Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Ghana, Department of Planning

Daniel K.B. Inkoom

1. Introduction

This case study is a contribution to the 'Revitalisation of Planning Education in Africa' workshop in South Africa. The study draws on multiple data sources: primary and secondary data documents, interviews with city authorities in Kumasi, planning professionals and students. It also draws on the case study prepared for Chapter Ten of the *Global Report on Human Settlements* (Inkoom 2008) which focuses on planning education.

1.1 Country overview

The Republic of Ghana, formerly the Gold Coast, was a British colony until 6 March 1957 when it attained independence. It became a republic in 1960. The last population census of Ghana in 2000 gave the total population as 18.9 million (see Table 1) (GSS 2000). The current estimate (2008) puts the population at 23 million with a growth rate of 2.1% per annum and a mean population density of 88 persons/km^2 (World Bank 2008).

Table 1: Population change, Ghana, 1921–2000

Census year	Population (thousands)	Average annual population growth* (thousands)	Average annual rate of growth* (%)
1921	2 298	–	–
1931	3 163	86	3.2
1948	4 118	56	1.6
1960	6 727	217	4.1
1970	8 559	183	2.4
1984	12 296	267	2.6
2000	18 912	414	2.1

Sources: Government of Ghana 1962, 1972, 1986; GSS 2000

Note: * Based on population growth since previous census.

The population distribution is varied across the 10 administrative regions and eco-zones of the country, with 68% and 32% living in the rural and urban areas respectively. About 52% of the labour force is engaged in agriculture. Ghana has a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of $12.9 billion and a current Real GDP growth rate of 5.8%, while per capita GDP stands at $365. Other basic statistics are as indicated in Table 2. The United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index (HDI) of 2007/08 ranks Ghana as number 135 in the world (UNDP 2007).

There are ten administrative regions, which are further divided into Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies.

Table 2:   Basic statistics, Ghana

External debt % of GNI	24.9
GDP (current US$) billions	12.9
GNI per capita (Atlas method, current US$)	510.0
Life expectancy at birth	60.0
School enrolment (primary)	63.6

Source: World Bank 2008

## 1.2   The concept of 'urban' in Ghana

Urban centres in Ghana are officially defined as settlements with populations of 5 000 or more (GSS 2002). Using this official definition of 'urban', three main classifications can be made. These are: small towns, medium-sized/intermediate towns and large towns/cities. Adding rural settlements, Ghana's settlement hierarchy can be placed within a four-tier system. At the top are the large towns/cities of Accra, Kumasi, Tema and Sekondi-Takoradi, with populations of 250 000 or more. This is followed by the intermediate (medium-sized) towns with populations of 50 000 –250 000, typified by the regional capitals. After this come the small towns, exemplified by district capitals/administrative centres with populations between 5 000 and 50 000 (Owusu 2005).

Figure 1: Distribution of urban centres in Ghana and location of Planning School
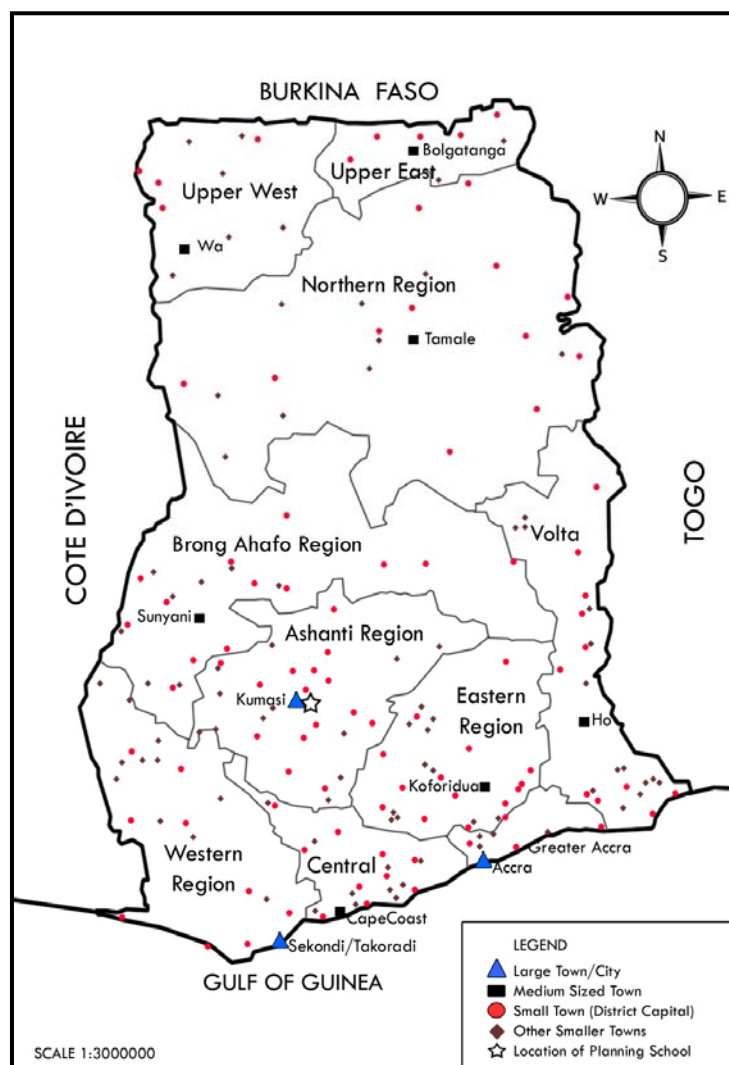
Source: Owusu 2005, updated by the author in July 2008

