more challenging at the graduate level where fewer females are enrolled.

Table 7.

Students admitted into Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (2005-2012)

Year of enrolment	Agriculture		Engineering		Social Studies / Arts	
Undergraduate level						
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2005/2006	573 (77.4%)	167 (22.6%)	1,387 (87.3%)	202 (12.7%)	2,129 (59.4%)	1,454 (40.6%)
2006/2007	570 (73.2%)	209 (26.8%)	1,031 (85.6%)	173 (14.4%)	1,995 (59.4%)	1,366 (40.6%)
2007/2008	570 (78.0%)	159 (22.0%)	902 (88.7%)	115 (11.3%)	1,926 (64.8%)	1,047 (35.2%)
2008/2009	565 (78.8%)	153 (21.2%)	916 (84.9%)	163 (15.1%)	1,541 (60.2%)	1,017 (39.8%)
2009/2010	496 (82.3%)	107 (17.7%)	1,406 (88.0%)	192 (12.0%)	2,104 (59.6%)	1,429 (40.4%)
2010/2011	948 (76.0%)	300 (24.0%)	1,344 (84.6%)	244 (15.4%)	2,011 (57.5%)	1,487 (42.5%)
2011/2012	704 (74.3%)	244 (25.7%)	1,352 (83.3%)	271 (16.7%)	2,005 (54.7%)	1,663 (45.3%)
Graduate level						
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2005/2006	73 (92.4%)	6 (7.6%)	78 (95.1%)	4 (4.9%)	264 (83.0%)	54 (17.0%)
2006/2007	70 (89.7%)	8 (10.3%)	79 (89.8%)	9 (10.2%)	379 (81.2%)	88 (18.8%)
2007/2008	75 (87.2%)	11 (12.8%)	91 (86.7%)	14 (13.3%)	464 (80.6%)	112 (19.4%)
2008/2009	89 (82.4%)	17 (17.6%)	98 (96.1%)	4 (3.9%)	306 (75.6%)	99 (24.4%)
2009/2010	85 (84.2%)	16 (15.8%)	108 (93.1%)	8 (6.9%)	549 (74.1%)	192 (25.9%)
2010/2011	106 (83.5%)	21 (16.5%)	112 (90.3%)	12 (9.7%)	729 (77.5%)	212 (22.5%)
2011/2012	89 (84.8%)	26 (15.2%)	187 (85.4%)	32 (14.6%)	565 (74.8%)	190 (25.2%)

Source: Statistics obtained from National Council for Tertiary Education, October 2012.

Several factors have been identified as contributing to the educational gaps between males and females particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels. These include the socialization process and socio-cultural practices and beliefs such as early marriage and child bearing, sexual harassment of girls in schools, teenage pregnancy leading to school drop-out, inadequate number of female teachers and role models particularly in rural communities, inadequate infrastructure and teaching and learning materials (Leach *et al.* 2003; MoWAC 2010). Some of these constraints are being addressed, for instance there is a re-entry policy for pregnant girls at the junior and secondary level, provision of scholarship schemes and school materials for needy girls and take-home ration particularly for girls in the three northern regions. In addition, efforts are being made to encourage more girls in to take up science-oriented course by running the Science Technology and Mathematics (STME) clinics for girls in secondary schools (NDPC/UNDP, 2010). All these policy initiatives and reforms show a commitment by government to provide better and more equitable access to universal education. What is needed are complementary social actions to tackle the deep-rooted cultural and customary norms, especially in rural areas.

2.2.2 Health

The 2008 Ghana Demographic Health Survey shows a 30 percent reduction in under-five mortality rate, as it declined from 111 per 1000 live births in 2003 to 80 per 1000 live births in 2008. Infant mortality rate as at 2008 stood at 50 per 100 live births compared to 64 per 1000 live births in 2003. Neo-natal mortality rate has also seen a decrease from 43 per 1000 live births in 2003 to 30 per 1000 live births in 2008. Programs that have promoted maternal health include the new concept of health service delivery, the Community-Based Health Planning Services (CHPS), which is being promoted in particularly rural communities to ensure access to health services in these communities. As at 2010, 911 CHPS zones were operational in various communities. The upscale of national Ambulance Services and the training of Emergency Medical Technicians have contributed towards service delivery in the rural areas. The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) has also improved rural women's access to healthcare. As at 2008, 32 percent of rural women and 36.7 percent of urban women aged 15-44 were covered under the scheme (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012).

However, the Ghana 2010 Report on the MDGs reports that though maternal health care has improved over the past 20 years, the pace has been slow and it is unlikely that Ghana will achieve MDG 5 target of reducing the maternal mortality rate by three quarters by 2015 (NDPC/UNDP, 2010).

Evidence from the 2009 Sentinel surveillance report suggest an increase in HIV/AIDS prevalence rate from 2.2 percent in 2008 to 2.9 percent in 2009. The awareness rate is very high but there is still a significant gap between the awareness level and behavioral change. The GDHS (2008) reports that knowledge of HIV is high among both women and men (aged 15-49) with 98 percent of women and 99 percent of men reporting to have heard about the disease. But knowledge of HIV prevention is lower among both sexes but higher among men. 77 percent of men as compared to 69 percent of women know that HIV can be prevented by using condoms and by limiting sex to one faithful partner. It is reported that women's anatomy, socio-cultural and economic factors contribute to a higher prevalence rate among women than men. HIV prevalence among pregnant women increased from 1.9 percent in 2008 to 2.6 percent in 2009 (UNDP/NDPC, 2010). HIV prevalence in urban areas are also higher than in rural. In 2008, the mean prevalence rate in the urban areas was 2.6

percent as compared to 2.3 percent in rural areas (NDPC/ UNDP, 2010). The challenge is how to translate knowledge of the disease into behavior change. Measure towards prevention of new infections among women and the youth are in place to strengthen communication through the constitution of national HIV/AIDS technical committees and working groups to enhance access to HIV/AIDS related services and programs as well as address issues of stigma and discrimination (Ghana CEDAW Report, 2012).

2.2.3 Economic Activity and Access to Productive Resources

Women represent 50.1% of the total labour force with the majority in the informal economy. Many are however concentrated in the agricultural sector where they undertake a wide range of activities. It is estimated that 70 percent of food crops are produced by women and they are also important stake-holders in agro-forestry and fisheries and in post-harvest activities, where they make up 95 percent of the actors in agro-processing and 85 percent in food distribution (MoFA 2006; ADF-OSHD 2008). Ghanaian rural women also play a key role in land and water management. Agriculture is followed by trade or services with 27.4 percent of women engaged in that. This is followed by manufacturing which absorbs 13.9 percent of women, the majority of which are small or micro businesses. Close to 95 percent of female business owners in the rural areas are illiterate with only few operators having adequate skills (ADF-OSHD 2008).

The 2008 GDHS shows that 75 percent of women and 78 percent of men aged 15-49 years are currently employed. About 71 percent of these women are self-employed compared with 52 percent of men. The percentage of women who work in professional, technical and managerial positions has increased slightly from 3.1 percent in 2003 to 4.6 percent in 2008. The 2000 Population and Housing Census shows that about 80 percent of the economically active population work in the informal sector of Ghana, mainly in agricultural, commerce and manufacturing. Within the agricultural sector, women constitute 52 percent of the labor force and contribute 46 percent to the total agricultural GDP. Yet, they lack the resources needed to enhance their productivity and income (MoFA 2006). The nation's Medium and Small Manufacturing Enterprises (MSMEs) are dominated mainly by women. Over 36 percent of apprentices aged 15 years and above can be found in textile, apparel and furnishing trade most of whom are female (59 percent compared to 17 percent males). Forty six percent (46 percent) of households operate non-farm enterprises, with women operating 72 percent of these businesses.⁷ In the rural areas, there are more men (26.7 percent) involved in commercial agriculture than women (19.8 percent) because more women than men engage in agriculture on subsistence basis to support their households and are not paid⁸.

