

Social Development and Sustainable Fisheries: Ghana



Prepared by:

Peter L.A.



International Collective in Support of Fishworkers (ICSF)
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Front Cover

Tema Harbour, Ghana

Front Inside

Small-scale fishers carrying their nets to the sea expecting a good catch

Back Inside

Female fish vendors waiting in the shade for the customers

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Abbreviations

ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
CBO	Community-Based Organization
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CHPS	Community-Based Health Planning and Services
COMWS	Community Operated and Managed Water Systems
CPESDP	Co-ordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DOVVSU	Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council of the United Nations
EC	Energy Commission
ESMTDP	Education Sector Medium-Term Development Plan
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FDA	Food and Drugs Authority
FIDA	International Federation of Women Lawyers
FRI	Food Research Institute
FWO	Fish Worker Organization
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GMA	Ghana Meteorological Agency
GNCFC	Ghana National Canoe Fishermen Council
GPRS I	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GPRS II	Growth & Poverty Reduction Strategy II
GSA	Ghana Standards Authority
GSGDA	Ghana Shared Growth & Development Agenda
GSS	Ghana Statistical Services
HAACP	Hazards Analysis and Critical Control Point
HDI	Human Development Index
HRBA	Human Rights-Based Approach
ILO	International Labour Organization
KVIP	Kumasi Ventilated Improved Pit
LAS	Legal Aid Scheme
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MDA	Ministries, Departments and Agencies

MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MDTP	Medium-Term Development Plan
MELR	Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations
MMDA	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEn	Ministry of Energy
MoFAD	Ministry of Fisheries and Aquaculture Development
MoFEP	Ministry of Finance & Economic Planning
MoGCSP	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection
MoH	Ministry of Health
NADMO	National Disaster Management Organization
NAFPTA	National Fish Processors and Traders Association
NCCSA	National Climate Change Adaptation Strategy
NDP	National Development Planning Commission
NFLP	National Functional Literacy Programme
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
NICFC	National Inland Canoe Fishermen Council
NSDF	National Spatial Development Framework
PWD	Person with Disability
REDD+	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPR	Universal Periodic Review
VG-SSF	Voluntary Guidelines in Small-Scale Fisheries
VNR	Voluntary National Review
WASH	Water and Sanitation Hygiene
WiLDAF	Women in Law and Development Africa

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1. Introduction

1.1. Country Profile

Situated along the Gulf of Guinea, Ghana shares borders with the Republic of Burkina Faso to the North, Cote d'Ivoire to the West and Togo to the East. The country extends over a land area of 239,460 square km split into 6 ecological zones. The country has a coastline of 560 km. This low-lying coastline (up to 200m above sea level) is drained by four major rivers, over 90 lagoons, as well as marshes, estuaries and swamps. The Volta River (and lake), a dominant geographical feature, covers a surface area of 8,480 km² and has a shoreline of 5,200 km.

Ghana has a tropical monsoon climate with two periods of rainfall. The first is the major monsoon from March to July, and the second, a minor monsoon, is from September to October. The total average annual rainfall is about 2000 mm. The rainfall patterns vary widely from the wet tropical forests in the south to the dry savannah and scrublands of the north and eastern coastal areas.

Ghana's current population is estimated at 31 million (UNDESA, 2019). The country boasts of over 70 ethnic groups and has over 50 indigenous languages (Anyidoho and Dakubu, 2008).



Figure 1.1: Administrative map of Ghana

Source: https://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/map/ghana_map.htm

English is the official language and lingua franca. Ghana's 16 regions, are administered by a regional minister—appointed by the President after vetting and approval of Parliament. These are further divided into 260 metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies (MMDAs). Under this decentralized system of governance, Ghana operates as a unitary democratic republic with separation of power among the executive, legislature and the judiciary. According to (GSS) 2010, more than two-thirds (71.2 per cent) of the people are Christians, 17.6 per cent are Muslims and 5.2 per cent follow the traditional African religions. Various other beliefs account for the remainder.

Designated a lower middle-income country by the United Nations, Ghana practices economic liberalism. In 2018, Ghana's estimated per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was US\$ 2,214. The largest contributor to GDP is the service sector (53 per cent) followed by agriculture (24 per cent) and manufacturing (10.5 per cent). The remaining 12.5 per cent is made up of mining, petroleum and construction (NDP, 2019). The agricultural, forestry and fishery sector—which used to employ over 70 per cent of the labour force—has been declining in recent years, but remains a significant source of livelihood for millions of Ghanaians. In 2019 Ghana was ranked 138th on the UNDP HDI with an average life expectancy of 64.1 years. 45.6 per cent of the population are multidimensionally poor; consumption expenditure poverty is 23.4 per cent and 13 per cent live below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 per day (GSS, 2020). Compared to many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Ghana is considered well-governed with a thriving multi-party democracy and relatively decent basic education, healthcare, ICT and expanding social infrastructure. However, despite the country's sustained political stability and economic growth, there are significant disparities and inequalities in social development across geographical, social and economic groups (GSS,2020).

The country recognizes these challenges and has participated in a number of international conventions and instruments seeking to address inequality and socio-economic disparity. These include the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), Convention on the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour, FAO Voluntary Guidelines for Small-Scale Fisheries, and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDG 2030).

1.2. Background to the study

At its 31st session, the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) through its Committee on Fisheries (COFI) adopted the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries (VG-SSF) in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication in June 2014. The guidelines look to address the aspirations of small-scale fishers across the globe, while the backbone of fish economies, continue to be poor and marginalized and deprived of their human rights for socioeconomic and cultural development (Kurien, 2015).

The VG-SSF promotes a human rights-based approach to address the aspirations, needs and challenges of small-scale fish workers across the value chain. This includes social development and sustainable fisheries. According to Matthew (2020), social development seeks “to ensure that poverty eradication, employment generation and social inclusion policies and programmes—through effective governance systems at various levels—meet the needs of individuals, families and communities and to ensure their wellbeing, including of children by protecting them from all forms of abuse”.

As a signatory to the VG-SSF and SDG 2030, Ghana has a responsibility to ensure that social development contributes towards poverty eradication and food security as well as conservation and sustainable use of aquatic diversity. The emphasis cannot be on meeting the minimum standards of SDG 2030, but also on ensuring no one (small-scale fish worker) is left behind. This study examines the status of social development, employment and decent work programmes in small-scale fishing communities in Ghana. It also analyses schemes, policies, legislation and institutional support that leaves no-one and ways they can strengthen the environmental pillar of sustainable development.

1.3. Rationale

Like their counterparts across the globe, small-scale fishers in Ghana play a critical role in providing food security and supporting livelihoods. The sector contributes 60 per cent of animal protein intake for Ghanaians while providing livelihood for an estimated 3 million fish workers dependent on small-scale fisheries' value chains. Small-scale fishers contribute 70-80 per cent of Ghana's annual catch of 450,000 metric tons of fish from marine and inland waters (MoFAD, 2018). Despite this, the general living and working conditions of small-scale fishers is dismal, and most live in poverty.

To aid in the development of a body of information on the importance of social development and its effects on sustainable small-scale fisheries, it is necessary to review the existing conditions of small-scale fishing communities. This needs to begin with a careful examination of social development, employment and decent work. Communities empowered to enjoy their human rights provide a snapshot of the current situation. This will help identify gaps and make recommendations towards full and effective implementation of chapter 6 of the SSF Guidelines.

Given the recent shift from MDGs to SDGs—in particular ensuring that we “leave no one behind”—an increased focus is on identifying those historically marginalized and their access to social development services. We need to understand the underlying factors for this, to help create solutions that directly benefit them. This situational study also intends to contribute to an increased understanding of social development from the perspective of small-scale fishworkers, facilitate dialogue among stakeholders and help improve policy and institutional arrangements.

1.4. Study objectives

The study's overarching objective is to conduct a situational analysis of small-scale fishing communities in Ghana by examining “how social development contributes to responsible and sustainable small-scale fisheries” with reference to the SSF Guidelines (chapter 6); and other relevant human rights-based instruments. More specifically, the study seeks to:

- Review and analyze schemes, legislation and reports on social development of fishing communities, especially related to poverty, employment, decent work, social inclusion, health, literacy and education, housing, sanitation, drinking water and energy. In addition, it will also review SSF allied institutions, sexual and gender-based violence and safe and timely access to justice.
- Examine how social development can contribute to effective conservation and sustainable use of marine, coastal, freshwater and brackish water biodiversity.

1.5. Methodology and scope

Consistent with the objectives above, the study addresses 13 research questions on social development, employment and decent work in small-scale fishing communities. To answer these questions, it draws on a combination of quantitative and qualitative assessments. Four interrelated methods were used for data collection and synthesis as well as analysis and drawing conclusions.

1.5.1. Data collection

Primary and secondary data sources were used for the study. Primary data instruments included questionnaires, topic-guided interviews and focus group discussions. Structured questionnaires elicited feedback on social development policies and institutional interventions from MoFAD, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, NAFPTA, GNCFC and NICFC. Topic-guided interviews helped gain social development perspectives from key informants. Focus group discussions were conducted with fish workers in Gomoa Fetteh, Prampram, Keta, and Yeji. Secondary data

sources included journal publications, reports and studies from relevant Ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) and intergovernmental organizations, including FAO, UNDP and ILO.

1.5.2. Literature review

An extensive literature review conducted on social development, employment and decent work standards provided a conceptual background and helped form a basis to contextualize the findings. The review included policies, legislations and plans relating to small-scale fisheries, assessment of Voluntary National Review (VNR), reports on SDG targets, the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) reports of UNHRC, and UNDP etc.

1.5.3. Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews focused on informants with deep insight on national policy and institutional arrangements on social development in small scale fishing communities, FWOs common goals and aspirations and community-level interventions on social development in small-scale fishing communities. Accordingly, six key informants from Fisheries Commission, University of Ghana Department of Oceanography & Fisheries Science, NAFPTA, PCFS, NICFC and GNCFC were interviewed.

1.5.4. Focus group discussions

Four focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted. One with a mixed group of men and women fish workers at Gomoah Fetteh; two separate groups of women fish workers at Prampram and Keta; and one group of men fish workers at Yeji. Overall, thirty-six participants including women cooperative leaders, chief fishermen and community leaders contributed to the group discussions.

Table 1.1: Focus group discussion communities

SSF Community	Gender	Code
• Gomoa Fetteh, Central Region	Men and women	FGDAMW
• Prampram, Greater Accra	Women	FGDPW
• Keta, Volta Region	Women	FGDKW
• Yeji, Bono East Region	Men and women	FGDYM

Source: Author's fieldwork

1.6. Social development within the context of human rights-based framework

The SSF Guidelines state that “all parties should consider integrated ecosystem and holistic approaches to small-scale fisheries management and development that take the complexity of livelihoods into account. Due attention to social and economic development may be needed to ensure that small-scale fishing communities are empowered and can enjoy their human rights”. The underlying principle of Chapter 6 of the guidelines is that, social development, if properly structured on the human-rights based approach (HRBA) can empower SSF communities enjoy significant social and economic benefits.

1.6.1. The human rights-based approach (HRBA)

To address the inequalities that often characterize human development, FAO advocates the HRBA in sustainable small-scale fisheries. Their lack of official recognition and marginalization have been cited as reasons to drive HRBA in their growth. “90 per cent of capture fishers and fish workers in the world work in small-scale fisheries, and contribute to over 50% of fish catch in developing countries,” FAO 2020 observed, “yet SSF communities are often the poorest and most politically and socially marginalized. This often means communities lack access to basic services such as drinking water and housing, but also to education and health services”. Sustainable development is another factor, and demands that the environmental, social and economic pillars of development are harmoniously integrated. Unfortunately, this has not been the case in the past. “The emphasis when it comes to fisheries,” Matthew (2015) notes, “has mainly been on economic and environmental issues, and less on social development of fishers and fishing communities.”

