2017

The Effects of Policy Gaps on Governance in Ghana

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

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by

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MSC, Malardalen University, 2007

BSC, Malardalen University, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirement for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

April 2017

Abstract

The need for governance institutions in Ghana to focus on policy results that impact directly on citizen's wellbeing rather than results that are achieved immediately after implementing program of activities has become more relevant than ever before due to widening policy gaps (the difference between policy intention and policy outcome) in Ghana. Defective policy implementation by the Ghanaian Civil Service is widening policy gaps in Ghana. With the aid of the institutional analysis and development framework, this quantitative study examined the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana. Empirical data were collected from 539 Civil Servants in Ghana using a web-based survey. The 539 Civil Service participants in this study were chosen from a list of all Civil Servants obtained from the Office of the Head of Civil Service in Ghana. Multiple linear regression was employed to test the extent to which 6 governance indicators affected policy gaps. Findings showed a significant negative relationship between the regulatory quality governance indicator and policy gaps. The study also found no significant relationship between policy gaps and other governance indicators, namely voice and accountability, political stability, regulatory quality, rule of law, governance effectiveness, and control of corruption. These results suggest that implementing public policies relating to trade and investment, taxes, tariffs, and other regulatory issues that seek to enhance the development of the private sector significantly reduces policy gaps. This study leads to positive social change by helping the civil service improve policies and procedures to services for the citizens it serves.

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Dedication

This doctoral study is dedicated to my daughter, Adom, and my wife, Francisca. They have been my source of motivation and strength. A special dedication goes to my mother, Grace, my father, Frank, and my nephew, Papa Fori, for their prayers and sacrifices throughout my educational path. Finally, a dedication goes to my siblings, Ekua, Papa, and Gloria; you have motivated and challenged me throughout my educational and professional career. I would not have attained this height without their support.

Table of Contents

ii

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Overview of Governance and Policy in Ghana

Ghana has made frantic efforts since gaining independence in 1957 to improve governance and implement social policies aimed at improving the livelihood of its citizens. However, since independence, failed policies and programs, coupled with defective governance systems and structures, have contributed to widening policy gaps and higher poverty levels. Ghana's first postcolonial major policy framework, the Seven-Year Development Plan, was launched on March 11,1964. The implementation of this policy framework was to end in 1970. However, the military coup d'état in February 1966 curtailed the implementation of this major policy framework (Berry, 1994).

Successive military governments since then failed to introduce or implement any major policy aimed at increasing economic growth, reducing poverty, and enhancing the standard of living of the citizenry. The absence of an effective governance system resulted in the stagnation of new policies being introduced. Kpessa (2012) emphasized that the reintroduction of democratic governance in 1992 increased civil society participation in Ghana's governance system, which enabled the government to receive feedback on its policies and programs.

The lack of meaningful economic policies led to a significant economic downturn as well as sociopolitical and governance crises in 1982 (Ayelazuno, 2014). However, the resumption of the implementation of major policies under the supervision of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) led to some economic stability in the following year. Even though Ghana was still under a military regime, various governance institutions

were set up to help implement policies and programs. Key among policies implemented under the supervision of IMF between 1983 and 1992 were the Economic Recovery Program (ERP), the Structural Adjustment Program, and the Program of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment.

These key policies focused on restructuring Ghana's economic and governance institutions, reducing the country's fiscal deficit, alleviating poverty, and increasing productivity. These programs were largely successful because of the massive citizenry and civil society participation. Governance in Ghana began to take shape during these major policy reforms. The successful implementation of the IMF programs was attributed to citizenry participation in policy formulation and implementation (McFerson, 2009)

The various policies included Vision 2020, the Private Sector Development Strategy, the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA), the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I), and the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy 2 (GPRS II). Most recently, the national medium-term development policy framework and program based budgeting were introduced after democratic governance was reintroduced in 1992. The introduction of various policies was aimed at assisting ministries, departments, and agencies (MDAs) in transitioning policies, programs, and strategies into medium-term development plans that facilitate the efficient and timely implementation of deliverables in these policy documents. The civil service of Ghana is responsible for coordinating the implementation of all policies introduced by all governance institutions in Ghana. Administrative interference in the activities of the civil service by successive

governments has led to the weakening of the civil service, which is the primary governance institution responsible for policy and program implementation in Ghana.

The interference in the activities of the civil service has resulted in significant gaps between policy intentions and policy outcomes in Ghana. By design, the civil service approach to policy making is through participatory policy making. The participatory policy making that the civil service is required to adopt in the formulation of policies is supported by Gyimah-Boadi (2004), who asserted that the role of civil society's participation in policy formulation goes a long way to reducing policy gaps that translate into good governance. A key stakeholder engagement organized by the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) in May 2014, which involved all senior technocrats within the civil service and all the main governance and economic actors in Ghana, produced the Senchi Consensus to improve economic and governance framework in Ghana. However, the demise of the head of the NDPC 2 days after the consensus has stalled the implementation of this major policy framework. The stalling of the implementation of the outcome of deliberations explains the extent to which major governance institutions in Ghana are disoriented.

Successful governance is typically driven by effective and efficient public administrations (governance institutions) taking ultimate responsibility for the implementation of favorable government policies. Kpessa (2011) asserted that for governance to be effective, there is a need to define governance within the context of policy implementation decisions. When there is broad base participation by the citizenry

in policy formulation and implementation and evaluation, governance tends to be successful (Harrold, 2000; McFerson, 2009).

Ghana gained independence from Britain in 1957 after Kwame Nkrumah became the country's first democratically elected president. Various programs, policies, and projects were formulated and implemented during the 9-year reign of the first president. The participatory governance system saw massive infrastructural development during this period. The democratic governance system was curtailed after a military coup in 1966 that saw the overthrow of the democratically elected president and suspension of the constitution. Democratic governance was restored in 1969 only to be curtailed by another military coup in 1972. Various military junta (with very little or no experience in governance) governed the country from that point forward until democracy was restored in 1979. The elected president had little or no time to implement policies and programs as another military government seized power in 1982. The military regime stayed in authority for 11 years until democracy was restored in 1993.

The reintroduction of constitutional governance in 1993 led to the formation of numerous government institutions in Ghana. Many of these establishments were mandated by the constitution while others were established as and when governance systems demanded. These governance institutions have contributed in diverse ways to ensure that gaps between policy intentions and outcomes are minimal, such as the reduction of the child mortality rate in Ghana. Ackerman and Fishkin (2004) argued that one critical success factor of governance success is adopting the concept of co-governance, which involves broad-based consultation in policy formulation and

implementation with various social actors involved in governance. Reduction in policy gaps to a larger extent is based on participatory governance, where ordinary citizens tend to influence policy outcomes (Khan, 2005). Cohen and Sabel (1997) argued that once citizens feel a sense of ownership in policy formulation and implementation, governance becomes easier.

Introduction

Since independence, Ghana has struggled to formulate, implement, and evaluate policies that are geared towards improving the livelihood of its citizens. The gap between policy intentions and policy outcomes can be attributed to implementation issues such as improper coordination and the lack of required skills and commitment on the part of implementing agencies. These implementation issues usually create a "policy gap," which tends to negatively impact the original intent of public policies. Policy gaps between formulation and implementation can be linked to poor governance (OECD 2013; Rossi et al., 2004). Most policies formulated and executed in Ghana have significant policy gaps, which tend to affect the well-being of citizens. Since governmental institutions are directly responsible for policy implementation in Ghana, all policy gaps can be attributed to the state of governance in Ghana. More recently, the establishment of the NDPC in Ghana, which is the mandated constitutional governance body charged with the monitoring of policies, has not proved to be useful in the implementation of public policies. The perceived ineffectiveness of these major and other governance institutions has resulted in policy gaps, which diminish the role of governance in improving the lives of the Ghanaian citizenry.

In response, many policy analysts in Ghana have attributed the policy gaps in Ghana to implementation issues (Atuguba, 2013). Other analysts have attributed the policy gaps to institutional failure on the part of government institutions to implement policies and programs fully. However, no empirical studies have evidenced this claim. Rossi et al. (2004) drew a direct relationship between policy gaps and the effectiveness of governance institutions. Kpessa (2011) also elucidated that good governance involves the implementation of policies by governance institutions in which citizens play a participatory role. Koranteng and Larbi (2008) attributed policy gaps to issues of governance. Smith (2005) also explained that development failures, which emanate from deficient policy implementation, can be attributed to the effectiveness of governance institutions in the implementation of policies. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Economic Survey 2013 also attributed policy gaps to good governance. Paudel (2009) drew a direct link between policy gaps and governance by explaining that policy gaps mostly refer to differences between governmental intentions and outcomes. The level of nepotism, cronyism, and favoritism in the Ghanaian public sector has made most governmental institutions ineffective, thereby affecting policy implementation. Weber (1978) explained that narrowing the gap between policy intentions and policy outcomes requires that public servants be hired based on competence rather than provenance.

Studies on the impact of governance on policy implementation tend to approach the way governmental institutions can implement policy decisions but have failed to draw a direct connection between governance and policy implementation. Even though

O'Toole (2003), Howlett and Ramesh (2003), and Paudel (2009) established a relationship between policy intentions and outcomes, their studies did not directly link policy gaps to the performance of governmental institutions. The Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA), which is Ghana's main policy framework, has various key performance indicators for various governmental institutions charged with implementing policies. This document, however, fails to identify and bridge gaps between the intended key performance indicators and actual outcomes. Regrettably, no studies have been able to attribute present policy gaps in Ghana to governance.

The paucity of literature and contemporary studies on policy and governance in Ghana has not helped in bridging the gap between policy intentions and policy outcomes. Even more perturbing is the fact that there are no studies on policy gaps in Ghana. The nonexistence of studies on the relationship between policy gaps and governance has created a situation where the existence of the problem of policy gaps as a result of governance is not even acknowledged. Study of the relationships between policy gaps and governance is the sort of evidence that key policy makers and the government need for priority to be given to the relationship between governance and policy. In this study, I attempted to contribute to the knowledge base by exploring the extent to which governance influences policy gaps in Ghana. I also examined the effect that governmental institutions have on policy gaps in Ghana.

Problem Statement

Numerous possible explanations may account for the gaps between policy intentions and policy outcomes (OECD Economic Survey, 2013). Even though

participatory policy formation and implementation is geared towards bridging the gap

between policy intentions and policy outcomes, there is still a gap between policy

intentions and policy outcomes in Ghana (Kpessa & Atuguba, 2013). Smith (2005), the

OECD Economic Survey (2013), and Koranteng and Larbi (2008) all attributed the gap

between policy intentions and policy outcomes to governance. Although the gaps

between policy intent and policy outcome in Ghana can be attributed to leadership within

governmental institutions responsible for policy implementation, contemporary research

suggests that policy gaps can be attributed to governance (OECD Economic Survey,

2013). Ewalt and Jennings (2004) defined a policy gap simply as the difference between

policy intentions and policy outcome and attributed it to policy implementation issues.

Smith (2005) explained that better governance and public policy is strongly linked to the

performance of governance institutions.

Empirical evidence suggests that the ineffectiveness of government institutions in

the implementation of public policies usually results in expected output being

significantly different from original policy intent. Various authors, including the OECD

(2013), Paudel (2009), O'Toole et al. (2003), and Kraft and Furlong (2013) attributed

policy implementation difficulties to governance shortcomings. Walters, Aydelotte, and

Miller (2000) held a different view on the role of policy and governance. They believed

that policy analysis undermines democratic institutions, thereby affecting governance.

Failure to translate most policy intentions to the desired outcome in Ghana over

the years has been attributed to the governance style and leadership of opposing political

parties. This attribution stood over the years because no research had been conducted to

establish the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana. Most literature and research on policy and governance has focused on the area of good governance and its impact on the socioeconomic well-being of citizens.

The purpose of this research was, therefore, to investigate whether governance issues contribute to gaps between policy intentions and policy outcomes in Ghana.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was Ostrom's (2007) institutional analysis and development (IAD) framework. The IAD framework primarily focuses on the study of governmental institutions, their role in rule creation, and the effect that these institutions and practices have on policy outcomes. The IAD approach provides details on the effects that government agencies and citizens have on policy outcomes. Application of the IAD framework aided in analyzing the gap(s) between policy intentions and policy outcomes and determined the extent to which these gaps are a result of governance. The IAD framework further provided explanation as to the role that government institutions and citizens play in creating gaps between policy intention and policy outcome.

Ostrom's (2007) IAD framework provides a methodical way of organizing policy analysis activities aimed at ensuring the understanding of all social situations, thereby providing a systematic way of solving public problems. Ostrom, Gardner, and Walker (1994) explained that the IAD framework contains a systematic rule and method that helps policy analysts understand complex social problems by breaking them down into a manageable set of practical activities. The systematic rules used in applying the IAD framework to solving complex social problems involves a definition of the policy

objective and approach, analysis of physical and material conditions, analysis of

community attributes, analysis of result in use, integration of analysis, analysis of pattern

of interaction, and analysis of outcomes.

Research Questions

There are six research questions in all, and each research question addressed the

effect of the independent variables (voice and accountability, political stability,

governance effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption) on

the dependent variable (policy gaps).

Research Question 1: Does the voice and accountability governance indicator

have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator does not affect policy

gaps.

$H_a 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 2: Does the political stability governance indicator have an

effect on policy gaps?

$H_0 2$: The political stability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

$H_a 2$: The political stability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 3: Does the government effectiveness governance indicator

have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0 3$: The government effectiveness governance indicator does not affect policy

gaps.

$H_a 3$: The government effectiveness governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 4: Does the regulatory quality governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$4: The regulatory quality governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a4: The regulatory quality governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 5: Does the rule of law governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$5: The rule of law governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a5: The rule of law governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Research Question 6: Does the control of corruption governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$6: The control of corruption governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a6: The control of corruption governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study was a quantitative method. The quantitative research method option aided in determining the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana. Using the quantitative research method further assisted in examining the relationship that exists between policy gaps and governance in Ghana. The dependent variable was policy gaps, and the independent variables were political stability, voice and accountability, rule of law, regulatory quality, control of corruption, and governance effectiveness. The policy gaps examined were all policies enshrined in the GSGDA,

which is the blueprint of all government policies. Analyzing the effect that governance institutions have on policy gaps was consistent with Ostrom's (2007) theory of knowledge in the field of policy.

Primary Sources of Data

Data were collected from the staff of the Ghanaian Civil Service using a web-based questionnaire distributed through Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. The survey instrument sought the opinion of civil service staff on all six governance indicators and how they relate to policy gaps in Ghana. Interviews were also conducted with the head of civil service. Data were gathered from all 55 civil service institutions in Ghana (see Appendix B). Vital information was also collected from the database of world governance indicators (WGIs) from the World Bank.

Significance of the Study

This research presented an opportunity to investigate the relationship between policy gap and governance in Ghana. The OECD Economic Survey 2013 attributed to the difference between policy intentions and policy outcome in most OCED countries as related to governance. The research findings aided in demonstrating the eventual outcome of policy intentions before implementation, depending on the state of governance in Ghana during the policy implementation. Results from this study also informed policy crafters and implementers of the need to consider the status of the main governance institutions when drawing up an implementation plan for various policies. Finally, because governance institutions implement all public policies in Ghana, the outcome of

this research will streamline all public policy implementation approaches to ensure that policy gap is narrowed to the barest minimum.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this survey study was to quantitatively test the relationship between policy gaps and all governance indicators. The governance indicators were voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption. The dependent variable is defined as policy gaps (the difference between policy intentions and policy outcomes).

The examination of policy gaps as a dependent variable was critical to this study because it aided in ascertaining the extent to which policy gaps are affected by governance indicators. The independent variables are defined as voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. The examination of the governance indicators as independent variables was relevant to this study because it provided a framework within which policy implementation could be adjudged.

Summary of Analytical Strategies

A survey design was used in this research. Samples studied aided in evaluating the governance trends in Ghana and their effect on policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation. A survey design was the preferred type of data collection procedure because of the rapid turnaround in data collection, primarily because of the expected source of data for this research. The survey was cross-sectional because data were collected at a particular point in time during the study. Self-administered web-based

questionnaires and interviews were used to gather data on all six governance indicators and how they relate to policy outcomes. As part of the data collection procedure, a modified instrument was used.

Multiple linear regression was the analytical method used in this research. The choice of this analytical method was based on the assumption that it was deemed more appropriate when studying the relationship between or among two or three variables. The selection of this analytical strategy was also based on the assumption that there was a relationship between policy gaps and governance. The statistical model that was used focused on the IAD statistical model developed by Lubells et al. (2012).

Assumptions and Generalizability

One fundamental assumption underlying this study was that the willingness of participants to voluntarily participate in this study did not create any biases. Additionally, it was assumed that all the participants in the study objectively completed the questionnaire as accurately as possible and within the specified timeframe.

It was expected that the results obtained from the survey of MDAs, as well as all 55 governmental institutions, are reflective of the entire governance institutions in Ghana. The choice of the civil service was because most governance institutions in Ghana are engulfed with issues that are similar across the board, such as executive interference and lack of resources.

Scope and Delimitation

The scope of this research was limited to the experience of governance and policy making within the Ghanaian context. The Ghanaian governance system and policy issue

from 1920 to 2014 was explored in the literature review. The exploration started from 1920 because it was in this year that the first development plan of Ghana (formerly known as Gold Coast) was institutionalized. The cut-off date of 2014 was as a result of data availability difficulty. The principal institution that provided the data for analysis was the Ghanaian Civil Service. The justification for using the civil service of Ghana as the institution of the study was because all policy planning, policy implementation, policy monitoring, and policy evaluation emanates from the civil service. The scope of this dissertation was also consistent with the IAD framework because I focused on studying governmental institutions and the effect that the civil service has on policy outcome in Ghana.

Limitations

In the study, I primarily focused on the extent to which the Ghanaian Civil Service can implement policies and programs. Even though the public service in Ghana, on rare occasions, participates in the crafting, implementation, and evaluation of public policy, I did not cover public sector institutions. Even though the civil service controls the public service in Ghana, the size and nature of the public service did not permit me to include the public service in this research. Initial inquiry at the Public Services Commission indicated that data on the entire Ghanaian public sector is fragmented and incomplete. Missing psychometric data on employees was over 50%. It would have, therefore, been statistically erroneous to include the Ghanaian public sector in this research.

Summary

Policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation within the Ghanaian public sector has experienced significant challenges since 1957 when Ghana weaned itself from British colonial governance. This trend has resulted in significant policy gaps, which has affected governance in Ghana. In the past decade, attempts to streamline governance and ensure effective implementation of public policies yielded minimal success. To bridge policy gaps in Ghana, the civil service embarked on various reform programs to make the institution more result-oriented. Ensuring that the civil service succeeds in bridging the gap between policy intention and policy outcome requires the civil service to continuously monitor the policy gaps and institute control measures to ensure that planned public policies and programs are fully implemented.