Figure 1 shows the distribution of urban centres in Ghana and the location of the Planning School in Kumasi, which is also the administrative capital of the Ashanti Region. The map indicates a higher concentration of urban centres in the south, reflecting the effects of colonial and post-colonial development policies, and the availability of economic opportunities due to limited or abundant mineral and agricultural resources in some regions (Konadu-Agyemang & Adanu 2003). Kumasi is further divided into ten sub-metropolitan areas for administrative purposes. The spatial form and structure of these sub-metros is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Kumasi sub-metropolitan areas – spatial form and structure
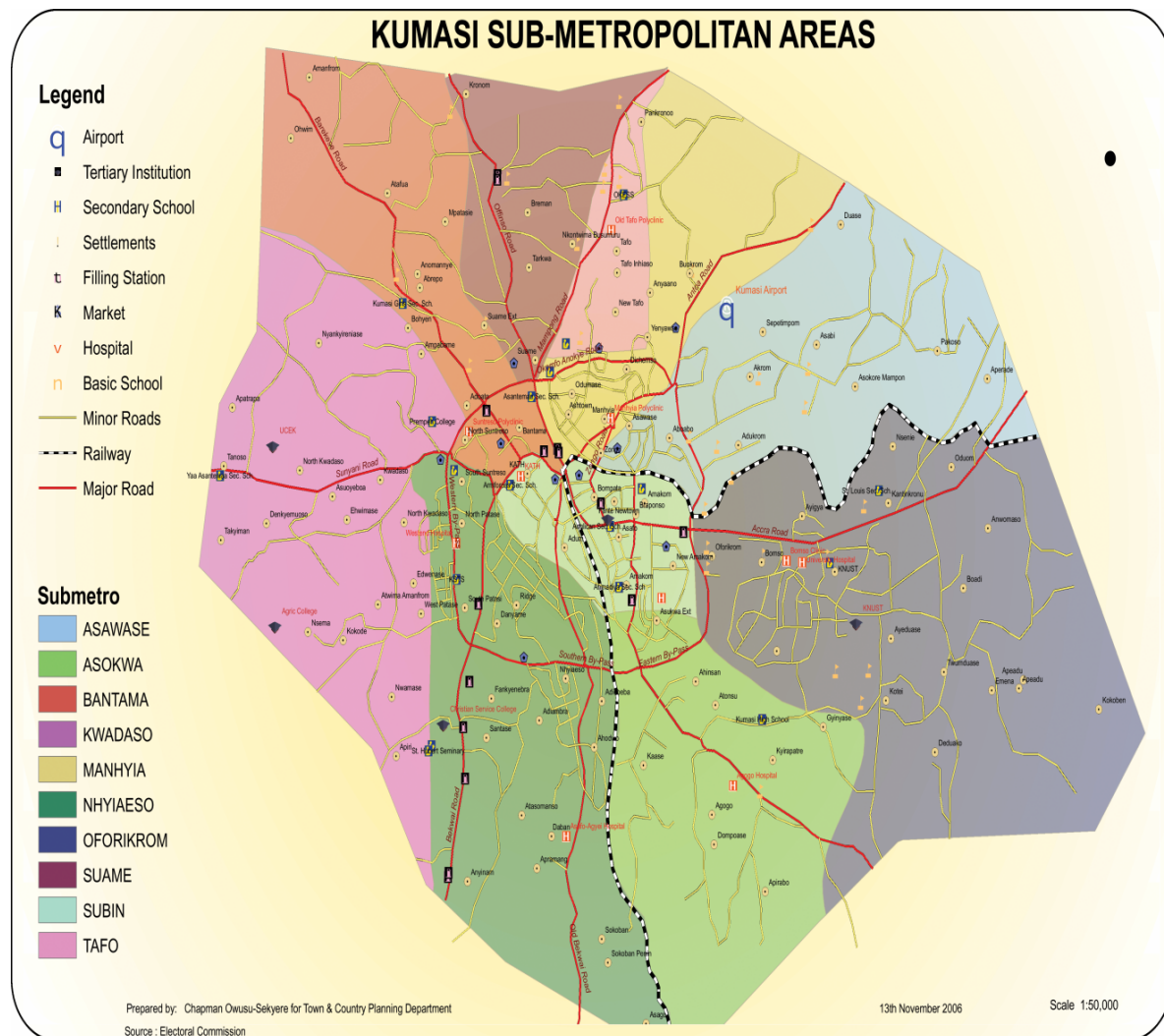
Source: Electoral Commission, cited in KMA 2006

1.3   Kumasi – population size and growth rates

The Kumasi metropolis is the most populous district in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. During the 2000 Population Census, it recorded a figure of 1 170 270. It has been projected to have a population of 1 735 180 in 2008, based on a growth rate of 5.4% per annum, and this accounts for just under a third (32.4%) of the Ashanti Region's population. Tables 3 and 4 give the population size and growth patterns of Kumasi from 1948 to the present time.

Table 3:   Population of Kumasi, 1948–2008

Area/year	1948	1960	1970	1984	2000	2008*
Kumasi	81 870	218 172	346 336	487 504	1 170 270	1 735 180
Ashanti	1 109 130	1 481 698	2 090 100	2 948 161	3 612 950	3 899 227
National	–	9 726 320	9 632 000	12 296 081	18 912 079	22 225 625

Source: Derived from Population Census Reports (1948, 1960, 1970, 1984 and 2000)

Note: * Projected numbers

Table 4:   Population growth rate (%), 1948–2007

Area	1948–1960	1960–1970	1970–1984	1984–2000	2000–2007*
Kumasi	7.9	4.5	2.5	5.2	5.4
Ashanti	2.0	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.4
National	–	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.7

Source: Derived from Population Census Reports (Government of Ghana 1962, 1972, 1986; GSS 2000)

Note: * Projected rate

Several reasons combine to make Kumasi a place of attraction for both internal and international migration. Firstly, it is the administrative capital of the Ashanti Region, and a commercial centre. Other reasons include the centrality of Kumasi as a nodal city, with major arterial routes linking it to other parts of the country, and the fact that it is an educational centre. There are two state universities, a private university, a polytechnic, two teacher training colleges, senior high schools and a host of basic schools (KMA 2006). The metropolis attracts a number of migrants from several parts of Ghana and neighbouring African countries such as Togo, Burkina Faso, Mali, Nigeria, Ivory Coast and abroad, especially Europe (KMA 2006). Table 5 shows the growth rate of the city's population due to migration.

Table 5:   Migrant proportions of population growth rates, 1948–2009

Year	Growth of population due to migration (%)
1948	26.5
1960	60.8
1970	53.1
1984	62.2
2000	48.6
2009*	56.7

Source: Derived from Population Census Reports (Government of Ghana 1962, 1972, 1986; GSS 2000)

Note: * Projected rate

1.4   The informal economy and settlement in Kumasi

An important dimension of the Kumasi metropolitan economy is the expansion of the informal economy through self-employment. Three forms of economic activity can be identified, namely petty commodity production, petty commerce and urban agriculture. Commerce is by far the largest sub-sector, accounting for about 60% of total employment of the informal economy in the metropolis. This is followed by petty commodity production, which accounts for about 35%, and urban agriculture, accounting for about 5% (Boapeah 2000).

In 1970, the informal sector employed about 54% of the labour force in Kumasi (Government of Ghana 1972). The figure rose to about 65% in 1990. Today, about 75% of the labour force in the metropolis is employed in the informal sector, with self-employment accounting for about 65% of

total employment. The informal economy's role is, however, not only limited to employment generation. It also serves as an important source of revenue for both the central and local government. In 1985, for instance, the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, then known as the Kumasi City Council, earned GH¢61 million from the informal sector out of a total revenue of GH¢105 million earned, representing over 61% (Boapeah & Osei-Adu 1987). This revenue came from sources including fees, rates, licences and fines.

In terms of spatial organisation, informal-economy activities in the metropolis are largely unorganised. However, their potential for agglomeration in the case of vehicle repairs and carpentry, for example, and the subsequent infrastructure needs, is a concern to the metropolitan authorities. The vehicle repair centres at Suame Magazine and Asafo, woodworks centre at Anloga, and street activities along the radial routes, especially the portion within the ring road and the CBD of Adum, are specific examples.

1.5   Access to adequate housing and services

Houses in the metropolis can be classified into about five types. These include: single-storey traditional compound houses, multi-storey compound houses, government-built detached or semi-detached houses for low-income households, large single-household houses built on relatively large plots, and block of flats. The housing environments in some parts of Kumasi, especially Oforikrom, Moshie Zongo, Sawaba, Ayigya Zongo and Aboabo, are unsightly and characterised by poor drainage and sanitation. Only about 51% of the residents use internal toilet facilities in their houses while 38% of them still use public toilets for which a fee is paid per visit. Others making up the remaining 11% use indiscriminate places as toilets.

The 2000 Population Census kept the housing stock in the metropolis at 67 434 (GSS 2000). In percentage terms, therefore, Kumasi has 20.5% of the regional housing stock. The average household size stood at 5.1, whilst the average number of households per house was 3.4 with an average population per house of 17.3. The room occupancy rate was 2.7, which is above the UN standard of 2.5, but below the national average of 3.0. With a population growth rate of 5.47% vis-à-vis an annual growth rate of the housing stock of 2.4%, it is obvious that demand far exceeds supply.

