
Module for Bachelor of Education Programme (Primary and JHS)

EBS347SW: POPULATION AND SOCIO- ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN GHANA

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COURSE DESCRIPTION

This course is developed to train teachers who could teach students to appreciate and solve the emerging environmental and social issues that negatively affect our communities. These issues are grounded within the social, economic and political spheres. Many of these issues are as a result of certain misconception and attitudes that negatively affect our communities. This programme is, therefore, design to equip teacher-trainees with the appropriate knowledge, skills and values to enable them to assist learners to live well as responsible citizens who have adequate knowledge on the social, economic and political issues in Ghana

UNIT 1: THE MEANING OF POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

We want to use this opportunity to welcome you to the unit 1 of this book. It is our hope that you will enjoy reading this material and also learn many things that will be of importance to you and to the society at large. In this unit, issues such as the meaning of population will be considered. Some peculiarities about the world population will be discussed. The issue of population changes as well as the components will also be dealt with. We will move a step further to discuss the concept of socioeconomic development, human development and sustainable development. In all, the unit has been divided into 6 sessions with each session presenting interesting information and knowledge that will equip the reader to be able to solve personal and societal problems population issues.

SESSION 1: THE CONCEPT OF POPULATION

In this session, we shall be discussing the meaning of the concept population. The concept of population is an everyday term that is used in different contexts and to refer to different entities. The word population is a generic term and could be used to mean different things. It could be used in the representation of different species or groups of species inhabiting a particular geographical area within a specified time. However, for the purpose of this course, our interest is in human population. The session discusses the concept of population, population.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to

1. Explain the concept of population
2. Explain the term demography
3. Examine five key facts about the world's population

THE CONCEPT OF POPULATION

Just as we read from the introductory part of the session and we explained the concept of population. Population in its generic meaning refers to a group of species that live in the same place at a particular period in time. It can also be said to mean a discrete assemblage of entities with identifiable characteristics such as people, animals with the objective of analysis and data collection is called a population. In the context of human population, it refers to a group of people inhabiting a given space or area at a specified period of time. Thus, the spatio-temporal (space and time) dimension of population is critical in determining the population of an area, be it at the community, group or country. This means that we can have the population of Ghana; or, the population of Accra or Kumasi Metropolis. Whatever be the case, the key issue in the categorisation a group as a population is the fact that **they are located within the confines of a given space and that, there is a time reference**. Hence, the absence of one of the dimensions would nullify a group's capacity to be referred to as a population. It is important to note that population is different from the total population. While population denotes a group of species or people that live in the same place at a particular period in time, the total population is concerned with the total number of people or species inhabiting a particular area at a given period. The statistical study of population and population dynamics is known as demography, and people who study it are known as demographers. However, the study of population is population studies.

THE CONCEPT OF DEMOGRAPHY

Demography is from two Greek Words *Demos* which means population and *Graphics* means to draw. Demography may be said to mean the scientific study of human population and its dynamics. Demography deals with major “demographic processes” namely fertility, mortality and migration. These processes are continually at work within a population determining its size, composition and distribution.

Key Facts about the World’s Population

As students of population, there are some basic facts about the world’s population that you should know. These include the following:

1. About 253 babies are born every minute of a day
2. At sunset the world has 217,000 more people than it did the day before
3. Global life expectancy at birth has fallen to 71.0 years in 2021, down from 72.8 in 2019, due mostly to the impact of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic.
4. The world’s population is projected to reach 8 billion on 15 November 2022.
5. The latest projections by the United Nations suggest that the global population could grow to around 8.5 billion in 2030, 9.7 billion in 2050 and 10.4 billion in 2100.
6. Population growth is caused in part by declining levels of mortality, as reflected in increased levels of life expectancy at birth.
7. Globally, life expectancy reached 72.8 years in 2019, an increase of almost 9 years since 1990. Further reductions in mortality are projected to result in an average longevity of around 77.2 years globally in 2050. Asia is the most densely populated continent, inhabiting about 60 percent (4.6 billion people) of the world’s population as of 2019.
8. In 2021, the average fertility of the world’s population stood at 2.3 births² per woman over a lifetime, having fallen from about 5 births per woman in 1950. Global fertility is projected to decline further to 2.1 births per woman by 2050.
9. In 2020, the global population growth rate fell under 1 per cent per year for the first time since 1950.
10. The world’s population is projected to reach a peak of around 10.4 billion people during the 2080s and to remain at that level until 2100.
11. Africa has the fastest-growing population.
12. Fertility rate is rapidly declining worldwide, with women giving birth to fewer children than before. The world’s population is getting older as more people are living longer than before.

Key Ideas

- We discussed that population may refer to a cohort or group of species that live in the same place at a particular period in time and the spatio-temporal (space and time) dimension of population is critical.
- We also learnt about some key facts about the World's population.
- We learnt that Africa has the fastest-growing population.

Reflection

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the population issues?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on population issues?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) regarding population issues?

SESSION 2: THE CONCEPT OF POPULATION CHANGE

You are warmly welcome to session 2. In session 1 of this unit, we discussed the concept of population change. Now we will take a look at the concept of population change. What do we mean by a changing population? Are there certain markers that should be looked out for when deciding to understand the concept of population change? Let these questions guide you as we explore the concept of population change and its components.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

- a) Explain the concept of population change;
- b) Identify three components of population change

CONCEPT OF POPULATION CHANGE

The size of a population very dynamic, it tends to change of time. The process of change in the size of a population is referred to as population change. Population change may also be said to mean an observed change in the population of a country within a year. Population change, thus, implies the change in the size of a population between the end and the beginning of a given time period. Usually, it is estimated within a period of 1 year. Population change can also be defined generally, as the difference in the size of a population between the end and the beginning of a given time period (usually one year). Specifically, it is the difference in population size on 1 January of two consecutive years. In simple terms, population can change in both size and structure. In fact it is doing so all the time; this is known as 'Dynamism' – a process of change. The change can either be a positive or negative. Population change may also be said to mean an observed change in the population of a country within a year. Population

change, thus, implies the change in the size of a population between the end and the beginning of a given time period. Population change has two components:

- a. natural population change (the number of live births minus the number of deaths);
- b. net migration (the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants, plus statistical adjustment – it should be noted that net migration as referred to in the context of population change statistics includes the statistical adjustments occurring in the annual balance of the population and that it serves the purpose of closing this balance).

It is very important to know some key terminologies used in population dynamics (size) population change as a student of population.

- a. Natural Change: When a population is increased by more births and reduced by more deaths. The size of a country's population at any one time can be thought of as the respective balance between these two variables. More births than deaths, and the population rises; more deaths than births and the population falls. These are sometimes referred to as net surplus/net deficit and provide the 'natural rate of increase/decrease'.
- b. Actual Change: Very few populations exist in isolation; most have people migrating to and from the country. If there are more immigrants than emigrants, this leads to a net migration surplus; if more emigrants than immigrants – a net migration deficit. The change in the total population is, therefore, the outcome of all these changing demographic factors: births, deaths, in-migrants and out-migrants. The resultant change is known as 'Gross population change' or 'Actual change in population'.
- c. Population dynamics (structure): Population structure can be thought of as the individual components that make up the population. Typically, geography considers the following:
 - i. Age structure: The proportion of people in different age-groups. Developing countries typically have high proportions of young people whilst Developed countries are experiencing increasing proportions of elderly people. Both these groups may depend on the working-adult population for their care or via the taxes they may pay. This leads to the concept of the 'Dependency Ratio': the balance between those in the 'young dependent' population (0-16 yrs) plus the 'elderly dependent population (65+ yrs), versus those in the 'economically active population' (17-64 yrs).
 - ii. Gender structure: The gender balance within a population. Whilst you may imagine that most countries will be roughly 50:50 between male and female, migration may be predominant amongst one gender group than another – both out-migration and in-migration – and this will impact on the gender mix in the countries of origin and destination. Similarly, political impacts – such as war – can have a major impact on the gender mix, either because of casualties or the resulting fleeing refugees.
 - iii. Fertility structure: The combined effect of age and gender variables can affect the fertility structure of a population. This is the proportion of women of child-bearing age within a population.
 - iv. Affluence structure: The degree of similarity in wealth-distribution amongst the population versus wealth-inequality. The Gini Coefficient is a measure of wealth

inequality amongst nations and indicates those with very large gaps between the richest and poorest, and those where there is a more even distribution of wealth.

- d. **Fertility** refers to actual birth performance or the total birth either live birth and still birth.
- e. **Fecundity** is the physiological capacity of a woman to reproduce. Hence a person's fertility is limited by one's fecundity which is usually far below it.
- f. **Infecund** persons are therefore said to be sterile.

Key Ideas

- The size of a population very dynamic, it tends to change of time.
- Population change may also be said to mean an observed change in the population of a country within a year.
- Population change, thus, implies the change in the size of a population between the end and the beginning of a given time period.
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Population change, thus, implies the change in the size of a population between the end and N the beginning of a given time period.

Some key terminologies used in population dynamics (size) population change

- Age structure
- Fertility structure
- Fertility
- Infecund

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions have prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the population change?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on population change?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on population change?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the population change?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) on population change?

COMPONENTS OF POPULATION CHANGE

Population change does not happen in a vacuum. It is orchestrated by factors such as fertility, mortality and migration. The main components of population change are births, deaths, and net-migration. “Net migration” is defined as the difference between the number of people moving into an area and the number of people moving out. Fertility is concerned about the changes that arise as a result of births, mortality is concerned about changes that arise owing to deaths whereas that of migration constitutes changes emanating from the net migration (i.e., the difference between the number of immigrants and emigrants). “Natural increase” is defined as the difference between live births and deaths. In other words, when population change is influenced solely by the forces of fertility and mortality, it is referred to as natural population change. On the other hand, when all three forces are at the epicentre of the demographic changes, then we say that there has been population change.

Key Ideas

- The main components of population change are births, deaths, and net-migration.
- “Net migration” is defined as the difference between the number of people moving into an area and the number of people moving out.
- Fertility is concerned about the changes that arise as a result of births.
- Mortality is concerned about changes that arise owing to deaths whereas that of migration constitutes changes emanating from the net migration.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to components of population change?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on components of population change?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum regarding components of population change?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) on the components of population change?

SESSION 3: THE CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

- a) Explain the concept of Development;
- b) Explain the concept of Human development;
- c) Explain the concept of Sustainable development

Development has been defined in different ways and one would not expect a developer, the CEO of a multinational corporation, a neighbourhood resident, the head of a community-based organization (CBO) and a policymaker to necessarily agree on one definition or for all of them to think development is something positive. Development is defined here as a planned and comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process, in a defined geographic area, that is rights-based and ecologically oriented and aims to continually improve the well-being of the entire population and all of its individuals. This comprehensive definition has three components - social development, economic development and environmental protection. The early definitions and development theories focused only on economic development, national income growth that was usually measured by a change in per capita Gross National Product. This narrowly defined approach was the one generally adopted in Asia and so the ideas such as full employment, universal social services and a social safety net were not part of the development initiatives. The individuals would be actively involved in open, meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of benefits. These benefits were expected to develop, if needed, following economic development. In explaining the concept of development, socioeconomic development, human development as well as sustainable development cannot be left unexplained. These concepts are explained in details in the next paragraph.

1. Concept of Socio-economic development

What does socio-economic development mean? In order to understand this concept, let us begin by defining development. Generally, development is defined as a state in which things are improving. But it is defined in different ways in various contexts, social, political, biological, science and technology, language and literature. In the socio-economic context, development means the improvement of people's lifestyles through improved education, incomes, skills development and employment. It is the process of economic and social transformation based on cultural and environmental factors.

Use of concepts like economic development, social development, developments in the human body and developments in science and technology for socio-economic development. It is measured with indicators, such as gross domestic product (GDP), life expectancy, literacy and levels of employment. For better understanding of socioeconomic development, we may understand the meaning of social and economic development separately.

Economic development is the development of economic wealth of countries or regions for the well-being of their inhabitants. Economic development is the process of raising the level of prosperity through increased production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. It may also be said to mean growth that indicate the level of economic development. The term "economic growth" refers to the increase (or growth) of a specific measure such as real national income, gross domestic product, or per capita income. The term economic development on the other hand, implies much more. It is the process by which a nation improves the economic, political, and social wellbeing of its people.

Socioeconomic development, like the definition of development adopted here, emphasizes progress in terms of economic and social factors within a geographic unit.

Measurement of Economic Development

Economic development is measured using the following variables

- a. **Gross Domestic Product (GDP):** The gross domestic product or gross domestic income (GDI) is one of the measures of national income and output for a given country's economy. It is the total value of all final goods and services produced in a particular economy within a country's borders in a given year.
- b. **National Income:** The income earned by a country's people, including labour and capital investment. It is the total value of all income in a nation (wages and profits, interests, rents and pension payments) during a given period, (usually one year).
- c. **Per Capita Income:** The total national income divided by the number of people in the nation. This is what each citizen is to receive if the yearly national income is divided equally among all.

Socio-economic development, thus, is a process of improvement in a variety of ways. It has to influence all aspects of human life in a country. Its major indicator, the GDP is a specific measure of economic welfare that does not take into account important aspects such as leisure time, environmental quality, freedom, social justice, or gender equality. Another indicator, the per capita income also does not indicate the level of income equality among people. These indicators do not ensure that the benefits of development have been equally distributed and have reached particularly to the disadvantaged groups of society. Which is why, a new concept of human development is being used. It is focused on the overall quality of life that people enjoy in a country, the opportunities they have and the freedoms they enjoy.

Social development, on the other hand, refers to the complexity of social dynamics (the interplay of social structures, processes and relationships) and focuses on

- a. the social concerns of the people as objectives of development and
- b. people-centered, participatory approaches to development.