Realizing the objective of bridging the policy gaps in Ghana through effective governance will ensure the civil service is adequately equipped in policy issues. The present state of the governance does not give confidence to policy makers that the civil service is capable of bridging the gap between policy intentions and policy outcome. Even though the civil service spearheads policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation, little has been done in the past to ensure the bridging of policy gaps. Investigations into how governance affects policy gaps in Ghana have received very minimal attention from researchers. In this study, therefore, I examined the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana.

In this chapter, I outlined the background of the survey, including the introduction. Various aspects of this research, including the methodology, theoretical

framework, and assumptions underlying the study, as well as the limitations and scope, which forms the basis for the next chapter, have also been discussed. In Chapter 2, I review literature related to governance and policy in Ghana. I also discuss the IAD theory and how it relates to the current study. Finally, I discuss the background to governance and policy in Ghana, including an extensive study of the Ghanaian Civil Service.

Definition of Terms

Governance: A self-organizing, interorganizational network characterized by interdependence, resource-exchange, rules of the game, and significant autonomy from the state (Rhodes, 1997).

Government: The institutions and political processes through which public policy choices are made (Kraft & Furlong, 2013).

Policy: A statement by the government of what it intends to do such as law regulation, ruling, decision, order, or a combination of these (Birkland, 2011).

Policy environment: The structural, social, economic, and political, as well as other factors, that influence and are influenced by policy making (Birkland, 2011).

Policy evaluation: The use of social research methods systematically to investigate the effectiveness of policy interventions (Rossi et al., 2004).

Policy gap: The difference between policy intentions and policy outcomes (Ewalt & Jennings 2004).

Politics: The exercise of power in society or specific decisions over public policy (Kraft et al., 2012).

Public policy: The actions of the government and the intentions that determine those actions (Cochran et al. 1992).

Public problems: The conditions the public widely perceives to be unacceptable and requires interventions (Kraft et al., 2013).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In the literature review, I focused on studies related to governance and policy planning, monitoring, and evaluation (PPME) within MDAs in Ghana. The focal institution that has driven PPME in Ghana since 1992 has been the civil service. Even though very minimal research has been undertaken in the area of PPME in Ghana, the Civil Service Act 1993 (Act 327) and the NDPC Act 1994 (Act 479) provide insight into how PPME and its institutional governance in Ghana is to be undertaken. Extensive research was, however, conducted in this area to improve epistemology in the field of governance and PPME in Ghana.

The history and success of governance in Ghana was critically examined. Even though there has been little research on governance in pre-independence Ghana, numerous researchers have delved into the area of governance in the post-independence era. The majority of researchers in governance focused on how the decentralized system of governance within the district assembly has worked. A greater part of this literature review on governance and policy is focused on the institutional governance system and policy gaps in Ghana.

Strategy for Searching Literature

Literature for this study was obtained from searching through various databases available on the Walden University website. Key among the sites used for the literature search was the EBSCO database. Specifically, Political Science Complete, Academic Search Complete, Policy Studies Journal, and Business Source Complete yielded good

results on policy and public policy-related studies. Emerald, JSTOR, and SAGE produced good results on governance. Other books related to policy evaluation and governance were also used during the literature review process. The archives of the NDPC yielded excellent results, particularly with regards to the historical perspective of public policy in Ghana. Keywords and phrases used during the search for relevant articles were *policy gap, public policy in Ghana, governance in Ghana,* and *policy evaluation in Ghana.*

Additionally, extensive research was conducted by the NDPC in Ghana, and the sector ministry was responsible for public sector reform in Ghana. Various literature was also obtained from the PPME division of various MDAs.

Historical Overview of Public Policy in Ghana

Policy planning in Ghana (Gold Coast) dates back to the colonial days in the 1900s. The British colonial administration that ruled the country was in charge of all policy and developmental planning. Hymer (1968) explained that most of the policies in the 1900s were focused on the development of the cocoa and gold industries. All policies that were formulated were geared towards increasing productivity in the cocoa and gold sectors of the country. Hymer further explained that this led to the neglect of other critical sectors of the economy, such as the development of the civil and public service, the establishment of public policy institutions, and the evaluation of already existing policies to determine their outcomes.

The chief colonial administrator, for a 10-year period spanning from 1920 to 1930, was Sir Gordon Guggisberg. Guggisberg developed the first major policy document for Ghana in 1920. The Guggisberg Plan focused on four thematic areas of

development. The first was to institute policies aimed at developing the health and education sectors of the Ghanaian economy. The focus of this policy was to increase expenditure in the long term to increase the human resource base of Ghana. The second thematic area was aimed at increasing revenue by adopting measures like increased exports that would expand the revenue base of the country. The focus of the Guggisberg Plan was to help fund the projected increase in expenditure in the areas of education and health. The third was aimed at improving the infrastructure base of the country, which was to be financed by the expected increase in revenue through the export of timber, cocoa, and gold. The last thematic area was to build enough reserve to further finance education and other critical infrastructure projects. From 1920–1921, during the legislative council debate, Guggisberg stated,

> For progress, we must have an education; for the education of the right type we
> must have a bigger revenue. To get bigger revenue we must have bigger trade,
> and to get bigger trade we must have more agriculture and a far better system of
> transportation than at present exists.

Guggisberg's plan mostly worked. To date, the largest medical facility in Ghana was a product of Guggisberg's development plan. The Port of Takoradi remains the second largest in the country, and the Achimota School, which was also a product of the Guggisberg Plan, continues to be one of the best schools in Ghana. Hymer (1968) explained that the Great Depression of the 1930s, coupled with the Second World War, resulted in a significant drop in export revenue and threw Guggisberg's plan out of gear.

Other factors such as a weakened United Kingdom, as a result of World War II, culminated in the near collapse of the Guggisberg Plan.

The Ten-Year Development Plan was the next major policy to be implemented after the Guggisberg Plan. This development plan was published in 1946. Hymer (1968) asserted that this development plan was aimed at accelerating the pace of development with an emphasis on infrastructure development. Hymer further explained that the focus of this plan was to increase revenue on three frontiers: The first was through grants, the second was to raise revenue on the London market, and the third was through trade surplus. This plan was short-lived because it failed to address the development needs of the country at that time. The plan was then replaced by the Five-Year Development Plan in 1951 by the last British colonial administration. The content of the Five-Year Development Plan was a five-fold expansion of the previous Ten-Year Development Plan.

The Two-Year Consolidated Development Plan was launched by the first president of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah, in 1957 just after independence. The focus of this plan was to merge the objective of the last two development plans. The consolidated development plan was to mop-up the good objectives from the previous plans that failed to materialize. The Consolidated Development plan paved the way for a more comprehensive Five-Year Development Plan, which was the second in Ghana's history. Adjibolosoo (1995) asserted that the focus of this plan was to develop all sectors of the Ghanaian economy, increase the power generation by completing the Akosombo Dam,

and promote the construction industry. Objectives of the Five-Year Development Plan were mainly achieved as this period saw rapid and accelerated development.

The Seven-Year Development Plan, which spanned from 1963 to 1970, remains the most popular development plan in Ghana to date. According to Adjibolosoo (1995), this period saw a significant growth in the history of Ghana. Hymer (1968), however, had a contrary view. Hymer asserted that this period saw Ghana's economy declining as a result of mismanagement. However, gross domestic product data show that there was a rapid acceleration of development during this period. The focus of this plan was to expand the infrastructure base and accelerate industrialization and the mechanization of agriculture. This plan was short-lived, as the president was overthrown in a military coup in February 1966.

The next Two-Year Development Plan was followed by the One-Year Development Plan and then a Five-Year Development Plan. These development plans spanned from 1968 to 1980. These plans were widely promulgated by various military governments and were the least popular in Ghana's history. Adjibolosoo (1995) explained that the focus of these plans was to develop the industrial sector further and to improve the human resource capacity of the country and diversify exports. These plans were never evaluated to assess the impact of the outcomes because successive military governments did not deem this necessary.

The ERP was one of the major policy initiatives during the turbulent governance regimes in Ghana. The implementation the ERP, which spanned between 1983 and 1989, was under the strict supervision of the IMF. The principal objective of this program was

to restore the Ghanaian economy to a growth path. Aryeetey et al. (2000) asserted that the key objective of the ERP was to revive the ailing Ghanaian economy on the path of growth through various fiscal, monetary, trade, and exchange rate policies. Aryeetey et al. further asserted that the structural adjustments that came along with the ERP were aimed at putting the economy on a path where it would be able to withstand the external shock on the global market. Some level of confidence and stability was restored in the Ghanaian economy prior to the restoration of democratic governance in 1993.

After the restoration of constitutional rule in 1992, policy formulation and implementation was institutionalized. Article 34, Section 2 required every president to submit to parliament a policy document including an outline of how the policies will be implemented. Article 36, Clause 5 of the 1992 Constitution further imposed the policy obligation on the president with regards to economic and social development policies, including agricultural and industrial programs aimed at improving the livelihood in Ghana. Articles 86 and 87 of the 1992 Constitution empowered the president to create the NDPC. The legislative instruments that established the NDPC were Act 479 and Act 480 of 1994.

The first significant policy document promulgated by the NDPC was Vision 2020. Vision 2020 was a 25-year development plan aimed at achieving a middle-income status by the year 2020. The key objectives of Vision 2020 were set out in the national development policy framework. The thematic areas of the national development policy framework, as set out by Vision 2020, were human development, economic growth, rural development, and creating an enabling environment for businesses to thrive. Vision 2020

was short-lived as it only saw 5 years of implementation. This was primarily due to change of government in the year 2000.

In adhering to the remit of Article 36, Clause 2 of the 1992 Constitution, the GPRS was launched in 2001. This was a 3-year policy objective of the new government. The thematic areas of this 3-year policy document were economic stability and growth, good governance, human development, empowerment of the private sector, improvement and sustainment of livelihood, and ensurance of the protection of vulnerable groups in society (GPRS 2003–2005). Primarily, the GPRS I was geared towards attaining the United Nations Millennium Development Goals.

The GPRS II was launched in 2006 by the NDPC after the successful execution of the GPRS I. The GPRS II was promulgated to mop-up activities that were not successfully executed in the GPRS I. The focus of the GPRS II was to ensure the sustenance of macroeconomic stability, the acceleration of private sector-led growth, the development of human capital, and good governance. This policy document went through the full 4-year term, but very little was achieved in terms of realization of the policy objectives. An end of term evaluation was commissioned for this policy initiative, but recommendations were never carried through. Policy gaps, therefore, remained, and the GPRS secretariat was subsequently disbanded.

The GSGDA was a 4-year policy framework aimed at accelerating growth and development in Ghana. The GSGDA was launched in 2009. The GSGDA mainly set out the medium-term national development policy framework. The GSGDA focused on ensuring macroeconomic stability, making the private sector competitive, modernizing

agriculture, developing oil and gas, and improving infrastructure and energy as well as human development and transparent and accountable governance. Even though annual progress was instituted within the NDPC since 2003, an end of policy implementation impact assessment was not carried out for all these policy initiatives.

The GSGDA received an extended implementation of 4 years through the guidelines for the preparation of medium-term development plans by the MDAs. In this new policy implementation strategy, the MDAs were guidelines and were empowered to come up with their respective policies and programs of action for implementation. These policies and programs must, however, be consistent with the national development plan (GSGDA).

Rossi et al. (2004) explained that the essence of impact assessment is to determine the effectiveness of the program or policy that was implemented. The impact assessment was not undertaken for all the policies and programs that were instituted since 1901. All the end of term evaluations that were carried out for these policies largely reported on the output of these policies. Most of the outputs that have been reported in the past are not scientific. These reported outcomes have mainly been a result of consolidated estimates from the PPME divisions of various MDAs (www.ndpc.gov.gh). The current state of public policy in Ghana requires a coordinated effort between all state actors and institutions to be pragmatic in their approach towards public policy.

The State of Public Policy in Ghana

Implementation of various policies and the accompanying politics dates back to 1901 (Hymer, 1968). According to Kraft and Furlong (2013), "public policy is what

public officials within government, and by extension the citizens they represent, choose to do or not to do about public problems." Kraft and Furlong further explained that the public problem is mostly associated with what the public considers to be an unacceptable situation or condition they find themselves in and inadvertently require an intervention to remedy the problem. A response that is usually required to alleviate conditions that citizens consider to be unacceptable is what frequently gives rise to the crafting of a policy. Anderson (2001) explained that the policy refers to a course of action that is undertaken to solve a particular problem. Walters, Aydelotte, and Miller (2000) explained that the policy development process includes the following:

1. Identify the problem to be resolved.

2. Identify criteria that will be used to evaluate the alternative solution.

3. Generate alternative solutions to the problem that has been identified.

4. Evaluate the various alternative solutions based on the identified criteria.

5. Recommend and implement the best alternative solution for evaluation of all alternatives.

Numerous issues such as the lack of access to portable water and electricity, elevated poverty levels, and huge infrastructure deficits still existed after independence in 1957, despite numerous efforts by successive governments to solve Ghana's social and economic problems (Hymer, 1968).

The crafting of public policy in Ghana over the years has primarily been driven by the long-term interest of various political groupings (Asante & Gyimah-Boadi, 2004). There is no known single policy since 1958 that has received the endorsement of the

various political groupings. All the major policies implemented in Ghana since 190 have been either downplayed or totally rejected by political opponents.

Successive governments in Ghana have been reactive in the crafting of public policy. Even though crafting of public policy by various successive governments is driven by what the governments choose to do or not to do about a general problem, contemporary public policy requires the need to anticipate public problems beforehand and craft policies in readiness for public problems even before they occur (Kraft & Furlong, 2013). In doing so, solutions will almost always wait for problems and not vice versa.

Prior to the implementation of the ERP in 1984, there were key challenges that were identified with the state of public policy and institutional governance in Ghana (Antwi & Analoui, 2008). The National Institutionalized Renewal Program in 1992 concluded that the Ghanaian public sector was marred by the lack of a PPME system. These documents also identified institutional weakness, underdevelopment, underutilization of available resources, a poor public sector human resource management system, a poor performance and incentive management system, and the lack of accountability as the major failures in the Ghanaian public sector.

Dotse (1991) attributed the near collapse of public policy management in Ghana to the implementation of policies and programs that were not directly beneficial to the social cause of the country. Dotse drew a direct link between the defective public policy management system in Ghana to the near breakdown of institutions charged with the drafting, implementation, and monitoring of public policy institutions.

The weakened state of public policy in Ghana coupled with institutional weakness in the public sector led to the establishment of the NDPC in June 1995. The establishment was through an act of parliament (NDPC Act 1994, Act 479). Since its establishment, the NDPC has been the key governmental institution responsible for the crafting, monitoring, and evaluation of public policies in Ghana. In the year 2003, the Ministry of Public Sector Reform was created to be responsible for public sector reforms in Ghana. This office has largely failed because it lacked the requisite legal backing to implement any meaningful reforms (Asante & Gyimah-Boadi, 2004).

All public policies in Ghana now emanate from the GSGDA and implementation and evaluation is mainly through the policy planning, monitoring, and evaluation departments (PPMED) of MDAs. The GSGDA contains all national and sectorial indicators that serve as a guideline on how policies are to be implemented and the expected results. Ohemeng (2009) explained that the lack of independence of government institutions, coupled with inadequate resources that are required to implement public policies, have led to institutional failures in realizing policy objectives and have largely contributed to the widening policy gaps in Ghana.

The current state of public policy in Ghana is firmly rooted in the GSGDA policy document. Even though public policy formulation and implementation started in Ghana in the year 1900, it was not until 2010 that all policy documents containing key performance indicators were centralized in the GSGDA. Studies by Dotse (1991), Kpessa (2011), Antwi and Analoui (2008), and Haruna (2003) all acknowledge that challenges,

such as lack of political will and inadequate resource, affect public policy issues in Ghana from conceptualization to implementation and evaluation.

Contemporary public policy making in Ghana has assumed a more citizen participatory approach as opposed to bureaucratic and principal state involvement (Kpessa, 2011). Findings by McFerson (2009) explained that citizen participation in policy making is one of the key indicators of good governance. These findings are applicable in the Ghanaian context because they are supported by Kpessa (2011), Gyimah-Boadi (2004), and Harrold (2000). The GSGDA, which contains all the key performance indicators of policies and programs, was as a result of various consultations and deliberations by MDAs and civil society organizations (CSOs). Kpessa supported this by explaining that public policy formulation in Ghana has shifted from a centralized approach to a more participatory approach, where the opinions of citizens are always factored into public policies. The civil service is the institution through which all public policies in Ghana are implemented. At the beginning of each year, the civil service crafts policies and programs that are to be implemented within the fiscal year from the GSGDA and the state of the nation address.

The Ghanaian Civil Service

The civil service is not only meant to assist in the formulation of policies and programs but is also required to ensure that programs and public policies are implemented in a way that will ensure the effective and efficient delivery of public resources (Ayee, 2001). In the 1950s, the Ghanaian Civil Service was known for its efficiency and effectiveness up until the mid-1970s, when lack of motivation and low

morale, as well as poor working conditions and lack of major institutional reforms, brought the civil service to its knees (Ayee, 2001).

The civil service decline was mainly because of harsh economic conditions during the 1980s coupled with a decline in key productive sectors of the Ghanaian economy. According to Rotchild, this decline was a result of governance instability and prolonged drought (as cited in Ayee, 2001). Overstaffing of the Ghanaian Civil Service, low morale, corruption, and job insecurity characterized the civil service in the 1980s. These debilitating issues resulted in an ineffective civil service, which in turn translated into poor PPME (Ayee, 2001).

Two commissions were set up to look into the performance of the civil service from 1967 to 1974. The outcome of the deliberations of these two commissions (the Mills-Odoi Commission, established in 1967, and the Okoh Commission, establish in 1976) resulted in significant recommendations on the way forward for the Ghanaian Civil Service. The outcome of the proceedings of the two commissions, according to Ayee (1991), was the proposal to redirect the effort of the ministries to focus on policy planning, policy implementation, policy monitoring, and policy evaluation. The second major recommendation was for political and institutional heads to be directly responsible for the implementation of public policies that emanate from the civil service.

There was little change in the Ghanaian Civil Service despite the effort of the Mills-Odoi Commission and Okoh Commission mainly due to difficulty in implementing the recommendations of the commissions (Ayee & Obeng-Adofo, 1991). Numerous committees besides the Mills-Odoi and the Okoh committees were formed in an attempt

to reform the Ghanaian Civil Service further. The Kaku-Kyiamah Committee (established in 1982), the Sackey Committee (established in 1982), and the Ansa-Asamoah Committee (established in 1982) were all formed to look into the operations of the civil service as part of the restructuring efforts. The Public Administration and Decentralization Implementation Committee was later established in 1982 to consolidate the work and effort of the Kaku Kyiamah, Sackey, and Ansa-Asamoah committees. The committee recommended structural reorganization and decentralization of the civil service to increase productivity and make the civil service more efficient (Ayee, 1993).