The housing stock in the city can be classified into fairly homogeneous sectors on the basis of their physical characteristics and housing conditions. A study carried out in the metropolis identified four main housing sectors (Tipple 1987). These are:

1.   High Cost Sector (low-density high-class area) (Nhyiaeso, Asokwa, Ridge, West Ayigya etc.): 1–3 houses/hectare; 50 persons/hectare

2.   Tenement Sector (high-density medium-class area) (Asafo, Amakom, Bantama, Dichemso etc.): 5–7 houses/hectare; 200 persons/hectare

3.   Indigenous Sector (high-density low-class area): 190 persons/hectare

4.   Government-Built Sector (medium-density medium-class area) (e.g. North & South Suntresu, Kwadaso Estate etc.): 3–5 houses/hectare; 100 persons/hectare

The current housing situation in the city is as follows:

▪   Average household size: 5.1

▪   Average room occupancy rates: 2.7

▪   Average number of persons per house: 25.7

▪   Average number of rooms per house: 9.8

Housing supply in the city comes from two main sources, the private sector and government programmes for housing development. Figure 3 indicates the quantity of houses in the system as at the year 2000 and the various types available. All types except the government type are provided by the private sector. Figure 4 gives the variations in percentages of the various types of houses in the city. The variations show that the percentage of indigenous houses has increased steadily over the period. Currently the city's population is growing at a rate of 5.47% per annum whilst housing supply is growing at 2.4% per annum.

Figure 3: Housing supply, by sector, 1960–2000
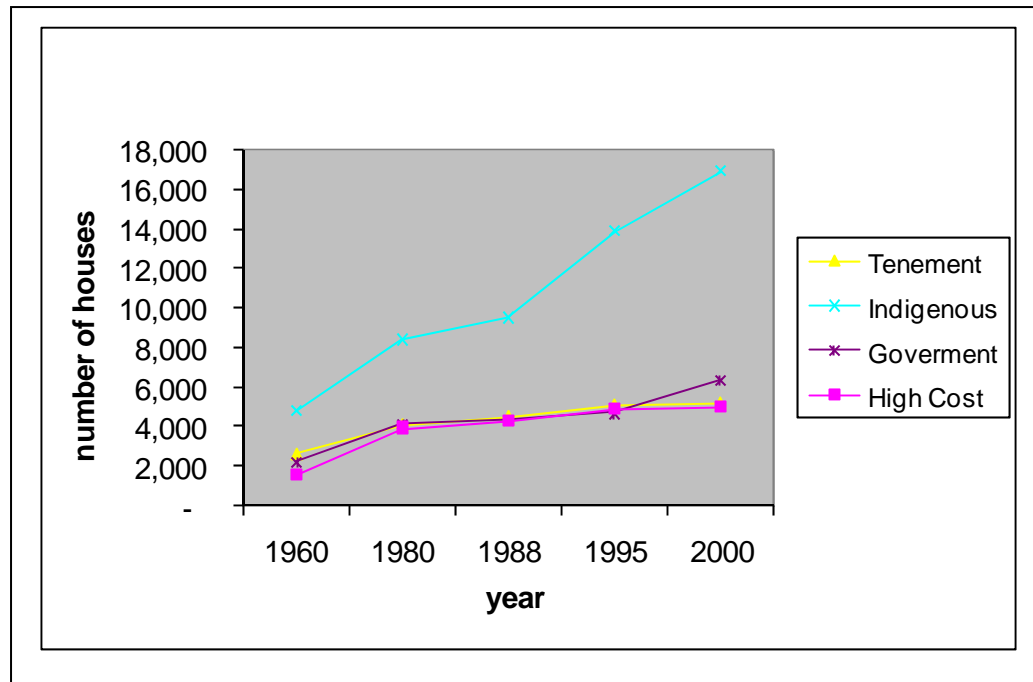
Source: KMA 2006

Figure 4: Percentage housing supply, by sector, 1960–2000
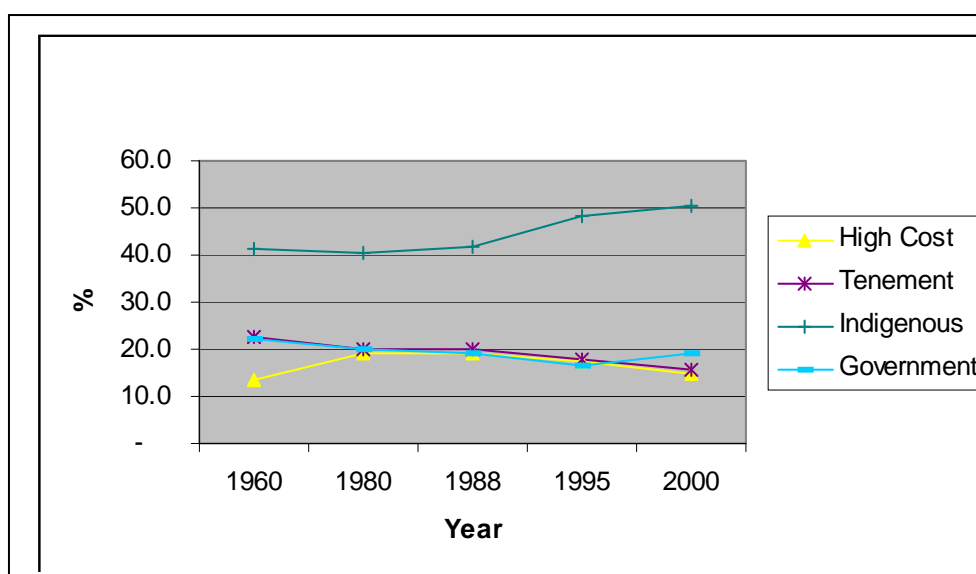
Source: KMA 2006

There are three categories of housing tenure in Kumasi, namely house owners, renters and occupants.

6

Occupants here represent a group of people who neither rent nor own the house, but live there. Some key housing problems have been identified in the current development plan for Kumasi:

- About 70% of all households in the city occupy single rooms – the highest percentage in all African cities except Lagos.

- Average room-occupancy in the city is 2.7 persons.

- About 74% of households rely on rental housing.

- About 43% of all acquired plots in the new statutory planning areas in the city are vacant.

- About 24% of all houses in the city are uncompleted.

- 25–33% of households in the city lack access to water, electricity, bathroom or toilet.

1.6 Poverty, unemployment and income inequality

In a dialogue with a cross-section of stakeholders drawn from departments, institutions and communities during the Poverty Profiling, Mapping and Pro-Poor Programme in 2004 for the preparation of a development plan, perceptions about poverty differed from person to person. Nevertheless, these varying perceptions gave an insight into what poverty was. It was variously perceived as a condition of low income, low productivity, malnutrition, high illiteracy, poor shelter, unsafe drinking water, very few personal possessions, high morbidity and mortality rates and poor physical appearance, among others. However, for purposes of this exercise, poverty was generally described as the absence of means to satisfy basic needs – water, clothing, food and shelter.