According to the GLSS V report, greater proportion of household businesses is operated by females (72 percent). In the rural areas, every three in four (76 percent) manufacturing and every four in five (80 percent) business are operated by women⁹. These are mostly the artisanal small-scale production, and processing of agricultural items such as coconut, palm oil, sheabutter oil, fish and meat products and gari (processed cassava). It is estimated that very few women who operate in this sector experience growth in their businesses. Although Ghana's business and legal frameworks do not discriminate against women, various factors such as low entrepreneurial skills and socio-

⁷ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

⁸ According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey V, 32.3% of women as compared to 17.7% of men are 'contributing family workers' in agricultural and non-agricultural employment.

⁹ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

cultural and bureaucratic constraints are key challenges affecting the growth of women owned micro, small and medium enterprises (ADF-OSHD 2008). Since the efficiency and competitiveness of MSMEs is crucial to the country's economic growth, employment generation and poverty reduction¹⁰, enhancing their productivity through improved access to modern energy and appropriate technology are therefore vital.

Credit

Credit appears to be a major constraint for many small-businesses in Ghana. Access of the poor to formal financial services is low in Ghana particularly for women and the rural population. The ratio of banks to rural clients in the north is 1: 100,000 compared to the national average of 1:16,000(ADF-OSHD, 2008). Many women are more constrained to access formal credits as they lack the required collateral. Due to the lower educational levels of women, many potential clients are intimidated by the male dominance in the banks (90 per cent of staff of rural banks are men) (ADF-OSHD, 2008; Kabutha, 2010). With the proliferation of micro finance institutions in the country, the gap of making financial services available to the poor, particularly women is being addressed as both men and women access micro finance through the Grameen type of approach¹¹. Comparatively, women are the dominant clients of such institutions, although the loans taken by them are often small. Usually an average loan size of US\$50 to US\$2000 (equivalent in Ghanaian cedis is given over a period of six months, with an average interest rate of 20 percent¹². While most micro-finance Institutions target women and men, a few, such as the Women's World Bank target exclusively women (women borrowers' account 95 per cent of 51,000 clients) in Ghana (ADF-OSHD, 2008). However, the ADVANCE program found that women are averse to this mode of operation since they fear that some of their members might default and the responsibility for repayment passed on to the group. In some instances, some banks insist that married women use their husbands to be guarantors when seeking loans. Accordingly, this process has been found to be long, depending on the willingness of the guarantors. Any delays might derail plans and loss of anticipated income (Kabutha, 2010).

Land

A major productive resource in Ghana is land, which has been recognized as the primary source of wealth, social status and power. It is the basis for shelter, food and economic activities as the majority of the population rely on land and land-based resources for their livelihoods. Therefore having access to land and other land-based resources is a crucial factor in determining how people will ensure their basic livelihood. Ghana has a plural system of land tenure governed by both customary and formal land administration systems. About 80 percent of rural land is regulated by customary law, under the custodian and guardianship of traditional authorities. According to

¹⁰ National Development Planning Commission (NDPC), 2010 Annual Report

¹¹ Many use the group lending mechanism.

¹² Wrigley-Asante, C. 2012. Out of the dark but not out of the cage: women's empowerment and gender relations in the Dangme West district of Ghana. *Gender, Place and Culture: A Journal of Feminist Geography*, Vol 19, Number 3, Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group. pp. 344-363

customary law, all members of a lineage are entitled to usufructuary rights (the use of land) regardless of sex. But in practice, gender is one of the determinants in positioning individuals in having primary or secondary rights to accessing land (ADF-OSHD, 2008). An assessment of the Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy revealed that traditionally women have access to farm lands either through matrilineal family system or patrilineal family system and/or through marriage but they have less control (authority) over this resource. This has made women's access to land more insecure than that of men, particularly when women have obtained such land from husbands, as men are said to at times demand such land back (Kabuthi, 2010). Women tenant farmers are particularly vulnerable because their relationship with land owners is often mediated through men who assume control over their lands and crops (Duncan and Brants, 2004; Women's Manifesto for Ghana, 2004). This system has poverty implications for particularly rural women, most of whom depend on land for their livelihood.

In cases where women have land access, they have smaller pieces of land than men. The assessment of the National Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy (GADS) revealed that 65.9 percent of women farmers as compared to 16.2 percent men, have less than one acre of land which they farm on (Opare and Wrigley-Asante, 2008). A gender assessment of the Ghana Agricultural Development and Value Chain Enhancement (ADVANCE) Program revealed that women have independent but smaller farms that they manage alongside the family farms in many parts of the country. However there are emerging dynamics in the sense that increasingly, women could own land either through inheritance and there is also opportunity for women to own land through purchase. In some districts which are predominantly patrilineal e.g. the Volta region in Ghana, women could own small acreages (1-3) of land either through paternal or marital inheritance (Opare and Wrigley-Asante, 2008).

The Land Administration Project (LAP) currently under implementation recognizes the gender issues associated with land access thus a gender strategy to address land issues particularly among women has been developed as part of the LAP. Under the MiDA land registration project, women are assisted to register land in their own right as lease holders and in their own names.

Energy Sources

Many rural and urban poor people in Ghana rely on traditional fuels such as wood and charcoal for cooking and operating their businesses because they do not have access to alternative sources of power, or cannot afford them, and renewable energy technologies are also limited. More than half of households in Ghana (54 percent) use wood as the main cooking fuel. Charcoal ranks second (31 percent). In urban areas, 53 percent of households use charcoal for cooking. In the rural areas, about four fifths of households use wood while 14 percent use charcoal. A larger proportion of urban households (20 percent) use gas for cooking than rural households (9.5 percent).¹³ The type of energy used for cooking is influenced by educational level, type of place of residence (rural/urban) and the wealth index of households. Gazari¹⁴ found that people with little or no

¹³ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

¹⁴ Gazari, A. (2009) Household Characteristics and Energy Use in Ghana. Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of M.A. degree in Population Studies in the Faculty of Social Studies

education (primary or secondary), resident in rural areas, and who did not fall into the richest wealth index quintiles, predominantly used biomass sources of energy for cooking¹⁵.

Fuel wood and charcoal constituted 66 percent of total energy consumption in 2008.¹⁶ The dominance of women in the collection and use of fuel-wood and charcoal, and high exposure of women to indoor pollution are part of energy sector challenges that require attention as they have health implications for women. The African Development Bank notes that LPG is not easily available and it is expensive and this explains the small number of households using this fuel. Kerosene is widely used for lighting in Ghana (54.9 percent of the population uses kerosene lamps) but is also often diverted for commercial purposes (ADF-OSHD, 2008). This, in addition to the increasing use of fuel wood has negatively impacted on the access to improved energy services. This particularly has implications for women and girls, especially in rural and urban poor communities, as it means increased drudgery for women and girls who mostly collect and use fuel wood for domestic purposes. The health impacts of indoor air pollution from traditional biomass fuels and their negative impacts on women, girls, and babies remain a critical issue and therefore the need for cleaner energy.

Training, Capacity Building and Extension Services

Extension services are generally low in Ghana as a result of inadequate extension agents particularly females to offer services to female farmers. Extension agent to farmer ratio on average is 1 to over 1000 farmers (Opare and Wrigley-Asante, 2008). According to the Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy, there is bias towards men in extension service delivery and male-headed households are likely to have more access to extension services than female-headed households. The reason being that, most extension officers are men and it is easier and culturally appropriate for extension officers to approach male farmers than female farmers. Male farmers also most often take the initiative to inquire on issues on extension services than female farmers. This is perhaps due to their involvement in cash crop farming. Men, more than women also participate in technical training and this is partly attributed to women's lack of time and involvement in activities that directly benefit them. Women however tend to participate more in training when held on the farms that is closer to their homes (Kabutha, 2010).