Gender discrimination and injustice is linked to poor social development too. Plagued by poverty and deprivation, it is obvious that everyone suffers. But women and children suffer disproportionately. In addition to being involved in domestic and caregiving roles, women also provide long pre and postharvest labour but have limited access to basic services that improve their livelihood.

The common denominator that links marginalization, poor social development and gender injustice is a disregard for human rights. The SSF Guidelines seek to address this problem by promoting and protecting human rights. The prime focus is on marginalized and vulnerable groups. The guidelines also seek to identify social development beyond monetary and consumption terms. Improved access to health, education, housing, sanitation, potable water and energy need to be considered as indicators too.

1.7. Policy & institutional framework for social development in Ghana

Ghana’s Constitution acknowledges the right of every citizen to enjoy just, equitable and inclusive social development. Article 36, Clause 5 explicitly enjoins that every President “... within two years after assuming office, present to Parliament a coordinated programme of economic and social development policies, including agricultural and industrial programmes at all levels and in all the regions of Ghana.” This constitutional requirement, often shortened as CPESDP provides the legal basis for inclusive national development policy framework in Ghana. Over the past two decades, successive governments have formulated five medium-term CPESDP policy frameworks. These comprise:

- Vision 2020: The First Step (1999-200)
- Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003–2005)
- Growth & Poverty Reduction Strategy II (2006-2009)
- Ghana Shared Growth & Development Agenda I (2010-2013)
- Ghana Shared Growth & Development Agenda II (2014-2017).

The current, 6th policy framework is Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018-2021).

The CPESDPs, developed through NDPC, build on the successes and challenges of preceding policies. They are anchored on four pillars: social development, economic development, environmental development and institutional development. Table 1.2 gives an overview of the social development pillar of Ghana’s national development framework.

Table 1.2: Ghana's long-term social development overview

Long-term objective	Create safe, peaceful, and sustainable communities where in accordance with the Constitution, Ghanaians can live productive, prosperous, and fulfilling lives in freedom and in peace.
Policies on social development	Covers a broad range of issues including, (but not limited) to the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education (including training) • Health (including nutrition) • Housing (including sanitation) • Employment (including decent work) • Cultural activities (including sports) • Social protection (both direct and indirect)

Source: CPESDP 2017

National development frameworks provide broad policy direction. Various ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) are responsible for sectoral planning, policy formulation, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation. By convention, the subnational or local government structure—comprising, metropolitan, municipal, and district assemblies (MMDAs)—are obligated to develop their medium-term programmes in line with the national development framework. Ghana is also a party to other international and regional protocols and treaties including: CEDAW, African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights, Africa Union Agenda 2063, and SDGs, among others.

MDGs were integrated into the GPRS I national development policy in 2001, setting the pattern for a gradual mainstreaming of global and regional instruments into national policies. According to the NDPC (2018)—which serves as the apex body for coordinating national policies—SDGs are fully aligned with the current national development policy, Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018-2021). In 2018, MoFEP launched the first SDG baseline budget reporting. Specific policies and programmes across various MDAs for social development in Ghana are considered in detail in chapter two.

1.8. Organization of the study

The study is structured in four chapters. Chapter 1 sets the context for the study, providing the background, rationale and objectives. It also outlines the methodology and scope, a review of the human rights-based approach, and a profile of the framework for social development in Ghana. Chapter 2 takes a closer look at social development, employment and decent work in fishing communities and addresses the thirteen research questions. Chapter 3 presents the conclusions with key messages while recommending a number of ways the existing situation could be improved for sustainable and responsible fisheries. This is followed by a bibliography and appendices.

2. Social development, employment and decent work

This chapter will present and discuss findings keeping in mind the objectives discussed in chapter 1. It will aim to detail out policies and programmes that aid in social development for small-scale fisheries. Furthermore, it examines whether existing policies, legislation and institutions contribute to creating responsible and sustainable fisheries.

2.1. Poverty

Assessments of Ghana's poverty indicate a gradual decline. The country had targeted halving extreme poverty by 2015—and according to the MDG 2015 report, achieved it nine years before the. The same report also notes a decline in the population below the national lower poverty line from 36.5 per cent in 1991 to 18.2 per cent in 2006. A Voluntary National Review on SDGs in 2019 found that between 2006-17 the country's overall poverty fell to 23.4 per cent from 31.9 per cent. In the same period, extreme poverty declined from 16.5 per cent to 8.4 per cent. Despite the huge strides made to combat poverty, there are concerns about rising inequality. According to the Poverty Gap Ratio analysis, poverty is most severe in Upper West (57%), Upper East (39%) and Northern regions (38.8%). Deep poverty exists in rural Ghana. Despite the decline in poverty incidence in urban areas there is a rise in inequality and disparity.

45.6 per cent of Ghana's population is multidimensionally poor—the dimensions include health, education and living standards dimensions (GSS, 2020). The real concern is over the high number of multidimensionally poor children. The Ghana VNR (2018) estimated that 73.4 per cent of children are multidimensionally poor. This is a result of being deprived of at least three children's well-being measures—nutrition, health, learning and development, child protection, water, sanitation, housing, and information. A UNICEF study from 2016 found that 3.65 million children in Ghana live in poverty and 1.2 million live in extreme poverty with inadequate resources to meet basic food needs.

2.1.1. Poverty eradication programmes

Over this millennium Ghana has put into practice five medium-term national development plans, GPRS I (2003–2005), GPRS II (2006–2009), GSGDA I (2010–2013), GSGDA II (2014–2017) and Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018–2021). GPRS I, II and GSGDA I, II were aligned with the MDGs' objective of "eradication of extreme poverty and hunger" by 2015. Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018–2021) is integrated into SDGs and the Africa Union Agenda 63. Agenda 63, adopted by African leaders in 2015 as a "blueprint for inclusive and sustainable development", complements the SDGs 2030. Both strike similar tones, talking of "inclusiveness" and "leaving no one behind". An overview of Ghana's medium-term social development plan is presented in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Ghana's medium-term social development goal & strategy

Medium-Term Goal	Medium-Term Policy Objectives & Strategies
<p><i>Creating opportunities for all</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding opportunities where large-scale job creation is possible Expanding access to and improving the quality of education at all levels for all socio-economic groups Expanding access to and improving the quality of healthcare 	<p><i>Priority areas</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education and training Health and health services Food and nutrition security Population management & migration for development Poverty and inequality

Medium-Term Goal	Medium-Term Policy Objectives & Strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening social protection, especially for children, women, persons with disability and the elderly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Water and environmental sanitation • Child protection and family welfare • Support for the aged • Gender equality, empowerment of women/girls • Sports and recreation • Youth development • Social protection • Disability and development • Employment and decent work
Flagship Projects and Initiatives	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement the policy of free education for all Ghanaian children up to senior high school • Redefine basic education to include secondary education • Implement reforms in school curriculum to highlight the 4Rs (i.e., Writing, Arithmetic, Reading and Creative Arts, including History of Ghana and French and Arabic as options) • Implement an accelerated programme for the expansion of educational infrastructure • Strengthen technical and vocational education and training (TVET) • Strengthen and align TVET institutions in the Ministry of Education • Popularize and demystify the teaching and learning of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and ICT education in basic and secondary schools • Implement an accelerated programme for teacher development and professionalization • Reform and strengthen regulatory agencies operating under the Ministry of Education • Renew and enhance the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) • Restructure the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) • Expand the domestic production of pharmaceuticals • Launch the national Planting for Food and Jobs programme to stimulate food production & generate jobs • Introduce a quota system of 30 percent of public appointments for women • Expand the coverage of the LEAP programme • Implement a policy of reserving 30 percent of poverty alleviation/credit funds of MMDAs to service women's enterprises • Enforce the Disability Act, including ensuring access to public buildings for the physically challenged 	

Source: CPESDP 2017

2.1.2. Effectiveness of poverty eradication policies and programmes

The Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018-2021), the main policy framework for providing social development in Ghana, states that “the main objective is to eradicate poverty in all forms and dimensions and minimize inequality among socio-economic groups and between geographical areas.” It has identified a number of social interventions to accomplish this objective. They are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Current social interventions for addressing poverty and inequality

Objective	Eradicate poverty in all forms and dimensions and minimize inequality among socio-economic groups and between geographical areas
Social interventions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Youth Employment Programme • Free Maternal Care • Microfinance and Small Loans Centre • Mass Cocoa Spraying Exercise, • Youth Enterprise Support Programme • Metro Mass Transit Transport Service • Ghana School Feeding Programme • Free School Uniform and Exercise Books • Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty • Capitation Grant • National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) for the exempt category • Labour-Intensive Public Works programme

Source: CPESDP 2017

In addition to the above, the small-scale fisheries are governed by

- Fisheries Act 2002
- Fisheries Amendment Act 2014 (Act 880)
- Fisheries Regulation 2010 (LI 1968)
- Fisheries Amendment Regulation 2015 (LI 2217)
- Fisheries and Aquaculture Policy (2008).

The study sought to determine the effectiveness of these instruments by analyzing policy documents and talking to respondents. Based on this it is clear that existing poverty eradication policies and programmes are universal. They do not specifically target fishers, fish workers or their communities.

These means fishing communities are responsible to ascertain programmes applicable to their needs or circumstances and their own qualification for it. They are also forced to consider the potential benefits and its ease of access. An example of this comes from women fish workers who noted that free maternal care (FMC) and national health insurance scheme (NHIS), while easing the financial burden, provide very basic services. Prescribed medications are not always available at the health facility. These two services are also not easily accessible to those geographically isolated (FGDPW, FGDKW).

There is a clear link between the effectiveness of these policies and their availability and accessibility to the target population. Key informers in Sekondi, Elmina, Fetteh, Prampram and Keta reported that their communities have access to NHIS, FMC, capitation grant, free exercise books/uniforms and limited provision of LEAP. Remote or geographically isolated SSF communities do not have easy access to these them being universal. An FGD in Yeji revealed that the St. Mathias Hospital was accessible to communities within a 50 km radius. Only the critically ill or those with an emergency would make the arduous journey on the Volta lake to access healthcare. This is a further indictment of the fact that urban SSF communities tend to benefit more from poverty eradication programmes than their rural counterparts. A fact also evident by statistics from GLSS Round 7 (2019) which found that poverty is significantly higher in rural SSF communities (29.9 per cent) than urban SSF communities (8.3 per cent).

Respondents stress that poverty in the community is on the rise. Income levels have progressively declined every year despite a stability in the peak fishing season. A steady decline in fish landings, attributed to saiko fishing (mainly in the Central and Western regions), overfishing and other unsustainable practices such as undersized mesh size, use of explosives and light have been cited as the chief reasons for this. An inability to access traditional fishing grounds due to commercial oil and gas production has pushed them further into the poverty abyss. Fishers from Ahanta West, Western Nzema, Jomoro, Ellembelle, Sekondi-Takoradi, and Shama are among the worst affected (FGD).

2.2. Employment

According to Ghana's Statistical Service (2012), 71.1 per cent of the population aged 15 years and older in 2010 were economically active and 94.7 per cent employed. Two-fifths (41.2 per cent) of this is engaged in skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery. The services and sales sector employed 21 per cent and craft and related trade works 15.2 per cent of the labour force. Despite its declining contribution to GDP in recent times, agricultural, forestry and fishery remains the most important economic sector for employment—employing 44.9 per cent of men and 37.7 per cent of women respectively.