Poverty levels and locations

Poverty levels are generally perceived to be high in the Kumasi metropolis. Even though the issue of poverty affects the entire metropolis, it is more pronounced in the peri-urban and slum communities where facilities/opportunities are either inadequate or non-existent; conditions in these communities are characterised by poor housing, poor road networks, absence of educational facilities, lack of access to quality health care, poor environmental sanitation, high illiteracy rates, relatively low incomes and high unemployment levels, among other features.

In both urban and peri-urban communities in the metropolis poverty manifests itself in the following dimensions: in terms of basic needs, livelihoods, resources/vulnerability, political alienation, social/cultural and psychological deprivation. The following have been identified as manifestations of poverty in the Kumasi metropolis:

- low income and low productivity;

- high school dropout rates;

- child labour;

- malnutrition;

- high illiteracy;

- poor living conditions;

- inadequately balanced diet;

- lack of decent accommodation (without basic facilities);

- high mortality rates;

- inability to complete education;

▪ poor physical appearance.

1.7 Culture, ethnicity and civil society dynamics

Although the Kumasi metropolis is Asante-dominated, almost all the other ethnic groups in Ghana are represented there. Ethnic and cultural diversity abounds, but the communities are closely knit together in a harmonious relationship. The diversity of ethnic groups in the area can be attributed to the following factors:

1. the rate of in migration into the metropolis as a result of its strategic location and also rapid urbanisation;

2. the ability of these diverse ethnic groups to coexist and share cultural values; and

3. the presence of a strong traditional administrative set-up that galvanises cohesion among the diverse ethnic groups.

The traditional beliefs and knowledge of the people of Kumasi are rooted in every aspect of their livelihood. These values in our traditional set-up are aptly demonstrated in our family system, chieftaincy institutions and superstitions or beliefs. Traditional knowledge is rooted in music, folktales, drumming and dancing, carvings and proverbs. These have been carried over from generation to generation. They are visible during festivals, durbars and funerals and have caused the people of Kumasi in particular, and Ashanti in general, to maintain the purity and tapestry of their culture. The rich cultural heritage of the people of Kumasi is visible in the Akwasidae festival, funerals, child-naming ceremonies, communal spirit and religion. The traditional religious practices are still upheld through the pouring of libations, marriage rites and rites of passage.

The traditional political system and family structures have combined effectively to promote participation. The diversity of ethnicity therefore does not erode popular participation in decision-making, the chiefs being the rallying points. It is estimated that 50% of tourists visiting Ghana make it a point to see the treasures of the city and its environs.

1.8 Urban land – ownership, price and speculation

There are three categories of land ownership, dubbed Part I, Part II and Part III. The Part I lands are stool lands and have been vested in the President of the Republic of Ghana in trust for the Golden Stool. These lands are public and their status is attributable to various laws culminating in the promulgation of the Administration of Lands Act (Act 123 of 1962). The entire CBD of Kumasi falls into this category, as well as portions of Amakom, Asokwa, Asafo, Bantama, Manhyia and Dichemso. Part II lands are pure stool lands held in trust by caretaker chiefs for the Golden Stool. These lands constitute about 60% of the entire landmass of the Kumasi planning area.

A third category is those lands acquired in the public interest for various uses by law. Prominent government lands include 300 feet in both directions from the centre line of the Kumasi–Offinso, Kumasi–Mampong and Kumasi–Sunyani trunk roads. The Road Appropriation Ordinance of 1902 vests these lands in the government. Another category of lands under public ownership includes rights of way, sanitary sites, railway reservations, open spaces and public school lands. There are no freehold grants of land in Kumasi. Customarily, therefore, stool lands are not to be sold. The sale of stool or government lands is statutorily barred. Leasehold rights are, however, acquired for the various categories of users: residential – 99 years, commercial/industrial/civic and cultural – 50 years, and petrol stations – 21 years.

The stock of state lands has been exhausted. Private land acquisition occurs through negotiation with caretaker chiefs. As a result of the surge in the urban population, the demand for land for housing

and other uses has soared due to speculation. Prices of plots along the major roads are relatively high. This is because the servicing of lands does not precede development, so people prefer those lands that are easily accessible, thereby forcing up prices. The prices of land therefore tend to reduce as you move away from the roads. The increase in economic activity has led to an increase in the demand for all categories of land use i.e. residential, commercial, industrial, and civic and culture. Residential plots of 100 × 100 feet are 'sold' for between GH¢4 000 and GH¢8 000 (US$4 000–8 000) in middle-class residential areas, while the value of plots with an average size of 0.3 and 0.4 acre in the first-class residential areas such as Nhyiaeso, Danyame, Ahodwo and Asokwa, where infrastructural facilities in terms of serviceable roads, telephones, electricity and water are well developed and laid out, attract values of about GH¢150 000–200 000 (US$150 000–200 000).

Problems associated with the land market

Land acquisition procedures in the metropolis are associated with problems in relation to irregularities in the land market, unclear land boundaries and the absence of well institutionalised estate agencies. This makes it difficult for a prospective grantee to know where to start from and who to deal with in respect of the granting of stool lands. The process is further saddled with bureaucracy, thereby making the acquisition procedure slow and burdensome. It is more pronounced with the granting of state lands. Land litigation is also rampant, as a result of indeterminate land boundaries between stools.

1.9 Health issues in Kumasi

The Metropolitan Health Services are organised around five Sub-Metro Health Teams, namely Bantama, Asokwa, Manhyia North, Manhyia South and Subin. The city has a number of health facilities in both the public and private sectors. Notable among them are the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital, which is one of the two national autonomous hospitals, four quasi-health institutions, and five health care centres owned by the Church of Christ and the Seventh-Day Adventist Church. In addition, there are over 200 known private health institutions and 13 industrial clinics in the metropolis. There are also 54 trained traditional birth attendants, 9 Maternal and Child Health points and 119 outreach sites. The common diseases and other causes of illness in the metropolis include malaria, diarrhoea, HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, septic abortion and road traffic accidents.

1.10 Major environmental issues

The environment of the city has been characterised by solid and liquid waste, land degradation, surface water and groundwater pollution as a result of human activities for several years. The city is estimated to generate about 500 000 kg of solid waste daily, based on the current projected population of 1 735 180 for 2008. This is expected to have increased by 15% by the year 2010. The Waste Management Department of the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly appears to be overwhelmed by the task of hauling all the solid waste produced in the city.

The major land degradation issues are the encroachments onto forest reserves, green belts, wetlands and open areas. Improper disposal of sawdust and other pollutants by industries, carpenters and other related woodworks at Anloga into the Sisai stream threatens its flow and life. Charcoal burning takes place extensively in this area, sending fumes of smoke and other pollutants into the air.

The extent of water pollution in the metropolis is worrying and the situation continues to deteriorate. This is as a result of the flouting of fundamental hygiene practices in the metropolis. Effluent is discharged into streams like the Nsuben from the sewage treatment plant at Kaase. At Anloga, toilets have been built on the Sisai stream. Construction of buildings in waterways causes perennial flooding

in the city, and dumping of refuse in gutters and drains and the inability of existing culverts to receive large volumes of water aggravate the situation.