Social development is a process which results in the transformation of social institutions in a manner which improves the capacity of the society to fulfil its aspirations. It implies a qualitative change in the way the society shapes itself and carries out its activities, such as through more progressive attitudes and behavior by the population, the adoption of more effective processes or more advanced technology. Social development is also about inclusiveness, social justice and the common good. Indicators of social development provide comparative information about areas such as income, poverty, employment, employment security, education, health, crime and civic participation. The purpose of economic development is to improve the social and material well-being of all individuals and social institutions with the goal of achieving the highest possible level of human development. Socioeconomic development, therefore, requires the integration of economic and social development.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The concept of human development was introduced by Dr. Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani economist who described it as development that enlarges people's choices and improves their lives. The Indian Noble Laureate Professor Amartya Sen has also made contributions to the evolution of this concept and defined it as development that increases freedoms. The Human Development Index (HDI) was developed in 1990 by a group of economists including Dr. Mahbub ul Haq and Professor Amartya Sen. It has been used since then by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in its annual Human Development Report.

When we talk about economic development, the focus is on income only. For a long time, the general notion about development was accumulation of wealth or economic assets. But human development focuses on expanding and widening of people's choices as well as raising the levels of wellbeing. It covers almost all aspects of human life and people's choices like economic, social, political, cultural, educational, physical, biological, mental and emotional. Income is only one of the many components of development. Human development places people at the centre of development and emphasizes that the purpose of development is to enlarge all human choices, and not just income. It regards economic growth as essential but emphasizes the need to pay attention to its quality and distribution. Bo told that if the socio-economic development of a country is modelled along human development framework, it can provide better understanding of development and its impact on the quality of life of the people. We may appreciate it in a better manner when we try to understand the Human Development Index (HDI) developed as a means of measuring human development. The basic use of HDI is to measure a country's level of development.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) launched Human Development Report in 1990, incorporating development related data in respect to the above mentioned indices. Since then this Report is published every year and the nations are ranked every year according to the level of improvements made in respect of each of the indices.

The Human Development Index (HDI) combines three basic indicators and their dimensions and it is shown in Table 1

Table 1: Human Development Index: Indices and Dimensions

Sl. No.	Indices	Dimensions
1.	A Long and Healthy Life	Life expectancy at birth, as an index of population health and longevity
2.	Knowledge and Education	Adult Literacy Rate The combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrollment ratio
3.	A Decent Standard of Living	Gross domestic product (GDP), per capita at purchasing power parity (PPP) in United States dollars (US\$)

3. SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENTS

One of the noblest decisions the world has taken in this twenty-first century is the adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The SDGs present us with a great opportunity to

bring prosperity to millions of people, address the existential challenge of climate change, and enhance global security and most importantly to build the World that We Want. Fortuitously, the Global Goals are well aligned with Africa's Agenda 2063. The human, environmental and climate gains that will accrue from successful implementation of these global goals are important for national, regional and global peace, prosperity and stability.

The increasing population and rate of resource exploitation due to rapid industrialisation and urbanisation has raised concerns about that the earth might exceed its carry capacity. Hence, the issue of sustainability in the development process has become imperative following the Brundtland Commission's report in 1987 that emphasised the need for ensuring a balance between the 3E's (economy, ecology, and equity) of development. The Brundtland Commission defined sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (Brundtland, 1987). This implies that sustainable development is concerned about the means required to ensure that whatever development is achieved now will not lead to developmental challenges for the next generation.

The concept of sustainable development has emerged in this context. It is a broad concept that is defined as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'. Although many think that it is relevant only in the environmental context, it actually does not focus solely on environmental issues. It includes economic development, social development, individual development and environmental development.

The primary goal of sustainable development is to achieve a reasonable and equitably distributed level of economic and social wellbeing that can be perpetuated continually for many human generations. It takes care of the needs and requirements of all sections of the society including the disadvantaged groups.

Key Ideas

- Development is defined here as a planned and comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process, in a defined geographic area,
- that is rights-based and ecologically oriented and aims to continually improve the well-being of the entire population and all of its individuals.
- This comprehensive definition has three components - social development, economic development and environmental protection.
- The concept of human development was introduced by Dr. Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani economist who described it as development that enlarges people's choices and improves their lives.
- Sustainable development is a broad concept that is defined as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through(natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions have prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the concept of Development?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on Development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner regarding development?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum regarding development?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) in relation to development?

UNIT 2: THEORIES AND THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

We want to use this opportunity to welcome you to unit 2 of this book. In the previous unit, issues such as the meaning of population and population change, components of population change socioeconomic development and among others were discussed. We hope you have not forgotten. Good! In this particular unit, we shall walk you through the meaning of theories in general and also discuss development theories in specific. Some important development theories such Modernization theory, Linear stages of growth model Structuralism, Dependency theory Neoclassical development theory, and Post development theory and their implications on development will be discussed.

SESSION 1: MEANING OF A THEORY

You are specially welcome to unit 1 of session 2. In this session we shall look at the meaning of theories, characteristics of theories and the components of theories. We hope you will enjoy reading.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain the concept theory
2. Outline four characteristics of a theory
3. Discuss four components of a theory.

MEANING OF THEORY

Etymologically, the word ‘theory’ is derived from a Greek word, “theoria” which means “a look at” or view/contemplation/speculation. In modern usage, however, we cannot accept any definition of theory which is limited to a mere “looking at” or mere observation. The term or concept theory has been defined in several ways. Theory is seen as “A conceptual scheme of system that is held to explain a group of facts or phenomena and to discover and organize new facts” (Walton, 1983). Similarly, it is referred to as a hypothesis which has undergone verification and which has potential for explaining and predicting events and for the production of new knowledge (Walker, 1970). Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983) on their part defined theory as a set of relevant intentionally consisted postulates about a particular observable phenomenon along with definitions to enable the user to move from abstract to real in order to describe, explain, predict and or advance knowledge. Finally, the Advance Learners Dictionary of Current English by A. S. Hornby et al. (1963) defines theory as reasoned supposition (assumption) put forward to explain facts, and evidence.

From these and other definitions, it is clear that theory is a way of thinking about reality to better understand that reality and to describe it more accurately. It is a guess about a way thing are; an assertion of relationship between concepts, and a statement that things are related in a particular way (Bouma Atkinson, 1995). A theory can also be seen as an idea; a mental picture of how the world might be and a research process is a way of determining whether there is any evidence to support our mental picture of the way things are. A theory may as well be defined as a set of interrelated concepts, propositions, assumptions and generalizations that systematically describes, explains and predicts, phenomena or behavior.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THEORY

Theories in general are characterized by the following.

1. Accurate: Should be in demonstrated agreement with the results of existing experiments and observations.
2. Comprehensive: Broad in scope- extend far beyond the particular observations, laws, or sub-theories it was originally designed to explain.
3. Justifiable or dis-confirmable: The potential to be disconfirmed and modified based on new evidence.
4. Internally Consistent: Relationship of various part of the theory must be logically connected
5. Relevance: Utility, fruitful, ultimate aim.

COMPONENTS OF A THEORY

Theories on the other hand are made of the following components.

1. Concepts: A mental construct or notion used to describe some aspect of reality.
2. Assumptions: Statement that is accepted as true without proof and being self-evident.
3. Generalisations: Relationships between two or more concepts which have a summarizing statement with wide applicability
4. Hypotheses: Is an intelligent guess about a phenomenon or event.

Key Ideas

- ‘Theory’ is derived from a Greek word, “theoria” which means “a look at” or view/contemplation/speculation
- A theory can also be seen as an idea; a mental picture of how the world might be.
- A theory may as well be defined as a set of interrelated concepts, propositions, assumptions and generalizations that systematically describes, explains and predicts phenomena or behavior.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the meaning of theory?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position regarding meaning of theory?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner regarding the meaning of theory?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) regarding the meaning of theory?

SESSION 2: DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

You are welcome to unit 2 of session 2. The main focus of this unit is to explain the meaning of development theory and some important development theories and their implications on development.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain the meaning of development theory
2. Outline 2 main purposes of development theories

MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Development theories are sets of logical propositions which purport to explain how development has occurred in the past and or should occur in the future. Development tends to be ‘evolutionary’ rather than ‘revolution’. Thinking about development is highly political and highly contested/controversial. Development cannot occur without putting in place development strategies. Development strategies refer to the practical paths to development. It involves programmes and projects that may be pursued by international agencies, states around the world, NGOs and CBOs in an effort to stimulate change within nations, regions and continents. Development ideologies- They are the development agendas that reflect different objectives and goals such as political, cultural, ethical, moral, and religious influences. (eg. Pragmatism, Socialism, Capitalism, etc). Development theories are the principal theoretical explanations to interpret development efforts carried out especially in the developing countries. These theoretical perspectives allow us not only to clarify concepts, to set them in economic and social perspectives, but also to identify recommendations in terms of social policies.

PURPOSES OF DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Development theories have to deal with two challenges. These challenges are;

- I. To analyse the socio-economic phenomena of under development and development.
- II. They should be based on problem analysis and offer opportunities for development strategies.

SESSION 3: MODERNIZATION THEORY

The focus of this session is to discuss modernization theory and development. We hope you will enjoy your reading.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to

1. explain the modernization theory
2. outline three assumptions of the modernization theory
3. discuss five strengths of the modernization theory
4. examine four criticisms of the modernization theory

MEANING OF MODERNIZATION THEORY

According to Alvin So, there are three main historical elements which were favourable to the inception of the modernization theory of development after the Second World War. First, there was the rise of the United States as a superpower. The world was plunged into economic recession while poverty abounded after World War II which ended on September 2, 1945. Consequently, nations, particularly the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and the United States of America (USA) were poised for economic recovery, growth and development. The USSR was keen on pushing communism as the best ideological standpoint for development whereas the USA fell back on the ideology of capitalism. As this battle for supremacy of development and economic ideologies persisted, the former threatened capitalism. Hence, giving rise to the development of the modernisation theory which was primarily spearheaded by US economists and policy makers. The modernisation theory was thus developed in the early 60s by a group of American scholars with Talcott Parsons being the most notable personality within this group (Fox, Lidz & Bershady, 2005). While other Western nations, such as Great Britain, France, and Germany, were weakened by World War II, the United States emerged from the war strengthened, and became a world leader with the implementation of the Marshall Plan to reconstruct war-torn Western Europe.

Second, there was the spread of a united world communist movement. The Former Soviet Union extended its influence not only to Eastern Europe, but also to China and Korea. Third, there was the disintegration of European colonial empires in Asia, Africa and Latin America, giving birth to many new nation-states in the Third World. These nascent nation-states were in search of a model of development to promote their economy and to enhance their political independence

According to the modernization theory, modern societies are more productive, children are better educated, and the needy receive more welfare.

The modernization theory sought to achieve three main objectives:

1. Explain how societies progress or develop
2. Identify the factors or variables that affect this progression
3. Explain how society will react to progress/development

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE MODERNIZATION THEORY

The major assumptions of the modernization theory of development basically are: Modernization is a phased process; for example, Rostow has phases according to his theory of economic development for a particular society, and I will mention them later. Modernization is a homogenizing process, in this sense, we can say that modernization produces tendencies toward convergence among societies, for example, Levy (1967, p. 207) maintains that: “as time goes on, they and we will increasingly resemble one another because the patterns of modernization are such that the more highly modernized societies become, the more they resemble one another”. Modernization is a Europeanization or Americanisation process; in the modernization literature, there is an attitude of complacency toward Western Europe and the United States. These nations are viewed as having unmatched economic prosperity and democratic stability (Tipps: 1976, 14).

In addition, modernization is an irreversible process, once started, modernization cannot be stopped. In other words, once third world countries come into contact with the West, they will not be able to resist the impetus toward modernization. Modernization is a progressive

process which in the long run is not only inevitable but desirable. According to Coleman, modernized political systems have a higher capacity to deal with the function of national identity, legitimacy, penetration, participation, and distribution than traditional political systems. Finally, modernization is a lengthy process. It is an evolutionary change, not a revolutionary one. It will take generations or even centuries to complete, and its profound impact will be felt only through time. All these assumptions are derived from European and American evolutionary theory

There is also another set of classical assumptions based more strictly on the functionalism-structuralism theory which emphasizes the interdependence of social institutions, the importance of structural variables at the cultural level, and the built in process of change through homeostasis equilibrium. These are ideas derived especially from Parsons' sociological theories. These assumptions are as follows:

- a) Modernization is a systematic process. The attribute of modernity forms a consistent whole, thus appearing in a cluster rather than in isolation
- b) Modernization is a transformative process; in order for a society to move into modernity its traditional structures and values must be totally replaced by a set of modern values; and
- c) Modernization is an imminent process due to its systematic and transformative nature, which builds change into the social system.

STRENGTH OF MODERNIZATION THEORY

The strengths of modernization theory can be defined in several aspects.

First, we can identify the basis of the research focus. Despite the fact that the main studies of modernization were carried out by a psychologist, a social psychologist, a sociologist of religion and a political sociologist, other authors have extended modernization theory into other spheres. For example, Bellah examines the role of the Tokugawas religion on pajanes economic development in South-East Asia with effects on villages of Cambodia, Laos and Burma; Lipset addresses the possible role of economic development in the democratization of Third World countries, and Inkeles discusses the consequences of the modernization process for individual attitudes and behaviour.

A second feature of the modernization perspective is the analytical framework. Authors assume that Third World countries are traditional and that Western countries are modern. In order to develop, those poor nations need to adopt Western values. In third place, the methodology is based on general studies; for example, the expositions regarding the value factors in the Third World, and the differentiation between unstable democracies, dictatorships and stable dictatorships.

CRITICISM OF THE MODERNIZATION THEORY

Modernization theory, on the other hand, was popular in the 1950s, but was under heavy attack at the end of the 60s. Criticisms of the theory include the following: First, development is not necessarily unidirectional. Second, the modernization perspective only shows one possible model of development. The favoured example is the development pattern in the United States.

Nevertheless, in contrast with this circumstance, we can see that there have been development advances in other nations, such as Taiwan and South Korea; and we must admit that their current development levels have been achieved by strong authoritarian regimes.

Another set of critiques of the modernization theory regards the need to eliminate traditional values. Third World countries do not have a homogeneous set of traditional values; their value systems are highly heterogeneous. For example, Redfield 1965, distinguishes between the great traditional values (values of the elites), and the little tradition (values of the masses).

Again, modernization theory is criticised on the grounds that traditional and modern values are not necessarily always mutually exclusive: China, for example, despite advances in economic development continues to operate on traditional values and this appears to be the same situation in Japan. Moreover, it is not possible to say that traditional values are always dichotomous from modern status, for example, loyalty to the Emperor can be transformed to loyalty to the firm.