Access to markets

The marketing of agricultural produce is often restricted by poor transport networks especially in the rural areas. Most often agricultural harvest rots in the fields and at collection points due to lack of transport to markets (Oppong, 2010). Market developments that benefit households may also not necessarily benefit women. This is due to the fact that extension officers often visit men and male household heads and based on the assumption the males presumably share information with other members of the household (Commonwealth Secretariat 2001; Opare and Wrigley-Asante, 2008). Control over income earned from marketing agricultural products is also a key issue. Rural women in Ghana are obligated to work on their husbands' land, even though they do not necessarily benefit from the income (ADF-OSHD, 2008). But there are considerable variations. The gender assessment of the Ghana Agricultural Development and Value Chain Enhancement (ADVANCE)

¹⁵ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

¹⁶ Ministry of Energy (2010), National Energy Policy

Program revealed that when women in male-headed households do the selling of agricultural produce from family farms, they are expected to hand over all the money to the husbands. But women with own farms take full charge of selling and managing the returns (Kabutha, 2010). Men are also involved in bulk buying, because they have the necessary capital to engage in large-scale cash crop farming and commercial businesses whilst women concentrate on food crop farming. This is because many women are not able to meet the requirements for involvement in agricultural commercial businesses, particularly in bulk buying. For example, factories that buy pineapples for processing have a requirement that those involved must own pineapple farms (minimum 2 acres) as an assurance for consistent supply. These set conditions make it difficult for women to participate (Kabutha, 2010) and may have implications for their socio-economic status and poverty levels. Indeed, it is acknowledged that food crop farmers, the majority of whom are women remain the poorest occupational group (NDPC/UNDP 2010).

2.2.4 Women's Time Constraints and Mobility

Females spend more time on reproductive activities than males. Rural women also tend to spend more time on reproductive activities than urban women. Except for child care, the average time spent by rural dwellers on reproductive activities is higher compared to the average time spent by their urban counterparts. This may be due to the fact that urban women are more likely to engage house helps or relatives to assist with reproductive work. Urban women are also more likely to use labour saving devices such as blenders and washing machines. Engaging in these activities reduces the time available for women especially to manage their businesses as well as time available to search for information and opportunities to improve their businesses to enable them make appreciable income levels and reduce poverty. In Ghana, there are limited studies on the differential impact of electricity on women and men. But some studies have shown differential impact of electricity on time allocation between men and women. Barkat (2002)¹⁷ studies in Bangladesh shows that whilst electricity in the home impacts positively on time spent by female-headed households on income generating activities in the evening, the impact of electricity on men is in the area of building human capital and social activities. Grogan and Sadanand (2009)¹⁸ study in Guatemala shows that with the presence of electricity, women spend less time in cooking but there is no impact on time allocation of any of the activities by men. More studies is therefore required to assess the differential impact of electricity on men and women in Ghana.

Although mobility is culturally not a challenge for Ghanaian women, single women are less likely than partnered women to require permission to move outside the home. Partnered women who own agricultural land or a place of residence are less likely to require permission than those who do not own these assets. Rural partnered women also tend to have less autonomy than urban partnered women irrespective of whether they own assets (Oduro et al. 2011).

¹⁷ (as cited in Kohlin et al. 2011: Energy, Gender and Development. What are the linkages? Where is the Evidence?)

¹⁸ (as cited in Kohlin et al. 2011: Energy, Gender and Development. What are the linkages? Where is the Evidence?)

2.2.5 Asset Acquisition and Ownership

The Ghana Household Asset Survey (2010) shows that the gender distribution of wealth is biased in favor of men. About 70 percent of legal owners of places of residence and agricultural land and 64 percent of the legal owners of other real estates' are men. Women are more likely to own consumer durables such as uncut cloth, which they trade when they are in urgent need of cash.

Ownership of place of residence, agricultural land (excluding family land), agricultural equipment and livestock is higher among rural households. Ownership of real estate and businesses is however higher among urban households (Oduro et al., 2011). But less than 5 percent of households have any form of supporting ownership documentation and not all the names on these documents belong to members of the household. Almost all households in both rural and urban areas own at least one consumer durable¹⁹but a higher proportion of urban households own durables that are run using electricity such as television and deep freezers.

2.2.6 Incidence of Poverty

With 28.5% of Ghana's population classified as poor in 2005/06, poverty remains an important challenge for the country.²⁰ A comparison of mean household and per capita income by region shows that of the ten regions in Ghana, households in the Greater Accra Region are generally better off than other regions in Ghana in terms of wealth quintiles. The three northern regions (Northern Region, Upper East and Upper West) have low proportions of households in the highest quintile, and relatively higher proportions of their households within the lowest quintiles. Upper West region in particular has the lowest proportion of its households (31 percent) in the highest quintile and as much as 76.7 percent in the lowest quintile, an indication that poverty is very high in the three northern regions particularly in the Upper West Region.²¹ Besides, studies on poverty in Ghana shows that women experience greater poverty, have heavier time burdens, lower rates of utilization of productive resources and lower literacy rates. These are as a result of gender inequalities in access to, ownership and control over resources and services (GPRS 2003; Wrigley-Asante,2008; NDPC/UNDP, 2010). Poverty among women however, vary mostly by type of employment. Whilst women food crop farmers are more likely to be among the poorest groups of people (NDPC/UNDP 2010), some ethnographic studies in Southern Ghana shows that women who trade particularly across borders are likely to earn substantial income and acquire tangible assets that they control themselves. With increasing unemployment and worsening economic circumstances, some men in both rural and urban communities in Southern Ghana are likely to fall in the category of poor people (Wrigley-Asante 2008, 2012). It is therefore a fact that socio-economic changes as a result of education, economic restructuring and globalization, are taking place in the lives of men and women, leading to changes in gender dynamics at the household level and these must be considered in addressing poverty issues.

CHAPTER 3

¹⁹ Consumer durables in this research were mainly household items such as torch lights, uncut cloth, radio, television, fridges, mobile phones, cooking pots, jewelry, bicycle, fans among others.

²⁰ Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda: 2010 – 2013, Volume 1

²¹ Ghana Statistical Service (2008), Ghana Living Standards Survey V

SOCIAL AND GENDER ANALYSIS OF THE ENERGY SECTOR

3.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the constraints and challenges in ensuring social and gender integration in the energy sector. It also highlights some good practices in the productive use of electricity and how it can impact on the socio-economic lives of the poor particularly poor rural women.

3.2 Constraints and Challenges in Promoting Equitable Access to Energy

3.2.1 Institutional Frameworks and the Energy Sector

Energy is a prime ingredient in all productive, subsistence and leisure activities. The quantity and quality of available energy determines the efficiency and effectiveness of activities, as well as the quality of life of the users. Both male and female members of society are equal stakeholders in benefiting from energy use. But women and men do not benefit equally from access to energy. The same energy service may indeed impact on men and women differently, with different social or economic outcomes (Khamati-Njenga and Clancy, 2005).

National development plans often give some focus and attention to energy, but little attention to the linkage between gender and energy particularly in the area of implementation. Ghana's National Development Policy document, **Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy 2003 - 2005 (GPRS I)** paid little attention to gender, especially women's specific energy needs, particularly at the household level. The **Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy 2006 - 2009 (GPRS II)**, targeted significant improvements in analysis and gender equity considerations and targeted increased access to modern forms of energy to the poor and vulnerable as the development of renewable energy technologies e.g. solar, wind, biogas and the introduction of LPG in rural areas and rural electrification. Though some achievements have been made especially in terms of rural electrification, meeting renewable energy technology needs for productive uses particularly for the poor and women remain a challenge (Gender Assessment of the Energy Sector Report, 2010). As part of GPRS II objective, the government introduced subsidies to control the price of LPG and kerosene to make them affordable for all. A lifeline quota was further introduced into pricing for electricity to make it more affordable to residential households, especially the poor and vulnerable (Energy Foundation, 2005).