2. Planning in Ghana

2.1 Legislation governing planning

In Ghana, separate legislation governs physical and development planning. Town and country planning in Ghana grew from the foresight of Lord Swinton, the Colonial Resident Minister for West Africa, who in 1944 appointed a consultant and charged him with the duty of setting up a town and country organisation for the purpose of preparing draft planning schemes and reports for the major towns of West Africa. Five such schemes were prepared for this country to guide the growth of Accra, Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi, Cape Coast and the Tarkwa (Asigri & Karbo 1997). In 1945, official and statutory recognition was given to town and country planning as a major function of government by the enactment of the Town and Country Planning Ordinance (Cap. 84). The ordinance created a Town and Country Planning Board and charged it with the duty of securing the orderly and progressive development of land. The ordinance provided for the declaration of specific 'Statutory Planning Areas', where the provisions of the ordinance would be applicable, and where local planning committees with delegated powers would administer limited planning functions.

The system of town and country planning introduced by the ordinance (i.e. Cap. 84), fashioned after the UK Town and Country Planning Act of 1932, prevailed after independence. The Town and Country Planning (Amendment) Act of 1959 introduced a minister responsible for town and country planning to supersede the Board and to take over all the responsibilities and authority vested in that body. The Town and Country Planning Ordinance (Cap. 84) became the standing legislation on planning in Ghana until the new planning system was introduced in 1988.

 The Local Government Law of 1988 (PNDCL 207) provides the basic provisions of the new planning system, with the District Assembly as the Planning Authority in the District. The Local Government Act, Act 462 of 1993, assented to on 24 December 1993, established and regulates the local government system in accordance with the Constitution. Act 462 provides that, for the purposes of national development planning, each District Assembly is by the Act established as the planning authority for its area of authority. The District Assembly, as the planning authority for the district, shall perform any planning functions conferred on it by any enactment for the time in force.

Act 479 under the Constitution provides enactment for development planning policy and strategy. Assented to on 29 August 1991, Act 479 established the National Development Planning Commission. The Commission is responsible to the President, whom it advises on development planning policy and strategy. The Commission is also responsible for the preparation of broad national development plans.

2.2 Types of plans produced

When physical planning started in Ghana in the 1940s, master plans were the main plans produced. The master plans were, however, later found to be very rigid in the context of urban development in Ghana. The focus of the Town and Country Planning Departments therefore shifted to the preparation of structure plans, which are further detailed into sector layouts (Asigri & Karbo 1997). The passage of the Town and Country Planning Ordinance, Cap. 84, marked the genesis of the organised development of Kumasi in 1945. The plan designated Kumasi as the 'Garden City of West Africa' and declared the city, among other regional capitals, as a statutory planning area. The current urban plan was prepared in 1963 and named the Kumasi Outline Planning Scheme. The plan sought in broad terms to provide the framework for social, economic, physical, infrastructure and environmental growth of the city (see Figure 5).

Figure 5: The current urban plan for Kumasi
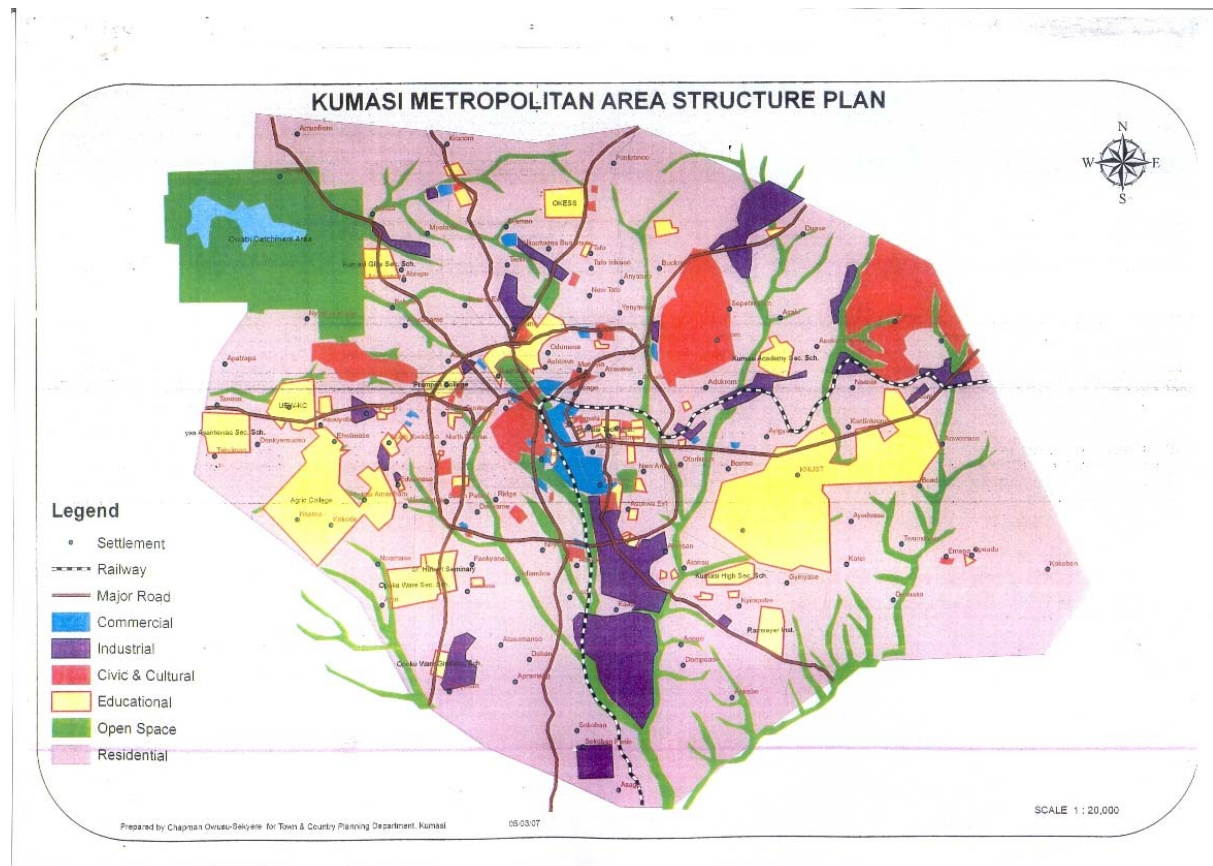
Source: KMA 2006

2.3   Institutional arrangements for planning

Five separate departments administer the physical plans prepared in the city. They are the Town and Country Planning Department, the Survey Department, the Works Department, the Lands Commission and the Lands Title Registry. The Town and Country Planning Department prepares the structure plans and further details each plan in layouts. The Survey Department does the interpretation of the plans whilst the Works Department and Lands Commission jointly implement the plans. The major role of the Lands Title Registry is to give ownership rights to the lands.

2.4   Effectiveness of plans

There has been a growing concern about the effectiveness of physical plans in Ghana in general, and in Kumasi City in particular. Sentiments have been expressed over the years about the inability of physical plans to succeed in guiding and controlling private sector development and in promoting the socio-spatial inclusion of the poor. The major setback has been the weak capacity of the institutions charged with the task of administering the plans. Logistical supports for effective monitoring are woefully inadequate, and in some instances are completely unavailable. As a result, development control has been very poor.

3. The planning education system in the Department of Planning

The Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology is currently the only institution recognised by government which trains skilled personnel to promote, coordinate and manage development at the national and sub-national levels. The department considers planning as an integrated process with political, social, economic and spatial dimensions, which affects the quality of life of people. The department's approach in tackling development problems is therefore interdisciplinary, reflecting the multi-dimensional nature of development problems. The department's main mission is to train skilled personnel required to formulate and manage various development policies and programmes at all levels of national development, such as the National Vision of Socio-Economic Development which is required by the 1992 Constitution, the economic management programme, the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II), as well as the ongoing decentralisation policy, and to promote and implement the improved planning system.