Key Ideas

- According to Alvin So, there are three main historical elements which were favourable to the inception of the modernization theory of development after the Second World War
- First, there was the rise of the United States as a superpower.
- Second, there was the spread of a united world communist movement.
- . In third place, the methodology is based on general studies
- The major assumptions of the modernization theory of development basically are: Modernization is a phased process
- The strengths of modernization theory can be defined in several aspects
- There are criticisms leveled against modernization theory

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions have prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the modernization theory?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position regarding modernization theory?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner in relation to the modernization theory?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) regarding modernization theory?

SESSION 4: THEORY OF DEPENDENCY

You are welcome to session 4 of this unit. In this unit we shall explain the meaning of dependency theory, its criticisms, assumptions and their theoretical positions.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain the origin and meaning of the dependency theory
2. Examine the implications of development theory and development
3. Discuss four criticisms of the dependency theory
4. Examine the four main theoretical positions of the dependency theory.

MEANING OF DEPENDENCY THEORY

The dependency theory was first introduced by the Argentine economist Raúl Prebisch but gained eminence in the 1960s (Lampa, 2019). Other contributors to this theory include Cardoso, O'Brien, Bath and James, Palma, Lall, Chilcote, and Bacha (Namkoong, 1999). In this instance, dependency can be thought of as:

- a. a historical condition which shapes a certain structure of the world economy such that it favours some countries to the detriment of others and limits the development possibilities of the subordinate economies...a situation in which the economy of a certain group of countries is conditioned by the development and expansion of another economy, to which their own is subjected (Dos Santos, 1971, p. 226).

The dependency school divides the world into two parts. The core idea of dependency theory is, as peripheral economies produce and export primary goods and dependent on central core countries for raw materials, technology and luxury imports so the flow of resources will take place from the periphery/satellites to core/metropolis. Dependency approaches began with the premise that the prospects of the developing world reproducing the type of capitalism found in the industrialized world were limited, and that the former could only escape its condition by restricting or even ending contact with the latter.

They built upon the notion of a pre-established international capitalist economic system in which the possibilities open to peripheral countries had been rigidly determined by the expansion of the central economies. The policies adopted by the industrialized world perpetuated a condition of economic, political and cultural dependency in the Third World, whose role was to provide natural resources, cheap labour and markets that enabled industrialized countries to remain prosperous. These policies were enforced by the many ways in which industrialized countries set the rules of international trade, but also by the use of military force when necessary. This form of domination by the rich world ensured that the resources of poor countries were taken by industrialized countries, preventing reinvestment in developing nations and stunting their growth – and so the developed world was *responsible* for continuing underdevelopment in the Third World. Any attempt by dependent nations to resist this resulted in sanctions of some kind, and so economic development in the periphery was considered to be nearly impossible without drastic or, in some cases, revolutionary change

The foundations of the theory of dependency emerged in the 1950s from the research of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean – ECLAC.

One of the most principal authors was Raul Prebisch. The principal points of the Prebisch model are that in order to create conditions of development within a country, it is necessary:

- a. To control the monetary exchange rate, placing more governmental emphasis on fiscal rather than monetary policy
- b. To promote a more effective governmental role in terms of national development;
- c. To create a platform of investments, giving a preferential role to national capitals
- d. To allow the entrance of external capital following priorities already established in national plans for development;
- e. To promote a more effective internal demand in terms of domestic markets as a base to reinforce the industrialization process in Latin America;
- f. To generate a larger internal demand by increasing the wages and salaries of workers, which will in turn positively affect aggregate demand in internal markets;
- g. To develop a more effective coverage of social services from the government, especially to impoverished sectors in order to create conditions for those sectors to become more competitive; and
- h. To develop national strategies according to the model of import substitution, protecting national production by establishing quotas and tariffs on external markets.

The Prebisch and ECLAC's proposal were the basis for dependency theory at the beginning of the 1950s.

Dependency approaches argued that underdevelopment was *externally* induced by the existence and policies of the industrial capitalist countries constituting the centre. Some dependent theorist reformulated theories of imperialism, arguing that the coexistence in the world economy of development and underdevelopment reflected a neocolonial economic relationship. By keeping the Third World underdeveloped, the bourgeoisie of the First World ensured a cheap supply of raw materials and a market for their manufactured goods, while stifling local capitalism by draining off the resources that could have been used for investment. The theory of dependency combines elements from a neo-marxist perspective with Keynes' economic theory - the liberal economic ideas which emerged in the United States and Europe as a response to the depression years of the 1920s-. From the Keynes' economic approach, the theory of dependency embodies four main points:

- a) To develop an important internal effective demand in terms of domestic markets;
- b) To recognize that the industrial sector is crucial to achieving better levels of national development, especially due to the fact that this sector, in comparison with the agricultural sector, can contribute more value-added to products;
- c) To increase worker's income as a means of generating more aggregate demand in national market conditions;
- d) To promote a more effective government role in order to reinforce national development conditions and to increase national standards of living.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE DEPENDENCY THEORY

The major hypotheses with regard to development in Third World countries according to the dependency school are;

First, in contrast to the development of the core nations which is self-contained, the development of nations in the Third World necessitates subordination to the core. Examples of

this situation can be seen in Latin America, especially in those countries with a high degree of industrialization, such as Sao Paulo, Brazil which Andre G. Frank uses as a case study.

Second, the peripheral nations experience their greatest economic development when their ties to the core are weakest. An example of this circumstance is the industrialization process that took root in Latin America during the 1930s, when the core nations were focusing on solving the problems that resulted from the Great Depression, and the Western powers were involved in the Second World War.

A third hypothesis indicates that when the core recovers from its crisis and re-establishes trade and investments ties, it fully incorporates the peripheral nations once again into the system, and the growth of industrialization in these regions is stifled. It was indicated that when core countries recuperate from war or other crises which have directed their attention away from the periphery, this negatively affects the balance of payments, inflation and political stability in Third World countries.

Lastly, the fourth aspect refers to the fact that regions that are highly underdeveloped and still operate on a traditional, feudal system are those that in the past had the closest ties to core.

However, according to Theotonio Dos Santos, the basis of dependency in underdeveloped nations is derived from industrial technological production, rather than from financial ties to monopolies from the core nations. In addition to Dos Santos, other classical authors in the dependency school are: Baran, who has studied conditions in India in the late 1950s; and Landsberg, who has studied the processes of industrial production in the core countries in 1987

DEPENDENCY THEORY AND DEVELOPMENT

According to the dependency theory, underdeveloped countries often provide or serve as a source of cheap labour and raw material for the global market. Usually, these underdeveloped countries would sell their resources to advanced economies that have the means and technology to transform these resources into finished goods and sell to underdeveloped countries at high prices. This situation results in further widening disparity in the development between the core and the periphery as the peripheral countries end up being highly dependent on the core for capital.

CRITICISMS OF DEPENDENCY THEORY

The principal critics of the dependency theory have focused on the fact that this school does not provide exhaustive empirical evidence to support its conclusions. Furthermore, this theoretical position uses highly abstract levels of analysis. Again, movement considers ties with transnational corporations as being only detrimental to countries, when actually these links can be used as a means of transference of technology. In this sense, it is important to remember that the United States was also a colony, and this country had the capacity to break the vicious cycle of underdevelopment.

Another current critiques of the theory of dependency and the theory of modernization is that they both continue to base their assumptions and results on the nation-state. This is an important point that allows us to separate these aforementioned schools from the theoretical perspective of world-systems or globalization theory. These last movements have focused their attention

mostly on the international connections among countries, especially those related to trade, the international financial system, world technology and military cooperation

FOUR MAIN THEORETICAL PROPOSITIONS OF THE DEPENDENCY THEORIST

1. The critique of dualism

The dependency theorists refute the idea of the diffusionist school that the main obstacle to development is the internal sociocultural condition of the traditional “backward” sectors of underdeveloped countries which lack the characteristics of the “modern” capitalist economies. For the dependency school, the condition of underdevelopment in Third World countries is closely connected to the expansion of the advanced capitalist countries.

2. Center-periphery structure

The world is divided into two parts, a center of affluent industrialized countries and a periphery of underdeveloped poor countries. While the terminology may not be shared by all, the basic approach is the same. This division can be also found in internal structure of states. Given the structure of center and periphery, underdevelopment is not a temporary pre-capitalist condition, but is rather a persistent condition.

3. Unequal exchange

Underdevelopment is connected to the unequal terms of trade which is disadvantaged to peripheral countries on the world market. The main implication is that the international trade between the center and the periphery is an unequal exchange between high-wage, high-profit products and low-wage, low-profit products. Development and underdevelopment, therefore, are opposite sides of the same phenomena, each being the results of the other.

4. Dependency, not dependence

The dependency conditions of peripheral countries are not the result of the simple external reliance of country on one another country. These conditions are a more complex set of structural relations which extend to the internal policymaking process, social structure and cultural elements.

Key Ideas

- The dependency theory was first introduced by the Argentine economist Raúl Prebisch but gained eminence in the 1960s
- The dependency school divides the world into two parts.
- The core idea of dependency theory is, as peripheral economies produce and export primary goods and dependent on central core countries for raw materials, technology and luxury imports so the flow of resources will take place from the periphery/satellites to core/metropolis.
- There are hypotheses with regard to development in Third World countries according to the dependency school
- The principal critics of the dependency theory have focused on the fact that this school does not provide exhaustive empirical evidence to support its conclusions

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the dependency theory?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on dependency theory?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner based on the dependency theory?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum on dependency theory?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) on dependency theory?

SESSION 5: LINEAR GROWTH THEORIES

You are welcome to unit 5 of unit 2. This session is dedicated to explaining linear growth theories its assumptions and criticisms.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain linear growth theory
2. Discuss 5 assumptions of the linear growth theory
3. Outline 4 criticisms of the linear growth theory

MEANING OF LINEAR GROWTH THEORY

The linear stages of growth model are one of the oldest and traditional theory of development. It was an attempt to explain how less developed regions such as Asia and Africa could transform from a primitive, agrarian economy to an industrialised economy. Hence, it was inspired by the Marshall Plan of the US which was used to rehabilitate Europe's economy after the second world war (Bins, 2014). The basic assumption underlying this theory is that, if all modern industrial nations were once underdeveloped agrarian societies, then their historical experience in transforming their economies from poor agricultural subsistence societies to modern industrial giants had important lessons for the 'poor' countries. It is about following the developmental footsteps of Europe (largely the former colonizer of Africa). Because of its emphasis on modernity, this approach is often called 'modernization theory of development'. This theory also purports that development happens in stages. Thus, it is a process and not an event. The linear stages of growth model also assume that this staged process of development is such that one cannot get to a particular stage without completing a previous stag

The concept of modernization incorporates the full spectrum of the transition and drastic transformation that a traditional society has to undergo in order to become modern (Hussaian et al., 1981; Lenin, 1964). Agriculture societies can therefore be regarded as modern when they

display specific characteristics. The extent to which these characteristics are exhibited gives an indication of the degree of modernity that has been reached. These characteristics are (Coetzee et al. 2007:31):

1. Readiness to accommodate the process of transformation resulting from changes.
2. Continues broadening of life experiences and receptiveness to new knowledge.
3. Continuous planning, calculability and readiness towards new experiences.
4. Predictability of action and the ability to exercise effective control.
5. High premium on technical skills and understanding of the principles of production.
6. Changing attitudes to kinship, family roles, family size and the role of religion.
7. Changing consumer behaviour and the acceptance of social stratification
8. Predictability of action and the ability to exercise effective control.
9. High premium on technical skills and understanding of the principles of production.
10. Changing attitudes to kinship, family roles, family size and the role of religion.
11. Changing consumer behaviour and the acceptance of social stratification

The influential and outspoken advocate of stages-of-growth model of development was the America economic historian Walt Whitman (W.W. Rostow).

According to the Rostowian doctrine, the transition from underdevelopment to development can be described in terms of a series of steps or stages through which all countries must proceed. One of the most popular linear stages of growth is Rostow's stages of growth model which shows how societies develop through five stages: traditional, transitional/preconditions to take off, take off, drive to maturity and high mass consumption. According to Rostow, development occurs in stages and each stage can be attained by completing the previous stage.

The first stage is the traditional stage, where society is very basic and mostly engaged in subsistence agriculture with little technology incorporated in agriculture. This stage is also characterised by limited technology and a static society. Transition from this stage triggered by external influence, interests, or markets. Again, there is strong family ties with political resting in the hands of each family head.

The second stage, being the preconditions to take off is the stage where societies begin to see surpluses from agriculture (usually arising from high demand of certain commodities which is produced mainly by some countries) which is invested into technology and therefore services can grow. There is also commercial exploitation of agriculture and extractive industry. Installation of physical infrastructure (roads, railways, etc.) and emergence of social/political elite is another key feature of this stage. At this stage, science and technology start to progress, which aids in economic productivity. The savings caused by increased productivity are saved and invested in other areas, including technology and infrastructure like roads, bridges, and harbors.

We move to stage three, where we can say that the society is beginning to resemble more of a more developed "modernised" society. There is development of a manufacturing sector. Again, you see industrialisation, growing investment, regional growth and changes in the political spheres with the emergence of democracy. This should lead to the fourth stage which is the drive to maturity. At this point, there is the development of wider industrial and commercial base and the exploitation of comparative advantages in international trade. Also, the country or nation becomes less reliant on imports and rather become more diversified in its production and innovations, couple with heavy investments in the structure of the nation. Ultimately, this

process ends at the final stage, that is, high mass consumption. This stage is also about diversification and expansion. The economy in this stage of growth will be developing new and more sophisticated industries. For example, an economy going from producing steel and timber products to producing consumer electronics and computer chips is in the drive to maturity stage. In other words, the economy moves beyond the key bread and butter industries that fuelled its take-off into a more diverse and dynamic economic system. The workforce becomes more skilled due to the technological demands of the emerging industries. Moreover, economies at this stage become less dependent upon imports as their emerging industries can compete with them.