Various past and present governments have complained about the attitude of the civil service. Successive governments have, over the years, blamed the civil service for sabotaging public policies and programs aimed at improving the socio-economic well-being of Ghanaians. Kwame Nkrumah, in one of his public statements, said

It amazes me that up to the present many civil servants do not realize that we are living in a revolutionary era. This Ghana, which has lost so much time serving colonial masters, cannot afford to be tied down to archaic snail-pace methods of work, which obstruct the expeditious process…Civil servants therefore, must develop a new orientation, a sense of mission and urgency, to enable them eliminate all tendencies towards red tapeism, bureaucracy, and waste. Civil servants must use their initiative to make the civil service an effective instrument in the rapid development of Ghana. (Nkrumah, 1961a, p. 24)

Realizing the strategic nature of the civil service and the key role it plays in PPME, Kwame Nkrumah, at a point in time, threatened the civil service with dismissals

if they showed any form of disloyalty and exhibited negative attitude towards work (Nkrumah, 1961b).

Between 1987 and 1993, the Civil Service Reform Program (CSRP) was commissioned as part of the restructuring effort of the Ghanaian Civil Service (Ohemeng, 2009). The reform was under the auspices of the Overseas Development Administration and the World Bank. The reform was aimed at restructuring the civil service to make it more efficient and less bureaucratic and strengthening its policy implementation capabilities, thereby increasing the performance of the civil service. Ayee (2001) explained that the key objective of the CSRP was to make the civil service more efficient, less bureaucratic, and to strengthen its resolve in the political implementation of public policies and programs in Ghana.

In the period leading to the deliberations of the CSRP, it was realized that the Office of the Head of Civil Service (OHCS) had lost managerial and oversight control of the civil service, hence the difficulty in shaping up the civil service to be responsive to the changing needs of the country (Ayee, 2001). One of the key outcomes of the CSRP was the institutionalization of a performance management system in which senior civil servants became accountable to the OHCS.

The Civil Service Amendment Regulation 1978 (LI 1185) was replaced with the Civil Service Act 1993 (PNDCL 327). The amendment was aimed at streamlining the operations of the civil service to make it performance oriented, thereby increasing its efficiency and effectiveness. Various reforms engineered by successive governments and the OHCS have not yielded the desired results over the years (Hutchful, 2002). The

Ghanaian civil service in its present state is not able to fully execute public policies as per its mandate. The civil service, which to date remains the principal implementing agency for public policies, remains inefficient, ineffective, corrupt and over-bloated and as such, these reforms have largely been disappointing (Owusu, 2006).

The civil service in its current state remains a major stumbling block to the successful implementation of public policies in Ghana. The Civil Service Act 1993 (PNDCL 327) requires all MDAs to undertake monitoring and evaluation of all programs and activities within the civil service. However, challenges such as inadequate resources and lack of qualified personnel has led to weakening of the monitoring and evaluation departments of various MDAs, which has led to poor policy implementation (Owusu, 2006)

Policy Monitoring and Evaluation in Ghana

PPME in Ghana formally took the center stage of Ghana's development after the country returned to democratic rule in the year 1993. PPME was recognized as an integral part of Ghana's development in the 1992 Constitution of Ghana. This was promulgated by Articles 86 and 87 of the 1992 Constitution and was institutionalized by the National Development Planning Commission Act 1994 (Act 479) and NDPC System Act 1994, Act 480. Article 36 Section 5 of the 1992 Constitution also made it mandatory for every incoming president of the country to present a coordinated program of economic and social development policies including agricultural and industrial programs at all levels and in all regions of Ghana.

Through Acts 479 and 480, the NDPC has, since 1992, made it mandatory for all MDAS to have PPMEDs that are responsible for monitoring and evaluating the coordinated program of economic and social policies of every government. Since monitoring and evaluation became institutionalized in Ghana, the two main policy documents that serve as guidelines for the monitoring and evaluation of policies are the guidelines for preparing districts and the sector monitoring and evaluation plans. These policy documents that provide guidelines on how government policies are to be monitored and evaluated were prepared under the auspices of the GSGDA II and launched in June 2014. This was the first of such document in Ghana. Presently, there is no known research on the impact the sector and district monitoring and evaluation plans have had on policy monitoring and evaluation in Ghana. The annual progress reports that are presently being generated by the PPMEDs only report on outputs of policies and not the outcomes.

The Role of PPMEDs in the Ghanaian Public Sector

PPMEDs were officially established within all MDAs in the year 2003, when the GPRS I was officially launched as a policy document as per Articles 86 and 87 of the 1992 Constitution. The PPMEDs are normally responsible for program articulation as well as the monitoring and evaluation of various programs. All policy objectives and their indicators are typically carved from the national policy document that sits with the NDPC. The PPMEDs usually report back to the NDPC through annual progress reports (www.ndpc.gov.gh). All policy gaps are always discussed between the responsible MDAs and the NDPC. To date, there is no known research on how PPMEDs have

impacted policy direction in Ghana. Kpessa (2011) argued that public policy formulation and implementation in Ghana will assume a more participatory approach when PPMEDs adopt a consultative approach by engaging citizenry in the crafting of public policies.

Public Participation in Public Policy Formulation in Ghana

Simon (1992) explained public policy making to be "setting goals, finding or designing a suitable course of action, evaluating and choosing among alternative actions." Public policy making in Ghana from the colonial days up until 1992 was centralized (Armstrong, 1996). Bureaucrats in Ghana over the years saw public policy formulation as an elite deliberation designed to help the marginalized, underprivileged, and the poor in society (Asamoah & Nortey 1987; Juma & Clark 1995; Kpessa 2011; Omanboe 1996).

This approach to public policy formulation, which was only reserved for the elite in Ghana, was evident because prior to the institutionalization of democracy in 1993, various military governments did not subject themselves to any form of performance appraisal or accountability either by CSOs or from ordinary citizens (Gyimah-Boadi, 2004). Kpessa (2011) supported this assertion by Gyimah-Boadi (2004) on the issue of lack of participation by CSOs and citizens' participation in all discourse leading to the crafting of public policies in Ghana.

Public policy formulation and implementation in Ghana assumed a more participatory approach during the return to democratic rule in 1993. CSOs, political parties, think tanks, ordinary citizens, and traditional authorities felt the need to participate in most policy dialogs in Ghana. Ackerman and Fishkin (2004), Kpessa (2011), and Peters and Pierre (2000), all supported the suggestion that policy formulation

and implementation results are best achieved when there is a concerted effort to involve all state actors in policy issues. They argue that citizens feel a sense of belonging and work towards achieving public policy objectives when they or their representatives are involved in the conceptualization, formulation, and implementation of public policies.

Kpessa (2011), Cohen and Sabel (1997), Pierre (1998), expounded the rationale for moving from a closed track officious way of policy formulation to a more participatory approach. Whitfield (2010) supported the assertion by Kpessa when he argued that all policies in Ghana that achieved greater impact had been subjected to the views and suggestions of CSOs and ordinary citizens. Findings by Bardhan (2002) and Pierre (1989) suggest that there is the tendency for the rich and affluent in society to dominate policy formulation decisions to the detriment of the weak and vulnerable. They argue that minimizing this will require a concerted effort to include the vulnerable and deprived in society as well as CSOs that represent significantly vulnerable interest groups.

Kpessa (2011), supported by Berry (1994), argued that the closed-circuit nature of policy making in Ghana was hinged on four main factors. First, it was the policy of the Ghanaian colonial administration not to entertain public participation in any policy dialog. Second, after independence, the elite in the Ghanaian society believed that because they were acting on behalf of ordinary citizens, they had the mandate to make decisions on the public's behalf. Third, after independence, the Ghanaian Civil Service lacked the capacity to organize effective stakeholder engagement sessions to deliberate on policy issues in the country. As a result of the colonial hangover, the Ghanaian state

assumed a dictatorial posture that did not allow active civil society participation in all policy related decisions.

Policy making in Ghana has moved from a bureaucratic approach, where policy making was only concentrated among the political elite, to a more participatory and deliberative approach, where CSOs and citizens play an active role (Kpessa, 2011). The paradigm shifts in policy-making in Ghana were a result of a concerted effort by the Ghananian government and recommendations from World Bank and other CSOs to adopt a bottom-up approach to policy making in 2003 (Werlin, 2003). Ohemeng (2005) explained that the change in approach to policymaking, where civil society plays an active role, has contributed to improved policy conceptualization and planning. Implementation of policies has not been done according to plan mainly due to a lack of resources and personnel. Because of implementation challenges, policy gaps keep widening in Ghana. Various think tanks have, however, been petitioning the Ghanaian government to ensure the bridging of policy gaps.

The posture of the government and the recommendation of the World Bank led to the formation of various civil society organizations and think tanks like the Third World Network, the Centre for Policy Analysis, the Institute of Economic Affairs, the Center for Democratic Development, the Institute for Policy Alternatives, Africa Security Dialogue and Research, and the Integrated Social Development Centre (Ohemeng, 2005). Presently there are 43 think tanks in Ghana that are involved in various advocacy and public policy dialogs (Ohemeng, 2015). During the same period, avenues were opened for CSOs to voice out their contributions to the deliberation of policy issues through the establishment

of numerous electronic and print media (Kpessa, 2011). The NDPC, in collaboration with

various think tanks, has assisted government agencies in the implementation of policies

and programs contained in the GSGDA. The NDPC has, over the years, assisted various

institutions within the civil service to bridge policy gaps identified during policy

monitoring and evaluation.

The Role of the NDPC in PPME in Ghana

The NDPC is the primary constitutional body charged with PPME in Ghana. Its

core mandate is to advise the executive and the legislature on PPME as well as a strategy

for the implementation of all planned programs. The NDPC came into being as a

constitutional institution and was created by Article 86s and 87 of the 1992 Constitution

and was established by NDPC Act (Act 479). The commission also coordinates and

regulates the decentralized national planning system with the NDPC Planning System

Act 1994 (Act 480).

The NDPC, over the years, has championed the development of various policy

documents including Vision 2020, the GPRS I, the GPRS II, the GSGDA, the medium-

term development framework, and the district monitoring and evaluation plans among

others (www.ndpc.gov.gh)

Even though the NDPC is perceived to have contributed immensely to the

development of almost all public policies and programs, including the monitoring and

evaluation of such policies, there is no empirical evidence to support the extent to which

the NDPC has contributed to the socioeconomic development of Ghana. Even though

CSOs have, in the past, complemented the effort in evaluating various programs by the

NDPC, substantial progress is yet to be made in the area of PPME in Ghana (Gildemyn, 2014).

Performance of Public Sector Institutions in Ghana

The public sector includes all human and material resources marshaled by the state to keep the business of governance running (Boachie-Danquah, 2003). Boachie-Danquah (2003) categorized the Ghanaian public sector into three groups: the central management agencies, the strategic management agencies, and the state owned enterprises. Central management agencies are the public institutions responsible for PPME including human and material resource planning (Ohemeng, 2009). These central management agencies, which include the NDPC, the Electoral Commission, and the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice, have kept the wheel of governance in Ghana moving in the area of PPME. Subverted agencies like the MDAs play a critical role in policy implementation while the state does business through the state-owned enterprises. However, in the past two decades, the number of state-owned enterprises has reduced from 324 to 80, signifying Ghana's disinterest in keeping a large number on its books (Conteh & Ohemeng, 2007; Ohemeng, 2009).

Ghana introduced the performance management system for public institutions during the era of the ERP, and this was meant to address the shortfall in the performance of public sector institutions (Hutchful, 2002). The performance of the public institution, which is based on the individual and institutional level, is centrally coordinated by the OHCS (Ohemeng, 2009). The principal evaluation tool for the performance at the institutional level shifted from inputs to outputs while, at the individual level,

performance management systems were put in place for managers (Ohemeng, 2009). The drawback against the institutional performance evaluation was that the system focused on outputs instead of outcomes (Gyimah-Boadi, 2004).

Since the introduction of the performance management system in the public service, not much has been achieved in terms of performance improvement of public sector institutions (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Ohemeng, 2009; Owusu, 2006). The absence of a qualitative evaluation system for public sector institutions in Ghana makes it very difficult to assess the performance of public sector institutions and how they contribute to the implementation of overall national policy objectives (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Ohemeng, 2009; Owusu, 2006). Even though the performance management system has considerably improved the policy making process and evaluation of such policies, it leaves much to be desired (Ohemeng, 2009).

There is the need to adequately reward performance and sanction non-performers in every performance management system (Heinrich, 2003). This is because not having a reward and punitive system in place for performers and non-performers defeats the purpose of any performance management system (Pritchard & Diazgranados, 2008). The present system in Ghana, where the chief directors who are the chief technocrats in public institutions do not have the power to discipline errant employees, defeats the whole purpose of the existing performance management system within the Ghanaian public sector (Ohemeng, 2009). Ohemeng (2009) explained that even when performance contracts are signed, there are no follow-ups to assess actual performance, and results are also not analyzed to enable improvements to be carried out in the system. Gyimah-Boadi

(2009) argues that the performance of public sector institutions in Ghana generally

reflects the state of governance in Ghana and to a larger extent, the state of public policy

in Ghana.

Governance in Ghana

Governance can be defined as the means through which individuals and

institutions of the state are given the authority to enforce a set of rules and regulations

that seek to manage and control resources of the state and the use of those resources to

better the lives of citizens. Governance is also defined as self-organizing, inter-

organizational networks characterized by interdependence, resource exchange, rules of

the game, and significant autonomy from the state (Rhodes, 1997). Governance is the

medium through which public policies are implemented. The practice and scope of

governance is not limited to the type of governance usually practiced, being democratic

or autocratic. Institutional governance has transcended beyond the type of governance

over the years and in various jurisdictions across the world. Most institutions that existed

under authoritarian regimes still exist under various democratic governments. The civil

service in Ghana, for instance, existed since the 1920s and has survived various colonial

and military governments. The practice of governance is therefore not limited to the type

of government but relates more to the implementation of rules and regulations that seek

to enhance the well-being of citizens in general. Effective policy implementation,

characterized by the application of general rules of society, inure to the benefit of

citizens. Effective public policy implementation requires effective governance and not

necessarily an enlarged government. Rhodes (1997) defined governance in the context of

public administration and public policy. Effective policy coordination and implementation largely depend on effective governance (Kjaer, 2004). McFerson (2009) explained that the issue of governance has more to do with the quality of processes leading to the attainment of a particular outcome than the outcome of a process.

Just after independence, Ghana's governance system witnessed turbulent times with a rampant unconstitutional change of governments until 1992 when the fourth republican constitution came into effect (Agyeman-Duah, 2008). Ghana's governance system has largely been stable and is considered to be one of the most stable democracies in Africa (Gyimah-Boadi, 2009). The 1992 Constitution of Ghana has empowered all the critical governance institutions to be independent and autonomous. The independence of governance institutions is to ensure that the state does not directly interfere with certain aspects of democratic governance that is at the core of entire governance in Ghana. Two of such critical governance institutions that are independent and not subjected to the control of the executive, legislature, or judiciary are the Electoral Commission and the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice. Debrah (2011) measures the success of these governance institutions by the level of transparency, the degree of autonomy, and the extent to which these organizations adhere to the rules of the game. The WGIs, compiled by the World Bank, provide comprehensive indices on governance in over 200 countries including Ghana.

Worldwide Governance Indicators

The WGIS are, by far, the most comprehensive survey of governance worldwide (www.govindicators.org). The WGIs developed a perception of governance based on six

main sub-components (Kjaer ,2004). The WGIs, according to Kjaer (2004), were based on rules that shape civil society, political society, government, bureaucracy, economic society, and conflict resolution. These rules are consistent with the six governance indicators developed by the World Bank.

The WGIs identify six key indicators used to measure governance worldwide (www.worldbank.org). These six indicators are voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. The WGIs currently cover 221 countries and territories and are reliant on 35 different data sources, reflecting the expert opinion and sentiments of over thousands of participants and experts (McFerson, 2009).

The WGIs primarily measure the quality of governance in surveyed countries. While McFerson (2009) generally agreed that the WGIs are a general reflection of the state of governance worldwide, Devarajan (2009) was of the opinion that the WGIs cannot be the ultimate measure of governance. Furthermore, Devarajan believed that there is no correlation between good governance and economic success and cites the example of Bangladesh where strong economic success in between 2000 and 2010 was accompanied by persistent corruption, lack of accountability, absence of the rule of law, and the absence of an effective governance system. McFerson, however, believed that Devarajan's criticism of the WGIs is an exception and unjustified. McFerson cited the example of Chile and Tunisia, where strong economic growth took place under oppressive and authoritarian regimes during the 1970s and 1980s, respectively. Table 1 shows the WGIs.

Table 1

Worldwide Governance Indicators - Country Data Report for Ghana

	Governance Indicator					
Year	Voice and accountability	Political stability	Government effectiveness	Regulatory quality	Rule of law	Control of corruption
1996	-0.34	-0.32	-0.11	-0.38	-0.34	-0.22
1998	-0.36	-0.24	-0.14	-0.25	-0.44	-0.17
2000	-0.08	-0.44	0.02	-0.1	0.09	-0.07
2002	-0.06	-0.24	0.13	-0.47	-0.03	-0.29
2003	0.28	-0.02	-0.19	-0.28	0	-0.24
2004	0.15	0.01	-0.16	-0.35	-0.15	-0.22
2005	0.24	0.18	-0.16	-0.11	0.63	-0.36
2006	0.37	0.02	0.11	-0.08	0	-0.02
2007	0.46	-0.06	0.08	-0.06	-0.01	0.05
2008	0.38	-0.01	0.02	-0.04	-0.11	-0.04
2009	0.49	0.04	-0.04	0.09	-0.08	0.03
2010	0.49	0.02	-0.04	0.12	-0.06	0.06
2011	0.46	0.16	-0.05	0.13	-0.04	0.05
2012	0.4	0.11	-0.07	0.61	-0.03	-0.1
2013	0.41	0.03	0.09	0.08	0.11	-0.07
2014	0.47	-0.13	-0.29	-0.01	0.02	-0.22
2015	0.51	0.03	-0.26	-0.03	0.12	-0.18

Note. From the Worldwide Governance Indicators Country Report for Ghana 1996–2015.

The governance score ranges from -2.5, representing a weak governance system, to 2.5, representing strong governance performance. The year-on-year indicators are a reflection of statistical compilation from 35 different data sources and are a representation of survey results from experts, citizens, think tanks, non-governmental organizations, and international organizations (www.govindicators.org). The table shows governance indicators based on voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, the rule of law, and control of corruption spanning from 1996 to 2013.