In GPRS II, two important gender issues were identified for redress. These were the health-related problems experienced by women as a result of inefficient wood fuel technologies and the lack of coherent National Human Resource Development Policy. The strategies developed to address these are: the promotion of energy efficient technologies that safeguard the health of domestic users especially women and children. Another strategy is the development of a comprehensive manpower development policy framework that takes into account the specific needs of men and women, persons living with disability, HIV/AIDS, the public and private sector at all levels (Gender Assessment of the Energy Sector Report, 2010).

The **Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA)** which is targeted on energy supply to support industries and households, does not clearly spell out special incentives for poor households. The **National Medium Term Strategic Framework**, however, identifies improved access to productive resources by women, poor and vulnerable groups for priority action. It also makes mention of food crop farmers, who are considered as among the poorest groups (NDPC/UNDP, 2010) and other vulnerable groups such as persons with disabilities.

The Ministry of Energy has the responsibility for developing and implementing the sector's policy for the country and does so by working closely with its sector departments and agencies including the Energy Commission, the Public Utilities Regulatory Commission (PURC) and the Electricity Company of Ghana. There is very limited staff capacity at the Ministry of Energy, to effectively apply gender analysis and integrate gender into its programs and activities. A few gender training sessions had been attended by fewer than ten officers throughout the Ministry, on different occasions. Some gender action plans had been developed as a result of the training but most of them had not been implemented owing to lack of resources and strong leadership support, thus, hindering gender integration efforts. Thus within many of the Ministry's partner organizations there may be a limited perspective on understanding the relationship between social and gender issues with regards to energy (Gender Assessment of the Energy Sector Report, 2010).

Ghana has an energy policy and one of the goals outlined in the policy is to integrate gender in the Energy Sector. The Gender Assessment of the Energy Sector Report (2010) highlights major challenges of the gender integration process as follows:

- Lack of energy sector sex disaggregated data which makes it difficult to estimate the number of women and men who have access to energy services
- Inadequate stakeholder consultation in program and policy development.
- Lack of personnel and gender experts within the energy sector due to lack of training in gender and non-commitment of financial resources.
- No budget for gender integration activities.
- Limited involvement of women in the planning and management of energy services at national, regional and district levels.
- Limited capacity of women in management positions in the Energy Sector

The Report notes that the lack of sex disaggregated data within the energy sector for instance makes it difficult to estimate the number of women and men who have access to energy services, and the impact of energy services on them. Without sex-disaggregated data, it is difficult to monitor and evaluate factors such as the equitable access and use of energy services. It is also difficult to develop policy support for gender and poverty sensitive participation in energy programs and projects.

The Gender Assessment Report of the Energy sector (2010) further notes that Ghana's energy policy is still far from being gender-responsive. Indicative of this is that the Vision and Mission of the Ministry of Energy do not have any explicit gender supportive statements. The Strategic National Energy Plan (SNEP) of the Ministry of Energy for 2006 – 2020 makes broad, gender sensitive policy statements and implementation measures under the heading "Cross Cutting Issues". However, there is no link to whose responsibility these initiatives will be nor is there any implementation plan to indicate how these policies will be implemented. The Report argues that the policy does not make clear who should take responsibility for gender sensitive initiatives, nor is

there any implementation plan to indicate how this will be achieved. Thus in practice, many ensuing policies, plans and programs do not take gender into account²².

The energy sector is also one that is male dominated The Ministry of Energy staff situation as at January 2009 revealed a gender division of labour that is common to the energy professional area in many developing countries – women constituted 30 percent of the staff positions. In terms of management positions within the Ministry, only 2 (specific positions not stated) out of a total of 15 management positions (13 percent) were occupied by women. On the average, women constitute only 24 percent of the total staff in many energy-related organizations. The male-female ratio in management positions shows that on average only 14 percent of the management positions were held by women (Gender Assessment of the Ghana Energy Sector, 2010). This means that both the Ministry of Energy and the other energy-related organizations have not reached the AA quota of 40 percent female staffing that has been set by Government as shown in Table 7.

Table 8: Board and Management positions by gender in some selected Energy Institutions

Institution	Male	Female
Volta River Authority (VRA) Board	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)
Volta River Authority (VRA) Management Team	21 (80.8%)	5 (19.2 %)
Ghana Energy Commission	7 (100.0%)	0 (0%)
Electricity Company of Ghana (ECG) Board of Directors	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)
Electricity Company of Ghana (ECG) Directorate	14 (100.0%)	0 (0%)
Ghana Grid Company (GRIDCo) Management Team	9 (90.0%)	1 (10.0%)
Ghana Grid Company (GRIDCo) Board	6 (75.0%)	2 (25.0%)

Source: Author's Compilation, 2012

3.2.2 Energy and Socioeconomic issues

Despite the enormous responsibilities and risks that women bear and their overall importance in the energy sector, their views are rarely sought in the decisions taken on issues concerning energy. This is mainly due to the fact there has been minimal participation by women at higher levels, in planning and management of energy-related projects. This has implication for sustainable livelihood of poor rural women as many do not participate in decisions concerning energy options and priorities for women (ENERGIA, 2006).

Clancy and Skutch (nd) note that the existence of energy poverty suggest that the present structures and processes in the energy sector does not benefit the poor. They argue that the focus of many macro-energy policies in developing countries is on commercial energy and that there is a growing interest in renewable energies, primarily for the generation of electricity. In many instances, urban users are the primary beneficiaries and majority of the poor, in rural areas, do not generally benefit. The World Bank also notes that the needs and interest of the rural poor and of women in particular tend to be under represented in the context of rural energy projects. But the poor require energy to meet basic needs such as cooking and other productive activities. The income generating activities of women particularly in the area of processing tend to depend on high quality sources of energy as well. Therefore there is the potential for improving women's

²² Gender Assessment of the Ghana Energy Sector - 2010

productivity in these types of enterprises by integrating poverty and gender considerations in any energy-related program particularly for rural people and for rural women in particular (World Bank, 2003).

At the household level, women are usually responsible for the household energy provision related to their reproductive activities particularly in the area of cooking. However, when energy has to be purchased, men are usually in charge of the decision making and that decisions about which energy type to purchase are being made by men. It has been found that recreational equipment such as radios and television are considered before labour-saving devices such as blenders. Men can also influence energy technologies in women's domain and can decide on which stove technology for instance to purchase (Clancy and Skutch, n.d). With emerging gender dynamics which is affecting decision making at some households in the Ghanaian context, as well as limited data on energy choices, purchase and usage at the household level, it will be interesting to conduct studies about decisions concerning energy purchase and use at the household level.

As noted in Chapter 2, the time burdens of particularly rural women, have been found to be heavier than that of men. Thus women are relatively time poor as they spend time and effort in cooking, fuel wood collection and food processing. Fuel wood and cooking are known to be the most time-consuming activities carried out by rural women (ENERGIA, 2006). It is well documented that Africa rural women work longer hours than men thus the combined productive and reproduction work of women is greater than that of men. Yet much of their work is socially unrecognized since it is unpaid. This burden of women has serious time constraint on women and has implications for their income generating activities. The availability of energy can however reduce the drudgery of arduous tasks of women, such as grinding, milling and food preparation, thereby saving time and increase opportunity for enterprise and income generation activities (ENERGIA, 2006). ENERGIA (2006) notes that reducing poverty and hunger is linked to women's ability to have time and effort available to participate in development. There is ample evidence that a women can save time and effort with improved access to modern energy services (as discussed in 3.2).