The age of high mass-consumption refers to the period of contemporary comfort afforded by many western nations, wherein consumers concentrate on durable goods and hardly remember the subsistence concerns of previous stages. This is very much consumer-oriented, with a predominant section of the population working in the service sector. A society in this position is able to choose between three important goals by concentrating on military and security issues, on equality and welfare issues, or on developing great luxuries for its upper class. The country chooses its own balance between these three goals. There is a desire to develop an egalitarian society and measures are taken to reach this goal. According to Rostow, a country tries to determine its uniqueness and factors affecting it are its political, geographical and cultural structure and also values present in its society. A high standard of living marks this stage. Services and consumer goods replace heavy industry as the engine of economic growth. The current state of the economies of the United States and Western Europe fall within this stage of development. This is illustrated in the framework Figure 1

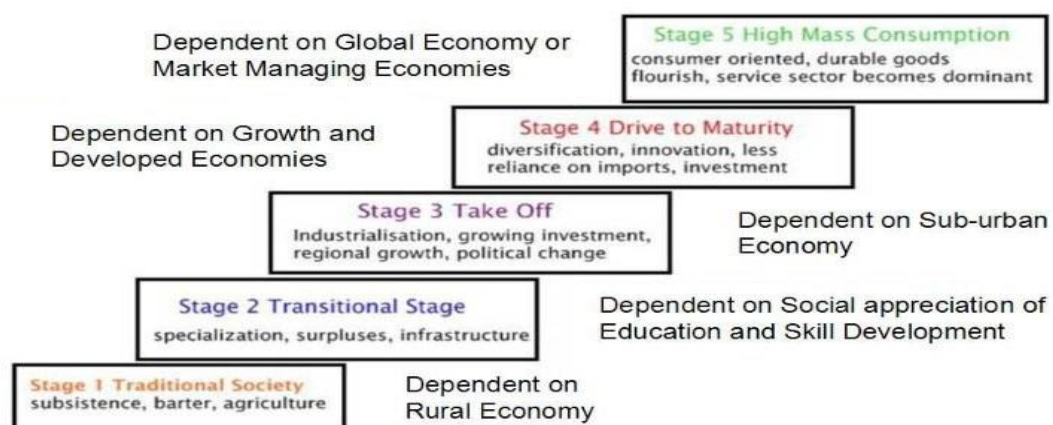


Figure 1. Stages of Development

CRITICISMS OF ROSTOW'S THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT

There are many criticisms of his model. While Rostow illustrates faith in a capitalist system, scholars have criticized his bias towards a western model as the only path towards development.

Rostow lays out five succinct steps towards development and critics have cited that all countries do not develop in such a linear fashion; some skip steps or take different paths.

Rostow's theory can be classified as "top-down," or one that emphasizes a trickle-down modernization effect from urban industry and western influence to develop a country as a whole. Later theorists have challenged this approach, emphasizing a "bottom-up" development paradigm, in which countries become self-sufficient through local efforts, and urban industry is not necessary.

Rostow also assumes that all countries have a desire to develop in the same way, with the end goal of high mass consumption, disregarding the diversity of priorities that each society holds and different measures of development. For example, while Singapore is one of the most economically prosperous countries, it also has one of the highest income disparities in the world.

Finally, Rostow disregards one of the most fundamental geographical principals: site and situation. Rostow assumes that all countries have an equal chance to develop, without regard to population size, natural resources, or location.

In spite of the many critiques of Rostow's model, it is still one of the most widely cited development theories and is a primary example of the intersection of geography, economics, and politics.

Key Ideas

- The linear stages of growth model are one of the oldest and traditional theory of development.
- It was an attempt to explain how less developed regions such as Asia and Africa could transform from a primitive, agrarian economy to an industrialised economy
- The basic assumption underlying this theory is that, if all modern industrial nations were once underdeveloped agrarian societies, then their historical experience in transforming their economies from poor agricultural subsistence societies to modern industrial giants had important lessons for the 'poor' countries.
- The Rostowian doctrine holds that the transition from underdevelopment to development can be described in terms of a series of steps or stages through which all countries must proceed.
- Rostow illustrates faith in a capitalist system, scholars have criticized his bias towards a western model as the only path towards development.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the linear stages of growth?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position on the linear stages of growth?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner regarding linear stages of growth?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum ?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum concening the linear stages of growth?

SESSION 6: OTHER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

You are welcome to the last session of unit 2. We hope have following the discussion from session 1 to this end. Good! This final session is dedicated to explaining other relevant development theories such as structuralism, neoclassical and post-development theories and their criticisms.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the session, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain structuralism theory of development
2. Discuss the neoclassical theory of development
3. Examine the post-development theory

STRUCTURALISM THEORY

As countries and economies seek to develop, they often encounter a dramatic shift in the manner in which their industries and markets operate. This change or shift in the economic status quo is what is referred to as structural change. The theory of structuralism or structural change is concerned with explaining how and why there are shifts in the basic way a market or economy functions (Todaro & Smith, 2012). It illustrates how economies transform from the subsistence level where the economy is mainly dominated by subsistence agricultural operations, to a point where the economy becomes highly industrialised and more concerned about producing greater outputs for global consumption. The structural change models include the Lewis 2-sector surplus model and Chenery's patterns of demand analysis (Rashid, 2004). The two-sector surplus model is based on the assumption that there is excess labour in the subsistence sectors. Also, Lewis argues that the capitalist sector invests all its savings for its further expansion whereas those in the subsistence sector squander their savings. For our discussion, we will focus only on Lewis' two-sector surplus model and how it relates to development.

STRUCTURALISM AND DEVELOPMENT

As indicated in this Session, we would focus our discussion on Lewis' two sector surplus model. According to Lewis, there are two types of economies or sectors: the agricultural/subsistence sector and the manufacturing/ capitalist sector. In the subsistence sector, there are surpluses in labour who usually have zero marginal productivity. Hence, the labour from this sector serves as a source of an unlimited supply of labour for the capitalist

sector. As such, the wages paid to labour in the capitalist sector is higher than what is received in the subsistence sector. This high wage in the capitalist sector attracts labour from the agricultural sector, thereby resulting in a transfer of labour from the subsistence sector to the capitalist sector. This transfer of labour would continue until the surplus labour at the subsistence sector is absorbed by the capitalist sector. The transfer will enable the capitalist sector to expand as well as lead to the generation of more savings in the capitalists' sector which can later be invested in employing more labour from the subsistence sector.

WEAKNESSES OF STRUCTURALISM

Weaknesses of the Structural Change Model Lewis' two-sector surplus model has been criticised for assuming that unemployment exists in subsistence. Also, the model fails to realise that the transfer of labour from subsistence sectors will eventually affect production. The model assumes that there are ready markets for the excess labour that gets transferred to the capitalist sector, but in reality, this is not true.

NEOCLASSICAL THEORY

At the end of the Second World War, the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union were at odds. The two super powers could not reach an agreement on how to reconstruct the economies of the world—mainly Europe—that were destroyed by the war. The development strategies produced in the United States sought to contain communism while spreading capitalism throughout the world. The conflict that ensued came to be known as the Cold War and development strategy was only one of many arenas in which this clash played out.

Years after the Cold War, prevailing development models still competed against the communist theory, which entails there should be a severe intervention and control of the market by the state, to prevent the emergence of a monopoly that exploits and alienates. One such model that competes with the communist model is the neo-classical economic growth model. Rooted in early economic thought, Neo-Classical development aims to spur economic growth through government support.

A series of market failures in the 1960's led to the idea that the government should provide infrastructure to support the market, however any further intervention of the state in the market is not favored. Based on the theory of neo-classical economics, this model aims to construct organized markets to increase productivity and development through privatization, supply and demand, and mild intervention by the government. It hinges on the idea that investment will increase the growth rate of per capita output, making the commodities abundant and ultimately increase the income per capita. These theories have explored both endogenous and exogenous factors contributing to development, as well as hindering growth.

Economic theories of growth pass in and out of fashion, depending on the political and economic climate of the international arena. One of the current popular theories of economic growth is that of market fundamentalism, also known as the neoclassical theory of development. Neoclassical development theory as an economic theory explains the manner through which development occurs as a result of the eclectic combination of three driving forces: labour, capital, and technology. The economic community credits Robert Solow and Trevor Swan being the proponents and developers of this theory in the late 1950s. The basic assumption underlying this theory is that:

- a. Development occurs when there is a combination of labour, capital and technology.
- b. Development will discontinue without technology.
- c. Long-term development is only possible with technology use

The model first considered exogenous population increases to set the growth rate but, in 1957, Solow incorporated technology change into the model. While an economy has limited resources in terms of capital and labor, the contribution from technology to growth is boundless. The theory states that short-term equilibrium results from varying amounts of labor and capital in the production function. However, neoclassical growth theory clarifies that temporary equilibrium is different from long-term equilibrium, which does not require any of these three factors. The theory also argues that technological change has a major influence on an economy, and economic growth cannot continue without technological advances.

Neoclassicists have historically pressured some governments to invest in scientific and research development toward innovation. This growth theory posits that the accumulation of capital within an economy, and how people use that capital, is important for economic growth. Further, the relationship between the capital and labor of an economy determines its output. Finally, technology is thought to augment labor productivity and increase the output capabilities of labor. Therefore, the production function of neoclassical growth theory is used to measure the growth and equilibrium of an economy. That function is $Y = AF(K, L)$, (Aghion, P.; Howitt, P., 1998).

According to the neoclassicists, increasing any one of the inputs shows the effect on GDP and, therefore, the equilibrium of an economy. However, if the three factors of neoclassical growth theory are not all equal, the returns of both unskilled labor and capital on an economy diminish.

These diminished returns imply that increases in these two inputs have exponentially decreasing returns while technology is boundless in its contribution to growth and the resulting output it can produce. As part of the neoclassical agenda, increasing prices of commodities will lead to market equilibrium. However, in lower-income working classes this is not the case, seeing that an increase in prices makes the commodity inaccessible for the poorer working classes in the developing countries

NEOCLASSICAL THEORY AND DEVELOPMENT

Practically, the neoclassical theory of development plays a critical role in explaining development in economies. The theory shows that maintaining an equilibrium between capital and labour is significant in promoting economic growth and development. However, in order for an economy to reap long-term development, it is necessary for them to use technology. Thus, a long-term growth rate of an economy is solely determined by technological progress or regress.

LIMITATIONS OF THE NEOCLASSICAL THEORY

The core of neo-liberalist theory states that less government control and more reliance on the free market are the basic ingredients for development (Todaro, 2002). One of the problems of applying models of growth based on developed countries experiences to underdeveloped countries is that many LDC economies are “so different in structure and organization from their

Western counterparts that the behavioral assumptions and policy precepts of traditional neoclassical theory are sometimes questionable and often incorrect” (Todaro, 2002, p.131). Although neo-classical theory calls for free markets, there are economic, social, political, and cultural structures in place in developed countries that facilitate the application of the theory, and these are not necessarily the same in LDCs. Furthermore, in LDCs, there are many externalities of production and consumption that may or may not exist in developed economies to the same degree. The experience of SAPs throughout the world has shown that the “invisible hand” succeeds at misreading the majority of the population which enriching those who are already better off (Schoepf, 2000; Todaro, 2002). There is a tendency for capital to flow where it is already most abundant, which further marginalizes people living in poverty.

The neoclassical theory of development is limited in certain regards. A critical examination of the theory shows that it has a narrow scope. The theory assumes that a balance between labour, capital and technology would necessarily translate into development but this is not always the case. It fails to see how policies and governmental priorities can affect economic development. Also, the neoclassical theory of development appears to be practical in advanced countries but least practical in less advanced countries where technology is very low and outmoded.

At the core of neo-classical is reliance on the market. But some markets do not operate on the same scale in LDCs, nor do they exhibit the same characteristics. By assuming that market-led development in countries where markets are often imperfect, consumers lack information, and greater uncertainty faces producers and consumers, economists and policymakers are often ignoring other powerful ingredients to growth. Since many goods have a social value that is not included in their market value, such as education and health, they may be provided at a price below their cost. When governments are responsible for providing social services, the idea of health or education as a public good allows for expenditure into these sectors. However, when privatization occurs and the private sector is responsible for providing these services, there is no economic incentive to do so (Todaro, 2002). This may lead to a lot of people much worse off than they were before.

Another major limitation of the neo-classical theories is their focus on economic growth first, followed by human development.

POST DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Post-development theorists appear to use the word ‘development’ to refer to the theories and practices which have most commonly been associated with the term ‘development’ in the post-World War II era. Post-development theorists clearly reject attempts to reform the post-World War II development project in order to eliminate its negative effects.

They pour scorn upon projects such as ‘sustainable development’, which aim to maintain the core assumptions which have informed the PWWII development project but to make some changes in an attempt to eliminate or reduce the negative consequences which this form of development has apparently brought about

This theory of development has been described as a critical and radical theoretical perspective about development has emerged which assert that development is obsolete. Some scholars have argued that the negative consequences which have been observed to result from development are intrinsic to development, rather than being unintentional side effects of it. Thus, the

problem, from the perspective of post-development theorists, is not that the project of development was poorly implemented and that it is necessary to find a better way to bring it about, but that the assumptions and ideas that are core to development are problematic and so improved implementation is not the answer (Berg, 2004, p. 542). Thus, in the view of those who ascribe to post development theory, development should be rejected because of its numerous negative outcomes and hierarchy that it creates between the global north and global south. This theory's major contribution to the development discourse is the fact that it reveals the categorisations (developed and underdeveloped countries) that have existed as a result of classical development theories.

One of the key assertion of post-development theory is that development as it is conceptualized and pursued within an orthodox, and modern development framework is not sustainable, that it produces a range of deleterious effects on man, society and nature, and that the promise that a Western-style, mass-consumption lifestyle can be achieved for a majority of the world's population is simply a 'deceitful mirage' (Rahnema 1997a: Nederveen Pieterse 1998: 360).

Post development theory holds that success with development in some parts of the world, and always for a small minority of the global population, is directly linked, indeed a contributing factor, to underdevelopment elsewhere (Baran 1957; Frank 1966; Wallerstein 1974).

From this point of view, problems of underdevelopment are not merely a consequence of failing to adopt policies that have been successful elsewhere; contra the neo-liberal International Relations theory conceptualization of politics in, for example, studies of international trade or inter-state relations more generally (e.g., Keohane and Nye 1977), development is not a positive-sum game.