3.1 Objectives of the department

The department's objectives, which are in line with national objectives for tertiary education and the university's expectations, are:

1. to provide cost-effective training of students at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels, and train personnel in support of national development policies and programmes of decentralisation, rationalisation of planning services and grassroots development;

2. to improve access of women to programmes in the department at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels;

3. to intensify the Department of Planning's extra-mural activities through distance education, continuing education and provision of further assistance to needy communities and districts;

4. to provide in-service training tailored to meet the requirements of sectoral ministries, Regional Coordinating Councils, District Assemblies, parastatals and various private sector organisations including NGOs, through continuing education; and

5. to gradually localise postgraduate training by increasing intake of students to enable them to specialise in fields critical to overall national development and economic management.

3.2 Programmes offered

The department currently runs the following academic programmes:

- Bachelor of Science (BSc) (four-year programme in Development Planning);

- BSc (four-year programme in Human Settlement Planning);

- Master of Science (MSc) (two-year programme in Development Planning and Management);

- MSc (two-year programme in Development Policy and Planning on both Regular and Sandwich Bases);

- Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Planning and Development Studies; and

- PhD in Planning and Development Studies.

Details of these programmes are set out below.

Undergraduate Development Planning Programme

(T –Theory; P – Practical; C – Credits)

Year I, Semester 1			T	P	C
PL	151	Planning Workshop I (Foundation)	6	12	6
PL	153	Quantitative Methods for Planners I	2	–	2
PL	157	Geography for Planners	2	–	2
PL	155	Fundamentals of Planning	3	–	3
PL	159	Economics for Development I	2	–	2
PL	161	Information and Communication Technology			2
ENG	157	Communication Skills	2	–	2
			17	**12**	**19**

Year I, Semester 2			T	P	C
PL	154	Planning Workshop I (Foundation)	–	12	6
PL	158	Quantitative Methods for Planners II	3	–	3
PL	168	Economics for Development II	2	–	2
PL	164	History of Settlements	2	–	2
PL	162	Social Aspects of Development	3	–	3
ENG	158	Communication Skills	2	–	2
			12	**12**	**18**

Year II, Semester 1			T	P	C
PL	251	Planning Workshop II (Rural Settlement Planning)	–	12	6
PL	255	Development Planning Process	3	–	2
PL	257	Environment and Development	3	–	2
PL	259	Population and Development	3	–	2
PL	253	Research Methods	3	–	3
ENGL	263	Literature in English	1	–	1
			13	**12**	**16**

Year II, Semester 2			T	P	C
PL	254	Planning Workshop II (Rural Settlement Planning)	–	12	6
PL	258	Economics of Spatial Development	3	–	3
PL	256	Models in Planning	3	–	3
PL	262	Housing Policy	3	–	3
PL	266	Theories of Development	3	–	3
			12	**12**	**18**

Year III, Semester 1			T	P	C
PL	353	Planning Workshop III (District Development)	–	12	6
PL	355	Transportation Planning	3	–	3
PL	357	Agriculture and Industrial Development Policy	3	–	3
PL	359	Resource Assessment Techniques	3	–	3
PL	361	Housing Policy Planning	3	–	3
			12	**12**	**18**

Year III, Semester 2			T	P	C
PL	354	Planning Workshop III (District Development)	–	12	6
PL	360	Infrastructure Planning	3	–	3
PL	362	Governance of Development	3	–	3
PL	355	Project Analysis and Evaluation	3	–	3
PL	357/359	Health or Education Planning	3	–	3
			12	**12**	**18**

Year IV, Semester 1

			T	P	C
PL	453	Planning Workshop IV	–	12	6
PL	461	Planning Theory	3	–	3
PL	455	Financing Development	3	–	3
PL	459	Management and Entrepreneurial Skills	3	–	3
PL	457	Social Policy Planning	3	–	3
PL	463	Special Study	–	12	3
			12	**24**	**21**

Year IV, Semester 2

			T	P	C
PL	454	Planning Workshop IV	6	12	6
PL	464	Special Study	6	12	9
			12	**12**	**15**

Undergraduate Human Settlement Planning Programme

Year I, Semester 1

			T	P	C
SP	151	Foundation Workshop I	–	12	4
SP	153	History of Settlements	2	–	2
SP	159	Quantitative Methods for Settlement Planners	2	–	2
PL	155	Fundamentals of Planning	2	–	2
PL	161	Information and Communication Technology	2	–	2
PL	159	Economics for Development I	2	–	2
PL	157	Geography for Planners	2	–	2
GE	183	Principles of Land Surveying I	2	–	2
ENGL	157	Communication Skills I	2	–	2
			16	**12**	**20**

Year I, Semester 2

			T	P	C
SP	152	Foundation Workshop II	–	12	4
SP	154	Settlement Planning Process	2	–	2
SP	156	Introduction to Built Environment	2	–	2
SP	158	Population and Planning	2	–	2
ENGL	158	Communication skills II	2	–	2
GE	184	Principles of Land Surveying II	2	–	2
WRM	254	Introduction to Remote Sensing and GIS I	2	–	2
			12	**12**	**16**

Year II Semester 1

			T	P	C
SP	251	Rural Settlement Planning Workshop I	–	12	4
SP	259	Settlement and Neighbourhood Design	2	–	2
SP	261	Rural and Urban Sociology	2	–	2
PL	253	Research Methods	2	–	2
GE	273	Introduction to Remote Sensing and GIS II	3	–	3
PL	257	Environment and Development	2	–	2
ENGL	263	Literature in English	1	–	1
			12	**12**	**16**

Year II, Semester 2

			T	P	C
SP	252	Rural Settlement Planning Workshop II	–	12	4
SP	256	Urban Economics and Valuation	2	–	2
SP	266	Housing Policy and Strategy	2	–	2
SP	262	Settlement Infrastructure Planning	2	–	2

PL	254	Social Policy Planning	2	–	2
ENGL	264	Literature in English	1	–	1
			9	**12**	**13**

Year III, Semester 1			**T**	**P**	**C**
SP	351	Urban Planning Workshop I	–	12	4
SP	355	Environmental Management	2	–	2
SP	357	Urban Transportation Planning	3	–	3
SP	361	Urban Regeneration and Upgrading	3	–	3
SP	363	Planning Legislation and Administration	3	–	3
SP	368	Landscape Planning	2	–	2
BT	151	Materials and Construction I	2	–	2
			15	**12**	**19**

Year III, Semester 2			**T**	**P**	**C**
SP	352	Urban Planning Workshop II	–	12	4
SP	354	Urban Governance	3	–	3
SP	356	Planning for Social Services	2	–	2
SP	358	Project Analysis and Management	3	–	3
SP	360	Element of Land Laws and Urban Development	3	–	3
SP	362	Settlement Growth Management	3	–	3
AR	022	Architectural Design for Planners	2	–	2
			16	**12**	**20**

Year IV, Semester 1			**T**	**P**	**C**
SP	451	Metropolitan Planning Workshop I	–	15	5
SP	453	Municipal Finance	3	–	3
SP	457	Plan Implémentation Techniques	3	–	3
PL	459	Management and Entrepreneurial Skills	3	–	3
PL	461	Planning Theory	3	–	3
			12	**15**	**17**