According to the more recent 2015 Labour Force Survey, 9.1 per cent of the labour force was unemployed. The highest rate of unemployment was among persons with senior high school education (24.4 per cent). An estimated 59.6 per cent of the youth (aged 15-35) were employed. A higher proportion of men (62.8 per cent) than that of women (57.2 per cent) had jobs, with 90 per cent engaged by the private sector.

The national youth unemployment rate of 12 per cent is a worrying concern (Dadzie et al, 2020). An estimated 210,000 unskilled and semiskilled youths enter the labour market every year (MELR, 2014). According to a 2016 estimate, at least 300,000 jobs needed to be created annually to address youth unemployment (Honorati and Johansson de Silva, 2016). This is yet to be accomplished.

2.2.1. Employment and skills development policies

Ghana's employment and skills development policies are typically included in the medium-term development plans (MTDP). 60 per cent of the population of Ghana is under the age of 25, and the youth are the country's main focus for employment and skills development policies. The overarching employment policy in Ghana is the National Employment Policy (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Summary of National Employment Policy of Ghana

Overarching Goal	Policy Objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To create gainful and decent employment opportunities for the growing labour force to improve their living conditions and contribute to economic growth and national development within the framework of equity, fairness, security and dignity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To create more decent jobs to meet the growing demand for employment. To improve the quality of jobs for those who are employed. To increase labour productivity. To strengthen governance and labour administration.

Source: NEP 2014

Ghana also faces significant challenges with underemployment. According to the 2015 Labour Force Survey, an estimated 10 per cent of the working population is underemployed. Most of them, 42.2 per cent, are in unskilled agriculture and fishery. The highest proportions of underemployed persons are in the 25-29 (15.3 per cent) and 30-34 (15.2 per cent) age brackets.

Recognizing the challenges of unemployment and underemployment, the Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018-2021) says that “economic growth and job creation will be at the centre of implementation of policies, programmes and projects”. In the short term, the plan seeks to “accelerate economic activities in the productive sectors, improve the business environment, and facilitate the transition of the informal economy to formality as a means of removing decent work deficits”. The medium term policy objective is “to improve human capital development and management, and create decent jobs”.

2.2.2. Effectiveness of employment policies and programmes

Ghana’s efforts at addressing unemployment and underemployment focus primarily on the youth—using an array of skills development, entrepreneurship, apprenticeships and direct employment. The interventions do not specifically target fishing communities. The concern of successive governments over the years has been on increasing dwindling fish stock and reducing the fish import bill. The focus, therefore, has been placed not on generating more employment or improving existing working conditions in SSF but on aquaculture and other alternative livelihoods. This can be observed in the various state initiatives and incentives for aquaculture—including the recently launched “Aquaculture for Food and Jobs” (AFJ) in 2018. MoFAD’s projects that the latter will create over 80,000 jobs across the aquaculture value chain.

Because the interventions do not specifically target SSF, respondents complained that fishing communities were particularly disadvantaged because of the number of landing sites and the large number of fishing communities. Furthermore, many of them are rural, and geographically isolated, with very little or no social infrastructure. Another recurrent theme from the FGDs was about the mismatch between policy and actual knowledge and experience of fish workers. Employment programmes, respondents said, require employable skills acquired through formal education and, in some cases, skills training. Traditional SSF knowledge, in contrast, is passed on informally to family members or through apprenticeship. In order to benefit from these employment interventions, youth in fishing communities would have to switch careers and/or migrate to gain access.

Employment policies have had limited success. While national employment programmes, including skills development, entrepreneurships and apprenticeships, have increased it has not resulted in high quality decent jobs. This challenge is acknowledged in the 2019 Ghana VNR which reveals that “the bulk of the population are employed in the informal sector, where remuneration is generally low with practically non-existent safety nets”. The reasons cited for the limited success include, a lack of coordination, fragmentation and duplication, limited monitoring and evaluation to assess impact, limited exit strategies and limited data on quality, performance and outcomes (Dadzie et al, 2020).

As fish landings decrease, the severity of unemployment and underemployment in fishing communities is becoming more apparent. It has also adversely impacted the capacity of fish workers across the value chain to generate sufficient income. Women fish workers attest to facing greater challenges because aside from performing long laborious work, they also have to carry the burden of caring for the home with little income. The FGDs further showed that large scale unemployment and underemployment has led to increasing migration, abandonment of SSF by the youth in favour of menial jobs in urban communities, abuse and exploitation of women, child labour and trafficking.

2.3. Decent work

The “right to work” is a fundamental human right. For work to be considered ‘decent’, the ILO (2016) says this must involve “opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men”.

Decent work, as defined by the ILO, should embrace four pillars: employment creation, social protection, rights at work, and social dialogue. These four pillars are part of the SDG Agenda 2030. Ghana's recognition of the ILOs decent work agenda is articulated in a number of policy documents including the National Employment Policy (NEP) which states that "the goal of the NEP is to create gainful and decent employment opportunities for the growing labour force to improve their living conditions and contribute to economic growth and national development within the framework of equity, fairness, security and dignity".

The NEP decent work policy notwithstanding, anecdotal evidence suggests that the majority of the population employed in the informal sector suffers significant decent work deficits. The Agenda for Jobs: Creating Prosperity and Equal Opportunities for All (2018-2021) notes that "about 90 per cent of businesses in Ghana are informal, with little or no access to safety nets, capital markets, and often incapable of generating sufficient savings to offset shocks and to expand their businesses". Similarly, the VNR 2019 reported that "the bulk of the population are employed in the informal sector, where remuneration is generally low with practically non-existent safety nets". Within the national context, decent work standards are limited to employment in the formal sector.

2.3.1. Policies on decent work standards

Ghana has developed five major national development plans this millennium which have sought to generate more employment opportunities and improve upon the living and working conditions of the citizenry. The current plan seeks to address this decent work deficit through short and medium-term goals. In the short-term, the plan seeks to "accelerate economic activities in the productive sectors, improve the business environment, and facilitate the transition of the informal economy to formality as a means of removing decent work deficits". In the medium term the policy objective is "to improve human capital development and management, and create decent jobs." The medium term objectives and strategies are given in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Medium-term strategies for employment and decent work

Medium-Term Objective	Medium-Term Strategies
Improve human capital development and management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finalizing and implementing the National Human Resource Development Policy • Developing a National Productivity Index • Promoting life-long training programmes and meritocracy especially in the public service • Strengthening employment coordination in all sectors of the economy • Accelerating implementation of a comprehensive National Employment policy and Labour-Intensive Public Works policy • Revamping public employment centres nationwide • Strengthening enforcement of labour laws and regulations as well as the labour administration system • Promoting harmonious industrial relations • Strengthening measures to prevent informalization/casualization of jobs in the formal economy • Enforcing laws regarding social security, occupational safety and health measures in all sectors of the economy • Promoting and enforcing deeper and wider application of local content and participation laws • Introducing mandatory job-impact assessment for all public sector projects and initiatives • Creating equal employment opportunities for PWDs.

Medium-Term Objective	Medium-Term Strategies
Create decent jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing and implementing tailored support services for business units • Strengthening the linkages between social protection and employment services • Enhancing livelihood opportunities and entrepreneurship • Strengthening cooperative systems for the development of business-oriented ventures • Mainstreaming labour-intensive methods in specific government interventions • Developing and promoting schemes that support skills training, internship and modern apprenticeship • Creating an effective coordination system for managing labour migration issues • Providing infrastructure for business development • Regulating the job market and encouraging the formal and informal economy to create decent jobs • Strengthening capacity of informal labour unions to engage in social dialogue • Building capacity in the informal economy.

2.3.2. Impact of decent work policies in fishing communities

The key thrust of the decent work policy is to ‘facilitate the transition of the informal economy to formality as a means of removing decent work deficits’. To assess the impact of decent work policies on fishing communities, the study concentrated on whether the policy focuses on working conditions in fishing and fish processing activities and the extent to which fishers benefit from it. A review of policy documents, regulatory and legal instruments suggests that there is no policy on decent work in the SSF sector. This, despite the government’s broad commitments to improve the social and economic welfare of fishing communities.

The major policy document on — Ghana Fisheries and Aquaculture Development Plan—is quite generic on the SSF sector with no specific objectives, and measurable outcomes. In the same vein, existing social security schemes favour formal sector employees rather than informal sector employees.

In 2008, the Parliament passed a mandatory three-tier pension scheme. The first tier is a mandatory basic national social security scheme for all employees in both the private and public sector, managed by the state. The second tier is an occupational or work-based pension scheme, mandatory for all formal sector employees but privately managed. The third tier focuses on voluntary provident fund and personal pension schemes for workers in the informal sector. In spite of its obvious benefits, the third-tier pension scheme is yet to be operationalized for the SSF sector.

The impact of decent work policy on fishing communities has been minimal. Overall working conditions remain unsafe, unsanitary with rudimentary infrastructure for post-harvest activities. The FGDs revealed that the government is aware of the working conditions, but has not taken concrete measures to address them. Most of the interventions targeting decent were not designed for low-income earners or the poor working class. Male fishers in particular said that apart from a declining catch, their work is seasonal with high income volatility. They felt neglected by policy makers who, while eager to support the formal sector with incentives, offered only assurances to

the SSF sector. Women respondents lamented that, contrary to media reports, they were more than willing to switch to improved and cleaner processing methods. The capital outlay for the improved alternatives made it prohibitive.

These responses highlight a disconnect between the centrally planned policies on decent work standards and community-level participation and implementation. Underlying factors include but are not limited to a lack of a carefully planned decent work policy in the sector, a failure of policies and interventions to take into account local community needs and priorities and little or no education on decent work policies by fish workers.

2.4. Social inclusion

Social inclusion, according to UNDESA (2016), is the process of “improving the terms of participation in society for people who are disadvantaged on the basis of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion, or economic or other status, through enhanced opportunities, access to resources, voice and respect for rights”. This definition is generally in sync with the country’s Constitution which mandates all governments promote an inclusive and equitable society.

Social exclusion, on the other hand, “describes a state in which individuals are unable to participate fully in economic, social, political and cultural life, as well as the process leading to and sustaining such a state”. Participation may be hindered when people lack access to material resources, including income, employment, land and housing, or to such services as education and health care, UNDESA 2016 notes. In Ghana, social exclusion is multidimensional in nature and cuts across society, in varying degrees. Common forms of exclusion include age, socio-economic status (poverty), people with disability (PWDs), gender, and migration status. Some manifestations of social exclusion are listed below:

Child labour, domestic violence, sexual abuse and exploitation of children: The Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS, 2014) reported that 21.8 per cent of children aged 5-17 years were engaged in child labour—the proportion of boys was marginally higher (22.7 per cent) than that of girls (20.8 per cent). Child labour is more prevalent in rural areas with the rural savannah recording the highest proportion of children (34.6 per cent) engaged in child labour in the country. According to Ghana Police’s Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), 4,720 offences against children were recorded in 2016, down from 11,345 in 2014.

Lack of social protection and support for the aged: Social protection and social safety net mechanisms introduced over a decade ago to provide support for the vulnerable have not been adequate in guaranteeing protection and support for the aged GoG 2017 notes. The report also found that while Pensions Act, 2008 (Act 766) provides a necessary framework for extending social security coverage to a majority of workers outside the SSNIT pensions scheme, a significant number of workers in the informal economy do not have any form of pension. Most persons aged 60 years and above therefore, are not covered by any form of pension.