Voice and Accountability

The WGIs explain voice and accountability to be the degree to which a country's citizens can participate in the governance process as well as the process leading to the selection of their preferred government. McFerson (2009) further explains that the voice and accountability indicator also includes a measure of freedom of expression, the extent to which civil societies can hold government accountable as well as media freedom. Figure 1 shows the trend in voice and accountability governance indicator in Ghana spanning from 1996 to 2015.
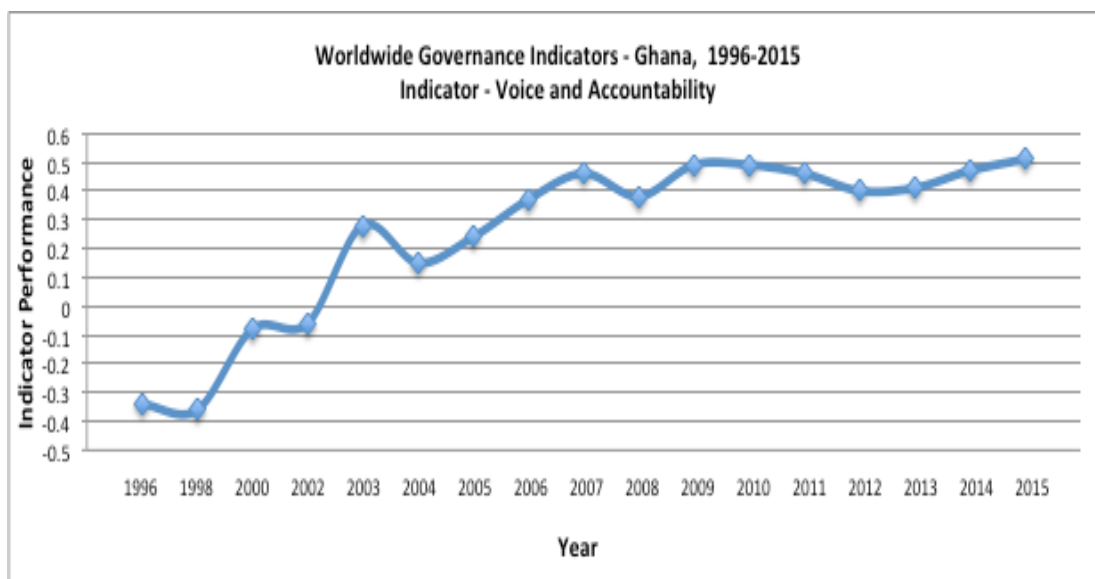
Figure 1. Voice and accountability governance indicator: Data source - Table 1.

From a low point of -0.36 in the year 1998 to an appreciable performance of 0.51 in 2015, the trend shows how Ghana has consistently seen an improvement over the years in the extent to which citizens can participate in the democratic process and media freedom as well as freedom of expression. Ghana has moved up in ranking on voice and

accountability from a low percentile rank of 39.4 in 1996 to an appreciable percentile

rank of 60.7 in 2015

Political Stability

The WGIs explain political stability to be the extent to which the political

environment in a country is stable. This takes into account the possibility that

governments will not be destabilized by any undue process or violent means or terrorism

(McFerson, 2009). This is primarily driven by the extent to which the democratic process

in a country is strictly adhered to and the likelihood of terrorism playing a role in

destabilizing any government. Figure 2 shows the trend in political stability and the

absence of violence governance indicator in Ghana spanning from 1996 to 2015.
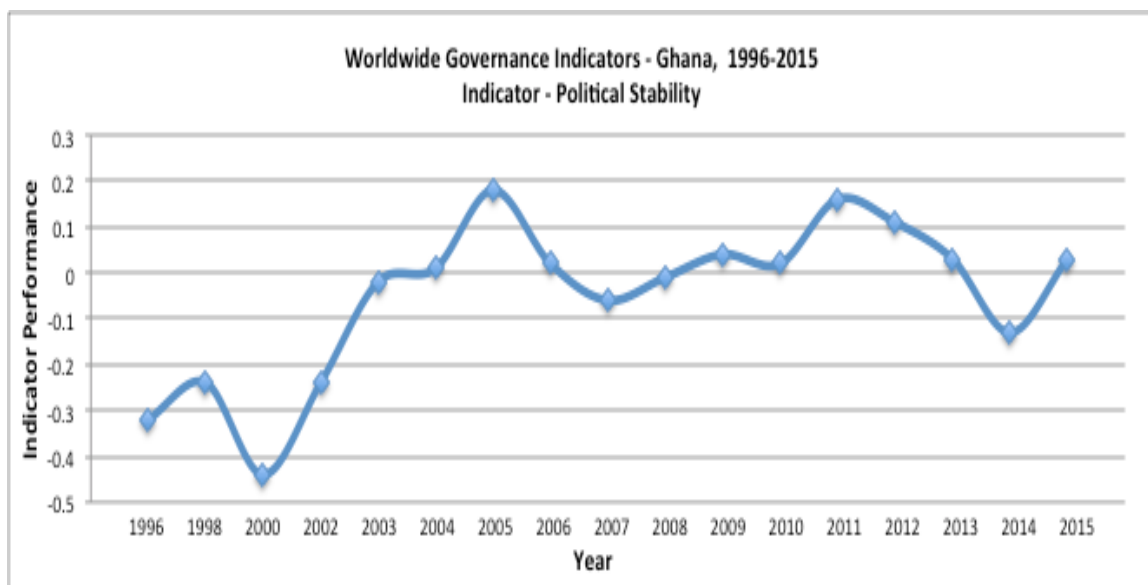
Figure 2. Political stability governance indicator: Data source - Table 1.

From a low point of -0.32 in the year 1996, the trend shows that even though

Ghana has made significant strides in its political stability, the gains over the years have

been inconsistent. Ghana's rank on this governance indicator in 1996 was 36.6. There was

a significant rise in rank for this indicator in 2005 to 52.9, but it then dipped in 2015 to a level of 47.4. This shows how relatively unstable Ghana's political environment has been.

Government Effectiveness

The WGIs explain government effectiveness to include the extent to which the public service can deliver efficient service to the citizenry and the degree to which the civil service is independent of political interference. Governance effectiveness also captures the extent to which the public service can formulate and implement policies and the extent to which policy credibility is affected by the policy implementation process. Figure 3 shows the trend in governance effectiveness in Ghana spanning from 1996 to 2015.
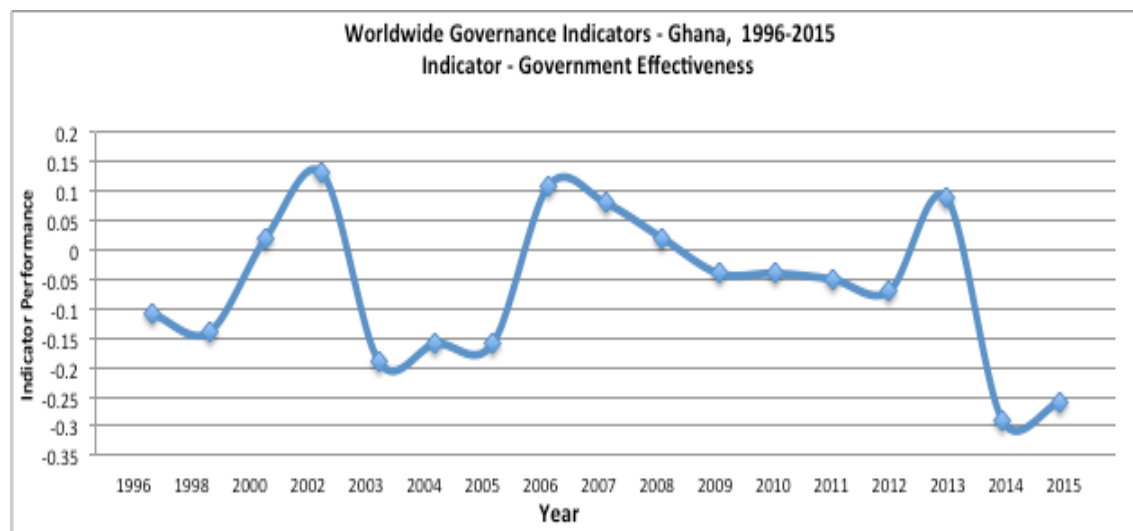
Figure 3. Government effectiveness governance indicator: Data source - Table 1.

The trend of the government effectiveness governance indicator shows that policy credibility, as well as independence of the civil and public service, has suffered a great deal during the past decade in Ghana. The ranking trend also shows that not much improvement has been attained in the past two decades. Ghana's governance ranking was

53.2 in 1996 and 56.7 in 2015. Even though some strides have been made in the actual

government effectiveness indicator, not much has been attained in the overall ranking.

Regulatory Quality

The WGIs explain regulatory quality to include the ability of government and

government institutions to formulate and implement policies that seek to enhance the

development of the private sector. Regulatory quality also assesses the extent to which

policies and programs relating to trade, taxes, tariffs, investments, and other regulatory

issues are managed by a country. Figure 4 shows the trend with regards to regulatory

quality in Ghana spanning from 1996 to 2015.
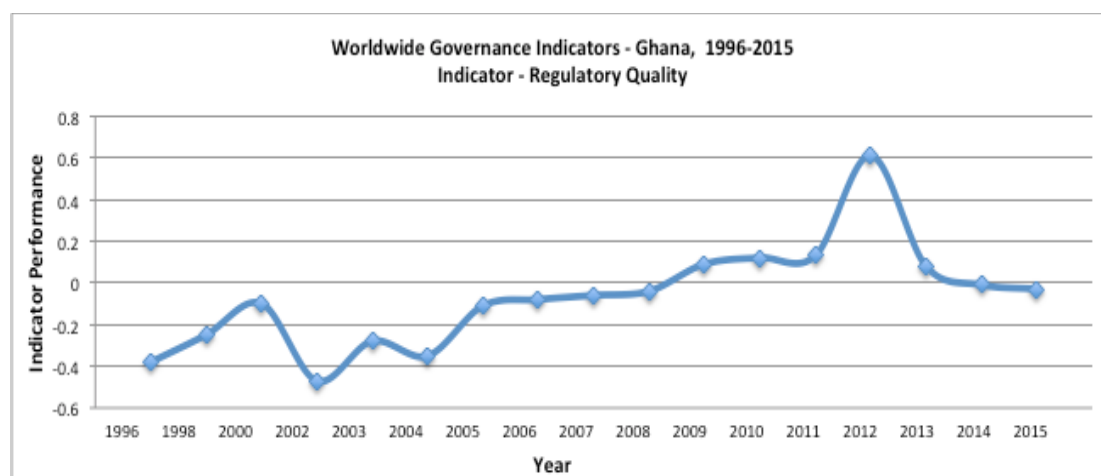
Figure 4. Regulatory quality governance indicator: Data source - Table 1.

The gains made in regulatory quality since 1996 through the year 2015 have not

been consistent. The year 2012 realized the best performance during the period under

review. The country also achieved its highest rank in terms of regulatory quality when it

obtained a rank of 56.0. This is reflective in the World Bank's ongoing business report

data for Ghana (www.doingbusiness.org).

Rule of Law

The WGIs explain rule of law to include the perception of the degree to which law enforcement officers and agents of the states, as well as citizens, have confidence in the legal and regulatory system as well as the extent to which these institutions and individuals abide by the general rules of society as well as the quality of contract enforcements, property rights, police, and the courts including the likelihood of crime and violence. Figure 5 shows the trend in the rule of law in Ghana spanning from 1996 2015.

Figure 5. Rule of law governance indicator: Data source - Table 1.

With the exception of 2005, where the country realized its best performance, as well as 2000 and 2015, Ghana recorded marginal gains in the rule of law indicator.

Control of Corruption

The WGIs explain control of corruption to include perceptions of the extent to which public power is unduly used for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as "capture" of the state activities and interests by elites in society

for their private and personal interests. Figure 6 shows the trend in corruption perception in Ghana from 1996 to 2015. Corruption has been a debilitating issue in Ghana since 1957.
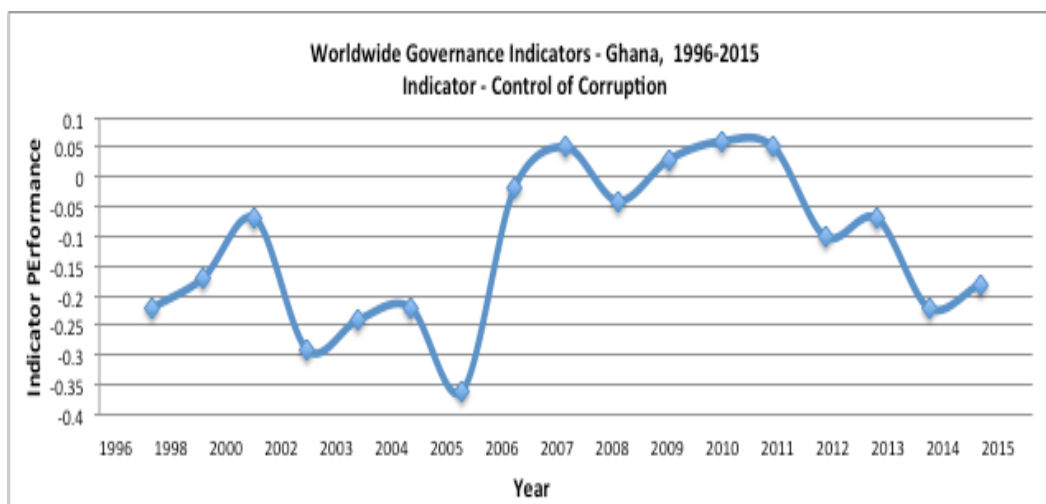
Figure 6. Control of corruption governance indicator: Data source - Table1.

The negative and inconsistent pattern shows how Ghana is battling to control corruption in the public and civil service. Abdulai (2009) attributed the negative trend in the control of corruption in Ghana to the lack of political will in combating corruption. Williams and Doig (2004), Kpundeh (1998), Brinkerhoff (2000) and Abdulai (2009) identified political will as an essential ingredient in the fight against corruption. The "zero tolerance" for corruption policy declared by President Kuffour in 2000 was a mere rhetoric since the government at the time lacked the political will to tackle the extensive corruption among public officials (Agyeman-Duah, 2003). No institutional reforms were undertaken between 2001 and 2008 to deal with corruption in Ghana (Asibou, 2008). This accounts for the downward trend in the fight against corruption as shown in the negative trend in Figure 6.

Corruption Within the Ghanaian Public Sector

Because of the lack of political will in combating corruption within the public

sector, Ghana has, to a larger extent, failed in its attempt to fight corruption within the

public and civil service (Abdulai, 2009). Even though Abdulai (2009) attributed Ghana's

failure in fighting corruption to its low per capita income, land size, and the size of its

population in addition to lack of political will. Kpundeh (1998) and Brinkerhoff (2000)

attributed the failure in the fight against corruption solely to a lack of political will.

Abdulai (2009) defined political will as "sincerity of a government's pledge to control

corruption both by words and by deeds." Abdulai explained that irrespective of anti-

corruption strategies, anti-corruption reforms, and the establishment of anti-corruption

bodies, Ghana's fight against corruption within the public and civil service is bound to

fail if political leaders and government officials lack the political will to control

corruption. Abdulai (2009) explained that when political elite fail to investigate

corruption or allegations of corruption amongst bureaucrats and politicians, civil and

public servants are encouraged and emboldened to follow suit.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was Ostrom's (2007) IAD framework.

The IAD framework was promulgated in 1982 when Kiser and Ostrom assessed the

impact of institutional arrangement on human behavior. The IAD framework primarily

focuses on the study of governmental institutions, their role in rule creation, and the

effect that these institutions and practices have on policy outcomes.

Nowlin (2011) used the IAD framework to analyze the rules that relate to policy making and implementation by governmental institutions. This is consistent with this current study of analyzing the effect that governmental institutions have on policy gaps. Schlager and Heikkila (2009) used the IAD framework in their study of multiple policy-making institutions and the effect that governance institutions have on the various governance indicators. Similarly, Hardy and Koontz (2009) used the IAD framework to assess the impact of institutional performance on policy outcomes.

By analyzing institutional performance and relating it to the performance of public policy in Ghana, the IAD approach has provided details on the effect that government agencies and citizens have on policy outcomes as explained in Figure 7.

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┌─────────────────┐
│ Physical World  │
└─────────────────┘
                                                        ┌──────────────┐
┌─────────────────┐     ┌──────────┐     ┌──────────┐   │  Evaluation  │
│   Community     │────▶│  Action  │────▶│ Patterns │   │   Criteria   │
└─────────────────┘     │  Arena   │     │    of    │   └──────────────┘
                        │  Actors  │     │Interactions│
┌─────────────────┐     └──────────┘     └──────────┘
│   Rules-in-use  │                       ┌──────────┐
└─────────────────┘                       │ Outcomes │
                                          └──────────┘
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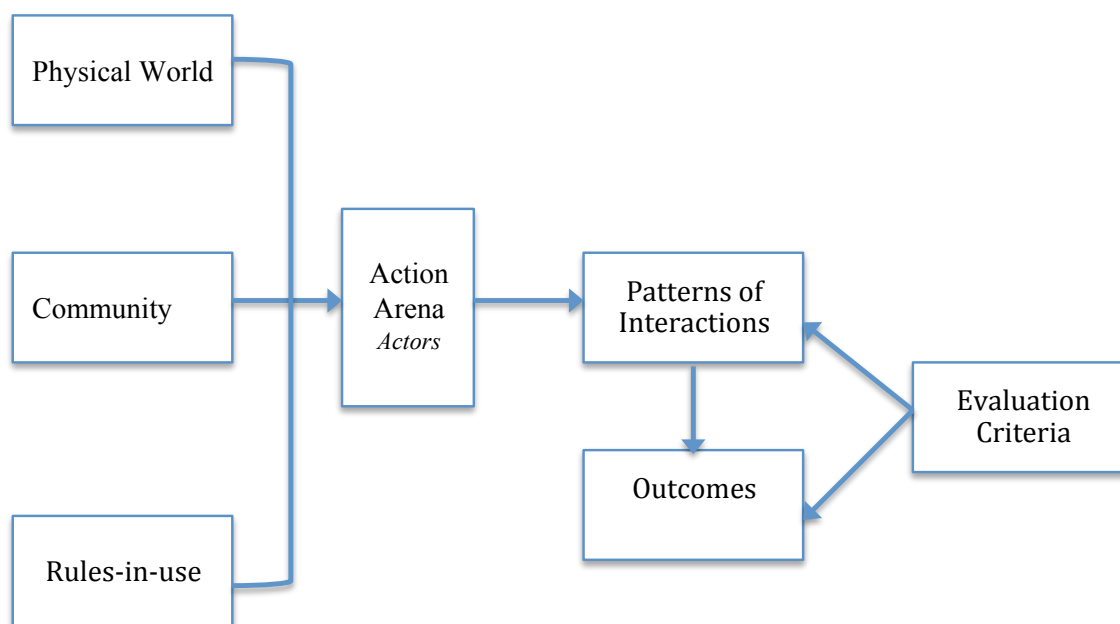
Figure 7 . The institutional analysis and development framework**.**

The IAD framework is driven by a series of integrated steps and processes that is aimed at defining policy issues and applying the IAD framework to those issues to

resolve any policy problem that may be identified. The seven steps involved in applying the IAD framework as explained by Ostrom, Gardner, and Walker (1994) are as follows:

- Definition of policy objective and analysis approach – This framework can be used as a diagnostic tool to ascertain policy issues that need attention by revising policy objectives and evaluating outcomes and institution control measures that will select the most important outcome.