Year IV, Semester 2			**T**	**P**	**C**
SP	452	Metropolitan Planning Workshop II	–	15	5
SP	454	Seminar on Professional Presentations	–	–	–
SP	456	Thesis (Special Study)	9	–	9
			9	**15**	**14**

MSc Development Planning and Management Programme

Year I, Semester 1		**Credit hours**
PL 563	Ecology and Environmental Planning	2
PL 565	Small and Medium Scale Enterprise (SMEs) Development	2
PL 567	Agriculture Developments Planning	2
PL 569	Human Settlement Planning	2
PL 571	Development Theories & Strategies	2
PL 573	Foundation Workshops in Development Planning	6
		16

Year I, Semester 2		
PL 560	Organisations and Management	2
PL 568	Financing and Budgeting	2
PL 564	Demography and Social Infrastructure	3
PL 566	Transportation	2
PL 570	Workshop	6

		<u>15</u>
Year II, Semester 1		
PL 611	Spatial Statistics	2
PL 613	Planning Survey and Research Methods	2
PL 615	Governance of Development OR	2
PL 617	Political Economy of Development OR	2
PL 619	Sociology of Development	2
PL 621	Workshop in Development Planning Management I	6
PL 623	Thesis	<u>2</u>
		<u>18</u>
Year II, Semester 2		
PL 622	Workshop in Development Planning and Management	8
PL 624	Thesis	<u>6</u>
		<u>14</u>

Overall total credit hours   **63**

Development Policy and Planning Programme (Regular and Sandwich)

		Credit hours
Year I, Semester 1 (Core course, all students)		
PL 551	Economic Analysis for Development	3
PL 553	Quantitative Methods for Planning	3
PL 555	Social Dimensions of Development	3
PL 557	Development Planning Process	<u>3</u>
		<u>12</u>
Year I, Semester 2 (Core courses, all students)		
PL 552	Development Economics and Policy Analysis	3
PL 554	Spatial Dimensions of Development	3
PL 556	Comparative Development Policy Experience Seminar	3
PL 558	Research Methods	3
PL 562	Project Analysis and Appraisal Methods	<u>3</u>
		<u>15</u>
Year II, Semester 1 (Core courses, all students)		
PL 651	Development Administration and Management	3
PL 653	National Development Workshop	7
Economic Development Policy Option		
PL 655	Economic Development Planning Techniques	3
PL 661	Macro Economic Policy and Planning (Industrial and Agricultural Production and National Economic Policies)	3
Social Policy Option		
PL 659	Social Policy Analysis	3
PL 661	Social Sector Policy and Planning (Education, Health, Housing, Population)	3
Spatial Organisation Policy Option		
PL 663	Spatial development Planning Techniques	3
PL 665	Spatial Development Policy and Planning (Settlement Structure Transportation, Technical Infrastructure)	3
Total for each stream		<u>16</u>
Year II Semester 2 (Core courses, all students)		
PL 654	Thesis	10
PL 653	National Development Workshop	7

	<u>17</u>
Overall total credit hours	**60**

3.3 Assessment

Based on the university's rules and regulations, the department operates a system of continuous assessment and candidates are exposed to a variety of tests in coursework and oral examinations on workshops, as well as grades for the Special Study. Continuous assessments account for 30% while the end-of-semester examination makes up the remaining 70% of a course mark.[1] In oral presentations, students are assessed in groups and on an individual basis.

3.4 Class numbers and staff-student ratio

The department is staffed by 21 highly trained and experienced permanent faculty members with diverse academic backgrounds and research interests. They currently include one professor, one associate professor, three senior lecturers, fifteen lecturers and one research fellow. This staffing situation puts the staff-student ratio at 1 : 30 for undergraduates and 1 : 3 at the graduate level.

Tables 6 and 7 present class numbers at the undergraduate and graduate levels respectively.

Table 6: Class sizes, by undergraduate level, 2007/08 academic year

Year	Number of students		
	Development Planning Programme	Settlement Planning Programme	Total
Year 1	85	45	130
Year 2	100	45	145
Year 3	173	50	223
Year 4	117	20	137
Total	475	160	635

Source: DoP 2008

Table 7: Class sizes, by graduate level, 2007/08 academic year

Programme type	Level	Number of students
Development Planning and Management	Year I	13
	Year II	11
Development Policy and Planning	Year I	16
	Year II	15
MPhil & PhD		10
Total		65

Source: DoP 2008

3.5 Resources for teaching and learning

Both the undergraduate and graduate programmes employ a combination of lectures, studio work (workshops), class and community presentations as teaching methods. In addition, undergraduate students are regularly posted to development- and planning-related institutions for vacation training attachments. The vacation training programme in particular is an attempt by the department to link planning theory and practice in order to equip graduating students with the skills, attitudes and motivation to meet the challenges of development in Ghana and in Africa as a whole.

The effectiveness of planning education is, however, hampered by a number of factors. These include

---

[1] Grades that can be obtained are: A: 70–100, B: 60–69, C: 50–59, D: 40–49 and E: 0–39 (fail).

high student-lecturer ratios, insufficient classroom and studio space, insufficient availability of teaching and learning aids, and insufficient access to planning literature and journals. The combined effect of these factors is that facilitation of teaching, learning and professional practice is adversely affected. The College of Architecture and Planning Library, which the Planning Department shares with sister departments (Architecture, Land Economy and Building Technology), for example, lacks current and pertinent literature in planning. Materials available are mostly outdated and sometimes not relevant to the needs of the particular socio-economic context of the country. Through the membership of the Association of African Planning Schools (AAPS) the department has access to a few international journals like *Planning Theory* and the *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, but fundamental access to journals is restricted, hampering the ability of staff and students to do world-class research on planning and related disciplines. There are currently no geographic information systems (GIS) laboratories to facilitate the Human Settlements Programme and students access the facility at the Geomatic Engineering Department of the university.

The prevailing situation of high student numbers and general shortage of resources means that the department is not always able to implement to the full its training programmes. For example, the organisation of familiarisation trips, field visits to planning institutions, modelling and other activities to expose students to planning practice is hampered. In many instances, sites for field exercises have to be selected from among the communities at the fringes of the university, or from among towns in the Ashanti Region of Ghana where the university is located. These sites are chosen purely on the basis of their physical proximity in order to cut down cost, irrespective of whether they will best illustrate the planning issues being studied. This situation brings into question the relevance of the course modules and the approaches and methods used to contemporary planning practice and tends to undermine the quality of planning education offered to students. Apart from this, lack of resources to diversify the study locations means that the same communities tend to be studied year after year by different sets of students, giving rise to community fatigue with planning exercises which are seen not to yield any direct benefits to the communities in question. There have been situations where communities have not cooperated well with students as a result of familiarity and fatigue on the part of community members.

As part of the new educational reforms, students are expected to pay academic facility user fees, which are used to support the acquisition of basic teaching and learning materials, namely tracing paper, bond sheets, markers, drawing boards, drawing instruments, writing paper, among others, mainly to support the studio or 'workshop' exercises where students put into practice the various courses taught in the design of schemes, preparation of plans and implementation mechanisms for schemes. A part of the user fees is used to offset the cost of supporting the student costs for field exercises, including transport, accommodation, board and lodging.