The health of women is directly related to energy use. Although almost every household in rural areas will use biomass as a form of energy, poor households tend to spend more time searching than those in higher income groups and it is often women and children who undertake this task. Reddy (2000 as in Clancy and Sktuch, nd). The drudgery associated with this task has implications for women. The impact of indoor air pollution on morbidity and premature deaths of women and children is a major public health issue according to WHO (2006 as in Akaba et al. 2007). This is known to cause death as a result of diseases such as pneumonia, chronic respiratory diseases and lung cancer.

The differential access to resources such as land and its relationship with productive uses of energy also have implications for women's poverty. In Northern Ghana for instance, attempts to address the fuelwood problem in the 1990s by establishing communal woodlots failed to take into account the differential access to and control over land and trees between men and women. In addition, the program was designed primarily to produce species of wood appropriate for men's construction activities thus had limited participation of women and minimal benefits (Baden, 1994). Moreover, because men typically control higher-status and commercial activities, as soon as fuelwood and charcoal production for instance becomes a profitable activity, it becomes men's activity (ENERGIA, 2006).

Access to finance for acquiring energy and other inputs for income-generation has been cited as a key barrier to women's involvement in entrepreneurship due to women's lack of collateral. Perhaps the key is to increase women's access to credit to purchase renewable energy technologies for their micro-enterprises (Wamukonya, 2002).

3.3 Financial and Regulatory Issues

Clancy and Skutch (nd.) caution that the energy sector in many developing countries could be affected by the global transformations taking place and it is likely for energy to be privatized and commercialized. The implications of this on the poor must be taken into consideration. In Ghana, reviews and the implementation of cost-reflective tariffs are anticipated as necessary for improving the financial performances of the utility companies and this has implications for all consumers of electricity including the rural and peri-urban poor. In terms of tariffs, different electricity tariffs are paid by industrial, residential and non-residential (schools, restaurants etc) electricity facility users. To make electricity affordable to needy people, government subsidizes the electricity bills of consumers whose electricity consumption fall below 50 kilowatt hours per month, through its lifeline tariffs. Typical potential beneficiaries are residences in peri-urban and rural areas, which are usually in the form of compounds bringing together multiple households in a single unit (Energy Foundation, 2005). The lifeline as at September 2011 is 9.5 Ghp/kWh for consumption of 0-50kWh/month²³. However, current billing procedures are such that families who live in compound houses, and belong to low income groups, are losing out on the benefits of lifeline tariffs for families whose electricity consumption fall below 50 kilowatt per month.²⁴ There are speculations that in these compound houses, landlord levies and the basis of the levies vary each time and this is a possible source of conflict in such houses. Exceeding the 50 kilowatt minimum consumption of electricity disqualifies such households from enjoying lifeline tariffs and creates economic hardships for poor households. Needy households end up subsidizing the bills of middle income users, by paying high utility bills because the total consumption of electricity by multiple households who live in compound houses are read as one unit for all who reside in the compound house. In effect, many poor people, including women do not benefit from this lifeline tariff (PURC, 2008). Further studies must therefore be conducted to ascertain the real challenges that such households face.

For efficiency and improved cost recovery, utility companies in Ghana introduced pre-paid metering program in the year 2005 to replace credit metering in residential and commercial sectors. The utility companies believe that prepaid meters benefit both consumers and utilities because they help users to properly manage and consume electricity more efficiently, while allowing utility companies to reduce financial, operational and bad debts' costs²⁵. Although, the use of prepaid meters has been accepted by some communities, their use is still controversial in Ghana and there are challenges relating to its use by domestic customers and small business enterprises. A JICA funded study²⁶, revealed that electricity charges are inaccurate due to low quality of meters. A pre-paid electricity pilot project at Teshie, a suburb of Accra, also revealed that when credit meters which are electro-mechanical and usually insensitive were replaced by more accurate and reliable pre-paid meters (electronic and digital), consumers experienced increases in the payment of electricity tariffs. Recently, it was reported that some residents in Tamale, in the Northern region of Ghana, demonstrated to express their displeasure at the installation of pre-paid meters in their respective homes²⁷. This feeling among sections of Ghanaians warrant further studies to ascertain the perception and effects of pre-paid metres on the poor and vulnerable groups particularly women. Currently, data available provide no insights into access, the differential uses of electricity,

²³ Electricity Corporation of Ghana service charge sheet

²⁴ PURC, 2008

²⁵ Casarin, A.A & Nicollier, L (2008). Prepaid Meters in Electricity. A cost-Benefit Analysis. University of Warwick-Department of Economics, United Kingdom

²⁶ Chubu Electrical Power Co. Inc. (July 2008) Power Distribution System Master Plan, Study for Ghana

²⁷ Daily Graphic, 14th September, 2012.

effects of tariffs, pre-paid meters and related issues, on men and women, and on poor people. For instance, the Ghana Living Standard Survey V (GLSS V) has some sex disaggregated data, but there is generally inadequate sex disaggregated data and benchmarks for assessing energy, gender and poverty issues adequately. Information from stakeholder consultations²⁸ point to the possibility of utility companies beginning to generate sex disaggregated data in order to make some of such information available for policy formulation.

3.4 Experiences and Lessons Learnt in the Productive Uses of Electricity

Electricity is useful in all economic sectors and its availability is essential to sustainable development efforts and for poverty reduction. For rural communities and particularly for poor women, the supply of energy can be used to improve their socioeconomic status. Even though energy access in the household energy sector, especially in rural areas, has lagged behind, there have been some energy-related programs that have initiated at the community level and which lessons could be drawn from for COMPACT II.

3.4.1 Creation of new SMMEs or new employment

Electricity access can give a stimulus to start new businesses and thus create employment. For instance, following a mass roll-out of household electrification in rural South Africa, employment rates increased significantly for women (Dinkelman, 2008²⁹). In few instances where women and rural communities have been targeted, jobs and income have been created and women have been empowered through owning and managing energy enterprises. Sample studies of grid-based electrification in the Philippines and India show that even though electrification is not a sole cause, increased income generating activity is positively correlated with electrification and that, electrification increases the chances of households engaging in productive use.³⁰

However, concerning the magnitude of the impact of electricity, only a limited percentage of the households sometimes use electricity in a productive way (Ramani and Heijndermans, 2003³¹). This implies that accessibility of electricity will not by itself encourage its productive use, other things should happen.

3.4.2 Increased productivity and income of businesses

A wide number of studies suggest that electricity can lead to increased productivity and income in all economic sectors. In Kenya, Kirubi documents that carpenters having access to electricity increased productivity per worker between 100 and 200% in number of produced goods and their revenue between 20 and 80% (Kirubi, 2009³²). A World Bank study states that agricultural product processing activities have benefited from electricity in Indonesia and Sri Lanka. In Indonesia, on average at least two new agricultural activities have been launched in each of the 16 electrified villages considered since electricity became available. Furthermore average incomes from enterprises using electricity are double those of enterprises without electricity (Ramani and

²⁸ Meeting of MCC team, Compact II core team members and PURC in Accra on April 19, 2012

²⁹ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³⁰ http://www.martinot.info/Fishbein_WB.pdf

³¹ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³² As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

Heijndermans, 2003³³). Experiences in Ghana show that there is increased productivity and incomes from existing men and women's small and micro enterprises with electricity, e.g. Hairdressing salons, barbering shops, welding (Field survey, 2012).