Key Ideas

- The change or shift in the economic status quo is what is referred to as structural change.
- The theory of structuralism or structural change is concerned with explaining how and why there are shifts in the basic way a market or economy functions. Lewis, there are two types of economies or sectors: the agricultural/subsistence sector and the manufacturing/ capitalist sector.
- The Neoclassical theory shows that maintaining an equilibrium between capital and labour is significant in promoting economic growth and development
- One of the key assertion of post-development theory is that development as it is conceptualized and pursued within an orthodox, and modern development framework is not sustainable,
- Post development theory holds that success with development in some parts of the world, and always for a small minority of the global population,

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions I went through (natural and artificial) at the basic/secondary/tertiary levels? How these impressions are prepared me to walk around my surroundings?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciative to the other theories of development?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position the other theories of development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on the other theories of development?
- How similar are the aims of the subjects in the curriculum?
- How can you contribute to achieving the aims and vision of the BSC (standards-based curriculum) on the other theories of development?

UNIT 3: COMPONENTS OF POPULATION

You are welcome to unit 3. In this unit we shall discuss the components of population. Understanding of the components of population will help us to appreciate the how each age group contribute to development. Specifically, in this unit, we shall discuss dependency population and dependent population. We shall also examine the contributions of the productive population to development

SESSION 1: CONCEPT OF DEPENDENT POPULATION

We want to warmly welcome you to session 1 of unit 3. This session will present other insightful issues about population. We shall discuss the concept of productive population, dependent population and development.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. Define dependent population
2. Explain 4 characteristics of dependent population

THE MEANING OF DEPENDENT POPULATION

A dependent is defined as a person supported, especially financially, by another (Oxford Dictionary, 1996). Dependent population is defined as that part of the population that does not work and relies on others for the goods and services they consume (Encarta Dictionary, n. d.)

A dependent population, also known as the non-working category, is the group of people that aged below 15 (children) and above 60 (elderly people). This category consists of unemployed people. Hence, they do not contribute to the economic development of the country. They are highly dependent on the working population of the country for their survival. They fulfil their basic needs such as food, shelter, education, healthcare and transportation by depending on the productive population.

Dependent population may also be said to mean the section of a population that is not actively engaged in economic activities due to multiple factors such as being a minor, retired, as a result of disease or disability. In other words, the dependent population is that component of the population that is not working and thus, does not contribute towards the economic growth and development of a country. In practice, specific population age groups have in their entirety been categorized as dependent population, even while the definitions above may not necessarily apply to every individual in the population with the indicated ages. The rest of the population constitutes the working age population. In addition to the above mentioned aged group, sometimes dependent population includes illiterate populations and differently-abled populations as well since they also do not contribute to the economy of a country. When the dependent population of a country increases, it can have a direct impact on the economy and the social standards of the country.

Dependency burden which is defined as the ratio of dependent young and old to the population of working age. The dependency burden varies over time and among populations in ways that have important economic and social consequences, as described in later chapters in this volume

CHARACTERISTICS OF DEPENDENT POPULATIONS

Individuals who constitute the dependent population are characterised by some features. It is prudent for us to know the characteristics and features of this population. Usually, the dependent population possesses these attributes:

- a. They do not contribute towards the economy of a country
- b. They are the non-working population of a country.
- c. They usually depend on the productive population for their livelihoods.
- d. They usually include minors (that is, those below the legal age of adulthood) and the aged (i.e., those aged 60 years and older).

Key ideas

- Dependent population is defined as that part of the population that does not work and relies on others for the goods and services they consume (Encarta Dictionary, n. d.)
- Dependency burden which is defined as the ratio of dependent young and old to the population of working age
- Dependency population have the following characteristics
 - a. They do not contribute towards the economy of a country
 - b. They are the non-working population of a country.
 - c. They usually depend on the productive population for their livelihoods. ,

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about the dependency population?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciate dependent population?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position the other types population?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on types of development?

SESSION 2: PRODUCTIVE POPULATION

This session focusses on another important aspect of the components of population that is productive population. We shall as well discuss the characteristics of productive population.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to

1. **Explain productive population**

2. Outline 3 characteristics of productive population

Concept of Productive Population

Productive Population or the working population refers to the population that can directly contribute to the economy of the country. This population comprises of people with the age range 15 to 59 years. This category of the population can influence the rapid rise or the decline of the economy of a country. A country would benefit if the productive population is well educated and has a high literacy level. Hence it is important to provide good education and quality standards of life to obtain good results. The working populations carry the responsibility of the dependent population and have to provide nutrition, shelter, health care and educational needs of the dependent population.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PRODUCTIVE POPULATIONS

Knowing the characteristics of productive population is critical for identifying such populations and optimising. Usually, the productive population possesses the following characteristics:

1. They include people aged between 15-65 years.
2. They contribute significantly towards the economy of a country.
3. This population is highly independent and self-reliant and therefore does not depend on any other population for their livelihood.

SESSION 3: DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRODUCTIVE AND DEPENDENT POPULATION

We have discussed what productive and dependent populations are, we shall discuss some differences between the two concepts. What do you think are some of the differences between productive and dependent populations? This is the focus of this session.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. Discuss 2 difference between productive and dependent population

Productive and dependent populations are similar in certain regards. First, they are all bounded by a specific age category. Also, the underlying benchmark for both productive and dependent populations is premised on their involvement in economic activities. Nevertheless, some differences distinguish one from another. We have used a diagram to aid the distinction.

Dependent vs Productive Population		
	More Information Online	WWW.DIFFERENCEBETWEEN.COM
	Dependent Population	Productive Population
DEFINITION	The population of a country that does not contribute towards the economic development of a country.	The population of a country that contributes towards the economy of the country through useful occupations.
AGE OF THE POPULATION	Age below 15 and above 60.	Age between 15 and 60.
DEPENDENCE	Dependent on the productive population for their basic needs.	Independent, but has the responsibility of fulfilling the basic needs of the dependent population.
CONTRIBUTION TO THE ECONOMY	Nil	Very high

SUMMARY OF DEPENDENT AND PRODUCTIVE POPULATION

Dependent and productive population represent the socio-economic contributions of a population in a country. Dependent population is the non – working category where they are directly dependent on the working category for the fulfilment of their needs. Children and elderly people include into dependent population. In contrast, the productive population is the working group which engages in a variety of occupations to earn their living. The productive population fulfils the basic requirements of the dependent population of the country. This is the difference between dependent and productive population.

Key ideas

- Productive Population or the working population refers to the population that can directly contribute to the economy of the country.
- This population comprises of people with the age range 15 to 59 years
- The working populations carry the responsibility of the dependent population and have to provide nutrition, shelter, health care and educational needs of the dependent population.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about the Productive Population?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciate Productive Population?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position the other types population?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on types of population?

SESSION 4: IMPLICATIONS OF HIGH DEPENDENT POPULATION

You are welcome to session 4 of unit 3. In this session we shall be looking at the implications of dependent and productive population. These implications would be accessed in the terms of demographic, socioeconomic.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. Explain 1 demographic and socioeconomic implication of dependency population on development.

DEMOGRAPHIC IMPLICATION

Demographically, a high dependent population can be a threat to attaining demographic dividends. The demographic dividend is the economic growth potential that can result from shifts in a population's age structure, mainly when the share of the working-age population (15 to 64) is larger than the nonworking-age share of the population (14 and younger, and 65 and older). With high dependent population, the fundamental assumptions to propel a country towards the attainment of demographic dividend is violated.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS

Generally, countries that have a significant proportion of their population being within the dependent population often experience a high dependency ratio which is likely to lead to a substantial reduction in production capacity and economic growth. Ultimately, there is likely to be a slow pace of development if things are left unabated without the inaction of remedial strategies to offset the negative implications of high dependent population on productivity and economic growth.

SESSION 5: IMPLICATIONS OF HIGH PRODUCTIVE POPULATION

The focus of this session is to discuss the socioeconomic implications of high productive population in a country.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. Discuss 2 socio-economic implications of high productive population

DEMOGRAPHIC IMPLICATIONS OF HIGH PRODUCTIVE POPULATION IN A COUNTRY

One major demographic implication of a highly productive population is that there is an increased likelihood of reaching demographic dividends. This is because, at this point, the age structure of the population is such that, the share of the working-age population (15 to 64) is larger than the non-working-age share of the population (14 and younger, and 65 and older). Hence, there is greater output in reaching demographic dividend. Another demographic implication is that high productive populations tend to have a lower dependency ratio.

The socio-economic implications of high productive population are endless. High productive population implies that a substantial proportion of the population is working. As such, all things being constant, there is a greater accumulation of capital, savings and investment. With many people working, their taxes go into the economic development of the country as revenue is generated. Thus, for a country to experience both qualitative and quantitative improvement in its status quo, it must be a high productive population.

A country that has less of its population being within the dependent population bracket is more likely to attain demographic dividend, structure its democracy, invest in social infrastructure and more social amenities for its population, accrue greater revenue than what it expends through taxes, experience higher gross national income per capita, higher standard of living and massive capital accumulation.

Key ideas

- One major demographic implication of a highly productive population is that there is an increased likelihood of reaching demographic dividends
- Another demographic implication is that high productive populations tend to have a lower dependency ratio.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions on the implications of the high population growth?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciate the implications of high population growth?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on the implications of high population growth?

SESSION 6: DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION

The term ‘demographic transition’ refers to a fairly well defined pattern of change in birth, death, and population growth rates that accompanies the process of development. Before the transition's onset, population growth is near zero as high death rates more or less onset the high birth rates typically found in traditional agricultural societies. Population growth is again near zero after the completion of the transition as birth and death rates both reach low levels in modern industrialized societies. During the transition period between this demographic equilibrium, large increases in population occur because the death rate drops before the birth rate

Key ideas

- Demographic transition refers to a fairly well defined pattern of change in birth, death, and population growth rates that accompanies the process of development.
- Before the transition's onset, population growth is near zero as high death rates more or less onset the high birth rates typically found in traditional agricultural societies.
- Population growth is again near zero after the completion of the transition as birth and death rates both reach low levels in modern industrialized societies..

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about demographic transition?
- How have my impressions in this training session prepared me to be a better appreciate the concept demographic transition?
- Which specific examples can I draw from the course to support my position about demographic transition?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on types of population?

UNIT 4: POPULATION STRUCTURE

Population structure may be defined as the genetic variation of a population. The structure of a population is a function of the combined effects of evolutionary processes that include recombination, mutation, genetic drift, demographic history, and natural selection. The structure of a population describes the population pyramids of nations.

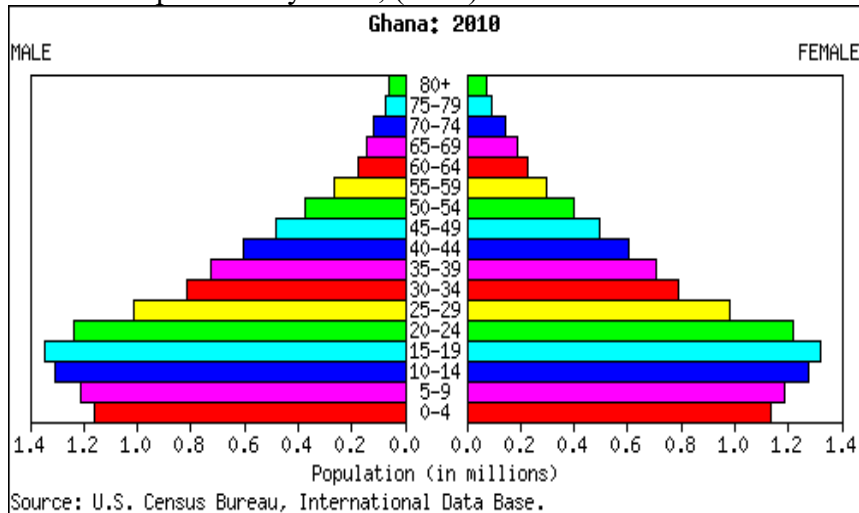
Population Pyramid

A Population pyramid (also called "Age-Sex Pyramid") is a graphical representation of the age and sex of a population.

Types of Populations pyramid

1. **Expansive - pyramid** with a wide base (larger percentage of people in younger age groups, indicating high birth rates and high fertility rates) and narrow top (high death rate and lower life expectancies). It suggests a growing population. An example of a country with such a pyramid is Nigeria.
2. **Constrictive - pyramid** with a narrow base (lower percentage of younger people, indicating declining birth rates with each succeeding age group getting smaller than the previous one). Example: United States
3. **Stationary** - with a somewhat equal proportion of the population in each age group. The population is stable, neither increasing nor decreasing

Ghana's Population Pyramid, (2010)



Within the structure children below 15 years of age have consistently constituted the largest proportion of the country's population over the years. About 4 in every 10 Ghanaians are children aged 0–14 years. This implies that Ghana is still a young population, a situation that is characteristic of a developing country.

- The proportion of the female elderly population is 56 per cent compared with 44 per cent for males.
- Thus, even though Ghana's population remains largely youthful,

- The population of Ghana consists of a large proportion of children under 15 years of age (reported at 44.5 percent in 1960; 46.9 percent in 1970; 45 percent in 1984; 41.3 percent in 2000 and 38.3 percent in 2010),
- the size of the elderly population has been growing
- Life expectancy at birth has also improved dramatically since independence, increasing from an estimated 45.5 years in 1960 to 48.6 and 52.7 years respectively in 1970 and 1984 (representing an increase of 4.1 years over a period of 14 years).
- In 2010, the Ghana Statistical Service reported life expectancy of 60.7 years for males and 61.8 years for females.

IMPLICATIONS OF GHANA POPULATION STRUCTURE (AGING POPULATION)

1. Health

A growing population of older persons comes with an increase in degenerative and non-communicable diseases such as high blood pressure, diabetes, cancers and cardiac related diseases. The Ghana Health Service lists hypertension, skin diseases, diarrhoea, acute eye and ear infections, rheumatic and joint diseases among the top 20 diseases affecting Ghanaians (GHS, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010). According to Ayernor (2012), in his paper the prevalence of chronic non-communicable diseases among the elderly in the country will increase and that chronic non-communicable diseases will have significant health and economic implications for the individual, family and the country. It is obvious that as the size of the population of older persons increases, the health challenges would be enormous and would require priority attention in the country. Healthcare cost in the country will therefore continue to rise as demand for health care increases with an ageing population. Furthermore, since many of the aged will be at the lower ends of the socio economic strata they will depend heavily on the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) making it an expensive venture.