Gender equality and equity: Despite adopting several international gender conventions in the legal framework and instituting architecture to promote gender equality and equity, there is under-representation of women in Parliament—and the general political and economic landscape. The proportion of women in public positions as of 2016 was 23.5 per cent, far below the national target of 40 per cent. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection in 2016, reported that public institutions have made limited progress in adopting gender-responsive budgeting.

Poverty and vulnerability: Despite the implementation of social protection programmes, certain population groups still suffer from multiple vulnerabilities due to the manner of implementation. For most of these social protection initiatives, GoG 2017 observed that coverage remains extremely low due to poor targeting of intended beneficiaries. A notable example is the targeting mechanism of the Ghana School Feeding Programme. The programme is skewed to favour urban schools instead of rural schools which are much more in need of such an intervention.

Persons with disability (PWDs): One-fifth of Ghana's population is estimated to be living with either a physical, intellectual or emotional disability. An MDTP 2017 report indicates that PWDs face severe social stigma because of an entrenched culture of discrimination, evident in access to employment, education, healthcare and use of public places. The report concluded that despite constitutional and legislative guarantees on the rights of PWDs, the laws have not been effectively implemented and discrimination against PWDs persists.

2.4.1. Policies on social inclusion

Ghana's constitution provides the legal basis for a just, equitable and inclusive society. Over the years, a number of specific legislative instruments and administrative policies have been enacted to address acts or concerns of social exclusions. These include the National Ageing Policy (2010) and the proposed National Ageing Bill (proposed), to tackle support for the aged. The National Gender Policy and the Affirmative Action Bill (yet to be passed in Parliament) are aimed at ensuring gender equality and equity. Multiple programmes exist to tackle poverty and vulnerability. Ghana was the first country to ratify the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990) and has also ratified the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (2005). To support persons with disabilities the country has the Disability Act, 2006 (Act 715), Labour Regulations, 2007, LI 1833, Regulations 12, 13 on the establishment of disablement units and Ghana Accessibility Standards for the Built Environment (2016).

2.4.2. Effectiveness of social inclusion policies

Ghana's social inclusion policies, to a large extent, create space for a just, equitable and an inclusive society, irrespective of political, religious, social, economic status. In spite of these efforts however, social exclusion and discriminatory practices persist. For child protection and family welfare the challenge has been ineffective inter-sectoral coordination of interventions, poor quality of services for children and families, weak capacity of caregivers, inadequate enforcement of policies on child trafficking, and inadequate professional staff to assist with reformation of children in correctional centres. GoG (2017) noted that for the aged, the barriers to social inclusion included shortfalls in funding to support the implementation, inadequate institutional care for the aged, inadequate essential public services, and high incidence of poverty. Despite Ghana's elaborate gender policies and high-profile appointments of women in sensitive judicial, legislative and political positions, GoG (ibid) acknowledged that "significant barriers exist in women's access to economic resources and participation in public life, which is a manifestation of entrenched socio-cultural constructs and traditional practices".

Respondents attest that inclusionary interventions do not target fishing communities. Additionally, they have to contend with policies that have been formulated without their express inputs. Much remains to be done to tackle the problems of inadequate civic education, insufficient funding, weak capacity of project implementors and poor enforcement of policies that have bedeviled social inclusion interventions.

2.5. Health

Access to and quality of healthcare has witnessed considerable improvements in Ghana, over the past decade. These improvements reflect the progress made towards achieving universal health coverage. Healthcare in Ghana is primarily administered via three types of facilities: Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS), health centres and clinics, and hospitals. Between 2013 and 2016, the number of functional CHPS compounds rose from 2,580 to 4,034 GoG (2017) found. The role of CHPS compounds in administering basic healthcare services is pivotal. A GoG survey found that an increase in the number of CHPS compounds brought greater access to healthcare for about 70 per cent of the population living more than 8 km from the nearest health facility. In addition, CHPS compounds were reported to have accounted for 8.5 per cent of total

OPD attendance and 36 per cent of immunization coverage in 2015. Outpatient services have also improved, partly due to the introduction of the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) in 2003.

Recent reports also show improvements in child, adolescent and maternal healthcare. The Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS), reported that under-five mortality declined from 80 per 1,000 live births in 2008 to 60 per 1,000 live births in 2014. Institutional maternal mortality ratio (iMMR) declined from 155 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2013 to 150 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2016 (GOG, 2017).

Given that malaria is the leading cause of death in pregnant women and children under five, the reduction in the under-5 malaria case fatality rate (CFR) from 0.67 deaths per 100 admissions in 2013 to 0.32 deaths per 100 admissions in 2016 is significant. The reduction in the malaria CFR can be credited to increased access to and use of long-lasting insecticide treated nets (LLTNs), and the introduction of indoor residual spraying (IRS) to eliminate high parasite prevalence.

Gaps in physical access to quality healthcare and inadequate emergency services persist. There is also an emerging deterioration in Ghana's profile of noncommunicable diseases (NCD). The World Health Organization's NCD profile for 2014 indicates that heart-related diseases increased from 30,062 cases in 2008 to 48,472 cases in 2014. Despite the improvements in child mortality, wide disparities exist between geographical areas and among socio-demographic groups. The risk of dying before age 5, according to GSS (ibid), is relatively higher among children of mothers with no education, and among those living in poor households.

2.5.1. Health policy

The National Health Policy is the key policy framework in the country (Table 2.5). Reviewed every four years in response to MDTPs, the health policy addresses issues of accessibility, quality of care, efficiency and inequalities and disparities within the sector. The Ministry of Health (MoH) is the main coordinating apex body. The GHS meanwhile is responsible for implementing the health policy, managing and administering public health resources and delivering health services.

Table 2.5: Summary of Ghana's medium-term health strategy

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
<p>Ensure affordable, equitable, easily accessible and universal health coverage (UHC)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening the referral system • Accelerating implementation of Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS) policy • Expanding and equipping health facilities • Revamping emergency medical preparedness and response services; • Adopting and implementing a strategy for local pharmaceutical production • Scaling up the integration of traditional medicine into existing health service delivery system • Improving medical supply chain management systems

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Strengthen healthcare management system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancing efficiency in the governance and management of the health system • Strengthening the district and sub-district health systems • Formulating and implementing a health sector capital investment policy and plan • Improving the production and distribution mix of critical staff • Implementing health sector decentralization policy and strategy • Strengthening collaboration and partnership with the private sector to provide health services • Improving health information management systems and research • Strengthening capacity for monitoring and evaluation
Reduce disability, morbidity and mortality:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening maternal and new-born care and adolescent services • Intensifying implementation of the malaria control programme • Strengthening prevention and management of malaria cases • Formulating a national strategy to control climate change-induced diseases • Implementing the non-communicable diseases (NCDs) control strategy • Strengthening rehabilitation services • Intensifying polio eradication efforts • Accelerating implementation of the national strategy to eliminate yaws, leprosy, buruli ulcer, filariasis and other neglected tropical diseases.
Ensure reduction of new HIV, AIDS, STIs and other infections, especially among vulnerable groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanding and intensifying HIV testing and counselling (HTC) programmes • Intensifying education to reduce stigmatization • Intensifying behavioural change strategies especially for HIV/AIDS and TB high-risk groups • Strengthening collaboration among HIV/AIDS, TB, and sexual and reproductive health programmes • Intensifying efforts to eliminate mother-to-child transmission of HIV (MTCTHIV) • Ensuring access to antiretroviral therapy (ART) • Supporting the local production of ART commodities.

Source: CPESDP 2017

2.5.2. Effectiveness of health policy in improving access to health

Primary data suggests that existing policies on health have not led to equitable distribution of healthcare facilities, health services and quality. Despite an increase in the number of healthcare facilities, respondents observed that they are not equitably distributed. Accessing basic care often requires travelling long distances. In addition, quality of delivery is a huge issue.

FGDs across all the study areas suggest that health facilities are not fully equipped and often lack basic medication. These complaints are fairly consistent with wider literature. The MoH mandates that one CHP zone cover a geographical area of 4 km in radius and serve between 4,500 and 5,000 persons. In remote and rural areas, many of CHPS facilities are poorly resourced and understaffed. A 2013 World Bank study reported that 77 per cent of CHPS compounds in the Western and Central regions were in a state of disrepair.

Affordability accounts for inequitable health care delivery. Our surveys reveal that despite the availability of the NHIS, majority of small-scale fishers and fish workers are not enrolled in the scheme. The MoH (2020) acknowledges this problem and estimates that only 35 per cent of the population has financial risk protection due to their active membership in the NHIS.

But even coverage cannot solve certain problems. The NHIS waives premium payments for vulnerable groups (including children under 18, the elderly over 70 years, pregnant women and persons with mental disorders and disabled persons). Despite this, some are unable to afford the cost of transportation to avail this benefit—especially where facilities are not located within easy reach.

The above challenges present huge barriers to fishers and fish workers—many exposed to long hours of work in hazardous conditions—to access quality and affordable healthcare.

2.6. Literacy and education

Ghana's education sector has shown significant expansion, with improved infrastructure and access to education at all levels. The Ministry of Education's 2016 Sector Performance Report concluded an increase in educational infrastructure at the kindergarten, primary, senior high and tertiary levels "has significantly enhanced access to education at all levels". Some key parameters backing improvements in the sector are the gross enrolment ratio (GER) and net enrolment ratio (NER). GER—which measures total enrolment of pupils at a given level of education, irrespective of the age of the pupils at kindergarten—rose from 113.8 per cent in 2012-13 academic year to 123.8 per cent in 2015-16. Similarly, the GER at primary level increased from 105 per cent to 111.3 per cent. In the same period, at the junior high school level, it increased from 82.2 per cent to 88 per cent and at the senior high school level it increased from 36.8 per cent to 49.6 per cent.

The net enrolment ratio—which measures enrolment of pupils with the appropriate age at a given level of education as a proportion of all children of that age—saw an increase from 74.8 per cent in 2012-13 to 79.5 per cent in 2015-16 at the kindergarten level. At the primary school level, it increased from 84.1 per cent to 91.5 per cent in the same period.

Gender parity, an important indicator of inclusiveness, has been achieved at the kindergarten level. The gender parity index at kindergarten and primary levels remained at 0.99 and 0.97 respectively in 2016. While rising at the senior high school level—from 0.86 in 2012-13 to 0.94 in 2015-16—at the junior high school level it dropped from 0.95 in 2013 to 0.93 in 2016. The MoE estimated that in 2015-16, the proportion of females enrolled at the tertiary level was 44 per cent.

Despite the gains, there are significant challenges that need urgent attention. These include inadequate facilities, low quality of early childhood learning, lack of proper water and sanitation facilities, teacher absenteeism and accessibility (MoE, 2018). Despite Ghana's youth literacy rate (92 per cent for children between 15-24 years in 2018) being higher than Sub-Saharan regional averages, about 15 per cent of the adult population (15 and older) have never attended school (UNESCO, 2020).