Other examples of productive use of energy in rural communities include the development and promotion of Multifunctional Platforms (MFPs) by the UNDP. MFPs are part of an integrated development approach aimed at enhancing local capacity in developing countries to have access to sustainable energy. The Multifunctional Platform is a diesel engine, mounted on a steel chassis that powers a variety of end-use equipment such as grinding mills, de-huskers, battery chargers and water pumps. The engine can also generate electricity for lighting, refrigeration and water pumping. Through the provision of these energy services, the MFPs could reduce both time and energy required to complete daily tasks. Thus an important appropriate technology for rural people as it provides a simple stand-alone energy source that can easily be used in rural areas, where community members could be trained in its operation and maintenance (UNDP, 2009).

Involving women in MFP programs in Northern Ghana has resulted in some achievement in the socio-economic lives of women and that of their children. Women who previously were not involved in income generating activities took up activities in agro-processing and those who were already engaged in income generating activities expanded their businesses. Women also saved time and energy as their energy needs were located in their communities. It was reported that money spent on transportation to bigger communities to mill farm produce was being saved for other household needs. School children did not absent themselves from school to travel to other communities to mill farm produce. Moreover, school needs were being provided and children could also learn and concentrate better in school due to better nutrition at home and the provision of money to purchase food in school. This boosted the morale of teachers as they no longer taught half-empty classes (Agyekwena, 2009). Similar findings have been reported in Burkina Faso and Mali. In both countries, the introduction of the MFPs helped to increase agriculture production of the poor, particularly women. The mechanization of traditional chores such as grinding and milling, assisted farmers to augment their production of added-value products thereby raising the quality of products. Time use surveys conducted suggested that the introduction of Multifunctional Platforms reduces the time women spent in agro-processing and food preparation (UNDP, 2009). The major challenge reported in the Northern Ghana program was the constant breakdown of MFPs which beneficiaries had to use their profits to repair. It was also identified that the problem could be caused by improper usage or maintenance practices by operators of the MFPs, stress on the machines from the environment due to overheating, humidity and temperature fluctuations. Linked to this was the fact that the operators of the MFPs knew nothing about how to repair the machine and had to wait for recommended artisans (Agyekwena, 2009).

3.4.3 Extended operating hours

Lighting for small and micro businesses can improve its productivity by allowing an extension of the working time and thus increase income. It can also improve the security of the market place or a business enterprise which can operate on a 24-hour shift basis. Allerdice and Rogers (2000³⁴) document the case of sawmill owners who extended the operating time of their workshops as a result of the presence of electricity. For shops selling products to customers, extended selling and shopping hours increased sales, e.g. in a grocery shop in Bangladesh as documented by Barua

³³ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³⁴ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

(1998³⁵). Experiences from Ghana shows that many women engage in small and micro businesses at the market place some of which operate 24 hours, particularly the urban wholesale markets. The presence of reliable electricity would therefore provide security and assist traders to engage in gainful businesses.

3.4.4 Bringing additional value to the product

Electricity (compared to traditional forms of energy) enables producers to make products of a higher quality. With electric tools Kenyan carpenters made more sophisticated products targeting “upmarket” clientele (Kirubi, 2009³⁶) and Peruvian farmers sold milk of higher quality because of cold storage, which doubled their market price (Allerdice and Rogers, 2000³⁷). This is equally true for shea butter and pomade producers in northern Ghana. Their drudgery is reduced and the final product of better quality. Electricity can as well make product preservation through refrigeration possible, which can help SMMEs, particularly in the case of export or retail products.

3.4.5 Access to Information

Electricity can also improve the possibilities of communication, e.g. by electricity charged cellular phones, which allow better communication with business partners. In Ghana, electricity provides the opportunity for both male and females who operate small businesses as well as people in low income and poor rural areas to have access to information as they listen to news on television and local FM radio stations, even at their work places. This strengthens poor people’s access to information and particularly women. It is therefore an important fact to consider in connecting electricity for poverty reduction, especially for women groups

3.5 Preconditions for the productive use of electricity from a gender perspective

Even though there is evidence that electricity is of great importance for income generation, there are as well serious doubts about the magnitude of the impact. However, it is widely accepted that additional program or project components to support the setting up of income generating activities can improve the outcome (Kopp, 2010). This is especially important from a gender perspective, since women and men have different conditions for start-ups. The following pre-conditions as highlighted by Kopp (2010) in his discussion of productive uses of electricity, if carefully considered, will help particularly rural women break some of the barriers that negate their productive use of electricity.

3.5.1 Tariff of the electricity

The tariff of the electricity is an important consideration to assure the viability of an SMME. When tariffs are high, prices of goods or services rise and might not be competitive with products made using cheaper sources of energy or products from origins where electricity tariffs are lower (Kopp, 2010). This will be so if electricity use provides major expenses of the business. This is a concern for both women and men who operate small businesses.

³⁵ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³⁶ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³⁷ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

3.5.2 Reliability of electricity supply

If electricity is not available consistently this can hamper a productive use of the energy seriously. Low energy intensity of off-grid systems can be another bottleneck, restraining the use of machines of which some need a high start-up power (Kopp, 2010). The World Bank's independent evaluation group found that in Sri Lanka many factories continued to use diesel generators after grid connection, because the grid supply was not sufficiently reliable (IEG, 2008³⁸). A survey conducted in the Accra metropolis revealed that the recent power outages experienced in the metropolis affect the productivity and incomes of many SMMEs. However, women businesses tend to suffer most in the sense that most men-owned businesses cope by using generators whilst many women do not have access to such a facility (Fieldwork, September 2012). Therefore constant availability of electricity is a major gender issue which is an input for poverty reduction.

3.5.3 Maintenance costs

Maintenance includes both spare parts necessary for repair and technical capability to maintain the operability of the needed technologies. It has been observed in many rural development projects that women are not trained to operate and maintain electrical facilities. They depend on the goodwill of men. In some cases, women suffer unduly as a result of some social conflict with the men operators. It is therefore important to train both women and men in maintenance. Sometimes brute force is needed to do maintenance. The physical structure of the women should be considered before they are asked to undertake the assignment.

3.5.4 Social acceptance of electricity

The introduction of new technologies often meets skepticism, particularly in rural areas. SMME entrepreneurs often have little knowledge about energy sources, which can be a barrier to their dissemination (Shrestha, 2005³⁹). This may be due to high illiteracy especially among the women folk. It is therefore very important to consider information sharing and education prior to the advent of electricity. Women should be special targets and focus for acceptability.

3.5.5 Infrastructure related and socio-economic provisions

3.5.5.1 Access to micro loan schemes

Investment in basic infrastructure is needed by SMMEs using electricity in order to be functional. Typically electronic equipment, housing, raw materials, transportation and marketing costs etc. need to be covered. Micro-finance schemes can provide a solution for entrepreneurs, who often do not have the necessary savings to cover such costs (IEG, 2008⁴⁰). As discussed in chapter 2, women generally have less access to formal credit than men. If women are to make functional use of electricity, they need access to micro credit to compliment it.

3.5.5.2 Access to education

³⁸ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

³⁹ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

⁴⁰ As cited in Kopp, Alexander (2010).

Many income generating activities (IGAs) using electricity demand skills. Knowledge can in some cases be transferred within the family or community. Because of a relatively low demand of many electricity-using IGAs, learning from others is hampered. Particularly for electrified areas or innovative business ideas, it is not possible to use such informal knowledge (Kopp, 2010). Vocational schools can often provide the necessary technical knowledge to entrepreneurs, but they must be easily reachable and provide short term trainings as rural people usually are busy with their agricultural activities and don't have the possibility to follow long trainings (ibid). The content of the courses offered must be adapted to the needs of the people e.g. by using machines which are easy to operate. Efforts should be made to find a practical solution to this immediate problem, to enable women entrepreneurs get some functional literacy to move forward and take up the opportunities being offered.