2. Economics

A population with a substantial proportion being aged has implications for the size and composition of its labour force, their participation in economic activities as well as the economic growth of the country. For instance, older people tend to work less, meaning that they offer less labor, productivity and capital to economies. Similarly, the capacity to save may diminish with age, which could impact on the generation of savings in the economy as a greater number of persons grow older. This may also have implications for the level of savings and availability of investment finance at both the national and individual levels.

3. Labour Force Participation

With an expected increase in the population aged 60 years and over in the near future, without the integration of those who wish to work in the current labour market, the economy of Ghana may face a shortage of labour force in the future. The proportion of persons of working age will decrease relative to the proportion of persons of retirement age. However as older people continue to work; employers could face increased costs that stem from absenteeism, lower productivity, and direct financial outlays to cover medical care and disability. On the other hand, they come with a wealth of knowledge that could increase productivity. Furthermore, older persons will constitute a large percentage of consumers in societies with fertility rates below replacement level and will therefore influence consumer behaviour and the rate of economic growth.

4. Sustaining Social Security Issues

The public sector employment constitutes about six percent (6.3%), private formal seven percent (7%) and private informal approximately 87 percent (86.7%) of the total workforce in Ghana, (GSS, 2013). The vast majority of Ghanaians who work in the private informal sector retire without any social security. The sector is also dominated by women because of the limited skills, education and capital required to operate in that sector. Older persons in Ghana, particularly women are more likely to depend on others, given lower literacy and higher incidence of widowhood. An additional challenge is the changing family structure and shrinking social support networks. The extended family support system that previously provided safety nets for its members particularly during old age is fast breaking down due to out-migration, growth of “individualism” in modern industrial life, the materialistic thinking among the younger generation, and eroding incomes of household members, making even working family members incapable of adequately caring for their ageing or older relations.

Implications of Ghana’s Population Structure

Ghana’s population structure has the following implications on the country. e A critical look at the population structure of Ghana reveals that major of the population are between 0-15 and 60+. The people within these age brackets also constitute the dependent population. We hope you can explain the implications outlined here.

- i. High dependency burden
- ii. High government expenditure on pensioners
- iii. There will be low savings and investment
- iv. Government expenses on social services will be high
- v. Slow development
- vi. High government expenditure on the youth and the aged.
- vii. Low productivity
- viii. Low tax revenue
- ix. Over-crowding and congestion
- x. Government expenditure on infrastructural facilities will be high
- xi. High expenditure on training and retraining of man power

Key ideas

- A Population pyramid is a graphical representation of the age and sex of a population.
- The proportion of the female elderly population is 56 per cent compared with 44 per cent for males.
- Thus, even though Ghana’s population remains largely youthful,
- The population of Ghana consists of a large proportion of children under 15 years of age (reported at 44.5 percent in 1960; 46.9 percent in 1970; 45 percent in 1984; 41.3 percent in 2000 and 38.3 percent in 2010),
- The population structure of Ghana has an implication on health, employment, social issues

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about Ghana’s population structure?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the implications of Ghana’s population structure?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the implications on Ghana’s population structure on development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on the implications of Ghana's population structure?

TERMS USED ON POPULATION STUDIES

Birth Rate: *the number of living births per thousand of the population in a given year. That is the number of children born per thousand people on the average.* The birth rate in any given year can be calculated as ;

Birth Rate = $\text{Number of Birth} / \text{Total Population} \times 100$

Death Rate: *the total number of death per thousand of the total population in a given year. That is the number of people who die out of every thousand of the population in a year.*

Calculated as;

Death Rate = $\text{Number of Death} / \text{Total Population} \times 100$

Over Population: it is a situation where the population of a country is more than the available resources. Eg Nigeria, and India

Under Population: a situation where the population of a country is less equal to the available resources. Examples of under-populated countries are Libya and Equatorial Guinea

Optimum Population: the situation where the population of a country is equal to the available resources. Canada and Botswana are progressively working towards achieving optimum population.

Population Growth: the continuous increase in the number of people in a country over a given period.

Demography: studies the features including infrastructural networks, culture and religion, human settlements, occupation and migration patterns of a place.

Key ideas

- Population Growth: the continuous increase in the number of people in a country over a given period.
- Demography: studies the features including infrastructural networks, culture and religion, human settlements, occupation and migration patterns of a place
- Optimum Population: the situation where the population of a country is equal to the available resources.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about the terms used in population?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the terms used in population?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the terms used in population?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on the implications of the terms used in population?

UNIT 5: TYPES OF DEVELOPMENT

You are welcome to unit 5 of this book. In this unit we shall discuss the various types of development. Specifically, we shall consider exempt development, complying development, Integrated development, Designated development and finally State significant development.

SESSION 1: EXEMPT DEVELOPMENT

Ideally, one must secure a planning permission for any development of land or property unless it is specifically exempted from this need. The term development includes the carrying out of works (building, demolition, alteration) on land or buildings, and the making of a material (i.e. significant) change of use of land or buildings

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. Discuss the concept of exempt development
2. Outline 3 policy guidelines for Exempt Development
3. Explain the nature of exempt development

The Concept Exempt Development

Exempt development is development for which planning permission is required and is generally of a minor nature. Categories of exempted development are set out in planning law. Many types of home renovations and minor building projects do not need approval from a council or private certifier. This is called exempt development. As long as the building project meets specific standards and land requirements (as defined in the State wide exempt and complying development policy), no planning or building approval is needed. The first step when planning the building project is to check whether it meets the relevant development standards of the policy.

Every development that has minimal consequences or impact on the environment is referred to as exempt development. The purpose of exemption is to avoid controls on developments of minor nature, such as small extensions to houses. This type of development usually entails minor works or activities. Moreover, developmental strategies and tactics that fall within the circumference of exempt development can be implemented without securing approval. However, it is expected that this would meet the predetermined and agreed development guidelines, protocols and standards. Given the fact that exempt development is usually for minor development projects and strategies that have zero to minimal impact on the environment, it cannot be implemented in certain circumstances such as situations where there is likely to be deleterious consequences on the environment. Nonetheless, it is worthy of note that in situations where for example, only a part of a land or forest is meant for preservation, exempt development can take place on the other part that is not intended or reserved for the purposes of preservation. Thus, exempt development is concerned primarily with the whole but not the part. Exempt development broadly covers small scale and minor building works, such as fences, air-conditioning units, minor building alterations, water tanks and the like.

A range of minor developments can be done to residential, commercial and industrial properties, as exempt development. The exempt and complying development policy divides exempt development into three groups:

1. General Exempt Development (for a broad range of building work),
2. Advertising and Signage Exempt Development (for common types of business signs and other signage),
3. Temporary Uses and Structures (for temporary uses such as filming, builder's sheds and tents and marquees used for specific events).

Policy Guidelines for Exempt Development

The policy guideline for exempt development clearly sets out the development standards that a building project must meet, to be exempt development. To be exempt development the project must comply 100% with all of the relevant development standards. The development standards set the parameters for exempt development and examples of standards in the policy include:

- a. controlling the number of development types on the lot,
- b. managing the location, floor area and height of the specified development,
- c. setting hours of operation, and
- d. managing noise levels.

Key ideas

- Exempt development is development for which planning permission is required and is generally of a minor nature.
- The purpose of exemption is to avoid controls on developments of minor nature, such as small extensions to houses
- Exempt development broadly covers small scale and minor building works, such as fences, air-conditioning units, minor building alterations, water tanks and the like.
-

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about exempt development?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the term exempt development?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the term exempt development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on exempt development?

SESSION 2: COMPLYING DEVELOPMENT

You are welcome session 2 of this unit. In this session we shall consider the meaning of complying development. Now read on.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. explain the concept of complying development
2. outline 5 restrictions and exclusions of complying development

The Concept of Complying Development

Complying development is a combined planning and construction approval for straightforward development that can be determined through a fast track assessment by a council or an

accredited certifier. Complying development applies to homes, businesses and industry and allows for a range of things like the construction of a new dwelling house, alterations and additions to a house, new industrial buildings, demolition of a building, and changes to a business use. Complying development refers to any common or routine development that has predictable and minor environmental impacts and meets the determined standards contained within state government policies and codes. It is largely governed by the State Environmental Planning Policy (SEPP), also known as Codes SEPP. Complying development covers work that meets certain pre-determined development standards and can be assessed and carried out by a certifying authority (council or private accredited certifier)

Complying development certificates are issued for various developmental projects such as new houses, secondary dwellings, residential alterations and additions and alterations to commercial and industrial buildings, pools, carports, garages, demolition and changes of building use.

Hence, once a complying development application is deemed consistent with all the standards, a complying development certificate (CDC) would be issued as a substitute to development consent and construction certificate which would have otherwise been issued. The costs and time associated with a CDC are significantly less than those associated with development applications. Thus, complying development provides a more cost-effective development option to those who need it. It is, however, important to understand that in as much as complying development is cost-effective and time-saving, it may not be the most appropriate action in certain instances and jurisdictions including flood-prone areas, bushfire zones, and environmentally sensitive settings.

Restrictions of complying development

There are exclusions and restrictions when it comes to complying development. Some of these are as follows:

Exclusions

- a. Land within a heritage conservation (not including a detached outbuilding or swimming pool)
- b. Land reserved for a public purpose by an environmental planning instrument
- c. Sites identified as Class 1 or 2 Acid Sulphate Soils
- d. Sites with an area less than 200 square metres
- e. Sites with an area less than 6 metres width
- f. Sites or land within a riverfront area
- g. Sites or land within a protected area
- h. Sites or land within a flood-prone area

Restrictions

- a. The erection of a roof terrace on the topmost roof of an existing or new dwelling house or outbuilding,
- b. The erection of a building over a registered easement

Key ideas

- Complying development refers to any common or routine development that has predictable and minor environmental impacts and meets the determined standards contained within state government policies and codes.
- It is largely governed by the State Environmental Planning Policy (SEPP), also known as Codes SEPP.

- Complying development application is deemed consistent with all the standards, a complying development certificate (CDC) would be issued as a substitute to development consent and construction certificate which would have otherwise been issued
- Complying development is cost-effective and time-saving; it may not be the most appropriate action in certain instances and jurisdictions including flood-prone areas, bushfire zones, and environmentally sensitive settings.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about complying development?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the term complying development?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the term complying development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on complying development?

SESSION 3: INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT

The main focus of this unit is explore the meaning and nature of integrated development. We hope this is not your first time of hearing the word integration. Read on.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to

1. explain the concept and nature of integrated development

MEANING OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT

The meaning of word 'integrate' relates to merge, adapt, synthesize, include, unite and coordinate. To integrate means to combine two or more things in order to become more effective. The word 'integration' therefore means the act of combining into an integral whole. It is not easy to find a precise definition of integrated development (ID), although reviewing the literature on the subject many of the definitions found usually coincide in the sense of identifying it as an "intersectorial" process of rural development, which mean integrator of sectoral policies into a common strategy. Other definitions point to the fact that it is no longer just a question of economic development (of increasing GDP) but rather of improving the standard of living and well-being of rural populations (in this aspect it also appears in the literature as Harmonic Development, Etchezarreta-1988).

It is a known fact that in order for development to be felt and sustained for the long term, it is imperative to adopt an integrated approach. That is important to intentionally connect or link each component, form and dimension of the development continuum. This need for an integrated development approach is further iterated by the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially, goal 17 which talks about strengthening partnerships. The key principle of integrated development includes that it must be intentional and backed by evidence. The fact that we look forwards to an integrated development system means that it cannot happen on its own. Countries and governments that seek to operate from the integrated development perspective ought to be intentional about it. Being intentional in this case means

consciously identifying key areas and partners that can be brought together to make integrated development possible.

For example, if the government of Ghana desires to have an integrated development in the area of ending adolescent pregnancy, it would have to identify the various factors and agencies that facilitate adolescent pregnancy. Afterwards, they will have to create a common platform to engage all of these agencies and stakeholders to form a consensus about the best measures to curb adolescent pregnancies. For instance, the government could intentionally include the Ghana Health Service and the Ghana Education Service so that once the latter focuses on keeping the girls in school, the former can dedicate much time and resources towards the provision of contraceptives and family planning commodities as well as relevant sexual and reproductive health education.

Key ideas

- In order for development to be felt and sustained for the long term, it is imperative to adopt an integrated approach.
- That is important to intentionally connect or link each component, form and dimension of the development continuum.
- This need for an integrated development approach is further iterated by the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially, goal 17 which talks about strengthening partnerships.
- The key principle of integrated development includes that it must be intentional and backed by evidence.
- The fact that we look forwards to an integrated development system means that it cannot happen on its own.
- Countries and governments that seek to operate from the integrated development perspective ought to be intentional about it.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about integrated development?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the term integrated development?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the term integrated development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on integrated development?

SESSION 4: DESIGNATED DEVELOPMENT

You are welcome to session 4 of unit 4. In this session we shall be discussing the meaning of designated development. We hope you will have enjoyed reading the previous session. Good! You will enjoy this session as well.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to

1. explain the concept and nature of designated development

THE CONCEPT AND NATURE OF DESIGNATED DEVELOPMENT

Designated development is a type of development that has high potential to result in environmental impacts. Designated development is development that is declared to be designated development by an environmental planning instrument or the regulations. If you are unsure you should contact your local council. Designated development may be said to mean the type of development that has a very high tendency of impacting the environment. This means that exempt development can take place on lots that comprise some form of designated development. Designated developments are normally located without or closer to environmentally sensitive areas such as wetlands. Moreover, such developments have a greater likelihood of generating tons of pollution.

SESSION 5: STATE SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENT

Finally, we have come to the end of this unit. In this session, we will walk you through the meaning of state significant development. Enjoy your reading.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to

1. explain the concept and nature of state significant development.