2.6.1. Literacy and education policy

Ghana's policy for literacy and education is set in the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) of 2018-30—developed from the Education Sector Analysis (ESA) of 2018. The ESA of 2018 provides a thorough assessment of the sector and highlights its strengths and weaknesses, inequities in access, participation and learning outcomes, and the system's capacity to address problems. The first four years of ESP 2018-2030 is documented in the education sector medium-term development plan (ESMTDP 2018-2021). A summary of Ghana's medium-term education and training strategy is given in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Summary of Ghana's medium-term education and training strategy

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
<p>Enhance inclusive and equitable access to, and participation in quality education at all levels</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening the referral system redefining basic education to include secondary education • Reforming the curriculum with emphasis on competencies in reading, writing, arithmetic, critical thinking and problem solving and creativity at primary level • Developing standards and national assessment tests for foundational literacy and numeracy competencies at primary level • Continuing the implementation of free SHS and TVET for all students • Ensuring inclusive education for all boys and girls with special needs • Popularizing and demystifying the teaching and learning of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and ICT education in basic and secondary education
<p>Strengthen school management systems</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-aligning and revamping existing public technical and vocational institutions for effective coordination and standardization • Building effective partnerships with religious bodies, civic organizations and the private sector in the delivery of quality education • Fully decentralizing the management of education service delivery • Implementing accelerated programmes for teacher development and professionalization • Implementing reforms and strengthening the regulatory agencies that operate in the education sector • Establishing well-resourced and functional senior high institutions in all districts • Enhancing quality of teaching and learning • Ensuring adequate supplies of teaching and learning materials • Exploring alternative sources for non-formal education • Providing life skills training for managing personal hygiene, fire safety, environment, sanitation and climate change

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Ensure sustainable sources of financing for education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing adequate and timely financing for quality education at all levels • Creating space for the involvement of the private sector in education financing and service delivery, including promoting public-private partnerships (PPP) in the delivery of education services • Establishing a national research fund

Source: CPESDP 2017

2.6.2. Impact of literacy and education policy

Despite inherent challenges, the country's literacy and education policy is helping expand access to basic education in many fishing communities. The policy has minimal or no benefit to adult fishers and fish workers. This observation is underpinned by responses obtained from both interviews and FGDs in study areas. Respondents acknowledged improvements made in making basic education through the construction of classroom blocks and provision of teaching and learning materials. But they also pointed out that many remote and rural fishing communities are still underserved and in many cases, an entire community may not have a single classroom. The seriousness of this shortfall is seen in the ESP 2018-30 which reported that 450,000 children—mostly from the poorest households in the northern regions—are out of school.

A major contributing factor is a shortage of classrooms. Nationally, the classroom backlog is estimated to be 5,491 classrooms for KG (24 per cent of existing classrooms), 4,236 classrooms for primary (5 per cent of existing classrooms), and 1,247 classrooms for JHS (4 per cent of existing classrooms). The MoE also acknowledged that adolescent girls and children with disability have the least attendance rates. While gender may not be the main driver of inequality at the basic level, adolescent girls' exclusion is reinforced when different sources of inequality—poverty, gender, geography—interact with one other. A lack of facilities in basic and secondary schools disproportionately affects children with disability. Almost no regular basic schools have hand-rails, and only 8 per cent are equipped with ramps (MoE, 2018).

An area where small-scale fishers and fish workers can benefit from is the National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP). Under the supervision of the Non-Formal Division of the Ministry of Education, the NFLP is mandated to provide adult literacy programmes for those working in the informal sector. Unfortunately, few respondents know about the NFLP. In addition, it also came to light that the NFLP would be of little benefit, seeing as it focuses on non-fishery related vocational and occupational literacy.

The Ministry of Education acknowledges that despite programme's capacity to address the literacy needs of adults, it is severely underfunded, with progress very slow. The programme could only train 14,000 adults out of 1.2 million illiterate adults in 2018. Ghana's education policies address inequities in access, participation and learning outcomes but expansion has been achieved at the expense of quality.

2.7. Housing

There are indications that Ghana is facing a severe housing deficit today. The country's estimated total housing stock, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, stood at 3,392,745 units, compared with 2,181,979 units in 2000. The proportion of rural houses has dropped in the decade, from 66 per cent to 57.7 per cent. In the same period, urban housing has risen, from 34 per cent at the start of the millennium to 42.3 per cent within a decade. Demand for housing has

surged ahead of supply. The 2018-2021 medium-term development plan on human settlement strategy found that as of 2015 the country had a housing deficit of approximately 1.7 million units.

Large scale urbanization, estimates at 3.4 per cent per annum compounds the problem. Over half the population lives in urban areas, straining the already limited social, commercial and physical infrastructure.

Congestion, overcrowding, urban sprawl, and worsening air quality has followed. A rise in slum dwellers is also evident, and estimates suggest almost 20 per cent of urban dwellers live in slums. According to the CPESDP 2017-2024 document, the combined population of slum dwellers in Accra, Tema-Ashaiman, Kumasi, Tamale and Takoradi, rose by 5.9 million between 2001-14.

Rural housing development lags behind massively. This gap is discernible in the disparities in opportunities, levels of services and quality of life between rural and urban Ghana. The National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF) found that approximately 16 per cent of rural households do not have access to mains electricity, and 50 per cent do not have access to piped water—a statistic made more damning by the fact that 74 per cent of population in the smallest towns do not have access to piped water at all.

2.7.1. Housing policy

The severity of housing challenges led to the enactment of the National Housing Policy in 2015. Their framework was to establish a National Housing Fund and a National Housing Authority to effectively address the challenges of a growing housing deficit, inadequate incentives, infrastructure, increased costs of building materials and limited public investment. The thrust of the current 2018-21 medium-term development plan (Table 2.7) is to make housing accessible to low and middle-income groups via affordable housing programmes and incentives for private sector investment (GoG, 2017). A Summary of Ghana's medium-term human settlements and housing strategy is given in Table 2.8.

Table 2.7: Overview of Ghana's housing policy

Policy Goals	Policy Objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide adequate, decent and affordable housing that is accessible to satisfy the needs of all people living in Ghana • Ensure that housing is designed and built to sustainable building principles leading to the creation of green communities • Ensure that there is participation of all stakeholders in decision-making on housing development and allocation in their localities • Ensure adequate and sustainable funding for the supply of diverse mix of housing in all localities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote greater private sector participation in housing delivery • Create an environment conducive to investment in housing for rental purposes • Promote housing schemes that maximize land utilization • Accelerate home improvement (upgrading and transformation) of the existing housing stock • Promote orderly human settlement growth with physical and social infrastructure • Make housing programmes more accessible to the poor (Social Housing) • Involve communities and other non-traditional interest groups in designing and implementing low-income housing initiatives • Upgrade existing slums and prevent the creation of new ones.

Source: National Housing Policy of 2015

Table 2.8: Summary of Ghana’s medium-term human settlements and housing strategy

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Promote sustainable, spatially integrated, balanced and orderly development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accelerate implementation of the National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF), including spatial plan preparation for regions and districts • Strengthen human and institutional capacities for effective land use planning and management nationwide • Support full implementation of the Land Use and Spatial Planning Act, 2016 (Act 925)
Provide adequate, safe, secure, quality and affordable housing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accelerate the implementation of the National Housing Policy • Promote social housing schemes in urban, peri-urban and rural areas • Expand availability of housing finance • Support private sector involvement in the delivery of rental housing • Support self-help building schemes

Source: CPESDP 2017

To tackle housing challenges unique to rural communities, the 2018 – 2021 medium-term development plan focuses on enhancing quality of life. Establishing rural service centres is a key strategy that will promote:

- agriculture and agro-based industries
- promoting rural enterprise development
- financial inclusion, service delivery, capacity building and local economic development
- providing basic infrastructure such as potable water, sanitation, electricity, roads, schools, health facilities
- promoting sustainable use and management of natural resources that support the development of rural communities and livelihoods
- providing incentives to attract direct private investment into rural areas

2.7.2. Effectiveness of housing policy

Ghana’s housing policy is aimed towards creating affordable housing programmes, and encourage private investment. The focus is universal and does not specifically target fishing communities. Historically, governments have paid little attention to rural housing and fishing communities—mostly rural—have suffered.

Access to suitable housing still remains a question of affordability. UN-HABITAT (2011) found that, state-sponsored affordable housing has mostly benefited formal sector employees and the middle class. the government’s affordable housing schemes are affordable only in name with the one bedroom unit priced at US\$ 25,000 on (Meqasa 2020). Programmes focused on private investment need to consider the sector’s history of shying away from building for low middle income and low-income communities, citing low profit margins. The government’s incentives to lure them are yet to be observed.

There is a massive disconnect between policy and implementation, especially when it concerns underprivileged and marginalized communities. FGDs and key informant interviews revealed that fishing communities desire decent housing, but cannot fathom achieving it under their present

precarious socio-economic condition. Fishing communities—urban. Rural or migratory—have poorly spaced housing, inadequate utilities and are mostly inaccessible to vehicular traffic. Overcrowding is common. Residents live in compound houses and share communal facilities like bathrooms, toilets and courtyards. While communal housing is affordable and within walking distance to shore, its rundown infrastructure and amenities are in need of renovation.

2.8. Sanitation, drinking water and energy

Access to safe drinking water in urban areas in the country rose from 55.9 per cent in 2014 to 76 per cent in 2016. Over the same period, in rural Ghana, this access dropped two percentile points, to 62 per cent.

At the district level, districts benefiting from safe water services rose from 88 per cent to 92 per cent. Despite these improvements, GoG (2017) reported that distribution losses in water systems rose from 49 per cent in 2014 to 51.1 per cent in 2016. Meeting increasing demand is one of the major challenges in the sector. In addition, problems of intermittent supply, unreliable quality, poor planning in MMDAs and inadequate maintenance remain to be corrected.

The gains made in improved water supply, has not reflected in improved sanitation. Ghana achieved the MDGs target on access to improved water supplies ahead of schedule. And yet, an estimated 20 per cent of the population practices open defecation. Solid waste management is dismal, declining from 79 per cent in 2014 to 70 per cent in 2016 (GoG, 2017). The report also revealed that access to wastewater management services is very low, with only 3 per cent of liquid waste, properly disposed in major towns and cities. According to the CPESDP 2017-2024 document, the main challenges facing environmental sanitation services include:

- low access to improved toilet facilities
- high prevalence of open defecation
- low level of investment in sanitation
- limited capacity at the MMDA level to plan and manage sanitation services
- poor solid waste collection services
- poorly managed solid waste disposal sites
- low levels of material re-use and recycling
- poor waste disposal practices
- high user fee for sanitation services
- poor hygiene practices
- inadequate hygiene education
- weak policy and institutional coordination
- poor management of municipal and industrial wastewater
- limited coverage of sewage networks
- inadequate wastewater treatment plants
- poorly managed on-site treatment systems
- occurrence of wastewater flooding
- regular incidence of oral-faecal diseases

Ghana's primary energy supply comes from petroleum, biomass and hydro. The energy statistics for 2015 shows that oil contributed 44.48 per cent to the primary energy supply, followed by biomass (37.87 per cent), hydroelectricity (5.27 per cent) and natural gas (12.38 per cent). Petroleum products—including gasoline, diesel, LPG and jet fuel—accounted for 47 per cent of energy consumed in 2015.

Firewood is the main source of cooking fuel in Ghana, with more than 40 per cent of all households reliant on it (EC, 2016). In rural communities 75 per cent of households use firewood as their main cooking fuel. In urban communities, a massive 44 per cent use charcoal. LPG is the main cooking fuel in 36 per cent of urban households, and only 5.5 per cent of rural households (EC, 2016).

2.8.1. Policies on sanitation, drinking water and energy

The Water and Environmental Sanitation Strategy (Table 2.9) is the primary policy framework for water and sanitation. It builds on previous policies and strategies like the Environmental Sanitation Policy (2010), National Environmental Sanitation Strategy and Action Plan (2010), and the Strategic Environmental Sanitation Investment Plan (2017). The National Health Policy of 2020 also has a focus on potable water and improved sanitation hygiene (WASH). The Ghana Renewable Energy Master Plan (REMP 2019-2030) is the key policy framework The Ministry of Sanitation and Water Resources has oversight on water and sanitation, whereas the Ministry of Energy oversees the energy sector.