3.5.5.3 Transport infrastructure

Transportation is another important factor for a successful operation of SMME. Means of transport and respective infrastructure like roads, railways or shipping infrastructure are necessary provisions if the value chain from extraction of the raw material to the sale of the product or service does not happen at the same place, which is usually the case (Kopp, 2010). On farm economic activities such as harvesting and sale of products are affected by poor transport infrastructure. Women, who are usually the producers and middlepersons for marketing, are deprived of good business because of inaccessibility to farm gates. Roads (either feeder or normal) thus have a very important correlation to women and men benefitting from the productive use of electricity.

3.5.5.4 Markets for products and services

Markets are very important to sell finished products. Products and services need to be marketable to generate income. As far as the rural and urban poor are concerned, the availability of a disposal avenue (markets) are very critical if the entrepreneurship cycle (facilitated by the productive use of electricity) is to be completed.

These examples and lessons of electricity-related programs show that it is possible that poor people, particularly poor rural women, could be assisted to use energy productively and subsequently have positive effects on their lives and that of their children. The lessons drawn from these could be replicated in Compact II. This is further discussed in the next chapter.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR

SOCIAL AND GENDER PRIORITY AREAS AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR COMPACT II

As per MCC requirements for acceptance of the Concept Paper, the country has the primary responsibility for integrating gender into the development and design of a Compact program. There is the need to undertake activities to promote social inclusion and gender equity through the electricity sector. It is in this light that these recommendations are being made. It draws information from the analysis made and lessons learnt from preceding chapters. For COMPACT II, power is from conventional (electric) and renewable (solar, wind, biogas,) sources. For the poor and women especially to take advantage of the productive use of clean energy, efforts should be made to ascertain how electricity will be made available and affordable for a comprehensive poverty reduction process to be accelerated. The chapter is organized based on the five program areas identified under COMPACT II.

4.1. ACCESS AND PRODUCTIVE USE PROGRAM

The activities outlined under the access and productive use program are the generation of electricity from solar, electrification and wiring of hospitals, markets, schools and vocational institutions, voltage upgrade in economic enclaves; and intensification of peri-urban networks.

It has been noted that the needs and interest of the rural poor and of women in particular tend to be under represented in the context of rural energy projects. Here is an opportunity for COMPACT II to disprove the above, by seriously integrating poverty and gender consideration in its activities. This can be achieved by considering those actions and policies that will help advance and promote the rural poor to have access to electricity at affordable costs.

4.1.1 Electrification of Markets, Schools and Community Clinics/Health Posts

For this program to benefit the majority of the poor and particularly women, large **markets in urban communities as well as potential rural markets that serve as aggregating points for many rural people should be targeted**. The advantage of this is that these markets (in both rural and urban communities) serve as economic enclaves for many women and economically poor people since they engage in micro and small enterprises such as food processing and vending, cold store operation, hairdressing, tailoring among other in these markets. Thus access to reliable electricity will not only immensely improve the businesses of such people but also protect the property/assets of poor people as dangerous illegal connections in the market places (that often lead to fire outbreaks and disasters) will be minimized.

Deprived schools in poor rural communities should also be targeted to benefit from this program. Considering the fact that gender and social disparities in education and literacy levels exist particularly at the secondary level preference should be given to girls schools in the deprived communities as an incentive to boost girls' education. Again, community clinics and health post in

deprived rural communities should be given preference. Small clinics/health posts in market centres could also be targeted.

4.1.2 Solar Systems for Isolated Communities

To enhance power generation, efforts will be made to install solar panels to enhance access to electricity for targeted commercial and domestic use. Target areas should include isolated island communities, migrant communities and communities with large numbers of female headed households. The major advantage for this project is that the public lighting through the solar system will increase safety and security and increase opportunity for the operation of small businesses of both men and women at night. It will increase long evening hours for food vending, as well as lighting for educational and social activities. The challenge with this activity is the possibility of improper handling of the solar panels which is likely to affect their sustainability. Local people (both men and women) should therefore be involved in the planning and implementation of the project to create a sense of ownership amongst them. They should also be trained to maintain the facility. Since women operators within the energy sector are low, there should be a bias towards women in the selection of the trainees.

Considering the current power outages in the country, this project could be piloted in low income communities in urban centres. It is expected that the success of this project could influence policy change on promoting renewable energy sources.

4.1.3 Electricity Network Upgrades for Economic Enclaves

For poverty reduction to take place, there should be an increase in productivity. One factor for this is the availability of reliable and affordable electric power thus electricity network upgrades for economic enclaves could lead to improvement in production levels and that could lead to improved incomes. In selecting the economic enclaves, it is suggested that women owned micro and small enterprises should be given special preference as this will help in the process of economic empowerment of women towards poverty reduction. Small and micro businesses such as clients of GRATIS GHANA Foundation, Kokompe Light Industrial Area, Suame Magazine Industrial Area, Ashiaman Light Industrial Area, should also be considered.

One issue that may pose as a challenge in this activity may be the issue of land ownership, for instance, in the siting of electric poles. In such cases, it is expected that owners are duly compensated.

4.1.4 Intensification of Peri-Urban Networks

COMPACT II should ensure that deprived peri-urban communities are selected for this project. Again the issue of service connection to individual households must be looked at critically as poor people may not necessarily have access to electricity and make productive use of it. In terms of sustainability and coverage of poor households, COMPACT II could look at ways to facilitate payment of service connection fees. Current policy for service connection fee in rural and peri-

urban areas allow subsidy for a limited period. This policy may have introduced difficulties for some very poor families, who are unable to take advantage of the subsidies for that period. It is proposed that the policy be looked at and the subsidy period extended.

4.1.5 Installation of Multifunctional Platform (MFPs) in the selected market sites and schools

As noted in chapter 3, the drudgery of poor women in traditional food processing is of major concern as it constraints women's time and has health implications as well. COMPACT II could address this program by providing or installing Multifunctional Platform (MFPs) in the selected market sites and schools. MFP has been identified as providing access to sustainable energy for the rural and peri-urban poor and women. It powers a variety of end-use equipment such as grinding mills, de-huskers, battery charger and water pumps. It is proposed that a Modified MFP that uses electricity could be developed and installed at the selected market sites and in the selected schools. Since markets are central places for women, MFPs will be beneficial particularly in the rural areas where women could easily go and process their grains for both commercial use and household consumption.

Installation of MFPs in schools would also be beneficial to the schools as well as reduce the drudgery of the kitchen staff (who are mostly women). The local people should be trained to manage and maintain the MFPs. As much as possible, females should be included in the training and management of the MFPs. Young female students studying science in the tertiary institutions could also be part of the training as a way of introducing girls into the electricity sector.

4.1.6 Effective Consultations at the Local Level

The involvement of all segments of the population in decision making process is an important gender equity norm. It is likely that women may be left out in the decision making process during the consultation period due to socio-cultural factors. It is proposed that in all cases, extensive consultations of both men and women in the selected communities, markets, schools and hospitals be made. This is to ensure the full participation of both sexes in any decision that will be made for the public good.

In installing the solar systems (to generate electricity), conscious efforts should be made to bring women into the process of decision making as to the siting of these facilities. Also as much as possible, women should be included in the training program to maintain the solar panels and other appliances connected for the production of electricity.