MEANING AND NATURE OF STATE SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENT

State Significant development is the type of development that is important to the State for economic, environmental or social reasons. Large and complex development projects that may have a substantial impact on the environment are considered state significant developments. As such, a project or programme can be categorised as SSD under the statutes of the SEPP or by the planning minister (Planning, Development & Heritage, 2015). Additionally, a development that is of large sizes, located in particular environmental areas, and those that surpass a specified capital investment can qualify to state significant developments. Several developments can be considered to be state significant developments. Developments that fall under this category of development may include mining and extraction operations, waste management facilities, electricity generating works, the petroleum sector, tourist and recreational facilities as well as hospitals, educational facilities and correctional centres or prisons.

Key ideas

- State Significant development is the type of development that is important to the State for economic, environmental or social reasons.
- Large and complex development projects that may have a substantial impact on the environment are considered state significant developments
- Developments that fall under this category of development may include mining and extraction operations, waste management facilities, electricity generating works, the petroleum sector, tourist and recreational facilities as well as hospitals, educational facilities and correctional centres or prisons.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about State Significant development?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the term State Significant development?

- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the term State Significant development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on State Significant development?

UNIT 6: POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

You are welcome to unit 6. We hope you have enjoyed the previous units. This will explore the relationship between population growth and development. These relationships would be explored from the perspectives of different population theorists. Some of these theorists are of the view that high rate of population growth has a negative consequence on national development (pessimistic). Others are also of the view that high population growth has positive consequences development (optimistic). Hence, there is yet another school which have taken middle stands. They believe that population growth has both positive and negative consequences depending on the preparations and measures that the country in question will put in place to meet the rising population.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to:

1. explain the relationship between population growth and development

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POPULATION GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between population and development remains a subject of debate among economists and demographers. They continue to disagree about whether population growth restricts, promotes, or is independent of economic growth. Proponents of each view can point to research evidence to support their cases. The utility of this debate has been hampered by its almost exclusive focus on population size and growth. After World War II, rapid population growth, resulting from the gap between declining mortality and continuing high fertility, began occurring in much of Asia. By the mid-1960s, more countries, including a number in Latin America and the Middle East, were experiencing unprecedented rates of population growth. At such rates, their populations would double in less than 25 years.

Concerns about rapid population growth voiced by demographers, social scientists, and others were based largely on the assumption that such growth would “serve as a brake” on economic development. In the late 1940s, conservationists began to write about excessive population growth as a threat to food supplies and natural resources. Numerous writers began theorising in the relationship between population growth and development. Popular among these theorists were the Malthusian school and the neo-Malthusian school. The Malthusian school is also known as the pessimists’ theorists.

Malthusian School

Thomas Malthus **Thomas Malthus** (1766-1834) was an English economist and a clergyman. The population of Europe increased, almost doubling during the 1700s. Writing in the 1790s, Malthus asked whether “the future improvement of society” was possible in the face of ever larger populations.

In a world with fixed resources for growing food, and slow technical progress, Malthus theorized that food production would quickly be swamped by the pressures of a rapidly growing population. The available food would then fall below subsistence level, until population growth is halted by a high death rate. Living standards could only ever improve in the short term—before they set in motion more rapid population growth. The balance between population and income growth was the “great law of our nature”.

Reverend Thomas Robert Malthus (1766-1834) is famous for his pessimistic prediction that humankind would struggle to feed themselves. In 1798 he published his seminal *Essay on the Principle of Population*. The original model (Malthus, 1798) was striking in its simplicity. Population would increase in a geometric progression, resulting in exponential growth. Food production, on the other hand, could only increase in an arithmetic progression, with linear growth. It contended that population has the potential to expand in a geometric progression (e.g. 2 X, 2 X 4, 8, 16, 32...) but that food supplies can only increase in an arithmetic progression (e.g. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6...), probably because of diminishing returns to producing food on the limited available amount of farmland. Even a country with an abundant food supply will at some point be hit by severe scarcity. Malthus posited that this could be countered by what he called 'preventive checks', a lower birth rate resulting from celibacy, birth control, abortions, or infanticide. Alternatively, by 'positive checks' a higher death rate through war, famine, and pestilence. Thus, the consequences for armed conflict and other key aspects of human security formed part of Malthusianism from the start. Malthus argued that the best means of escaping what has subsequently been called "the Malthusian trap" was for people to adopt the "preventive check" of limiting their fertility by marrying later in life.

Fortunately, Malthus's prediction was flawed. First, by 1850, the European birth rate began to drop, partly because children were becoming an economic liability rather than an asset and partly because people began using artificial birth control. Second, Malthus underestimated human ingenuity: Modern drip-irrigation techniques, advanced fertilizers, and effective pesticides increased farm production and saved vital resources far more than he could have imagined (Yemma, 2011).

Some people criticized Malthus for ignoring the role of social inequality in world abundance and famine. For example, Karl Marx (1967, orig. 1867) objected to viewing suffering as a "law of nature" rather than the curse of capitalism. More recently, "critical demographers" have claimed that saying poverty is caused by high birth rates in low-income countries amounts to blaming the victims. On the contrary, they see global inequality as the real issue (Horton, 1999; Kuumba, 1999). Malthus and the neo-Malthusians argue that increasing population spells doom country or a particular population.

Another group emerged who saw the brighter side of population and its relationship with development. This group of population contributors believed that higher population growth presents countries with resources as well as motivation to become innovative, adaptable and dynamic. Prominent among this group include Julian Simon and Ester Boserup. In Boserup's view, human beings are innovative and are constantly evolving in terms of technology. Therefore, to Boserup, there is no way population growth would outstrip food production. According to this population theorist population growth in itself is not bad and has no adverse effects on development.

In simple terms, the neo-Malthusians argued in favour of technological progress. Humans learn to do things in new ways, to recycle, and to produce more while using fewer resources. Investments in science and technology help us overcome the race to scarcity. Technological progress contributes to more efficient use of raw materials, but also the development of new materials and new uses of old.

Again, they are of the view that market mechanism contributes to more efficient use of resources. If scarcities develop, prices rise and facilitate substitution and technological shifts. Preventing scarcities and environmental degradation cannot be left to the market alone, but a

policy that encourages the market mechanism to work when scarcities develop, will help to alleviate particularly detrimental effects of scarcity.

A final counter-argument is that neo-Malthusianism fails to take account of the effects of national policy and international cooperation. Facing local food scarcity, regional, national, or international authorities can move resources into the area, to prevent hunger from becoming a famine.

There is yet another group that emerged to theorise about the relationship between population growth and development. The pluralist perspective is a school of thought that merge both the optimists and pessimists' perspectives concerning the relationship between population and national development. Adherents to this school of thought believe that the relationship between population and development are two ways. Thus, it cuts both ways, having some positive and negative consequences which would be discussed later. To them what matters is how countries and societies prepare for population growth. When structures and systems are put in place and are allowed to work effectively, then we could potentially reap greater and much positive outcomes on national development.

EFFECTS OF RAPID POPULATION GROWTH ON THE SECTORS WITHIN THE ECONOMY

1. First, at the micro level of individuals and families, where high rates of population growth are associated with high dependency ratios and low investment in the human capital of children and young adults.
2. Second, at the macro level where high rates of population growth hinder investment in both human and physical capital formation, and exert pressure on the environment and often fragile resource base. It is recognized that fertility regulation and improvement of mortality rates through better health, education and employment opportunities will stimulate household saving and investment. This synergetic relationship is one of the main arguments for a population policy as an integral component of any poverty reduction strategy. In this section the key socioeconomic variables through which the relationship between population growth and economic development becomes operationally relevant are reviewed, and an analytical framework that summarizes these relationships is proposed.
3. Population growth affects the supply of labor and employment. It induces high dependency ratio when a proportionally lower active population is expected to support a growing segment of the population. At the micro level, household saving is, in part, dependent on the age structure of household members. Thus, one potential consequence of high population growth is to lower the rates of household savings, and this would imply lower rates of investment at the macro level
4. The education and health sectors are at the forefront of the policy debate regarding the relationship between population growth and economic development. Recent analyses suggest that education and health are catalysts of the development process, both at the individual and societal levels. The education invested in today's children is expected to determine the human capital skills of tomorrow's labor force. In addition, all things being equal, better-educated parents are themselves likely to have fewer children with regard to enhanced prospects for good health and survival. Therefore, the reduction of

population growth will make it possible to reap the longer-term payoff of educational investment

5. Rapid population growth does not only affect the capacity to create jobs and absorb the supply of labour, but could lead to tight competition for limited employment opportunities, and result in the violation of core labour standards: i.e the minimum age for employment and child labour, discrimination, etc. Job creation alone is not sufficient as quality, productivity, adequate remuneration and protection of fundamental rights are equally important for human capital development. The mismatch caused by population growth in labour supply and demand adversely affects the promotion of International Labor Standards as well as issues of gender equality
6. Another issue arising from rapid population growth is the trade-off between accommodating growing numbers of children in school and satisfying quality of education. Evidence is increasingly showing that all things being equal, high-income families are reducing their family size and hence would be able to maintain the capacity to send their children to high quality schools. Therefore, appropriate policy measures consisting of income-generating programs for the low income rural populations, and increasing access to modern family planning services will create, among other things, the enabling and conducive environment to achieve smaller families. Moreover, measures to raise girls' enrolment will have a considerable impact on fertility and subsequent family sizes.
7. High population growth rates affect the health sector in terms of excess demand for existing resources which are limited. Indeed, health conditions significantly improved in Africa in the 1960s and 1970s, but the pace of improvement slowed in many countries starting in the 1980s, including a reduced access to health services. Less than half of the population of the region, and less than a third of rural populations, have access to some form of modern health care. While rapid population growth is not the only relevant factor in the decline of the health situation, having children in quick succession without adequate spacing also affects the health of women and their children.
8. Moreover, the combination of population pressure on the land and the prevailing often unsustainable agricultural land-use practices have accelerated deforestation across the continent. In most parts of the region, the cultivation of marginal lands has the concomitant effect of environmental degradation, further eroding the soil and depleting shallow water resources and creating greater poverty.

Key ideas

- According to Malthus, Population would increase in a geometric progression, resulting in exponential growth.
- Food production, on the other hand, could only increase in an arithmetic progression, with linear growth.
- It contended that population has the potential to expand in a geometric progression (e.g. 2 X, 2 X 4, 8, 16, 32...) but that food supplies can only increase in an arithmetic progression (e.g. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6...), probably because of diminishing returns to producing food on the limited available amount of farmland.

- Even a country with an abundant food supply will at some point be hit by severe scarcity. Malthus posited that this could be countered by what he called ‘preventive checks’, a lower birth rate resulting from celibacy, birth control, abortions, or infanticide.
- Alternatively, by ‘positive checks’ a higher death rate through war, famine, and pestilence.
- Thus, the consequences for armed conflict and other key aspects of human security formed part of Malthusianism from the start.
- Malthus argued that the best means of escaping what has subsequently been called “the Malthusian trap” was for people to adopt the “preventive check” of limiting their fertility by marrying later in life.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about Rev. Malthus view on population?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate the Malthus view on population?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the term integrated development?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on high population growth rate?

UNIT 7: NATIONAL POPULATION POLICY

We have gradually come to the end of this unit. We hope you have not forgotten of the things you learnt from the previous units. Good! In this last unit we shall consider the meaning population policy. We will walk you through the meaning the goals and objectives of Ghana's population policy. We would as well consider the strategies that are put in place help actualise these goals and objectives.

Learning outcome(s)

By the end of the unit, the participant will be able to

1. Explain population policy
2. Explain two factors influencing population policy
3. Trace the history the world's population policy
4. Discuss 6 goals and objectives of Ghana's population policy

MEANING OF POLICY

Population dynamics including changes in population growth rates, age structures and distributions of people—are closely linked to national and global developmental challenges and their solutions. In the years ahead, governments and the international community resorted to measures to address the development consequences of population dynamics before they unfold by adopting forward-looking and proactive policies based on foreseeable demographic trends. All the United Nations international population conferences since 1974 have emphasized the need to monitor population policies and programmes related to the implementation of their goals and recommendations, including the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), held at Cairo in 1994 that recommended that actions be taken "... to measure, assess, monitor and evaluate progress towards meeting the goals" of its Programme of Action (United Nations, 1995). Population policy is said to be a purposeful measure aimed at controlling demographic processes, notably fertility, mortality, and migration. The population trend of a country is critical to its development.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE ADOPTION OF A POPULATION POLICY

Two global forces drove population policy adoption at the national level: coercive pressure from donor organizations and normative pressure from both donor and other international organizations regarding human rights and reproductive health. Statistical analysis of all sub Saharan African countries indicates that coercive pressure from donor organizations influenced population policy adoption regardless of time period. Normative pressure led to population policy adoption only following the 1994 United Nations International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo. This conference marked the end to the era of population control, and institutionalised reproductive health as a global norm on par with other human rights (Eager 2004; Hodgson and Watkins 1997; McIntosh and Finkle 1995) to which countries could demonstrate allegiance by adopting population policies.

THE HISTORY OF POPULATION POLICY

The World Population Conference, held in Bucharest in 1974, was the first of three intergovernmental conferences on population convened by the United Nations. It attracted a broader audience than the earlier academic conferences, including government officials from

135 countries, and led to the adoption of the World Population Plan of Action. Two years after the Bucharest meeting, the governments of 40 countries, including the most populous developing countries, initiated family planning policies with the aim of slowing population growth. By 2013, this number had risen to 160 (de Silva and Tenreyro, 2017). During the International Conference on Population, convened in Mexico City in 1984, and the International Conference on Population and Development, held in Cairo in 1994, governments continued to work towards building a global consensus around an approach to population policies that de-emphasized the pursuit of demographic targets in favour of promoting women's empowerment and improving maternal and child health, with an emphasis on the provision of sexual and reproductive health care, including for voluntary family planning (May, 2012). Ghana is not the only country to have adopted a population policy. The first countries to announce population policies were Ghana in 1969 and Kenya in 1967 (Caldwell and Sai 2007; Chimbwete, Watkins and Zulu 2005; Locoh and Makdessi 1996).