In the light of these difficulties, several attempts have been made by the government and the universities themselves to respond to the situation. The government of Ghana – in response to the lack of resources for education in general – instituted the Ghana Education Trust Fund in 2002. This is an innovative fund derived from a 2.5% share of the Value Added Tax operating in the country. This fund has in the last decade been used to transform the educational sector in Ghana by providing resources for the building of classrooms, studios and lecture halls, as well as providing transport for the educational sector. The Department of Planning – as part of the College of Architecture and Planning – has benefited from this and it is expected that with the completion of a new college block and a postgraduate building, much more space will be made available for planning education in Ghana. Despite these efforts, planning education in the country continues to be hampered by several factors that need to be addressed if planning is to meet the needs of Ghana.

3.6   Responding to the issues of the 21st century

The planning curriculum in the department of planning has undergone many changes in response to the changing needs of the country. At the establishment of the department in 1958, emphasis was placed on physical planning, and the award of a common BSc Design degree to students of the then Faculty of Architecture so that graduating students could pursue further degrees in architecture, building technology or planning. The planning programme reflected ties with the colonial power, the UK (Diaw et al. 2002), and the programme entered students for the intermediate examinations of the UK Royal Town Planning Institute. After passing the examination, students were sent to universities in the UK to obtain full professional qualifications (DoP 2001). At the time, the curriculum responded to the need to prepare master plans for the main urban settlements of Ghana. The introduction of a three-year Diploma in Physical Planning reinforced the emphasis on spatial planning until the course was discontinued in 1977.

In the late 1980s, the focus of planning education in the department shifted to what was defined as 'development planning', in response to the decentralisation process in the country. The curriculum tended to focus on training planners to meet the requirements of the newly constituted Development Planning Coordinating Units that were charged with the responsibility of preparing medium-term development plans for the districts. This development created a situation in which institutions like the Town and Country Planning Department, which had normally absorbed graduates, could not fill vacancies as graduates fitted better into other sectors. The emergence of Poverty Reduction Strategy Programmes as a development strategy also had an influence on the kinds of plans that were prepared at the district level, focusing more on the socio-economic aspects to the detriment of the spatial components of planning.

There were periods in the life of the Planning Department, therefore, when the planning curriculum could not meet the challenges of the current issues arising in the human settlements of Ghana. Though the situation still persists, the introduction of a full BSc programme in Human Settlement Planning in 2005 is expected to help to resolve these shortfalls, albeit in the long term.

3.7   Sectors that employ planning graduates

Currently, most graduates of the undergraduate planning programme find employment in the traditional planning institutions like the Town and Country Planning Department and the District Planning and Coordinating Units of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies. It is, however, the case that these two avenues have become less attractive to graduates because of the poor service conditions. Many District Assemblies and Town and Country Planning Offices still lack the requisite complement of planning personnel to support their constitutional functions. In the recent past, there has been a tendency for graduates from the Development Planning option to opt for jobs in NGOs in the development field, as well as in financial institutions. Graduates in the Master's Programme in Development Policy and Planning have found employment mainly in the public sector dealing with macro-economic policy formulation, public sector management, and local and regional economic development, among other issues. Key public ministries that employ graduates include the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Environment, the Ministry of Education and Sports, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, and the Planning Units of the Ministries of Health and Education. Even though official assessment has not been carried out, it is believed that the analytical skills provided, and the integrated approach to development, ensure that graduates are well suited not only to the traditional fields of planning practice, but also to several other fields of employment.

3.8   Professional associations and planning accreditation

The Ghana Institute of Planners is registered in accordance with the provisions of the Professional Bodies Registration Decree 1973, NRCD 143. Membership of the Institute is divided into five categories, namely Fellows, Honorary Fellows, Members, Junior Members and Student Members. The day-to-day running of the Institute is undertaken by the National Executive Committee, made up of a President and nine other officers. The Institute is guided by its constitution, first drafted and approved in 1969. The constitution was adopted in 1995. The constitution sets up a code of professional conduct, the conditions of engagement and a schedule of professional fees and charges. There is no formal accreditation in place, but the Ghana Institute of Planners continues to be instrumental in shaping the curriculum of the Department of Planning by providing direction in linking theory and practice. Apart from this, members of the Institute have also acted as external examiners and readers for the department, as well as offering vacation training opportunities for students.

4.   Summary and conclusions

Planning education in Ghana has gone through a number of cycles. It started with a model fashioned along the lines of that existing in the UK, and strong links existed between the department and British institutions for a very long time. Pioneer graduates were, for example, prepared to sit for professional qualifying examinations overseas. From a centralised planning system, planning education sought to train planners to fit into this stream, with a focus on physical planning in the country. With time, the curriculum shifted to focus on 'development planning' with less emphasis being placed on the spatial aspects of planning. With a new undergraduate programme that focuses on human settlements, it is expected that the Department of Planning will be able prepare students to operate in the 21st-century urban environment.

References

Asigri MM & Karbo EP (1997) The role of town and country planning in contemporary Ghana. Discussion paper presented to the Acting Director of Town and Country Planning, Accra

Boapeah SN (2001) The informal economy in Kumasi. In KK Adarkwa & J Post (eds) *The Fate of the Tree. Planning and Managing the Development of Kumasi.* Amsterdam & Accra: Thela Thesis & Woeli Publishing

Boapeah SN & Osei-Adu L (1987) The informal sector and revenue generation. Draft report, Kumasi City Council, Kumasi, Ghana

Diaw K, Nnkya T & Watson V (2002) Planning education in Africa: Responding to the demands of a changing context. *Planning Practice and Research* 17(3): 337–348

DoP (Department of Planning, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology) (2001) *Profile of Department of Planning.* Kumasi: University Press

DoP (2008) Statistics on Students. General Office. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi

Government of Ghana (1962) *Population Census of Ghana, 1960*. Accra: Government of Ghana

Government of Ghana (1972) *Population Census of Ghana, 1970.* Accra: Government of Ghana

Government of Ghana (1986) *Population Census of Ghana, 1984.* Accra: Government of Ghana

GSS (Ghana Statistical Service) (2000) *Population and Housing Census – Summary Report of Final Result.* Accra: GSS

GSS (2002) *Population and Housing Census 2000 – Special Report on 20 Largest Localities*. Accra: GSS

Inkoom DKB (2008) Planning education in Ghana. Case study prepared for the *Global Report on Human Settlements 2009*. Accessed November 2008, http:www.unhabitat.org/grhs/2009

KMA (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly) (2006) *A Development Plan for the Kumasi Metropolitan Area (2006–2009)*. Kumasi: KMA

Konadu Agyeman K & Adanu S (2003) The changing geography of export trade in Ghana under Structural Adjustment Programs: Some socio-economic and spatial implications. *The Professional Geographer* 55: 513–526

Owusu G (2005) Small towns in Ghana: Justifications for their promotion under Ghana's decentralisation programme. *African Studies Quarterly* **8**(2): http://web.africa.ufl.edu/asq/v8/i2a3.htm

UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) (2007) *Human Development Report*. Accessed 5 June 2008, http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/

Tipple AG (1987) *The Development of Housing Policy in Kumasi, Ghana, 1901 to 1981: with an Analysis of the Current Housing Stock*. Newcastle-upon-Tyne: CARDO, University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne

World Bank (2008) *Country Profiles, Ghana*. Bank Information Centre. Accessed 6 June 2008, http://www.bicusa.org/en/Institution.1.aspx