4.2. DEMAND SIDE MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

This program will focus on power factor improvement and energy efficiency campaign support. The key social and gender issue identified under this program relates to energy efficiency campaign support. The following must be considered:

4.2.1 Community Education on Power Use

It is proposed that COMPACT II should collaborate with the Energy Foundation and Energy Commission to educate the electricity consuming public, and potential clients (new connections) on benefits of electricity conservation and efficiency. The nationwide public education and awareness creation campaign education should utilize all available mass publicity campaign methods: Print and Electronic Media, Radio and Television, Public fora and Durbars; Focus group meetings, use of National Council for Civic Education (NCCE) personnel and facilities, the use of Community Facilitators, Agricultural Extension Workers, Institutions, NGOs, Civil society groups, Youth groups, Mosques, Churches, Unit Committees, Zonal Councils and District Assemblies should be involved for success. The advantage associated with a good campaign is that it will help women and men take steps to reduce electricity wastage, reduce the rapid growth of electricity demand and save money on electricity bills. Young scientists, particularly females could be targeted and trained and used in the campaign programs.

It is also proposed that COMPACT II considers collaboration with financial institutions which could assist community members with financial resources, so that they can replace or purchase energy efficient gadgets, in the effort to promote the efficient use of electricity.

4.3. IMPROVED GENERATION CAPACITY PROGRAM

A number of activities have been outlined under this program. It is recognized that those that may have social and gender implications are the establishment of the Gas to Power Park; Regulatory Strengthening of PURC and EC to set and monitor tariffs; Creation of an Appellate Body; Gas Allocation Policy and Pricing framework; and Strengthening IPP framework. The social and gender issues identified under this program are as follows:

4.3.1 Community Consultation and Compensation on the Establishment of Gas to Power Park

The establishment of the Gas to Power Park in a particular location may have significant effect on the socioeconomic lives of the community members as the availability of electricity may put to productive uses (e.g. establishment of small industries and its associated employment opportunities). However, it may affect poor rural men and women's farms, which may be a major source of their livelihood. It is expected that extensive consultations are done at the community level. This should not only involve the opinion leaders of the communities but also the views and concerns of the ordinary men and women must be considered.

In the event that farm lands will be lost or affected due to the generation and transmission of the power, the affected persons (be they indigenes or migrant communities) must be duly compensated. Women's land, property rights and health issues should be especially safeguarded and protected.

4.3.2 Private Sector Involvement in Power Generation

At this stage of the development process in Ghana, there is a big shortfall in the power required for efficient economic growth. The Government of Ghana alone cannot meet the additional required capacity. It is therefore desirable and important for private sector involvement in power generation. However, private sector enterprises interested in generating electricity will require rules and regulations that ensure them full cost recovery which ultimately has implications for the poor. The key question then is “to what extent will the private sector participation benefit the country and particularly the poor and vulnerable groups especially women?”. It is proposed that there should be a national debate and consensus building on the “cost reflective tariff vis-a-vis inadequate supply of electricity”. All stakeholders including the citizenry and civil society should be part of the debate.

4.3.3 A National Gender Study on Lifeline Tariffs

As noted in Chapter 3, the lifeline tariff has been introduced into pricing for electricity by PURC/government, to make it more affordable to residential households, especially the poor. According to PURC (2008), the current billing procedures are such that families who live in compound houses, and belong to low income groups, are losing out on the benefits of lifeline tariffs. The available data provide no insights into access, the gender differential uses of electricity, and the effects of tariffs on men and women and on poor people. Even though there are challenges with this policy implementation, not much is known due to limited information on sex disaggregated data. It should also be noted that as policy implementation becomes more efficient and more people get on the lifeline system, the burden of agreed subsidy on government increases.

It is proposed that COMPACT II undertakes a nationwide gender study on life line tariffs to identify the real challenges associated with this policy from a gender perspective. Issues of gender, safety nets vis-a-vis government affordability should be considered in the study.

4.4. DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM REINFORCEMENT PROGRAM

This program will focus on the reinforcement of the Tamale Power System and the Tema Operation Area Power system.

4.4.1. Tamale and Tema Operational Areas

Tamale and Tema Operating Power Systems are to be reinforced as “Flagship Operational Areas”. There will be many innovative initiatives that will be supported with expertise from within and outside Ghana. A lot of attention should be focused on how change is managed within the utility providers. Institutional reforms both in terms of Strategic Corporate Management and Operational Re-alignment with customer care should be undertaken. Recognizing that Ghana does not have a pool of females with engineering background and utility management experience, as much as possible, qualified females from other professional disciplines that can complement the work of

management of the utilities should be brought on board. This can contribute to bridging the gender gap in the electricity sector.

4.5. REVENUE IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

This program will focus on improvement in revenue through the metering system, billing system, and customer care measures. It is expected that the following measures would be taken into consideration in order to address social and gender issues:

4.5.1. Efficient Metering and Billing System

Efforts should be made for substantial improvement in the meter billing system; prompt delivery of bills, accurate reading of meters, more friendly customer care and better corporate governance. Meter readers should be trained to be polite, to all customers. As much as possible, more females should also be trained to be meter readers as a way of improving female participation in the electricity sector.

4.5.2. Customer Care Activities

It is proposed that ECG should be “rebranded” to change the public image of the company. One way of doing this is through house-to-house visitation by an independent private entity to interact with clients and to have one-on-one discussion about problems and challenges. As much as possible, females should be recruited as part of the visitation teams.

There should be capacity building in gender issues for all management and staff of the utility services. This will make their services more gender-sensitive.

4.6. Cross Cutting Issue: Affirmative Action as part of Institutional Reform

The reform of the Regulatory bodies should take account of Government of Ghana’s Affirmative Action of 40% female representation on Statutory Boards, Commissions and Committees. Since women also use energy to a great extent, their presence will help develop gender-sensitive policies for the electricity sector. The women identified need not be electrical engineers; but persons with adequate and relevant qualification from multi-disciplinary backgrounds.

With the proposal to create an Appellate Body to deal with electricity issues, it is recommended that the members of the Appellate Body should include women (40%) and men with requisite qualifications. This will not only ensure fairness and social justice, but also a way of improving women’s representation in the energy sector.

Young female students pursuing engineering related courses in the Universities or Polytechnics could be enticed to be part of the pilot schemes in the selected communities to generate interest. As

much as possible, every avenue and opportunity should be explored to increase the female ratio in the energy sector.

4.7 Pursue Complementary Activities

As has been aptly argued and documented in chapter 3, there are some pre-conditions for the successful implementation of the productive use of electricity from a social and gender perspective. It has been argued that additional program or project components to support the setting up of income generating activities can improve the outcome. If the pre-conditions are carefully considered, it will help women in particular to break some barriers that negate their productive use of electricity.

Without thoughtful consideration, COMPACT II may be successful from a technical and technological reform perspective, but may fall short in human development, social gender equity and poverty reduction barometers.

It is proposed that COMPACT II should examine the possibility of undertaking some complimentary activities. If it becomes impossible to finance the complimentary activities from COMPACT II funds, it is suggested that the program collaborates with other donors or projects to assist in a complimentary way to achieve this objective. In addition, for certain areas, the following may be considered, but these must be linked to the productive use of electricity:

- Low electricity tariff and low service connection fees.
- Access to education (functional and formal)
- Transportation system.
- Marketing outlets to sell finished products.
- Availability of resource mobilization schemes to support potentially profitable micro and small scale enterprises.
- Construction of feeder roads to open up critical areas for productive use of electricity.

4.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADDITIONAL STUDIES

There is little research, data and information on the productive use of electricity in Ghana. There is even limited information on the social and gender dimensions of the productive use of electricity. It is being proposed that COMPACT II can address this gap by sponsoring some studies and research in this sector. In this vein, studies in the following areas could be pursued:

- A national study on gender and electricity and its productive uses. This should include decisions concerning electricity purchase and use at the household level.
- Socio-economic analysis of targeted communities, small hamlets and island villages. This will provide data on men and women of the communities, inform on their respective economic activities, access to productive resources, revenue etc.
- A study on the use of pre-paid meters (its current use, the monitoring of the meters, perception and effects of pre-paid meters on the poor and vulnerable groups).

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