China for example adopted a population reduction policy when their population exceeded 1 billion after the death of Mao Zedong (late 1970's). Population policy of China had the Features of China's Population Policy

- I. Only one child is afforded preferential treatment in education, housing, and employment.
- II. Parents with only 1 child were rewarded with salary bonuses.
- III. Parents with two or more children forfeited 10 percent of their salary.
- IV. Couples that underwent sterilization following the birth of child were eligible for additional financial rewards.

Ghana's 1969 population policy was entitled '**Population Planning for National Progress and Prosperity**'. One of the major long-term objectives of this policy was to reduce the population growth rate from nearly 3.0 percent in 1969 to 1.7 percent by the year 2000 (Ghana, 1994). By 1993, seven years to the target date, the 1969 policy had made only modest gains, for instance, the growth rate was estimated at between 2.8 and 3.0 percent and this was considered to be quite high (GSS and MI, 1994). This policy affirmed the government commitment to adopt and implement appropriate strategies and programmes to manage the country's resources. This was to accelerate the pace of economic modernization and improving the quality of life of Ghanaians.

Besides, there were new issues and concerns, which needed to be taken into account.

The 1969 population policy was therefore revised in 1994. The revised policy was to take into account emerging issues like HIV/AIDS, population and the environment, and concerns about the elderly and children, and also to develop new strategies that would ensure the achievement of the policy objectives. The revised edition reviewed all policy goals and set new targets within the framework of a national development strategy. One of the major targets in the new policy is the reduction of total fertility rate (TFR) to 5.0 by the year 2000, to 4.0 by 2010 and to 3.0 by 2020. This is to be achieved by attaining a contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) of 15 percent by the year 2000, 28 percent by 2010 and 50 percent by 2020.

The new target for population growth rate is 1.5 percent by 2020. The attainment of these policy goals is recognised as integral components of the national strategy to accelerate the pace of economic development, eradicate poverty and enhance the quality of life of all citizens, as outlined in the Vision 2020 Plan of Action. It is expected that these goals would propel Ghana into a middle income earning country by the year 2020 (Ghana, 1995). The National Population Council (NPC) and its secretariat were established in 1992 as the highest statutory body to

advise the government on population-related issues, and to facilitate, monitor, co-ordinate, and evaluate the implementation of population programmes. In December 1994, Parliament accorded the NPC statutory recognition by enacting an act to regulate its affairs.

Ghana collaborates with the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and other donor agencies to implement a number of population-related activities.

Both UNFPA and USAID support the Government of Ghana's efforts to address the high population growth rate. In its policies and programmes for the redirection and intensification of population activities, Ghana has incorporated the ideals and recommendations of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo in September 1994, the World Summit on Poverty and Social Development held in Copenhagen in April 1995, and the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing.

After more than two decades of the 1969 Population Policy, the limited evidence available suggests that Ghana's population programme has made only modest gains. In 1993, only seven years to the target date, the rate of growth is still around 3.0 per cent, and the results of the 1993 GDHS show only a moderate decline of the TFR to 5.5. Several factors account for the poor performance of the 1969 policy. The absence of a well-articulated and co-ordinated institutional machinery to translate policy objectives into programmable action plans has been identified as one of the most serious constraints to the success of the 1969 policy. Other factors are inadequate knowledge about population and development interrelationships, inadequate funding and the absence of community participation and support at the grassroots level.

GOALS OF THE 1969 POPULATION POLICY

We want to use this opportunity to explain the meaning of goals and objectives. These two terminologies are sometimes used interchangeably but there is a slight difference between them. Without objectives, an organisation's goals have little support and can be difficult to reach. While the terms 'goals' and 'objectives' are often used interchangeably, they have major differences and important implications for understanding. Goals can be somewhat abstract and big picture, but they set a wide, overarching target for the company to set their eyes on as a whole. Goals define the general intentions and ambitions of the business but can be difficult to measure. Setting goals is an important step in the success of every organisation as a well-defined broad primary outcome will have an impact on areas including your mission statement, financial objectives, corporate culture and marketing strategy. For example, a person could have a goal to become a great demographer. While this is a good goal, there are no specific actions or time frames associated with general goals like this. What defines a "great demographer? How would they know when they have reached their goal? A generic action or project goal is motivating, but adding in precise targets or objectives will help the would-be author to reach their goal effectively.

Once a core goal is set, setting objectives is the next step towards fostering a clear understanding of how to reach the desired outcome. The main difference between objectives and goals is that objectives are precise actions or measurable steps individuals and groups take to move closer to the goal. They are specific targets that typically have a time-bound schedule or timeline for completion.

In the same vein, the national population policy has got goals and objectives. The subsequent paragraphs are dedicated to explaining the main goals and objectives of Ghana's population policy

- I. A national population policy and programme are to be developed as organic parts of social and economic planning and development activity. Programmes are to be formulated through the collaborative participation of national, regional and district entities, both public and private, and representatives of all relevant professions, agencies, institutions and organizations.
- II. Measures will be taken to improve the standard of living and the quality of life of the people. To this end, policies will be pursued to alleviate mass poverty among the people and enhance the welfare of the population at large.
- III. The vigorous pursuit of programmes to reduce further the very high rates of morbidity and mortality and the promotion of reproductive and sexual health generally for all including adolescents will be an important aspect of population policy and programmes.
- IV. Recognizing the crucial importance of a wide understanding of the deleterious effects of unlimited population growth and the means by which couples can safely and effectively control their fertility. Government will vigorously promote as well as encourage others to undertake programmes to provide information, advice and assistance to couples wishing to space or limit their reproduction. These programmes will be voluntary rather than coercive.
- V. Steps will be taken to promote the health and welfare of mothers and children especially through preventing premature illness, unsafe abortions and premature deaths.
- VI. Government will adopt policies and establish programmes to guide the spatial distribution of population in the interest of development. Such policies will in part be geared towards a more even distribution of population between urban and rural and within urban and rural areas.

Objectives of Ghana's Population Policy

- I. To ensure that population issues are systematically integrated in all aspects of development planning and activity at all levels of the administrative structure.
- II. To enhance integrated rural and urban development in order to improve living conditions, particularly in the rural areas, and to moderate and re-orient inter-regional as well as rural-urban migration, including the establishment of growth centers. Programmes to alleviate poverty both in the rural and urban areas would be vigorously pursued.
- III. To regularly improve the demographic database i.e. data collection, processing, analysis, projections and research on population and development. The resulting database will be used in social and economic planning and in policies, programmes and project formulation.

- IV. To promote, clarify and sharpen the awareness and understanding among opinion leaders and the public at large of population issues and the implications of rapid population growth.
- V. To provide the population with the necessary information and education on the value of a small family size specifically, and sexual and reproductive health in general.
- VI. To ensure accessibility to, and affordability of, family planning means and services for all couples and individuals to enable them regulate their fertility.
- VII. To educate the youth on population matters which directly affect them such as sexual relationships, fertility regulation, adolescent health, marriage and child bearing, in order to guide them towards responsible parenthood and small family sizes.

IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

Efforts shall be made to ensure the integration of population variables in all aspects of national development planning and programmes within the context of the national decentralization policy. In order to realize the goals, objectives and targets set by the Policy the following implementation strategies shall be pursued.

I. Maternal and Child Health (MCH)

The main thrust of strategies in the area of MCH will be to reduce the high infant childhood and maternal morbidity and mortality rates, especially in the rural and sub-urban areas, using the most cost-effective strategies within the context of the Primary Health Care programme. This can be achieved through the following ways:

- I. Safe motherhood programmes will be expanded and implemented to help reduce the incidence of high risk births which occur below the age of 20 years, over the age of 35 years, at intervals less than two years and among women who have already had four or more births.
- II. Government shall accelerate immunization, oral rehydration therapy, birth spacing, breast feeding and other child survival strategies in collaboration with the private sector, NGOs and donor agencies.
- III. Infant / Child and maternal morbidity and mortality are related to the mother's level of education and other socio-economic factors such as income levels. Government shall intensify efforts to raise the educational level of females through viable schemes and integrated programmes.
- IV. MCH policies and programmes will be implemented as integral parts of a broad-based strategy of promoting reproductive and sexual health of all including adolescents.

1. Family Planning and Fertility Regulation

A wide gap exists between the high knowledge of family planning and low contraceptive practice as revealed by the Ghana Fertility Survey of 1979-1980 and the 1988/1993 Ghana Demographic and Health Surveys. Current maternal and child health activities shall be expanded to provide much wider availability of family planning services. In addition to

government efforts, the capability of private participating agencies and community-based family planning activities shall be improved and expanded. To be able to achieve this, the following measures were put in place

- I. In view of the current low mean age of 18 years at first marriage for females, national programmes, especially through education, shall aim at raising the age at first marriage to at least 20 years.
- II. Government shall ensure the availability and accessibility of family planning services to all who seek such services at affordable prices and on a voluntary basis.
- III. Family planning services shall continue to include services to sterile and sub-fertile couples as well as individuals who wish to have children to achieve self-fulfilment.
- IV. Family Planning Programmes shall make available a variety of methods of fertility regulation to ensure free and conscious choice by all. The activities of family planning clinics and commercial distribution outlets shall be intensified at national, regional and district levels.
- V. Special emphasis on IEC programmes shall be provided to reach the male population in their homes, clubs and associations on the health, social and economic hazards of prolific child bearing and on the need of the male population to assume greater responsibility for the upkeep of their wives and children. Family planning services specifically directed at male clients shall be vigorously pursued.
- VI. Family planning programmes shall be made more responsive to local cultural values and individual couples' preferences.

2. Health and Welfare

The following strategies shall be adopted to promote the health welfare of Ghanaians.

- I. the reduction of mortality shall be perused along with programmes designed to reduce fertility. Emphasis shall be placed on environmental health and on health promotion and protection as enunciated in the Primary Health Care System adopted by Government in 1979.
- II. The vigorous implementation of a National Health Policy shall be pursued. The implementation of the Primary Health Care System as the main focus of health care delivery in Ghana shall be intensified. Maximum community participation in the formulation and management of health services shall be promoted.
- III. Health policies and programmes shall continue to be integrated into sectors such as education, agriculture, employment, urban rural and regional planning.
- IV. Steps shall be taken to ensure an equitable distribution of health facilities, services and personnel throughout Ghana.
- V. To collaborate with appropriate environmental health related agencies to develop programmes for the provision of safe community water supplies, safe disposal of solid and liquid wastes for the provision of good housing, the improvement of food hygiene

and the development of programmes for the monitoring and control of environmental pollution

1. Food and Nutrition

Agricultural production has barely kept pace with the demands of an increasing population. As a result, poor nutrition is widespread throughout the county. The measures outlined to help in the realization of this include;

- I. Steps shall be taken to strengthen promote and sustain increased food production and productivity through the introduction of appropriate high-yielding, quick maturing and disease resistant plant strains and animal breeds, in order to enhance the nutritional status of the population
- II. To stimulate agricultural production through better pricing and marketing and incentives systems.
- III. To promote the use of appropriate technology at all levels of production, processing, storage, and distribution, community and national levels.
- IV. To integrate family life education into agricultural extension services.
- V. To promote the development of appropriate programmes for reducing the incidence and prevalence of nutritional disorders.
- VI. Efforts shall be made to provide systematic education on food nutrition in all institution of learning. Special attention shall be paid to the needs of children, pregnant women, lactating mothers, the aged persons with disabilities.

2. Education

The role of education in socio-economic development and in changing individual attitudes and behavior cannot be overemphasized. For the educational sector the following strategies shall be pursued.

- I. Subject to the availability of resources, free and compulsory universal basic education shall be provided. Policies and programmes that encourage girls to continue schooling up to at least the secondary school level will be vigorously pursued.
- II. Special programmes shall be developed to improve the low enrolment rate as well as reduce the high school drop-out rate through practicable and technical training that will provide ample opportunities for gainful self employment
- III. Population and family life education shall be incorporated into formal, informal and out of school training to prepare the youth for responsible parenthood.
- IV. Efforts will be made to promote adult education as well as basic and functional literacy with a bias towards the maintenance of family values, reproductive health, population and development interrelationships

3. Empowerment of Women

Women play an important role in the socio-economic development of this country. To further encourage the full participation of women in national development the following actions shall be pursued.

- I. Strategies shall be evolved to ensure an important in the status of women through the removal of various traditional. Legal. Administrative and cultural barriers to their effective participation in nation building.
 - a. Programmes shall be pursued to improve and protect the legal right of women. All forms of discrimination against women shall be eliminated as provided for in International Conventions to which Ghana is a signatory.
 - b. Negative traditional gender norms and customs shall be reviewed and where necessary, abolished. This will be done through the House of Chiefs, religious leaders, opinion leaders, community elders and other concerned groups and institutions.
 - c. Programmes shall be introduced for the removal of deep seated gender discrimination tendencies through an intensive awareness program for all policy-makers and for the population at large.
 - d. Laws made to protect the interests of women, such as those relating to Intestate Succession (PNDC Laws 111-1114), shall be periodically reviewed and amended to enhance the wellbeing and rights of women.
- II. Day-care centres for nursing mothers shall be provided at all vantage points in all sector of the economy and especially in urban areas.
- III. Programmes to reduce the heavy burden of work of rural women shall include the introduction of appropriate labour saving technology in agriculture, industry, and in the home. 5.6.4 Training programmes shall be set up for women in such ventures to domestic and village craft agro-based and small scale industries to foster women's economic development and to introduce them to the use of technological tools.
- IV. Affirmative action programme shall be introduce where necessary to guarantee equal and equitable opportunities for both the sexes in education, employment, housing and business.

Key ideas

- Population policy is said to be a purposeful measure aimed at controlling demographic processes, notably fertility, mortality, and migration.
- Two global forces drove population policy adoption at the national level: coercive pressure from donor organizations and normative pressure from both donor and other international organizations regarding human rights and reproductive health.
- Ghana's 1969 population policy was entitled 'Population Planning for National Progress and Prosperity'
- Ghana's population policy is aimed at achieving a number of objectives
- A number of strategies have been outlined to help in achieving them.

Reflections

- What are some of the impressions about Ghana's Population policy?
- How have your impressions in this training session prepared you to better appreciate Ghana's Population policy?
- Which specific examples can you draw from the course to support your position about the Ghana's Population policy?

Discussion

- How has this session equipped you to be a better classroom practitioner on Ghana's population policy?