- Analyse physical and material conditions – This involves analysing all resources, both physical and human capabilities that are involved in production of goods and services. Since these conditions have an impact on policy design and implementation, assessing the conditions will help the policy making process result-oriented.

- Analyse community attributes – This involves analysing community characteristics and demographics in terms of values, norms, beliefs, and dispositions about policy-oriented strategies and outcomes. Analysing community attributes will help place policy decisions within the proper context, thereby ensuring that expected outcomes are achieved.

- Analyse rules-in-use – The rules-in-use connotes the minimum set of rules that are normally used to explain policy-related actions, interactions, and outcomes. There are seven types of rules that can be considered when analysing the rules-in-use: position rules, boundary rules, authority rules, aggregation rules, scope rules, information rules, and payoff rules.

- Integrate the analysis – Integrating the analysis involves assessing the action arena and integrating the results of the analysis of the physical and material world as well as the community and the rules-in-use.

- Analyse pattern of interaction – Pattern of interactions refers to the analysis of the structure of economic and political participation by actors in the action arena by analysing the pattern of logical information flow from the actors in the action arena. Analysing pattern of interaction aids in predicting possible policy outcome.

- Analyse outcomes - Analysing outcomes involves assessing the performance of the policy system that has been put in place to address a perceived or real problem. The primary way of analysing policy outcomes is by comparing existing baseline information at the policy definition stage of the IAD framework and comparing it to the end results. Comparing other policy alternatives comes into play when expected results do not match original policy intentions.

Summary

The literature review highlighted the state of governance and public policy in Ghana. Given the current state of governance and public policy, there is an emerging need to bridge the gap between policy intention and policy outcome. The literature review highlighted the fact that bridging the gap between policy intention and policy outcome can succeed when governance institutions responsible for policy implementation are well resourced and dedicated to performing their responsibilities. The civil service carries out policy implementation formulation, implementation, and evaluation. The performance of the civil service to a larger extent determines the nature of policy gaps.

A significant part of the work reviewed focused on the state of public policy in Ghana as well as the performance of governmental institutions responsible for policy implementation. As a result of the extensive review, it is now clear that the Ghanaian Civil Service still requires significant reforms and an injection of capability to take it to the state where it will be the most reliable governmental institution that will be responsible for policy and governance evaluation in Ghana. As a result of this scholarly research, the role that the civil service plays in formulating and implementing public policy is now known. Also, the current state of governance in Ghana, including the performance of government in governing Ghana, is now known. However, little attention has been paid to the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana. To fill the gap in knowledge in this area, I examined the relationship between policy gaps and various governance indicators. I conducted a quantitative analysis of empirical data that was collected from the population of civil servants in Ghana as well as the world governance indicators. In Chapter 3, I discuss the methodology and research design as well as the dependent and independent variables. I also discuss the sample and sampling technique used. Finally, I discuss the reliability and validity of the scales used in collecting data as well as the characteristics of unit of analysis.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

In this study, I examined the effect of all key governance indicators, voice and accountability, political stability, rule of law, control of corruption, regulatory quality, and governance effectiveness, on policy gaps in Ghana. In this chapter, I discuss in detail the methodology, research design, rationale for research design, data gathering approach, population, sampling technique, analysis method, and validity. I also discuss the role of participants in the study, survey instrumentation, reliability, the ability to generalize, and ethical procedures. Finally, I discuss the assumptions underlying this study and the impact on the results.

Methodology

Research methodology is a procedural system that provides a systematic way of conducting research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) enumerated three critical roles that methodology plays in research. First, research methodology provides a means of facilitating communication between researchers. Secondly, research methodology provides a rule for reasoning, thereby ensuring that there are systematic guidelines and structures and logical ways of drawing inferences. Finally, Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias explained that methodology provides acceptable criteria for determining and choosing various techniques for validating findings in research. In this study, I used a quantitative methodology approach in establishing the relationship between the variables.

Research Design

The strategy of inquiry provides a specific direction on how research is conducted (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). In this quantitative empirical study, I employed a nonexperimental research design to aid in answering the research questions. The survey design was used to conduct a quantitative analysis of six independent variables, which are voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. The dependent variable is policy gaps.

Survey research provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, and opinions of a population through the study of samples that represent a population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). A survey is very imperative in social science research because of the ability of the researcher to collect numerous data on different subjects (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Survey design helps in generalizing the results achieved from a sample of a particular population by attributing the results obtained from the sample to the actual population (Babbie, 1990). The use of the survey can help to describe the nature of the population better and also aids in achieving reliable answers to the same set of questions by all respondents (Janes, 2001).

Erişen, Erişen, and Özkeçeci-Taner (2013) argued that much of what is known in social science today is a result of survey methodology being employed by researchers. Survey research, when done properly with an adequate representative sample, can form a reliable opinion about an entire population (Erişen et al., 2013). A survey is a reliable way of measuring public opinion across various social science disciplines. Floyd and

Fowler (2013) explained that the main aim of survey research design is to first identify

and then minimize the error in data collection and measure the effect of the error on the

survey. Floyd and Fowler and Erişen et al. identified two types of errors in a survey:

errors associated with who answers the research questions and an error associated with

the answers.

Errors associated with who answers the research questions relate to the extent to

which the sample selected mirrors the features of the entire population of study (Floyd &

Fowler, 2013). Erişen et al. (2013) agreed with Floyd and Fowler (2013), who attributed

the potential errors associated with who answers the research questions to failure to

assign the right weight to samples obtained from the population. Unit nonresponse error,

according to Erişen et al. and Floyd and Fowler, refers to the possibility that not everyone

in the sample may be responsive to the research. Thus, a failure to collect answers from

all respondents may lead to skewed responses (Floyd & Fowler, 2013).

The second error associated with a survey is a measurement error (Erişen et al.,

2013) or as Floyd and Fowler (2013) put it, an error related to answers. There is the need

to guard against measuring that does not correspond to the truth (Floyd & Fowler, 2013).

To avoid errors associated with answers, Floyd and Fowler explained that there is the

need first to understand what is being measured and then categorize it appropriately in a

subjective and objective way. This categorization will enable the researcher to determine

the errors in answers given by researchers.

A survey design was employed in this study because it had the ability to

quantitatively analyze psychometric data relating to policy and governance. The WGIs

were constructed based on an expert survey (www.govindicators.org), and this was consistent with the primary objective of this research in determining the relationship between governance and policy gaps. Almost all research in the area of public policy has used a survey research design (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). The use of a survey helped in understanding the attitudes, behaviors, trends, and opinions of the population by scientifically studying a sample of the population (Creswell, 2007). Finally, the survey design helped in understanding the relationship between the variables by employing the multiple linear regression analytical tool.

Data from the survey, besides being preferable to other data sources, can meet the data requirement that is not available elsewhere (Floyd & Fowler, 2009). Floyd and Fowler (2013) further explained that surveys can achieve three key results provided a proper study is done. First, using probability sampling increases the level of confidence and accuracy in data gathering. Second, a standardized means of measurement presents an avenue for consistency across all answers provided by participants of the survey. Lastly, Floyd and Fowler explained that a special purpose survey helps to ensure that accurate data needed for a particular type of analysis are available.

Survey methodology is also used in various policy and governance-related research. Debrah (2011) used a survey to measure the success of the governance institution, notably the electoral commission of Ghana from 1993 to 2008. Fiankor and Akussah (2012) used a survey to gather psychometric data, which assisted in investigating the impact of policy decisions at the local governance level in Ghana.

The alternative research method that was considered for this research was mixed method research methodology. There are numerous reasons why I did not use a mixed research method for this study. Firstly, the quantitative research method is an ideal research strategy when examining the relationship between two or more variables. Secondly, both the independent and dependent variables can be analyzed quantitatively. Furthermore, the data analysis and validation procedure in this study was accomplished through the use of multiple linear regressions, and this is consistent with the quantitative method of inquiry. Finally, the survey research design that is ideal in the field of policy and governance research is not consistent with the mixed method strategy (Floyd & Fowler, 2013).

Survey Population

The population of this survey was the entire civil service of Ghana. The civil service of Ghana is made up of the whole machinery of governance within the presidency and MDAs. The civil service is the administrative organ responsible for implementing all policies and programs of government. The civil service exercises the oversight responsibility of MDAs including public services agencies as well as the Office of the President. Due to the required neutral nature of the Ghanaian Civil Service, successive governments have found it expedient to implement all national policies and programs through the civil service. The machinery of governance runs on the wheels of the civil service.

The Ghanaian Civil Service is made up of 25 sector ministries, four extra-ministerial organizations under the Office of Government Machinery, and 26

departments. The Civil Service Act 1993 (PNDC Law 327) regulates the Ghanaian Civil Service. All public policies in Ghana are initiated, implemented, and evaluated by the civil service.

Without the existence of the civil services, the wheels of governance will grind to a halt, thereby disrupting program and policy implementation. Potential research participants from the list of civil service are the staff of the PPMEDs of all the MDAs. The staff of the civil service is responsible for policy formulation, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation, and control of all policies of the government. Other potential participants were the ministers and chief directors, the staff of the NDPC, the staff of the OHCS, and the presidency. The choice of these institutions and participants is because these individuals within these organizations are directly responsible for translating and transforming public policy intentions into outputs and outcomes and because this choice is consistent with the IAD framework.

Scope of Research and Characteristics of Unit of Analysis

The Civil Service Act 1993 (PNDC Law 327) regulates the Ghanaian Civil Service. The civil service was established by Article 190 of the 1992 Constitution through the Public Services Commission of Ghana. The Civil Service Act empowers the civil service to initiate and formulate various policy options, to implement and review public policies, and to monitor, coordinate, and evaluate planned public policies and programs. The civil service initiates policies and programs as enshrined in the Civil Service Act by an action plan document prepared from the GSGDA, the state of the nation address delivered by the president to the parliament, the Sector Medium-Term

Development Plan, and the budget statement. Each civil service organization sends quarterly, half-year, and annual reports to the NDPC for evaluation and variance analysis.

The literature review on the unit analysis indicated that the civil service had undergone a significant transformation in the past century in an attempt to make the civil service more efficient and effective in the implementation of public policies and programs. For example, the CSRP was aimed at eliminating constraints and bottlenecks in the civil service to enable it to be more responsible to the public policy needs of Ghana and also to deliver more efficient and reliable service.

As of December 2015, according to the OHCS, the total number of employees at the civil service was 15,636. Five thousand two hundred and forty-three of the total number of civil servants are employees of the 25 ministries and four extra-ministerial organizations under the Office of Government Machinery. Ten thousand three hundred and ninety-three of the total number of civil servants work in 26 government departments and agencies.

The civil service offers an enormous quantum of psychometric and policy data on the civil service including status reports on the implementation of various action plans derived from the GSGDA, the state of the nation address by the president to the parliament, the budget statement, and the Sector Medium-Term Development Plan. I obtained data of the entire 15, 636 employees of the civil service from the OHCS. The data were derived from a compilation of the annual reports of all the 25 ministerial organizations, four extra ministerial organizations, and 26 departments. The annual reports for all the 55 civil service institutions through the annual performance report

improved the chances of finding informed participants who would provide quality data to this inquiry.

The civil service was the ideal unit of analysis for three primary reasons. First, the Civil Service Act mandates the civil service to initiate and formulate policies, and this makes the civil service an ideal institution for policy gap analysis in Ghana. Secondly, all the 55 civil service institutions have PPMEDs that liaise strongly with the NDPC in analyzing and controlling policy gaps. Finally, it was more realistic and statistically easier to draw samples of civil servants from the target population of all 55 civil service institutions in Ghana.

Sampling

Sampling is a critical aspect of any meaningful research. It is neither practically possible nor prudent for a researcher to study an entire population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). It is, therefore, appropriate for every researcher to draw a sample frame from a whole population (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). Strategically drawing the sample frame from the entire population will ensure that each member of the population will stand an equal chance of being selected (Floyd & Fowler, 2013; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Having an adequate and quality sample frame requires a researcher to evaluate the sample for completeness, a probability of each sample standing a fair chance of participating in the study, and the efficiency of the sample frame (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). Each sample for this study, therefore, stood a fair chance of being selected. Furthermore, there was the need to ensure that each sample that was chosen qualified to be in the general population of study (Floyd & Fowler, 2013).

Choosing the sample size using the formation criteria offered each member of the population (civil servants) an equal chance of being selected. In this study, therefore, I employed a stratified sampling technique. The choice of stratified sampling ensured that each person who was employed by any of the 55 ministries and departments within the civil service as of December 2015 stood an equal chance of being selected. Stratifying in advance ensured that the sample had the same proportions in each class as the whole population. Once all the ministries and departments were put in two different strata, a simple random sampling was then used to select the required sample size. The first strata included the entire 25 ministerial organizations and four extra-ministerial organizations; for example, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education. The second strata included 26 departments and agencies; for example, the Department of Social Welfare and the Controller and Accountant General Department. See Appendix B for the entire list of MDAs.

The alternate sampling method that was considered for this study was cluster sampling. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) explained that cluster sampling is usually used in large-scale studies, and it normally involves large groupings and then applying a simple random or stratified sampling strategy to pick the sample frame. I chose to use stratified sampling because it enabled me to put each of the two groups in different strata before selecting the required sample size. Stratified sampling ensured that each member of the two groupings stood an equal chance of being selected despite the relatively small population.

I used G*Power analysis to determine the required sample size. G*Power analysis currently plays a significant role in statistical power analysis. I used G*Power analysis to determine the sample size because it helped in addressing concerns over the possibility of using an inadequate sample size or excessive sample size. Prajapati, Dunne, and Armstrong (2010) and Faul, Erdfeldes, and Buchner (2007) explained that using G*Power analysis helps in determining an appropriate sample size and guards against using an excessive sample size.

I obtained the required sample size of 1,200 participants out of a population of 15,636 by using six predictors for two groups, a small effect size of 0.02, an alpha level of 0.05, and a power of 0.97. I, therefore, recruited a total of 1,200 participants because of the large population size of 15,636. I placed the population in two different strata. The first strata consisted of 25 ministries and four extra-ministerial organizations; for example, the Ministry of Health and Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The second strata consisted of 26 departments and agencies; for example, the Department of Social Welfare and the Controller and Accountant General Department. See Appendix B for a full list of MDAs.

A sample size of 400 participants was drawn from the first strata that consisted of 5,234 civil servants from the 25 ministries and four extra-ministerial organizations. A second sample size of 800 participants was drawn from the second strata that consisted of 10,393 civil servants in the departments and agencies. Variation in the sample size of each stratum ensured that the two different strata were proportionately represented.

Figures 8 and 9 represent the G*Power distribution plot and G*Power statistical plot, respectively.
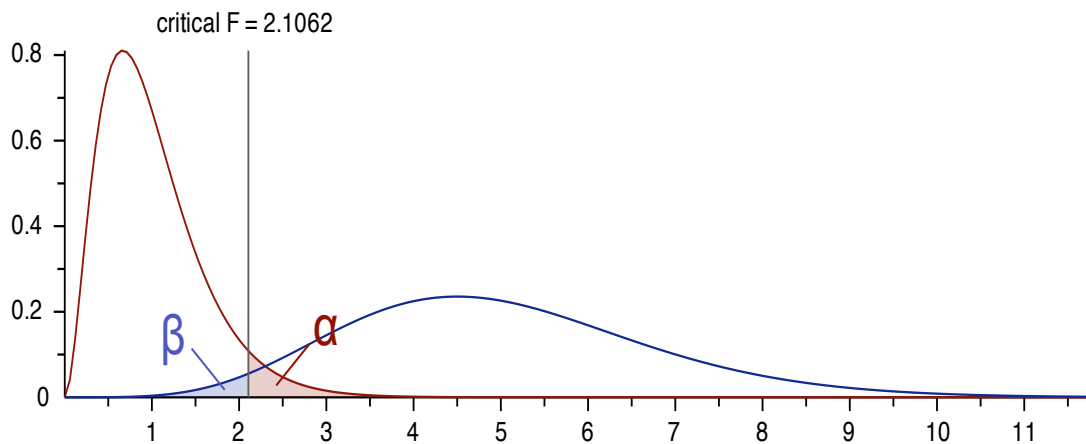
Figure 8. G*Power distribution plot.
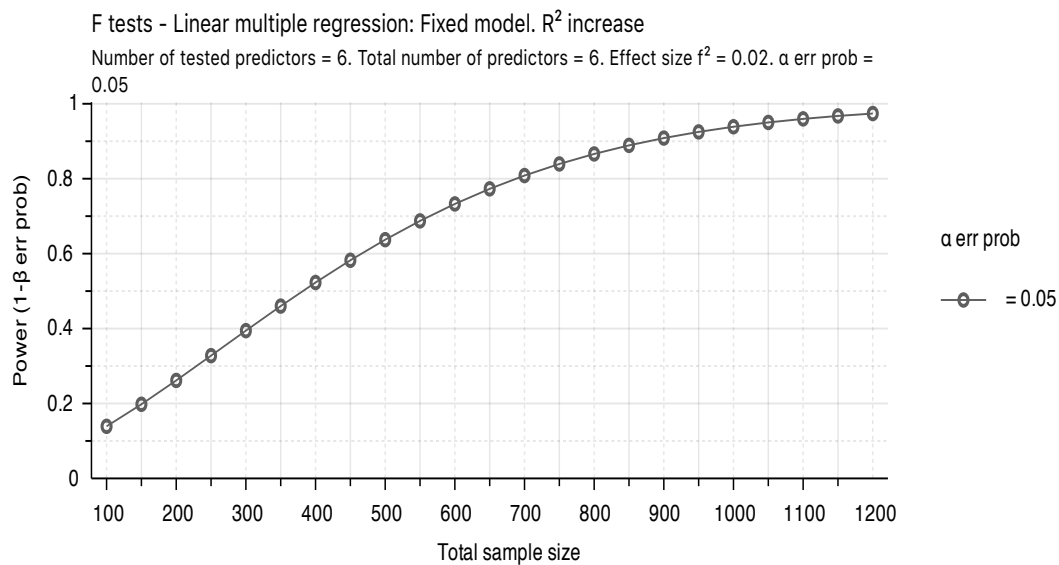
Figure 9. G*Power statistical power plot.