Table 2.9: Ghana water and environmental sanitation medium-term strategy

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Expand access to safe water supply services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve water production and distribution systems • Reduce system and commercial losses; promote efficient water use • Ensure sustainable financing • Develop capacity to implement Ghana's Drinking Water Quality Management Framework • Promote water harvesting • Support MMDAs to develop and implement District Water and Sanitation Plans (DWSP) and increase public-private partnerships in the sector • Harmonize implementation of legislation regulating decentralized development planning
Enhance access to improved environmental sanitation services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enforce law and regulations on import and use of hazardous waste • Promote waste-to-energy technologies • Improve management of waste disposal sites • Expand disability and gender friendly sanitation facilities • Develop innovative financing mechanisms and scale up investments in the sanitation sector • Promote private sector participation in the provision of sanitation services • Establish a National Sanitation Fund • Promote a National Total Sanitation Campaign • Provide public education on solid waste management • Improve institutional capacity and coordination • Review, gazette and enforce MMDA by-laws on sanitation • Develop and implement strategies to end open defecation.

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Promote efficient and sustainable wastewater management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing and implementing sewerage masterplans, including faecal sludge management and waste treatment facilities for all human settlements • Promoting recycling and safe re-use of wastewater • Promoting waste-to-energy technologies • Attracting private sector investment in wastewater management.

Source: CPESDP 2017

The REMP 2019-2030 was formulated with a vision to “develop the renewable energy sector with the capacity to sustainably utilize resources and transform Ghana into a country with expertise in renewable energy research, production, and services”. Its policy goal is “to provide investment-focussed framework for the promotion and development of renewable energy resources for economic growth, improved social life and minimize the adverse effects of climate change”. Its objectives include:

- increasing the proportion of renewable energy in the national energy generation mix from 42.5 MW in 2015 to 1363.63 MW (with grid connected systems totaling 1094.63 MW)
- reducing the dependence on biomass as main fuel for thermal energy applications
- providing renewable energy-based decentralized electrification options in 1000 off-grid communities and promote local content and local participation in the renewable energy industry.

2.8.2. Impact of sanitation, drinking water and energy policies

Surveys revealed that implementation remains a challenge. While urban fishing communities have relatively safe drinking water, the general quality of drinking water in rural fishing communities is unsafe. Most urban fishing households obtain their drinking water from public taps, standpipes and/or bore-holes, tube and pump wells provided by Ghana Water Company Limited (GWCL) and Community Operated and Managed Water Systems (COMWS). Rural fishing households do not have access to pipe-borne water. Bereft of COMWS and other external water suppliers, households rely on wells or other natural sources for their drinking water.

Access to modern sewerage and toilet facilities is lacking. The predominant method of refuse disposal in fishing communities is via public refuse dumps and burning. In high-density urban fishing communities, refuse collection services are used.

The study also found that both urban and rural fishing communities lack access to modern toilet facilities. Whereas pit latrines are popular in rural fishing communities, urban fishing communities use KVIP latrines and WCs. Open defecation is practiced in both rural and urban fishing communities. Hand-washing with either toilet soap or liquid detergent, respondents say, is an age-old custom of fishing communities.

Despite the relatively high national electricity access (82.5 per cent in 2016; MoEn 2019), many rural and remote fishing communities lack access to electricity. Efforts at ensuring universal electricity access by 2020 were stalled by supply shortages from 2011 to 2016. Urban fishing communities are closer to the large metropolitan areas and thereby have access to relatively stable electricity supply. But increasing tariffs in the face of declining incomes is a source of complaint. Only 28 per cent of Ghana’s population has access to clean cooking (IEA et al 2020). This is worrying concern also because fishing communities rely heavily on firewood for fish smoking. Manu (2020) reported that of the estimated 120,000 processing ovens, less than one per cent can be classified as ‘improved’. Aside from the hazards of smoke inhalation, wider literature links traditional ovens with high polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in smoked fish posing severe health risks (Nunoo et al, 2018; Bomfeh et al, 2019).

2.9. Climate change

There is considerable evidence that shows the effects of climate change on the country's bio-physical environment. Data from 1961-2000 clearly shows a progressive rise in temperature and a decrease in mean annual rainfall in all six agro-ecological zones in the country. The EPA (2012), reported a one degree (1°C) increase in temperature over a 40-year period (1960-2000), and estimated average temperature rise of 3.9°C by the year 2080. Changing rainfall patterns, the EPA (2012) notes, result in lower total precipitation per annum, with torrential rains and extreme events causing storm damage and flooding.

The EPA (2012) showed a sea level rise of 2.1 mm per year using the 40-year dataset and projected an increase of 34.5 cm by 2080. This will impact many communities within the 30-metre contour of the national coastal zone—where more than 25 per cent of the population lives. Flooding, erosion and submergence and sea water intrusion will lead to the loss of economic, ecological, cultural and subsistence values through loss of land, infrastructure, and coastal habitats (MESTI, 2013). While Ghana's greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions are significantly lower in comparison with advanced economies, MESTI (2013) noted that total GHG emissions increased between 1990 and 2012. The main contributors to emissions are agriculture, forestry and other land uses (45 per cent), energy sector (40 per cent) and waste sector (13 per cent).

2.9.1. Policy and institutional frameworks

The key policy document for addressing climate change in Ghana is National Climate Change Policy (NCCP 2014). The NCCP's concerns on the potential impact of climate change in Ghana include:

- The impact on agriculture, with reduced yields leading to more poverty and food insecurity (including the possibility of famine), and the loss of national revenue from cash crops
- Severe impact on land use leading to loss of biodiversity and soil fertility, land degradation and increased deforestation all of which contributes to a loss of ecosystem services
- Deteriorating health due to increased incidence of disease and a disruption on the delivery of health services
- Water scarcity reducing the potential for hydropower
- Women are particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change, given their higher levels of poverty and their responsibilities for obtaining household water, food and fuel
- Increased rural-urban migration that will add to the pressure on cities and urban services.

A signatory of the Paris Climate Agreement, Ghana and is bound by a commitment to decrease greenhouse gas emissions by 15 per cent by 2030. It has also committed itself to a set of 20 mitigation and 11 adaptation actions between 2020 and 2030 (GoG, 2017). A summary of policy themes and focal areas of Ghana's National Climate Change Policy are given in Table 2.10 and Table 2.11.

Table 2.10: Summary of policy themes and focal areas of National Climate Change Policy

Policy Theme	Focus Area
Agriculture and Food Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing climate resilient agriculture and food systems
Disaster Preparedness and Response	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building climate resilient infrastructure • Increasing resilience of vulnerable communities to climate related risk

Policy Theme	Focus Area
Natural Resource Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increasing carbon sinks Improving management & resilience of terrestrial & aquatic ecosystems
Equitable Social Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Addressing impacts of climate change on human health Minimizing impacts of climate change on access to water and sanitation Addressing gender issues in climate change Addressing climate change and migration
Energy, Industrial and Infrastructural Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minimizing greenhouse gas emissions

Source: NCCP 2014

Table 2.11: Summary of medium-term strategy of National Climate Change Policy

Policy Objective	Key Medium-Term Strategies
Enhancing climate change resilience at all levels and across all sectors:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accelerating implementation of policy actions in the Gh-NDC Developing climate-resilient crop cultivars and animal breeds Promoting and documenting improved climate smart indigenous agricultural knowledge Promoting climate resilience policies for gender and other vulnerable groups Managing climate-induced health risks Developing climate-responsive and resilient infrastructure Obtaining more funds from the Green Climate Fund Enhancing coordination between research, industry and government Deepening the mainstreaming of climate change in national and sub-national development planning and budgeting processes
Reduce greenhouse gases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Facilitating implementation of the National Low Carbon Growth (LCG) strategy Accelerating implementation of the Ghana Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries REDD+ Strategy (2016-2036) Accelerating programmes to significantly reduce environmental risks and ecological scarcity Initiating a Green Ghana campaign Promoting tree planting and green landscaping in communities Promoting urban forestry

Source: CPESDP 2017

2.9.2. Benefit of climate change remedial measures

Ghana's policy on climate change is quite comprehensive but questions about the effectiveness of its remedial measures remain. Over the past decade, there have been increased recurrence of both natural and man-made disasters while the institutional capacity for dealing with them has been limited. A case in point is the June 2010 floods in southern Ghana that resulted in the loss of

24 lives, destruction of over 1,000 homes, millions of dollars of property lost and the evacuation of some 5,000 persons in Tema (NADMO, 2012). The frequency and intensity of tidal waves have also been alarming. In June 2017, the fishing communities of Hove, Vodza, Kedzi and Blekusu in the Volta Region were devastated by tidal waves that rendered 1,700 residents homeless. For most of these disasters, NADMO's preparedness, response and rehabilitation was inadequate (Citi FM, 2017; Daily Graphic, 2017).

The government has taken concrete measures to address the effects of climate change in the community. This includes construction of Ngyiresia, Sakumono, Aboadze and Nkontompo coastal protection works and a national sensitization campaign on vessel registration to enhance voluntary compliance with regulations. They established a data centre at MoFAD to promote research and provide information on the entire aquatic environment.

While conceding "there is already evidence of the impact of climate change on the national economy, with clear signs that the coastal zone, agriculture and water resources are all affected, as are health and livelihoods, especially for women, resulting in increasing levels of poverty", the government has done little make fishing communities the target of interventions. FGDs and key informant interviews revealed an alarming lack of awareness about NCCP's remedial measures.

There are major implementation gaps that need to be addressed. Key among them are the involvement of fishing communities in climate change monitoring, disaster risk management and post-disaster rehabilitation. There needs to be closer coordination of sector stakeholders (such as GMA, EPA, NADMO) with fishing communities and education of communities on sustainable management of the coastal ecology to safeguard small-scale fisheries and food security

2.10. SSF allied institutions

For the purpose of this study, small-scale fisheries allied institutions are broadly categorized into four categories (Table 2.12):

- statutory/regulatory bodies
- traditional fisheries management authorities
- fish worker organizations
- trade unions

MoFAD has oversight responsibility over the fisheries sector in Ghana. Their mandate includes formulating and implementing policies and strategies to achieve national food security, create employment, reduce poverty, improve foreign exchange earnings by reducing fish imports, and transform the sector to attract private sector investment (MoFAD, 2020). MoFAD works closely with its implementing agency; the Fisheries Commission which is required by the Fisheries Law, Act 625 2002, to regulate and manage the use of fisheries resources and to coordinate the policies in relation to them.

Statutory/regulatory bodies include the GSA, FDA and FRI. The GSA's mandate is to establish the standards, to undertake inspections on agricultural and non-agricultural products and certify products. The GSA's Fish Inspection Department undertakes various fish tissue analytical work for testing, inspection and certification (GSA, 2020). The FDA is the national regulatory authority mandated with the regulation of food, drugs but also food supplements, herbal and homeopathic medicines, veterinary medicines, cosmetics, medical devices, household chemical substances and tobacco. The FDA also enforce hazards analysis and critical control point (HAACP) standards and issue approvals for fish export (FDA, 2020). The FRI is mandated to conduct applied market-oriented research on problems of food processing and preservation, food safety, storage, marketing, distribution and utilization. It also advises the government on its food policy (FRI, 2020).