Method Used to Collect Data

In answering the research questions, data related to the dependent variable and six independent variables were collected using a web-based questionnaire distributed to participants drawn from the target population. I obtained the database of civil servants in Ghana from the OHCS. The sample size of 1,200 participants was drawn from the database of civil servants using the stratified sampling technique described earlier. I collected data from each of the two groups through the administration of a questionnaire using Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. Even though there were other online questionnaire tools like Survey Planet, Survey Gizmo, Google Forms and Zoho Survey, I chose to use Survey Monkey because it is easy to use, and it allows researchers to customize questionnaires. Survey Monkey also assists researchers in collecting responses in real-time and also offers various matrix options by which a questionnaire can be designed.

Data obtained from participants was analyzed using multiple linear regression. I chose multiple linear regression because it is an appropriate analytical tool used to explain the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and multiple dependent variables. I improved the validity and reliability of data through pretesting the research instrument by first piloting the study with eight participants. Pilot testing the web-based questionnaire helped check for structure, duplication, and errors (Naithani, 2012).

A web-based questionnaire has become a preferred means of delivering questionnaires and collecting psychometric and other related data over the past decade

(Naithani, 2012). A web-based questionnaire offers enormous benefits to researchers in the field of social and behavioral science research that include ease and rapidity in data collection and real-time collection of responses. A web-based questionnaire was the preferred means of collecting responses even though there were some problems associated with using a web-based questionnaire like respondents not having access to the Internet because of low Internet penetration in Ghana.

Corrections were effected based on the initial feedback of the pilot study before fully deploying the web-based questionnaire. Pilot testing the questionnaire aided in refining the research instrument and eliminated measurement errors associated with this research. I also relied on expert review feedback to improve reliability and internal validity. Reliability, which explains the degree of consistency of a measuring technique (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008), was improved by using guidelines described by George and Mallery (2003), where values > 0.9 are considered excellent. Values > 0.8 are considered to be very good reliability while values > 0.7 are considered to be good reliability. A reliability value of < 0.7 is deemed to be unacceptable.

Data quality of a web-based questionnaire is always a challenge (Naithani, 2012). The problems associated with a web-based questionnaire, which include coverage and accessibility bias, was improved by ensuring that there was enough coverage of all participants who were eligible to participate in the study. From the initial analysis of the psychometric data of all civil servants in Ghana, there was a possibility of coverage bias in the study as participants who are aged 60 years and above could have chosen not to be represented in this survey. Another challenge associated with a web-based questionnaire,

as noted by Floyd and Fowler (2014), is the fact that I could have chosen respondents who were not computer proficient as well as respondents who did not have access to the Internet. Where selected respondents lacked the capacity to use the Internet, I provided printed versions of the questionnaire through the OHCS.

Research Instrument and Operationalization of Constructs

A carefully designed web-based questionnaire was developed to enable the researcher to collect data on the independent and dependent variables. In developing the questionnaire, consideration was given to the need for the questions to be close-ended rather than open-ended because only objective answers were required (Floyd & Fowler, 2014). The length and wording of the questions were also kept at a reasonable minimum to help respondents better understand the questions (Floyd & Fowler, 2014). The questionnaire also guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity and the outcome of this research was shared with interested participants (Wansink et al. 2003). For clarity, the web-based questionnaire explained the survey procedure, reasons for the survey, and the objective and purpose of the survey as well as the benefits of the study. Additionally, the questionnaire guaranteed respondents confidentiality and the right of the respondent to discontinue the survey at any point if they so desired. Additionally, I disclosed how responses were utilized and any form of risk that is associated with the survey. Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) also subjected this research to the standard as set out in the University's guidelines on ethical research. Approval of the collected data for this study was obtained from the IRB on June 2, 2016. The IRB approval number was 06-02-16-0292936, and it expires on June 1, 2017.

I collected empirical data about one dependent variable and six independent variables through the development of 21 sets of questions. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to develop an appropriate measurement instrument for all the dependent and independent variables under investigation. A Likert scale was used to evaluate factors that affect policy gaps in Ghana. A Likert scale provides a means of measuring attitudes and opinions in a survey (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Likert scales are usually composed of five or six choice categories and are designed to solicit the responses from respondents (Armstrong, 2012; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

I grouped the survey questions into seven main categories with each category focusing on a civil servant's opinion toward the extent to which each of the independent variables affects the dependent variable. The first questions investigated the degree to which the voice and accountability governance indicator affects policy gaps in Ghana. The second questions investigated the extent to which the political stability governance indicator affects gaps in Ghana. The third questions investigated how the governance effectiveness governance indicator affects policy gaps in Ghana. The fourth questions investigated the extent to which the regulatory quality governance indicator affects policy gaps in Ghana. The fifth questions investigated how the rule of law governance indicator affects policy gaps in Ghana. Finally, the last questions investigated the extent to which the control of corruption governance indicator affects policy gaps in Ghana.

Operational Elucidation of Civil Servants

The literature review and preliminary interaction with the OHCS in Ghana categorized the civil service into three main categories. The first categories of civil servants are employees of the various machinery. The Office of Government Machinery consists of the Office of the President, the Council of State, the Scholarship Secretariat, the State Protocol Department and the Public Sector Reform Secretariat. The institutions under the Office of Government Machinery are responsible for providing overall institutional capacity and a proper enabling environment to enhance adequate and efficient service delivery to the entire civil and public service. The ministries consist of 25 different ministries.

All ministries are responsible for providing and implementing programs and policies as set forth by the government as per the 1992 Constitution. The third category of the civil service was the various departments that assist the ministries in the implementation of various government policies and programs. There was a total of 25 departments in the Ghanaian Civil Service as of December 2015.

All the three groups provided critical data for this study. Even though the NDCP is a key stakeholder in policy development and evaluation in Ghana, they were not part of this study because of the scope of this study.

Data Analysis Plan

The data analysis plan included reviewing all the variables and examining the six research questions. Multiple linear regression was used to establish the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables. Using multiple regressions

was appropriate because it was ideal for establishing a relationship between a dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). IBM SPSS Statistics software was used to conduct the multiple linear regression. Before performing the multiple linear regression, the data obtained from the survey was screened and checked for consistency and any probable missing data as well as any other inconsistent responses. Also, checks were conducted to ascertain if the data collected satisfied the statistical assumptions underlying multiple linear regression (Green & Salkind, 2011). There was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Statistical Assumption Underlying the Study

The statistical assumptions underlying multiple regression was studied and deemed fit for purpose. Because the set of predictors were ordered, much focus was given to a more limited number of relationships between the dependent variable and six independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). Additionally, because this study assumed a non-experimental status, the random effect model was more appropriate for this study. One of the fundamental assumptions underlying this study was that the variables were multivariately normally distributed in the population (Green and Salkind,2011). The second assumption underlying this statistical analysis was that the cases represented a random sample from the population, and the scores on variables were independent of other scores on the same variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). The implication of this assumption was that the F-test for regression analysis yielded inaccurate p values if this independent statistical assumption was violated (Green & Salkind, 2011)

Missing Data

Missing data in research arise as a result of errors associated with answers. Floyd and Fowler (2013) asserted that missing data could occur as a result of respondents misunderstanding the questions, not having enough information needed to respond to the questions, or respondents creating response options that are not provided by the researcher. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) associated missing data to nonresponse error and to the refusal of respondents to answer a particular category of questions, accidental skipping of questions, and respondents feeling uncomfortable in responding to a particular type of question.

Missing data could threaten the external validity of this research if not properly handled as this could cause a reduction in the overall sample size. The original plan was to use multiple imputations to deal with data sets that have missing responses (Rubin, 1987). The multiple imputations would have been conducted and the resultant outcome would have replaced any missing value. However, no missing data were recorded in the responses.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Does the voice and accountability governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

$H_a 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 2: Does the political stability governance indicator have an

effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$2: The political stability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

H_a2: The political stability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 3: Does the government effectiveness governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$3: The government effectiveness governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

H_a3: The government effectiveness governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 4: Does the regulatory quality governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$4: The regulatory quality governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a4: The regulatory quality governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Research Question 5: Does the rule of law governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$5: The rule of law governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a5: The rule of law governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Research Question 6: Does the control of corruption governance indicator have an effect on policy gaps?

$H_0$6: The control of corruption governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a6: The control of corruption governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Reliability

Reliability and validity of any measuring instrument provide a critical way of measuring the quality of research. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) explained that the reliability of a measuring instrument refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument is consistent. When people in a similar circumstance are asked similar questions, the degree to which they provide similar answers shows the extent to which the instrument used in asking the questions is reliable (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias further explained reliability to mean the extent to which the measuring instrument contains variable errors. Reliability generally can be tested in a web-based questionnaire by the use of Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cortina, 1993) and other methods, such as the test-rested method, the parallel-forms technique, and the split-half method (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). For the purpose of this survey, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was employed to test the reliability of the scale. George and Mallery (2003) asserted that the following interpretation holds for Cronbach's alpha in interpreting reliability: "_ > 0.9 – Excellent, _ >0 .8 – Good, _ > 0.7 – Acceptable, _ > 0.6 – Questionable, _ > 0.5 – Poor, and _ < 0.5 – Unacceptable". Therefore, the closer Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the more reliable the scale is, and this tends to improve the internal consistency of the scale.

Validity

Using a scale that is reliable in this research was as critical as having the scale be valid. Validity describes the relationship between an answer and some measure of true score, taking into consideration any possible error (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). Frankfort-

Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) explained validity to mean the extent to which a scale

measures what was intended. This study primarily addressed three main types of validity.

The first form of validity that the scale for this research was subjected to is

content validity. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) explained that content

validity seeks to provide the assurance that the instrument measures every attribute of the

variables that are under study. Content validity can further be segregated into face

validity and sampling validity (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Face validity

measures the degree to which subjects and contents relating to a particular variable can be

described (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 2008). Subjecting this scale to content

validity ensured that all subject areas of the variable were well-covered and described.

Face validity was obtained by subjecting the questionnaire to expert criticism to ensure

that all subject and content areas regarding each of the variables were covered. Sampling

validity, on the other hand, made sure that all the civil servants that represent the

population of the study were adequately sampled in this study (Frankfort-Nachmias &

Nachmias, 2008). Empirical validity seeks to measure the relationship between the

measuring instrument and the measured outcome (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias,

2008). Empirical validity also involved estimating a predictive validity, where an

assessment was made to evaluate if the results I expected to obtain correlated with an

external criterion (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Finally, the instrument

related to the IAD framework ensured that construct validity was maintained in this

research.

Research Ethics

This survey was subjected to the strict guidelines and protocol set out by the IRB of Walden University. The survey process did not pose a risk to participants and respondents (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). IRB review is designed to protect subjects and participants undertaking the survey at Walden University. Respondents were clearly informed about what they were volunteering for and how the data they provided would be used. Protecting respondents was a critical aspect of this survey procedure. I assured respondents that any information they provided was going to be used only by me and within the research committee. Confidentiality and anonymity were also guaranteed, thereby providing further assurances and protecting respondents (Floyd & Fowler, 2013). All survey documents and responses have been safeguarded to ensure that unauthorized persons do not have access to these records. All evidence of names, positions, or identities of the participants is not known. Collected responses have been safely locked up, and will be stored for 5 years.

Summary

This survey used a quantitative research method to examine the relationship between governance and policy gaps. The dependent variable was policy gaps, and the independent variables were the six governance indicators. Survey research design was used quantitatively to examine the relationship between policy gap and governance. A web-based questionnaire was used to collect psychometric data on both the dependent and independent variables. Out of a population of civil servants in Ghana, a sample was

drawn using a stratified sampling technique. The method of data analysis involved the use of multiple linear regression.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to test the relationship between policy

gaps and governance in Ghana. The study was designed to answer six research questions

regarding the effect that all six governance indicators have on policy gaps in Ghana. In

examining the relationship between policy gaps and governance in Ghana, the research

hypothesis and the null hypothesis have been tested, and the results have been analyzed.

I review the results of the pilot study, elucidate the characteristics of the sample

that was chosen for the study, and discuss the descriptive statistics as well as the

instrumentation and data collection. The results of the statistical analysis for the

substantive study, which answered all the six research questions, are also presented in

this chapter. Finally, I present a summary of Chapter 4.

Pilot Study

I undertook a pilot study involving seven participants before launching the

substantive survey. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the reliability of the six

scales. Cronbach's alpha reliability was used to measure the internal consistency between

items in the scale. Reliability in this pilot study was assessed based on George and

Mallery's (2003) criteria for measuring the internal consistency of the scale. The criteria

for assessing reliability in this scale was Cronbach's alpha where > 0.9 is considered

excellent reliability, > 0.8 is considered good reliability, > 0.7 is considered acceptable

reliability, > 0.6 is questionable, > 0.5 is poor, and unacceptable reliability is < 0.5.

Overall reliability for this scale was > 0.787, and this is considered to be acceptable

reliability for the seven participants in the pilot study.

Table 2 shows the statistics of Cronbach's alpha.

Table 2

Cronbach's alpha Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items	*N* of items
.787	.801	7

Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .787, and this was considered to be good

reliability. After conducting this analytical procedure, an acceptable to good reliability,

ranging from 0.815 to 0.691, was observed in the scale if the specific variables of

regulatory quality and policy gaps were eliminated, respectively. Therefore, there was no

need to eliminate any of the items on the scale after conducting an item analysis.

However, the scale received expert panel feedback to improve the construct validity.

Table 3 shows the reliability statistics.

Table 3

Reliability Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Voice and Accountability	25.14	13.476	.714	.734
Policy Gap	25.29	11.905	.887	.691
Political Stability	25.71	11.571	.760	.706
Regulatory Quality	24.71	16.571	.059	.831
Rule of Law	24.71	16.905	.087	.815
Control of Corruption	25.14	10.476	.523	.791
Governance Effectiveness	25.00	12.667	.805	.713

Descriptive statistics were conducted to ascertain if the data contain any anomaly. All the means and standard deviations, as well as variances, were in statistical range. The results of interitem correlation were also reviewed to help improve the reliability of the scale. No significant change was made to the scale because the results of Cronbach's alpha and interitem correlation for all variables proved that the scale is reliable.

Sample Population

The population of the study was all persons employed by the Ghanaian Civil Service within the 55 MDAs. In the literature review, I identified the civil service as the institution that is responsible for policy formulation, planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. As of December 2015, the civil service employed a total of 15,636 people spread across all 55 MDAs. A stratified sampling technique was used to

select participants. The sampling strategy was to ensure that all the MDAs stood an equal chance of participating in the study.

G*Power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1. I obtained the required sample size of 1,200 participants by using six predictors for two groups, a small effect size of 0.02, an alpha level of 0.05, and a power of 0.97. I, therefore, recruited a total of 1,200 participants drawn from 15,636 civil servants using a stratified sampling technique.

Data Collection

Research participants provided the primary data for this survey. Questionnaires were used to collect data relating to the six independent variables and one dependent variable. I distributed a total of 1,200 questionnaires through Survey Monkey. I received a total of 561 responses. Twenty-two participants were removed from the survey because they did not complete the survey. The total response rate for this research, which was 47%, is acceptable in a survey and unlikely to affect the validity of the results (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The survey questionnaire used a 6-point Likert scale and consisted of a total of 21 questions. The questionnaire had two sections. Section A solicited the opinions of respondents regarding governance in Ghana. The questions in section A sought to solicit psychometric responses on the six key governance indicators in Ghana, namely voice and accountability, political stability, governance effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. Section B of the questionnaire solicited the opinion of respondents on policy gaps in Ghana (See Appendix A for a sample of the questionnaire).

Survey Administration

I obtained the psychometric data of the civil service from the OHCS. All 55 governmental institutions employed a total of 15,636 civil service staff. I, therefore, developed a mailing list of 1,200 respondents from the list. I obtained the sample frame from all 55 civil service institutions. The survey instrument was distributed to respondents via Survey Monkey on July 3, 2016. After sending a total of five reminders, I had 561 responses as of July 30, 2016. I could not sample further after July 31, 2016 because the OHCS gave me a 1-month window within which I could collect data. I encouraged a rapid response to the questionnaires by attaching a consent form to the questionnaire for participants who completed the survey in print and online. I also promised to share final results with participants .

Data obtained from the survey were processed and transferred into SPSS for analysis. Using SPSS, I conducted a descriptive statistics analysis, which aided in understanding the demographics of all the variables. Means, standard deviations, and variances were computed for all the variables. The computation gave a good idea of the characteristics of each variable. A Cronbach's alpha reliability test was also conducted on the 6-point Likert scale to ensure an acceptable reliability. The overall Cronbach's alpha reliability yielded a reliability of 0.787, which was considered to be good reliability.

Multiple linear regression was used to examine all the research questions. The analysis method approach helped to examine the extent to which voice and accountability, political stability, governance effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption affect policy gaps. Multiple linear regression was

appropriate for analyzing the data because it helped in determining the strength of the relationship between the single dependent variable and multiple independent variables. The use of multiple linear regression also assisted in understanding the change effect between the dependent variables and the independent variables. Finally, the use of multiple linear regressions aided in the assessment of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables, both of which were continuous. The continuous independent variables were voice and accountability, political stability, governance effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. The continuous independent variable was policy gaps.

Results

To answer the six research questions, SPSS was used to conduct descriptive statistics, correlation, and multiple linear regressions. The overall results of the multiple linear regression performed showed that all the governance indicators, except the regulatory quality governance indicator, had no significant relationship with policy gaps.

Descriptive Statistics

A total of 561 participants started the survey, and 539 completed it. The remaining 22 participants were eliminated from the survey process because they answered fewer than 50% of the questions. Reliability conducted on the pilot study yielded an overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.787, and this was considered to be good reliability (George & Mallery, 2003). The descriptive statistics showed that the voice and accountability governance indicator, as well as rule of law governance indicator, had the

highest mean (4.45), and policy gaps, which was the dependent variable, reported the

lowest mean (3.37). Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the Survey

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Survey

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Voice and Accountability	539	4.45	.023	.537
Political Stability	539	4.34	.026	.598
Governance Effectiveness	539	4.42	.023	.526
Regulatory Quality	539	3.93	.030	.695
Rule of Law	539	4.45	.023	.538
Control of Corruption	539	4.44	.024	.563
Policy Gap	539	3.37	.038	.890
Valid N (listwise)	539			

Bivariate Analysis

I conducted a bivariate Pearson product moment correlation coefficient on the

scales. While some of the items on the scale recorded insignificant negative correlation,

other items recorded insignificant positive correlation. Only four items on the scale

recorded significant correlation. Rule of law with voice and accountability had a

significant positive correlation, $r(537) = 0.96$ and $p < .05$. Policy gaps and regulatory

quality had a significant negative correlation, r (537) = -0.89 and $p < .05$. Governance

effectiveness and political stability had a significant positive correlation r (537) = .91 and

$p < .05$. Voice and accountability with political stability had a significant positive

relationship, r (537) = .116 and $p < .007$. A positive correlation suggests that when one

variable increases, the other increases. A negative correlation suggests that when one

variable increases, the other decreases. However, the strength of the correlation, as

explained by Cohen (1988), is that correlation values ranging from 0.1 to 0.29 are

considered minimal, 0.3 to 0.49 are considered medium, and 0.5 to 1.0 are considered a

strong relationship. Table 5 shows the bivariate correlation among the scales.

Table 5

Bivariate Correlation Among Scales (N = 539)

	Voice and Accountability	Control of Corruption	Policy Gap	Rule of Law	Regulatory Quality	Governance Effectiveness
Control of Corruption	-.055					
Policy Gap	-.009	-.018				
Rule of Law	.096*	.066	-.076			
Regulatory Quality	.010	-.010	-.089*	.016		
Governance Effectiveness	.068	.051	-.057	.060	-.076	
Political Stability	.116**	.046	-.017	.023	.050	.091*

Notes . *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Examination of the Research Questions

In examining the research questions, a multiple linear regression was conducted to assess if governance indicators, namely, political stability, voice and accountability, governance effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption, affect policy gap. The continuous independent variables were political stability, voice and accountability, governance effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption. The continuous dependent variable was policy gap.

Before analyzing the multiple linear regression, the assumption of normality was assessed with a histogram and p-p scatterplot. Initial analysis showed that there were no violations in the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. The scatter plot in Figure 11 showed no definite pattern. The assumption was therefore met. When variance inflation factors were assessed, the assumption of the absence of multicollinearity was met because all various inflation factors were below 10.0.
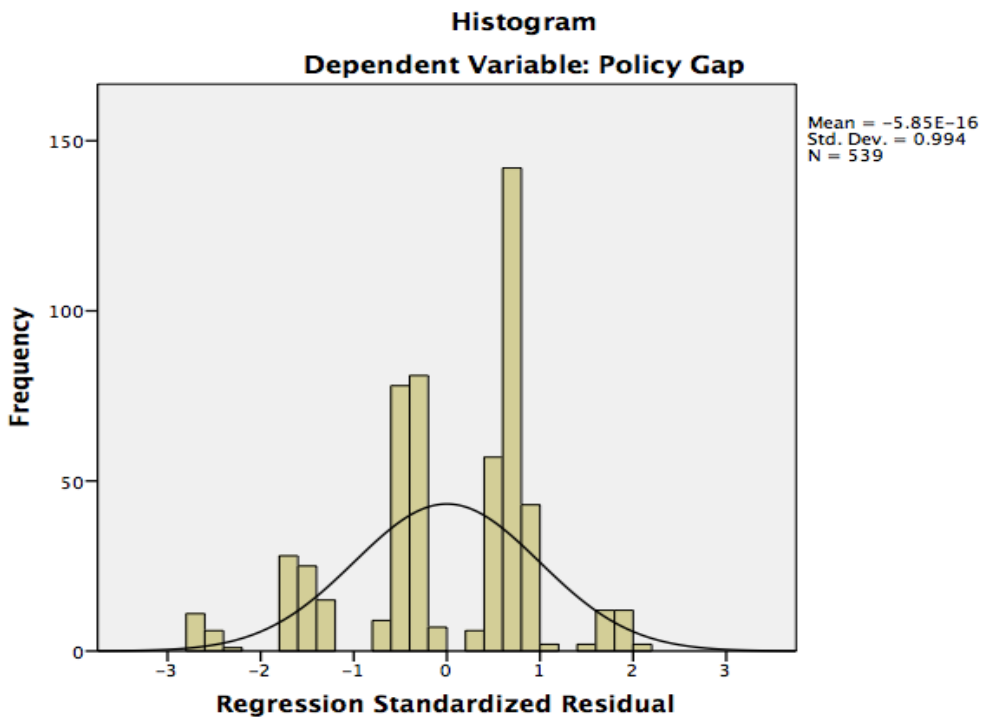
Figure 10. Normal distribution plot
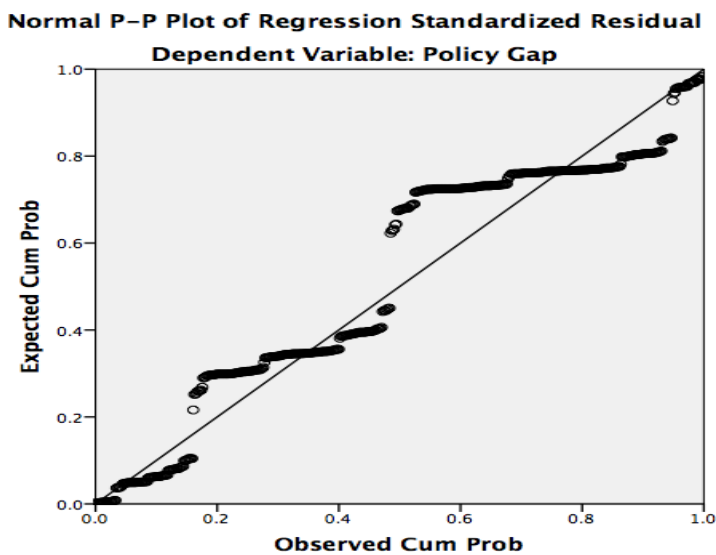
Figure 11. Normal probability plot
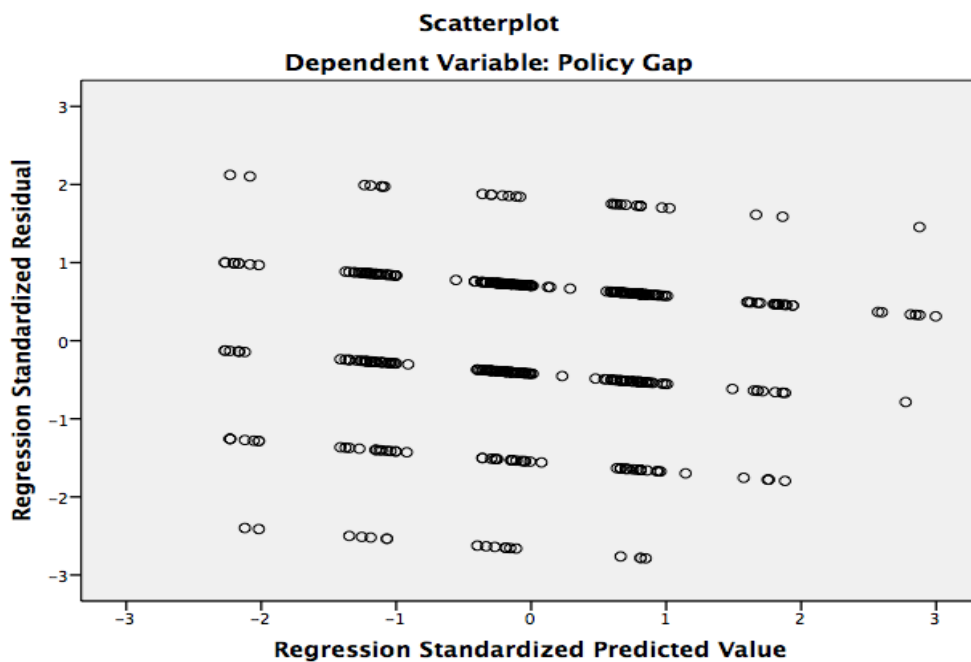
Figure 12. Scatterplot

Result of Multiple Linear Regression

A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict the effect of policy gaps on governance. The predictors were control of corruption, regulatory quality, voice and accountability, rule of law, political stability, and governance effectiveness. The dependent variable was policy gaps. The result of the multiple linear regression showed that the regression model was not significant, $R^2 = .017$, adjusted $R^2 = .006$, $F(6,532) = 1.54$, and $p = 1.64$. The results indicate that voice and accountability, political stability, governance effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption accounted for 17% of the variance in policy gaps. All the predictors were further assessed individually for significance. Table 6 shows the regression statistics.

Table 6

Regression Statistics

	B	SE	B	*t*	*p*	VIP
(Constant)	4.882	.662		7.377	.000	
Voice and accountability	.004	.072	.003	.061	.951	1.031
Political stability	-.008	.065	-.005	-.118	.906	1.027
Governance effectiveness	-.099	.074	-.059	-1.351	.177	1.024
Regulatory quality	-.118	.055	-.092	-2.128	.034	1.010
Rule of law	-.116	.072	-.070	-1.612	.108	1.017
Control of corruption	-.017	.068	-.011	-.251	.802	1.013

Note. $R^2 = .017$, adjusted $R^2 = .006$, $F(6,532) = 1.54$, and $p=1.64$.

Hypotheses

$H_0 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

$H_a 1$: The voice and accountability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Hypothesis 1 examined the voice and accountability predictor variable. The predictor was not significant, $B = .004$ and $p = .951$. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

$H_0 2$: The political stability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps.

$H_a 2$: The political stability governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Hypothesis 2 examined the political stability predictor variable. The predictor was not significant, $B = -.008$ and $p = .906$. Since the predictor was not significant, Null

Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

$H_0$3: The government effectiveness governance indicator does not affect policy

gaps.

H_a3: The government effectiveness governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Hypothesis 3 examined the government effectiveness predictor variable. The

predictor was not significant, B = -.099 and p = .177. Since the predictor was not

significant, Null Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

$H_0$4: The regulatory quality governance indicator does not have an effect on

policy gaps.

H_a4: The regulatory quality governance indicator affects policy gaps.

Hypothesis 4 examined the regulatory quality predictor variable. The predictor

was significant, B = -.118 and p = .034. Since the predictor was significant, Null

Hypothesis 4 was rejected in favor of the alternate hypothesis.

$H_0$5: The rule of law governance indicator does not have an effect on policy gaps.

H_a5: The rule of law governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Hypothesis 5 examined the rule of law predictor variable. The predictor was not

significant, B =-.116 and p =.108. Since the predictor was not significant, Null

Hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

$H_0$6: The control of corruption governance indicator does not have an effect on

policy gaps.

H_a6: The control of corruption governance indicator has an effect on policy gaps.

Hypothesis 6 examined the control of corruption predictor variable. The predictor

was not significant, B= -.017 and p =.802. Since the predictor was not significant, Null

Hypothesis 6 was not rejected.

Summary

In Chapter 4, I presented the descriptive statistics and the results of the pilot study

and also reported on the reliability of the scale. Before presenting the results of bivariate

correlation and multiple regression, I assessed the statistical assumption underlying the

analysis. I checked for normality, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. All statistical

assumptions underlying the analysis were met. In examining the research questions,

multiple linear regressions were conducted to assess if the independent variables, namely,

voice and accountability, political stability, rule of law, governance effectiveness, control

of corruption, and regulatory quality, affect policy gaps. The results indicated that with

the except regulatory quality, all the governance indicators were not significant predictors

of policy gaps. Therefore, all of the null hypotheses, except *H04,* were not rejected. I will

discuss the interpretation of the findings of this study, recommendations for practical

implementation, implication for positive social change, potential opportunities for further

research, and the limitations of this study in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussions, Conclusion, and Recommendations

Introduction

Governmental institutions that are responsible for public policy planning, monitoring, implementation, and evaluation are continuously finding ways of bridging the policy gap through effective institutional governance. Real progress has been made in the area of governance and policy since Ghana returned to constitutional rule in 1992. In an attempt to bridge policy gaps, various governmental institutions have been strengthened through the enactment of numerous legislations to make the civil service more proactive, responsive, and independent.

The aim of this survey study was quantitatively to test the relationship between policy gaps and voice and accountability, political stability, government effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption. The purpose was to understand the extent to which governance indicators predict policy gaps. The predictor was not significant, $R^2 = .017$, adjusted $R^2 = .006$, $F(6,532) = 1.54$, and $p, =,1.64$. Findings in this study, therefore, suggested that governance indicators are not a significant predictor of policy gaps. The implication is that voice and accountability, political stability, governance effectiveness, rule of law, regulatory quality, and control of corruption accounted for only 17% of the variance in policy gap.

In this chapter, I present analysis and interpretation of the findings of this study, recommendations for practical implementation, the implication for positive social change, potential opportunities for further research, and limitations of this study.

Interpretation of the Findings

In all, this study had six research questions. I developed the research questions

after an extensive review of the literature on governance and policy within Ghana. The

six research questions aided in establishing the relationship between all six governance

indicators and policy gaps. The review of the theoretical framework for this study, which

is the IAD framework, aided in developing six hypotheses for this study. The first

hypothesis suggested that the voice and accountability governance indicator does not

significantly predict policy gaps. The second hypothesis also suggested that the political

stability governance indicator does not significantly predict policy gaps. The third

hypothesis suggested that the effectiveness of governance also does not significantly

predict policy gaps. The fourth hypothesis, however, indicated that the regulatory quality

governance indicator does predict policy gaps at the .05 confidence interval. The fifth

hypothesis suggested that the rule of law governance indicator does not affect policy

gaps. Finally, the sixth hypothesis suggested that the control of corruption governance

indicator does not affect policy gaps. Therefore, all the null hypotheses (H_01, H_02, H_03,

H_05, $\&$ H_06), except H_04, were not rejected.

Voice and Accountability

The first research question was meant to understand if the voice and

accountability governance indicator had an effect on policy gaps. The voice and

accountability governance indicator sought to measure the extent to which citizens of a

country are able to participate in the process leading to the selection of a preferred

government without any interference. In assessing this research question, I measured the

degree to which Ghanaian citizens participate in the governance process leading to the selection of an elected government. I also assessed the degree of measure of freedom of expression and media freedom. Finally, I assessed the extent to which civil society and other interest groups hold government accountable.

Hypothesis 1 addressed the voice and accountability predictor variable against policy gaps. The predictor was not significant B = .004 and p = .951. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 1 was not rejected. The findings are further supported in the reviewed literature by Davrajan (2008), where he argued that governance indicators cannot be the ultimate determinant of economic and policy success. Davrajan held a complementary view to the findings that the voice and accountability governance indicator does not affect policy gap. Davrajan backed this submission when he argued that countries like Bangladesh had strong economic and policy success under a corrupt dictatorial regime in 2009. McFerson (2009), however, held a contrary view to the finding that the voice and accountability governance indicator does not affect policy gaps. McFerson argued that the case of Bangladesh was an exception, just like Tunisia and Chile in the 1970s and 1980s, when the respective economies of both countries thrived under strict dictatorial regimes that clamped on citizens' ability to participate in their governance process. Presently, countries such as Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, and China do not allow citizens to participate in the democratic governance process and have not liberalized the media industry, but these countries have higher economic growth and can better craft and implement policies and programs.

This study, however, is at variance with the assertion by Mohammed (2015), which clearly indicates that democracy does not guarantee effective policy implementation. Mohammed further made the assertion that policy design and improvement in Ghana saw a significant improvement since its return to democratic rule in 1993. Mohammed, however, failed to recognize the fact that the 1992 Constitution that gave birth to most of Ghana's democratic institutions, like the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice, the Electoral Commission, and the Media Commission, was established and gazetted when Ghana was under military dictatorship.

Political Stability

The second research question was meant to ascertain if the political stability governance indicator had an effect on policy gaps. The political stability governance indicator sought to measure the likelihood of politically motivated violence and terrorism playing a role in destabilizing a democratically elected government. In assessing this research question, I measured the degree to which democratic processes in Ghana are strictly adhered to and the likelihood of terrorism or a coup d'état playing a role in destabilizing the democratically elected government. Hypothesis 2 examined the political stability predictor variable against policy gaps. The predictor was not significant B = -.008 and $p = .906$. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 2 was not rejected. McFerson (2009) and Mohammed (2015) disagreed with this finding. Davarajan (2008), however, supported these findings. McFerson argued that there is a strong relationship between good governance, which includes political stability and economic success that ultimately reduces policy gaps. The WGIs also support the assertion of

McFerson. However, empirical evidence from the reviewed literature in Figure 2 suggests that political stability did not see any improvement even though economic growth has constantly been increasing in Ghana. Key institutions that are constitutionally required to guarantee political stability, like the Armed Forces Council, the Police Council, and the District, Regional, and National Security Committees were all a creation of the 1992 Constitution when Ghana was still under military rule. Mohammed (2015), however, argued that public policies aimed at bridging gaps between policy intention and policy outcomes thrive much better in a democratic dispensation. Birkland (2011) attributed policy failures to many reasons other than any of the governance indicators enumerated in the literature review. Some of the reasons attributed to policy failures were more technical, such as policies not being based on sound causal theory, expecting too much from policies, and changing circumstances. Kraft and Furlong (2013), however, attributed policy implementation success to strong and efficient government institutions that maintain political stability in a country.

Government Effectiveness

The third research question examined if the effectiveness of government had an effect on policy gaps. The government effectiveness governance indicator sought to measure the quality of public and civil service as well as the degree to which these institutions are independent from all form of political interference as well as the extent to which government is committed to implementing policies and programs. In assessing this research question, I measured the extent to which public services can deliver efficient services to the citizenry. I also measured the degree to which the civil service is

independent of any form of political interference. Moreover, I assessed the extent to which public services can formulate and implement policies. Finally, the degree to which policy credibility is affected by the policy implementation process was also examined. Hypothesis 3 tested the government effectiveness predictor variable. The predictor was not significant B = -.099 and p = .177. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

In the reviewed literature, Mohammed (2015), McFerson (2009), Kraft and Furlong (2009), and Kjaer (2004) all disconfirmed the findings in this study. Mohammed discussed how policy making in a dictatorial regime was elitist, had implementation difficulties, was non-participatory, and lacked legitimacy. Mohammed, however did not conclude if all the negatives associated with authoritarian regimes in Ghana resulted in failed policies. Indeed, the most successful policy in terms of output and outcomes ever implemented in the history of Ghana, as per the reviewed literature, were the Seven-Year and Five-Year Development Plans implemented under the colonial and one-party regime, respectively. No study in Ghana has established the degree to which an executive arm of government interferes with the activities of the civil service even though there is a strong perception. Most respondents declined to answer survey questions related to political interference in their jobs. Further studies need to be undertaken in this area to establish the relationship between governance effectiveness and policy gaps.

Regulatory Quality

The fourth research question examined if the regulatory quality governance indicator had an effect on policy gaps. The regulatory quality governance indicator

sought to measure the ability of government to put in place sound policies and programs aimed at enhancing development and growth of the private sector. In assessing the research question, I measured the ability of government and governmental institutions to formulate and implement policies that seek to enhance the development of the private sector and the extent to which policies and programs relating to trade, investment, taxes, tariffs, and other regulatory issues are well managed in Ghana. Hypothesis 4 examined the regulatory quality predictor variable. The predictor was significant B = -.118 and p = .034. Since the predictor was significant, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected in favor of the alternate hypothesis. The inference of the B value of -.118 is that as the ability of governmental institutions to formulate and implement policies that enhance the development of the private sector increases, policy gaps decrease. The implication is that as the regulatory quality governance indicator decreases by one unit, the policy gap increases by 0.118 units.