Traditional fisheries management authorities include community-based fisheries management committees (CBFMC), chief fishermen, fish queen mothers and fish mummies. CBFMC's are local committees formed on the basis of traditional leadership authorities and local government structures. The CBFMC helps in enforcing national fisheries laws at the community level, enact and enforce their own by-laws and collaborate with District Assemblies and Fisheries Commission. Traditionally, the chief fisherman—*Apofohene* (Fante), *Woleiatse* (Ga), *Dortorwofia* (Ewe)—exercises jurisdiction over a fishing community. Assisted by a council of elders, the chief fisherman plays a major role in ensuring the peaceful coexistence of fishers and adherence to cultural norms and taboos. Occasionally the chief fisherman and his elders or appointed representatives may act as arbiters in fishing-related disputes.

Typically, a fishing community has a fish queen mother and a number of “fish mummies” or “fish wives” who are well integrated into the value chain from landing, value addition and marketing. The key actors in the long post-harvest value chain, they perform a number of functions which includes price negotiations, distribution of unprocessed/processed fish, processing, microcredit services and pre-financing of fishing equipment and/or operations. FWOs often include members of the traditional management authority and are organized into groups or associations based on their roles or interests in the SSF sector. Over time, some FWOs have become national or broad-based in their scope, championing the specific interests they represent.

Table 2.12: Some key institutions in the small-scale fisheries sector

Type of Institution	Key Institutions
Statutory/regulatory bodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ministry of Fisheries & Aquaculture Development • Fisheries Commission • Ghana Standards Authority • Food and Drugs Authority • Food Research Institute of Ghana (FRI) of the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR)
Traditional fisheries management authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-based fisheries management committee (CBFMC) • Chief fisherman: <i>Apofohene</i> (Fante), <i>Woleiatse</i> (Ga), <i>Dortorwofia</i> (Ewe) • Chief fish queen mother/trader <i>konkohen</i> (Fante) • Fish mummies
Fish worker organizations (FWOs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ghana National Canoe Fishermen's Council (GNCFC) • National Fish Processors and Traders Association (NAFPTA) • Ghana National Inland Canoe Fishermen's Council (GNICFC) • Ghana National Association of Farmers and Fishermen • Ghana Co-operative Fisheries Association • Development Action Association (DAAS) • Central and Western Fishmongers Improvement Association (CEWEFIA)
Trade Union	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Agricultural Workers Union (GAWU) of Trade Union Congress (TUC) of Ghana

Source: Author's fieldwork

2.10.1. Effectiveness of small-scale fisheries allied institutions

Key informants consulted for this study indicated that MoFAD and its implementation agency, the Fisheries Commission do not have adequate funds to effectively carry out their mandate as

stated in the Fisheries Law, Act 625 2002. With multiple issues on the agenda, and limited funds, it is obvious that there is a need to acquire non-governmental support to meet the country's social development needs.

The role played by small-scale fisheries allied institutions, NGOs and CSOs is seen as crucial in this regard. Our surveys revealed the existence of a number of associations, cooperatives, credit unions and self-help groups of varying size at the national, regional and community level. The activities of these SSF allied institutions are considered invaluable. They contribute hugely towards improving the quality of life, providing water and sanitation, education, health, food security and aiding capacity building of fishers and fish workers. Many FWOs were formed to access government or external funds and inputs—which means they are not entirely autonomous. At the community level, CBOs and self-help groups have a limited focus or agenda—mostly for pressing social needs such as credit for basic inputs or processing equipment. Unable to effectively mobilize funds through membership dues and levies, a majority of national and subnational FWOs lack sufficient funds to function efficiently.

Traditional management authorities and FWOs have little expertise in formal management methods. While time-honoured traditional management approaches and local lore are valuable assets in running an SSF organization, only a small fraction are able to directly engage and influence the central government and regulatory stakeholders through advocacy and lobbying. In addition, respondents said that most FWOs at the community level have not registered themselves with either the Registrar General's Department or Department of Cooperatives. All of these are reasons why most small-scale fishery organizations tend to focus on the provision of basic services rather than create multi-sectoral engagements and collaborations to achieve their objectives. Despite the leading role played by FWOs such as GNCFC, a vast majority of fishers and fish workers are not unionized with the Trade Union Congress.

2.11. Sexual and gender-based violence: awareness and protection

240 million women and girls across the world were abused by their partners in 2019 (United Nations Women 2020). Since the pandemic, with lockdowns enforced, there has been an alarming rise in domestic violence against women. In Ghana, sexual and gender-based violence is widespread and underreported. Records from the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), a department within the Ghana Police Service charged with preventing and prosecuting SGBV (especially against women and children) support this assertion. According to their records, 986 cases of defilement (sex with a minor younger than 16 with or without their consent) were reported in 2010. Defilement cases shot up to 1,176 in 2011. According to the Daily Graphic (2015), of the 17,655 cases reported to the DOVVSU in 2014, 6,158 were for non-maintenance, 5,212 for wife battery and assault and 290 for rape.

In 2017, the Daily Graphic reported that based on the DOVVSU's six-year statistics six women are likely to be raped every week in Ghana. 28 per cent of women experienced domestic violence (includes sexual, emotional and physical violence) in. Psychological violence the highest incidence among ever-partnered women in Ghana particularly among divorced, separated or widowed women, Ghana's VNR (2019) found. 24.8 per cent of divorced, separated or widowed women suffered from psychological violence compared to 21.3 per cent of those married/living together. It is important to remember that these are only reported cases, the actual cases may well be significantly higher.

A major barrier to reporting sexual and gender-based violence is the widespread belief that it is a private matter and should be addressed outside of the criminal justice system.

2.11.1. Policy and institutional framework on SGBV

There are many legal frameworks for addressing SGBV are guaranteed in the constitution of Ghana. Some key instruments used to combat SGBV include:

- Criminal Offences Act (Act 29) 1960
- Criminal Code (Amended) Act, 1998 (Act 554)
- Children’s Act, 1998 (Act 560)
- Disability Act, 2006 (Act 715)
- Juvenile Justice Act, 2003 (Act 653)
- Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) and the Domestic Violence Act, 2007(Act 732).

Ghana is also bound by international legal instruments that promote and protect the rights of women and girls. Two such instruments are the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and CEDAW. While the UDHR (based on UN General Assembly Resolution 217 A) sets the standard for the protection of fundamental human rights, the CEDAW defines what constitutes discrimination against women and girls and establishes a framework to address gender inequality.

The DOVVSU (Table 2.13) is the primary institution mandated to prevent, apprehend and prosecute perpetrators of domestic violence and child abuse. It is responsible for investigating all offences related to vulnerable groups, handling cases involving gender-based violence including domestic violence and child abuse, handling juvenile offences and prosecuting all (these) offences where necessary. The DOVVSU works in partnership with the Department of Social Development, International Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA) and the Legal Aid Scheme. It also collaborates with the health system to provide support for victims of SGBV.

Table 2.13: Overview of DOVVSU of the Ghana Police Service

Vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create an environment where domestic violence and other forms of abuse is freely reported • Collaborate with stakeholders to provide coordinated timely responses to victims.
Mission	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prevent, protect, apprehend and prosecute perpetrators of domestic violence and child abuse
Functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide free services to members of the public • Protect the rights of the vulnerable against all forms of abuse be it physical, sexual, emotional/psychological, socio-economic, or harmful cultural practices • Establish an effective database for crime detection, prevention and prosecution • Treat victims/complainants and their families with respect and courtesy • Take statements in a professional manner • Provide victims with information on their cases as well as details of the investigations • Provide advice on crime prevention at homes, in schools, churches and markets • Refer victims for medical services and specific help to clinical psychologists, social workers from the Department of Social Welfare and counsellors attached to the Unit. • Collaborate with NGOs and other civil society organizations that may be able to offer assistance to victims in need of necessary support services

Source: CPESDP 2017

2.11.2. Impact of legislation and policy measures on SGBV

The passage of the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732) has led to increased public awareness and reduction in the frequency of SGBV. These can also be attributed to the intense campaigns promoted by CSOs before and after the passage of the Act. FGDs and key informants interviewed for this study exhibited a high level of understanding on SGBV and noted that defilement of minors were rare in fishing communities, but domestic violence (assault against women) was quite common. In most instances though, respondents said complaints were settled amicably by family members or traditional authorities of the community—a clear indication that despite the progress, many cases of SGBV go unreported.

The reasons for this are deeply rooted in socio-cultural beliefs that considers the family institution private and family matters best resolved amicably within the family sphere. Patriarchy also plays a key role. In religious and patrilineal family settings the man is seen as head of the family, to be supported at all times by his wife and children. Reporting the family head and remanding him in police custody will subject him to public shame or opprobrium. Additionally, because men are usually the breadwinners, women and children fear the financial consequences of reporting him to a criminal justice system which could take years to resolve the case.

30 per cent of cases reported are withdrawn due to poverty and other socio-economic challenges, the DOVSSU revealed. The overarching view is that for the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732) to work as intended, victims should be supported with safe shelters. Medical bills and legal fees have to be covered to prevent cases from being withdrawn. Respondents also cite pressure from influential persons such as the clergy to withdraw cases from the formal justice system. While safe and timely access to justice remains a challenge across the community, it is even harder for survivors (women and girls) of SGBV to seek justice without any external support.

2.12. Safe and timely access to justice

Access to justice in Ghana has come under intense scrutiny recently. While the system is not facing a crisis, concerns have been raised about its ability to ensure efficient, affordable, and expeditious trial. The revelation that there is a backlog of close to 60,000 cases pending at various courts across the country bolsters these concerns. A signatory to a number of international legal instruments such as UDHR, CEDAW, the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and the Maputo Protocol, Ghana is obligated to ensure access to justice to all its citizens. However, records suggest that the country is faltering in delivering justice to every person. The Afrobarometer 2019 Survey reported that affordability, proximity, comprehensibility, and responsiveness—necessary to ensure efficient and equal access to judicial systems—is not in place for a number of Ghanaians.

A number of interventions have been pursued to ensure the rule of law, enhance access and deliver of justice. Automation of some court processes, training and calling more lawyers to the Bar, increasing the use of the alternative dispute resolution (ADR) mechanism, strengthening the Legal Aid Scheme (LAS), and introducing special programmes such as Justice for All to ensure access to justice by the vulnerable are some such interventions. Despite most court processes being digitized—rising from 62 per cent in 2013, to 94 per cent in 2016—efficiency is a huge challenge. These include:

- high costs, slow pace of judgment
- declining confidence in the police and legal system due to perceived corruption
- limited number and poor quality of court systems and infrastructure
- lack of technical training and know-how to handle specialty cases among judges and state attorneys
- protracted pre-trial detention
- poor documentation and record keeping

In 2019, Ghana's justice system, adjudged Africa's best in 2018, dropped from the first position to the sixth (WJP, 2019).

2.12.1. Legislation and programmes

Article 14 of the constitution of Ghana guarantees every citizen the right to access justice. High legal costs mean the poor and vulnerable often cannot do so. One of the objectives of the LAS is to extend justice to the poor and vulnerable, otherwise be excluded from the formal justice delivery system. According to the ARAP (2020) “LAS acts as a Public Defender in cases where Ghana’s socially and financially disadvantaged citizens may require legal services”.

The LAS’s focus on alternative dispute resolution was helpful for disputants, UNDP (2020) found. In cases where disputes or complaints cannot be resolved out of court, free legal representation is secured for clients to pursue the case in court. UNDP supported the LAS with capacity building and logistical support to improve and expand its services, in 2014. Its reports suggested that more than 10,000 persons benefitted from the scheme.

The UNDP’s support comprised staff training, office furnishing, the implementation of a five-year strategic plan, and the development of a legal aid guide helped to improve the efficiency and quality of services provided to clients. In addition, they supported the development of a website, printed more than 70,000 brochures, and organized legal aid clinics in 10 districts to increase access and knowledge of legal aid to deprived communities (UNDP, 2020). Recognizing the challenges in delivering efficient and affordable justice, the GoG (2017) said their priority medium-term policy objective is to ensure improved access was through the following interventions:

- Strengthening the independence of the judiciary and providing it with adequate resources and funding
- Completing the court computerization process to upgrade the system to modern standards
- Transforming the Ghana Legal Aid scheme into a Legal Aid Commission to make it more responsive to poor and vulnerable people
- Strengthening operation of the ADR system to ensure speedy administration of justice
- Expanding and intensifying training institutions for judicial personnel and policing Criminal Investigation Department (CID) officers and prosecutors
- Improving inter agency and cross-sectoral legal coordination.

2.12.2. Effectiveness of justice delivery system

Safe and timely access to justice remain a challenge for most fishers and fish workers. High cost, delays in administering justice and a perceived bias in favour of wealthy and influential persons are the chief reasons for this. Respondents particularly emphasized being deterred high cost and delays that stretch on for years.

Most circuit courts are located at the district capital making the cost of commuting amidst frequent adjournments untenable. Respondents, male fishers in particular frequently said that formal justice systems were for the ‘big men’ in society believing the system to be skewed in favour of the bourgeoisie and middle class.

Despite the MoGCSP, NGOs and pro-bono legal practitioners providing some form of assistance to the poor and vulnerable, respondents found them to be inadequate and often limited to high-profile cases. WiLDAF-Ghana, a gender and children advocacy and support NGO found that despite all the frameworks access to justice still eludes many rural women, persons with disability, persons living with HIV/AIDS. A lack of education and sensitization about the judicial system are further barriers to availing justice. A lack of knowledge about human rights and laws, processes and procedures of justice, apathy to seeking justice from formal state mechanisms, and improper application of principles in dispute settlement by traditional justice mechanisms are barriers to effective and efficient justice delivery.

FGDs showed that many rural fishing communities lack access to police stations and are therefore forced to rely on traditional arbitration to resolve disputes. Respondents said that if an issue is considered ‘manageable’ or ‘private’—as in most cases of domestic violence or altercation—it is highly unlikely to be reported to the police. Matters like burglary, arson, or murder are reported frequently.

3. Conclusion

Through an analysis of primary data and wider literature the study reveals that while existing policy frameworks address many of the social development challenges in fishing communities, no specific policies exist keeping them in mind.

The use of aggregate indicators is a barrier to addressing issues of marginalization and extreme poverty in fishing communities not captured in conventional datasets. In addition, the government's universal policies are not adequately resourced to address the needs of rural and geographically isolated fishing communities. Urban fishing communities tend to benefit more from social development interventions and have a better quality of life compared to their rural counterparts. Despite these disparities, the general living and working conditions of fishing communities is characterized by a high incidence of poverty and deprivation, food insecurity, hazardous working environment and poor social infrastructure.

Finally, the study finds that existing legislations and policies do not adequately better the conservation and sustainable use of aquatic diversity. There is no clear-cut human rights-based approach (to social development) in sustainable management of small-scale fisheries and despite the government resolving to pass the fisheries co-management bill fishing communities are yet to be empowered to participate in decision-making and management of the fishery resources.

3.1. Key Messages

Poverty

Policies on poverty are universal and do not specifically target SSF. For this reason, urban fishing communities tend to benefit more from programmes than their rural counterparts. Overall, however, poverty in fishing communities is on the rise. This is attributable to saiko fishing, declining fish landings, lack of secure tenure, unsustainable fishing practices and lack of alternative productive work opportunities.

Employment

Employment policies and programmes have had limited success nationally but are negligible in fishing communities. Policy interventions have not led to improved access to employment by fishing communities. High unemployment and underemployment persist leading to widespread poverty, increasing migration, abandonment of SSF by the youths in favour of menial jobs in urban communities, and overexploitation of fishery resources.

Decent work

Despite the universal policy on employment and decent work, there is no specific policy provision on decent work in SSF. Previous interventions to improve the working conditions of the sector through improved sanitation and technology have been minimal. This is reflected in the unsafe and rudimentary fishing and fish processing activities, lack of social security and high-income volatility.

Social inclusion

Policies on social inclusion are universal and create the space for a just, equitable and inclusive society. The policies have on the whole helped create greater awareness on social inclusion, increased assistance for disadvantaged and vulnerable groups and reduced discrimination during the pandemic. However, much remains to be done to involve fishing communities in participatory management of fishery resources.

Health

The National Health Policy is universal and covers occupational health and safety and sexual and reproductive. Despite the state's considerable expenditure, there has not been an equitable distribution of health facilities, services and quality. Many health facilities in fishing communities are ill-equipped and understaffed. Most members of fishing communities are not enrolled on the NHIS, and this limits their ability to afford healthcare.

Literacy and education

In spite of inherent challenges, the Education Strategic Plan is helping expand access to basic education in many fishing communities. The policy has minimal or no benefit to adult fishers and fish workers, as the National Functional Literacy Programme is severely underfunded. Progress in reviewing and expanding literacy lessons, vocational and occupational literacy has been very slow.

Housing

While the policy of providing adequate, safe, secure, quality and affordable housing is in line with the SDGs implementation leaves much to be desired. Access to suitable housing remains a question of affordability and fishing communities do not benefit from the state housing policy. The general housing in fishing communities is characterized by poor spatial arrangements, inadequate utility services and are inaccessible to vehicular traffic.

Sanitation, drinking water and energy

Policies on sanitation, drinking water and energy are universal and aligned generally with the SDGs. Translating these policies for the benefit of fishing communities remains a challenge. Access to basic sanitation and hygiene, drinking water and clean, affordable and reliable energy is lacking.

Climate change

The national climate change policy is comprehensive. In the face of recent devastating floods and tidal waves questions remain about the effectiveness of the NCCP remedial measures in addressing the climate change sensitive agriculture and fisheries of the country.

SSF allied institutions

SSF organizations including associations, cooperatives, credit unions and self-help groups contribute towards improving the quality of life in fishing communities. Their work on water and sanitation, education, health, food security and capacity building of fishers and fish workers is commendable. Despite these positive roles a vast majority of fishers and fish workers are not unionized and have no formalized collective bargaining or social protection.

Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)

The passage of the Domestic Violence Act, 2007(Act 732) has led to increased public awareness and reduction in the frequency of SGBV. However, despite the progress in getting survivors of SGBV to lodge complaints with the police, many cases of SGBV are not reported. About 30 per cent of cases reported are withdrawn due to poverty and other socio-cultural challenges.

Safe and timely access to justice

Specific legislations have been enacted to address all manner of social injustice, but safe and timely access to justice remain a challenge due to high cost, delays in administering justice and perceived bias in favour of wealthy and influential persons. Barriers to accessing justice include lack of knowledge about the judicial system, human rights as well as socio-cultural beliefs.

3.2. Recommendations

The recommendations presented below propose practical solutions based on human rights-based approach; and takes into account the recurring key lessons from the situational study.

3.2.1. Legislation and policy

The lack of a policy framework, specifically for small-scale fisheries, hampers sustainable and responsible management of the sector. The existing policies are generic with no specific objectives or measurable outcomes. A holistic policy on SSF must be human rights-based and must recognize that small-scale fish workers have legally mandated rights to use and manage fisheries resources. In addition, MoFAD must provide direction to other MDAs to align their policies with the SSF Guidelines to address marginalization and vulnerability in fishing communities. Our recommendations for specific policies are listed below.

- Employment policies should make specific provisions for SSF and address the root causes of high unemployment and underemployment. To make SSF more profitable and appealing, stem high urban migration, check the overexploitation of fishery resources and child labour and trafficking.
- Decent work policy initiatives for SSF must be well-defined. They must allow fishing communities access to social security, social assistance and social insurance.
- Social inclusion policies should recognize the different forms of discrimination, as well as gender norms and power imbalances in the sector and ensure that social interventions reach the most marginalized.
- Health policies should address the inequitable distribution of health care and quality delivery in fishing communities. They must intensify efforts at preventive healthcare, ensure equitable distribution of health facilities, and improve quality of NHIS healthcare.
- Education policies must pay attention to the NFLP, with a focus on fishery-related occupational and vocational literacy. It must also engender partnership with fishing communities to sustain the current high enrollment of girls. Gender parity at the lower levels need to be extended to the junior and senior high school level.
- Active dialogue between government and fishing communities to examine priorities and options in social housing, community-led and government-supported schemes is necessary.
- Policies on sanitation, drinking water and energy must make specific provisions for fishing communities and prioritize the needs of women and children who suffer disproportionately.
- To safeguard against climate change, there is an urgent need for fishing communities to be involved in the process and outcome of climate change remedial measures—planning, development, implementation, monitoring and reporting.
- The government must build an inclusive, working relationship with all relevant SSF stakeholders (including TFMA, FWOs, trade unions and NGOs) as partners in sustainable development. This will aid effective collaborations, networking as well as monitoring and reporting.
- In order for the laws on SGBV to work as intended, victims should be supported with safe shelters. To encourage reporting of SGBV and prevent cases from being withdrawn medical bills and legal fees must be covered.
- To facilitate safe and timely access to justice the government must play a lead role and support FWOs and CBOs in educating communities on the judicial system.

3.2.2. Support for implementation of the SSF Guidelines

Government must play a lead role in implementing the SSF Guidelines. Achieving sustainable development requires that fishing communities participate in decision-making and management of fishery resources (including monitoring and reporting), as well as effectively collaborate and network with other actors. The guidelines provides a framework for training and capacity building in HRBA for all stakeholders (including fishers, fish workers, CBOs, FWOs and regulatory bodies) to make the sector more responsible and sustainable.

3.2.3. Disaggregation of data on SSF

Conventional data to capture “marginalized”, “excluded” and “harder to see” groups needs to be disaggregated. Unless data systems are designed to target specific parameters information on vulnerable and marginalized groups will be lacking. The study also shows that there is no guarantee that policy implementation will lead to a ‘trickle-down-effect’ for the benefit of marginalized groups.

3.2.4. Funding

Most policy interventions designed to benefit the marginalized and vulnerable are often hampered by bureaucratic procedures and undue delays. Interventions do not have any budgetary allocation. This leads to a gap between policy and implementation. Efficient allocation of funds must be prioritized to forestall this disconnect.

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Social Development and Sustainable Fisheries: Ghana

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Ghana's existing policies for social development cover fishing communities and yet, fail to address them specifically. The needs of rural and geographically isolated fishing communities are ignored. Urban fishers tend to benefit more from social development interventions and have a better quality of life compared to their rural counterparts. Despite this disparity in access to aid, the overall conditions of fishers across the country is dire—characterized by high poverty, food insecurity, hazardous working environment and poor social infrastructure. Our research has found that existing legislation and policy does not have a clear human rights-based approach to social development. Communities are yet to be empowered to participate in decision-making and management of fishery resources.



ICSF (www.icsf.net) is an international NGO working on issues that concern fishworkers the world over. It is in status with the Economic and Social Council of the UN and is on ILO's special list of Non-Governmental Organizations. It also has Liaison status with the FAO. ICSF works towards the establishment of equitable, gender-just, self-reliant and sustainable fisheries, particularly in the small-scale, artisanal sector.

ICSF draws its mandate from the historic International Conference of Fishworkers and their Supporters (ICFWS), held in Rome in 1984, parallel to the World Conference on Fisheries Management and Development organized by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). As a global network of community organizers, teachers, technicians, researchers and scientists, ICSF's activities encompass monitoring and research, exchange and training, campaigns and action, as well as communications.