I also discovered that there was some degree of correlation between the regulatory quality predictor and policy gap, r (537) = -0.89 and p < .05. The negative correlation suggests that there is an inverse relationship between policy gap and regulatory quality. The negative correlation suggests that the ability of government and governmental institutions to formulate and implement policies that seek to enhance the development of the private sector and the extent to which policies and programs relating to trade, investment, taxes, tariffs, and other regulatory issues inversely predict policy gaps. McFerson (2009), Mohammed (2005), Kraft and Furlong (2013), Birkland (2011), and the WIGs report of 2015 reviewed in the literature all support the findings.

Rule of Law

The fifth research question examined if the rule of law governance indicator had an effect on policy gaps. The rule of law governance indicator sought to measure the extent to which government and political actors abide by the general rule of society, particularly relating to quality of contract enforcement, enforcement of property rights, and the ability of the police and the courts to maintain law and order. In assessing the research question, I measured the degree of confidence in the legal and regulatory system in Ghana. I also measured the extent to which law enforcement officers and the agents of the state abide by the general rules of society as well as the level of quality of contracts, enforcements, property rights, and the extent to which police and courts enforce general legal framework.

Hypothesis 5 examined rule of law predictor variable. The predictor was not significant, $B = -.116$ and $p = .108$. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 5 was not rejected. This finding supports Devrajan's earlier conclusions that the rule of law is not a determinant of policy success. McFerson (2009) and Mohammed (2015), however, disagreed with the findings related to the relationship between rule of law and policy gaps. Mohammed argued that public policy making under democratic governance legitimizes public policy. Mohammed, however, failed to establish any link between legitimate public policy and policy implementation successes in Ghana. Mohammed again argued that constitutional rule, which obviously depicts the rule of law, democratizes public policy making in Ghana. Again, he failed to draw a clear relationship between democratic public policy making and successful policy implementation.

Control of Corruption

The sixth research question examined if the control of corruption governance indicator had an effect on policy gaps. The control of corruption governance indicator sought to measure the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including all forms of petty and grand forms of corruption. In assessing the research question, I measured the extent to which public power is unduly used for private gain, including petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as the degree to which the elite in society use their influence in soliciting for private and personal gain.

Hypothesis 6 examined the control of corruption predictor variable. The predictor was not significant, $B = -.017$ and $p = .802$. Since the predictor was not significant, Null Hypothesis 6 was not rejected. Devarajan (2009) supported these findings by arguing that countries like Bangladesh and Chile, that experienced the worst form of corruption for decades, experienced significant economic growth driven by strong policies and programs. McFerson (2009), however, argued that the assertion by Devarajan is an exception. Most of the respondents shied away from responding to this research question. Indeed, all respondents who were removed from the survey for providing incomplete answers ignored questions on corruption. Initial reactions from the OHCS indicate that respondents who declined to answer questions on corruption were somehow not comfortable tagging their outfit as corrupt or not. This perception might have led to most respondents declining to answer the control of corruption governance indicator. Further studies are needed to investigate and validate the reasons why respondents refused to

answer questions on corruption. In Ghana, perceived corrupt governments during democratic governance have achieved high economic growth (See Figure 7).

Implications Based on Existing Studies

An extensive search of the literature did not yield any study that examined the relationship between policy gaps and governance. Other studies such as Mohammed (2015) and Kpessa (2011) examined the policy making process in Ghana under democratic and military regimes. The studies by Kpessa and Mohammed did not draw any relationship between public policy in Ghana and governance. McFerson (2009) and the WGI Survey 2015 studied various governance factors that contributed to good governance. These studies, however, did not establish any relationship between governance and policy gaps and left the relationship between policy gaps and governance unclear. In this research, therefore, I attempted to fill this important gap in the reviewed literature.

Previous studies that examined the role of governmental institutions and their effect on governance indicators were consistent with the IAD framework. In the IAD theoretical framework, the primary role of governmental institutions is the creation of human institutions that positively affect policy outcomes. It is in the light of this that various governmental institutions like the National Media Commission, the Electoral Commission, the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice, and the National Commission on Civic Education have been established to deepen the democratic process and media freedom in Ghana. The strength of governmental institutions that is

responsible for policy conception to policy outcome significantly contributes to policy outcomes.

Limitations of the Study

Numerous strengths and limitations are inherent in this study. First, because the Ghanaian Civil Service is the governmental institution responsible for policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation, the civil service was the ideal unit of analysis for this study. The study covered all 55 civil service institutions in Ghana (See Appendix B for a list of civil service institutions in Ghana.). Secondly, participation in this study was anonymous, thereby providing participants some level of comfort and honesty in completing the survey. Thirdly, the sample size of 900 fairly represented the population. Finally, the study was the first attempt to establish the relationship between policy gaps and all governance indicators. Because all 55 civil service institutions were involved in this study, it made it possible to generalize the results of this study to the whole civil service institution.

Despite the numerous strengths associated with this study, there is the need to enumerate the delineation of this study clearly. First, the study only focused on the relationship between policy gaps and governance indicators as enumerated by the World Bank. However, other governance indicators, as suggested by other authors, such as the Ibrahim Index of African Governance, focused on economic success, transparency, and corruption as well as human rights. The Ibrahim Index of African Governance was excluded because its scope was narrow in terms of governance indicators as compared to the World Bank Governance Index. Secondly, the study focused only on the Ghanaian

Civil Service even though other quasi-governmental institutions like the Public Services

Commission sometimes implement policies crafted by the civil service. Finally,

significant efforts were made to improve the reliability and validity of the survey

instrument that was developed by using expert panel feedback even though Cronbach's

alpha was greater than 0.7. Reliability and validity could have been improved further if

an already existing measuring instrument was used (Goertz, 2006).

<div align="center">**Recommendations**</div>

Perceived political interference from the executive arm of government in the

affairs of various civil service and governance institutions has largely been blamed for

the inability of the civil service to bridge the gap between policy intentions and policy

outcomes. Current studies by Kpessa (2011) and Mohammed (2015) indicate that

government institutions in Ghana are taking practical steps to ensure that policy planning,

implementation, monitoring, and evaluation is assuming a participatory approach and is

expected to reduce policy gaps. Findings in this study do not fit with the assertion of

Mohammed (2015) and Kpessa (2011). The results of this study imply that focus should

instead be placed on strengthening the quality of regulations that seek to enhance the

development of the private sector.

Further studies are required to validate findings in this study because this is the

first study that attempted to establish the relationship between policy gaps and

governance in Ghana. This study was limited to the 55 civil service institutions even

though there are numerous public service institutions that are on the receiving end of

public policy in Ghana. Future studies could, therefore, expand the horizon to encompass

all institutions that implement public policy. All the participants that were removed for failing to complete the survey fell short of responding to questions bothering on policy gaps and corruption. Follow-up qualitative research could also bring forth an in-depth explanation as to why the removed participants refused to answer questions on the relationship between corruption and policy gaps. Further studies in qualitative research will also capture data that this quantitative research failed to highlight. Finally, other areas that could benefit from future research are the relationship between governance indicators and economic output as well as the performance of governance institutions and how they relate to policy credibility.

Implications for Social Change

Bridging policy gaps through effective governance is required in ensuring that the citizenry reaps the final benefit of governance. Kraft and Furlong (2013) noted that the ultimate aim of public policy is addressing what society, in general, perceives to be a public problem. Knowledge gained from this study will ultimately revolutionize the way public problems are addressed in Ghana through effective governance. Kraft and Furlong (2013) explained that irrespective of the type of governance practiced, the ultimate goal of advocates of public policy is to affect all members of society positively. Kjaer (2004) established the role that governance plays in ensuring that public policy eventually affects the good of society.

Evidence gained from this study will improve the understanding of the nature of public policy and governance in Ghana. The results of this study will also help all the governance institutions in Ghana deliver flawless social services to the Ghanaian society

that is expected to be at the receiving end of public policy. Benefits of enquiring into both policy gaps and governance in Ghana transcend beyond mere social output. This study has a direct impact on the outcome of various social policies that are imperative to the well-being of the citizenry.

This study showed that there is a significant inverse relationship between policy gaps and regulatory quality. The implication is that once the government formulates better policies and programs that seek to enhance the competitiveness of the private sector, policy gaps reduce. A reduction in policy gaps, as a result of better policies on trade, taxes, and investment, significantly enhances the growth prospects of various organizations and society in general and by extension, individuals who have an association with organizations and Ghanaian society as a whole. This study confirmed that most PPMEDs are under-resourced and are not capable of identifying and bridging policy gaps. Resourcing PPMEDs will ultimately improve their assessment capabilities, which will help make them more functional and useful in crafting public policies.

Governmental institutions that are responsible for crafting and implementing policies relating to trade, taxes, investment, and regulatory issues, like the Ministry of Trade and the Ghana Investment Promotion Center, can use the findings in this study to help craft and implement better policies that will enhance the development of the private sector.

Recommendations for Practice

This study addressed governance issues that result in policy gaps. The effect that governance has in policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation in Ghana

has received little or no attention in the past years. This study has narrowed the knowledge gap in the areas of governance and policy gaps in Ghana and has also offered practical implications on how the civil service can enhance policy implementation and bridge public policy gaps. The regulatory quality governance indicator has a significant effect on public policies. Other governance indicators, though they have some degree of impact on policy gaps, are not significant. This study has identified four recommendations that will help address widening public policy gaps in Ghana and will also revolutionize the way public policies are crafted and implemented.

First, state actors involved in PPME should not only adopt a participatory approach to public policy making (Kpessa, 2011; Mohammed, 2015); there is also the need for emphasis on the impact assessment of various public policy decisions. Most public policies in Ghana now focus on outputs rather than outcomes. The overreliance on outputs resulted in situations where policy implementation feedback has become scarce within the civil service. Various civil society organizations have assumed the role of providing feedback to government on the impact of public policy decisions that are taken by the government. The lack of mechanisms within the civil service to collate feedback on public policy decisions hinders the revision of policies that do not work. Ohemeng (2015) and Kpessa (2011) explained that only a few CSOs and policy think tanks have research capabilities to conduct studies regarding public policy impact. There is, therefore, the need for the civil service to develop the research capability to determine the impact of public policy decisions and take corrective actions if the need arises.

Secondly, bridging policy gap requires redirecting focus from all governance indicators to the quality of regulations that seek to enhance the development of the private sector. Regulations relating to trade, investment, tariffs, taxes, sanitation, and greenhouse gas emissions, focus on the development of the private sector. There is the need for this paradigm shift because the result of this study highlights the significant relationship between policy gaps and the quality of regulations. The empirical evidence of this study indicates that even though various governance indicators have some degree of impact on policy gaps, only the regulatory quality governance indicator had a significant negative correlation with policy gaps. There is, therefore, the need for policy makers to shift attention from other governance indicators while placing emphasis on the quality of regulations that seek to enhance the competitiveness of the private sector.

Third, there is the need to resource the PPMEDs of all MDAs and increase their capability to enhance their responsiveness to emerging public policy gaps. Most PPMEDs in Ghana lack the requisite personnel and financial resources to investigate policy gaps. The lack of capacity has resulted in significant policy gaps going unnoticed or not being investigated and corrected. To achieve substantial progress in the area of policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation, as well as impact assessment, all PPMEDs of the various MDAs will require significant restructuring and retooling to make them responsive to the public policy requirement of all governance institutions (Gildemyn, 2014). A reasonable budgetary allocation of resources for research and advocacy will ensure that the full benefit of public policy decisions is achieved.

Finally, governance institutions in general and their PPMEDs should be insulated from any form of political interference from the executive arm of government. By the very structure of the Ghanaian civil services, PPMEDs are just like any other department within the MDAs. The heads of PPMEDs report to the chief director who, in turn, reports to the sector minister. The bureaucratic arrangement within the civil service has made PPMEDs susceptible to manipulation from the executive arm of government. In 2001, when a new political party took over the reign of governance, the World Bank accused the previous government of covering up various policy and economic failures. In 2008, when a different political party assumed the reign of governance, a similar incident happened when the World Bank again accused the previous government of not being forthright with the debt to GDP ratio and public policy issues. The vicious cycle will continue into the foreseeable future unless governance institutions become independent and insulate themselves from any form of political and executive interference.

In conclusion, public policies are the means through with public problems are resolved. The impact of successful policy implementation transcends the benefits that accrue to the government regarding benefits to the citizenry. Successful public policy implementation saves enormous resources, enhances economic growth, and boosts investor confidence. A participatory approach to public policy making, even though it is significant, does not guarantee successful implementation. The key to successfully bridging public policy gaps is adopting institutional mechanisms that will aim to redirect the effort from policy output to policy outcomes, ensuring the independence of

governance institutions, resourcing PPMEDs, and making them more independent and accountable.

Conclusion

The strengthening of governance institutions to bridge public policy gaps has been ongoing in Ghana since 1993, when the 4th republican constitution came into effect. In an attempt to strengthen governance institutions in the area of policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation, PPMEDs have been established in all civil service institutions to strengthen the institutional governance in the area of public policy. This study sought to understand why the policy gap keeps widening in Ghana, despite the overall improvement in governance indicators, by examining the relationship between policy gaps and governance. The arguments of the reviewed literature were as follows: First, public policy formulation has moved from a closed circuit to a more participatory approach, thereby allowing civil society organizations and the citizenry to be involved in policy planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. Second, the Ghanaian Civil Service has undergone a significant transformation over the years. However, the civil service still lacks the institutional capacity to execute policies and programs aimed at bridging policy gaps fully. Third, Ghana's governance system has largely been democratic and stable. The stability in governance has not translated into any meaningful economic and social progress. However, issues like corruption and lack of social justice keep hindering social progress. And lastly, most authors attributed the degree of policy gaps to governance. There is a lack of any empirical study that has attempted to establish a scientific relationship between policy gaps and governance.

Using the IAD framework, as well as a survey data collected from 55 civil service institutions in Ghana, I answered six research questions. I used a multiple linear regression model to examine the relationship between all six governance indicators and policy gaps in Ghana. The overall impact of this study did not establish a significant relationship between policy gaps and governance. The regulatory quality governance indicator had a significant negative correlation with policy gaps. Other governance indicators including voice and accountability, political stability, rule of law, governance effectiveness, and control of corruption did not have any significant relationship with policy gaps. The results suggested that strengthening the quality of regulations in the area of trade, taxes, investment, and other policies that seek to enhance the growth and competitiveness of the private sector is key to bridging policy gaps in Ghana. The civil service, CSOs, and the executive arm of government need to combine efforts in ensuring that the citizenry reaps the full benefits of public policy decisions. I expect other researchers in the field of governance and policy will follow-up. I hope to undertake future research regarding the effects of civil service independence on policy gaps.

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Appendix A: Study of Policy Gaps and Governance in Ghana

Use the definitions below as applicable.

Definitions:

Policy gap - Difference between policy intention and policy outcome

Governance - The medium through which public policies are implemented

Section 1 – Governance in Ghana

(H1) 1. Indicate how "voice and accountability" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following:

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
Degree to which Ghanaian citizens participate in the governance process leading to the selection of preferred government						
Degree of measure of						

freedom of expression						
Degree of media freedom						
Degree to which civil society holds government accountable						

(H2) 1. Indicate how "political stability and absence of violence" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following:

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
Degree to which democratic process in Ghana is strictly adhered to						
The likelihood of terrorism playing a role in destabilizing the government						

(H3) 1. Indicate how "governance effectiveness" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
The extent to which public services can deliver efficient services to the citizenry						
The degree to which the civil service is independent of political interference						
The extent to which public services can formulate and implement policies						
The extent to which policy credibility is affected by policy implementation process						

(H4) 1. Indicate how "regulatory quality" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following:

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
Ability of government and governmental institutions to formulate and implement policies that seek to enhance the development of private sector						
The extent to which policies and programs relating to trade, investment, taxes, tariffs and other regulatory issues are well managed						

(H5) 1. Indicate how "rule of law" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following;

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
Degree of confidence in the legal and regulatory system in Ghana						
Degree to which law enforcement officers and agents of the state abide by the general rules of society						
The degree of quality of contract enforcement, property rights, and the extent to which police and the court enforce general legal framework						

(H6). Indicate how "control of corruption" governance indicator is likely to affect policy gap in each of the following:

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Uncertain / prefer not to answer
The degree to which public power is unduly used for private gain including petty and grand form of corruption						
The degree to which the elite in society use their influence in soliciting for private and personal gain						

Section 2 – Policy gaps in Ghana

To what extent do you agree with the following statement relating to policy gap in Ghana?

	Most Likely	Likely	Neither likely nor unlikely	Unlikely	Very unlikely	No opinion

Policy planning, monitoring and evaluation departments are well resourced to identify and bridge policy gaps					
The size of policy gap is usually dependent on implementation and institutional arrangement					
The degree of policy gap is a general reflection of state of governance in Ghana					

Appendix B: List of Civil Service Institutions in Ghana

1	Min of Chieftaincy and Traditional Affairs
2	Min of Communications
3	Min of Defence
4	Min of Education
5	Min of Employment and Labour Relations
6	Min of Energy and Petroleum
7	Min of Envt., Science, Technology, and Innovation
8	Min of Finance
9	Min of Fisheries and Aquaculture Dev't.
10	Min of Food and Agriculture
11	Min of Foreign Affairs
12	Min of Gender, Women, and Social Protection
13	Min of Health
14	Min of Interior
15	Min of Justice
16	Min of Lands and Natural Resources
17	Min of Local Govt. and Rural Dev't.
18	Office of Government Machinery
19	Min of Roads and Highways
20	Min of Tourism and Creative Arts

21	Min of Trade and Industry
22	Min of Transport
23	Min of Water, Works, and Housing
24	Min of Youth and Sports
25	Attorney Generals Dept.
26	Births and Deaths Dept.
27	Bureau of Ghana Languages
28	Chieftaincy
29	Children
30	Community Devt.
31	Controller and Acct Gen Dept.
32	Cooperatives
33	Factories Inspectorate
34	Feeder Roads
35	Geological Survey Dept.
36	Housing Loan Scheme
37	Information Services Dept.
38	Labour Department
39	Management Services Dept.
40	Office of Copyright Administrator
41	Parks and Gardens

42	Public Records and Archives Admin Dept.
43	Public Works Dept.
44	Registrar Generals Dept.
45	Rent Control
46	Rural Housing
47	Social Welfare
48	Town and Country Planning
49	Urban Roads
50	Women
51	Office of the President
52	State Protocol Department
53	Council of State
54	Scholarship Secretariat
55	Office of the Head of Civil Service