AN ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTS OF 'SUSU' SCHEME ON THE ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF MARKET WOMEN IN KUMASI, GHANA

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By

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DECLARATION

I, Afua Konadu Basoah, hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the degree of Master of Science and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to assess the effect of the ‘susu’ scheme on the economic empowerment of market women with cross-sectional data randomly collected from eighty-two (82) market women in the Kumasi metropolis using a questionnaire administered through personal interviews. The data obtained were analyzed using tables, paired sample T-test and multi-regression technique. Among the key findings of the study are that the ‘susu’ scheme has had a significant impact on the economic empowerment of the market women interviewed; that the number of years of being a ‘susu’ contributor and the amount contributed per day do not explain the variability in the economic empowerment level of a market woman; that the majority of the market women in the study have seen the benefit of the ‘susu’ scheme and; and that the scheme has helped the market women to build up cash savings.

The conclusion of the study is that the ‘susu’ scheme has made a significant impact on the economic empowerment of market women in the Kumasi metropolis. In addition, the study concludes that it is not advisable to predict the empowerment level of a ‘susu’-contributing market woman in the Kumasi metropolis by the number of years she has been contributing to the ‘susu’ scheme and the amount she contributes daily.

Among the recommendations made by the study are that ‘susu’ institutions in Ghana should scrap their ‘no-loan policy’; that the government of Ghana should embark on a comprehensive programme of re-capitalising the rural banks, credit unions, and other microfinance financial institutions that practice microfinance; that policy makers should design microfinance sensitization programme aimed at encouraging women, especially the financially-excluded ones, to join the ‘susu’ scheme; and that future studies should focus on getting samples from other regions so that a comprehensive assessment of the ‘susu’ scheme on the economic empowerment of market women could be made.

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background

Women's empowerment has become a household concept in Ghana. It has been argued that empowering women will contribute tremendously to the enhancement of family life as women occupy strategic positions as far as family life is concerned. One Ghanaian educationist, Dr. J.E.K Aggrey is reported to have asserted that "if you educate a man you educate an individual but when you educate a woman you educate a nation". This sums up the significance of women in nation building.

Women's empowerment has many dimensions. One dimension is to educate them so that they become enlightened to enable them make significant contributions towards national development. Another dimension is to provide the enabling atmosphere where they can engage in productive ventures for their economic and personal development; that is to say, to reduce or remove poverty among women.

Poverty alleviation is one of the cardinal principles that inform economic interventions in developing countries, including Ghana. One of the means of alleviating poverty among the citizenry is making credit available and affordable to them. Over the years, commercial banks have been reluctant to extend credit facilities to the poor because of the high risk involved in such transactions and because such people require capital in small amounts which the banks find unprofitable. Microfinance, the provision of small size loans and other financial services to low income households, is often seen as a key innovation of the last 25 years in terms of means of reaching out to the poor and vulnerable (Montgomery and Weis, 2006).

Microfinance institutions may be defined as institutions which act as intermediaries between micro savers and borrowers as well as institutions which provide assistance to such intermediaries (see for example, Webster, 1996 and Steel, 1998 cited in Ofei

(2002). The microfinance sub-sector has evolved as a development tool intended to provide credit and financial services to the productive poor who do not have access to formal financial intermediation and are engaged in small and micro enterprises (Kyereboah-Coleman, 2007). According to Vonderlack and Schreiner (2001) microfinance—both credit and savings—has the potential to improve the well-being of poor women in developing countries.

One of the components of the microfinance sub-sector in Ghana is the 'Susu' scheme which is one of Africa's most ancient traditional banking systems which have over the years been the mode of fund mobilization for initiation, sustenance and in some cases development of micro and small businesses, particularly micro enterprises (Alabi et al., 2007).

"Susu" is an informal financial identification for daily or weekly deposit collection which can be described as a form of banking because it is a system of trading in money. It involves regular and periodic collection of fixed amount of deposits that are made available to the owners after a specified period of time or when required or to borrowers within the scheme at a fee (Alabi et al., 2007).

How is the 'susu' scheme affecting women's economic empowerment? The current study seeks to find the answer to this question.

1.2 Problem Statement

Without doubt, the microfinance concept has endeared itself to both policy makers and a greater number of the citizenry who have taken it as the better alternative to the traditional banking concept. For policy makers it is one of the effective ways of alleviating poverty as it makes banking accessible and affordable to the poor and the underprivileged in the economy.

'Susu' scheme, a microfinance tool which involves the payment of specific amount of money on regular basis in order to collect or save the accumulated contributions after some period, has become very pervasive in Ghana. One group of people who have embraced it and are pursuing it religiously are small and medium scale savers and borrowers in the economy.

Due to the drudgery that small and medium savers and borrowers have had to endure in their bid to accessing credit from the formal banking system, most of them have resorted to the informal banking system prominent of which is the ‘susu’ scheme (Alabi et al, 2007 and Aryeetey, 1995). According to Alabi et al. (2007) for many petty traders, market women, apprentices and artisans, ‘susu’ is believed to have been a trusted, reliable and friendlier means of getting started and also for sustenance as well as growth of their businesses. ‘Susu’ in some cases is believed to be the sole source of getting livelihood (World Bank, 1994 cited in Alabi et. al, 2007) especially in most Sub Sahara countries.

The issue of women’s empowerment has been at the heart of many governments. After the Affirmative Action in Beijing some years ago, efforts have been made by governments to see to the empowerment of women. Women’s empowerment includes encouraging and supporting women to take up managerial and political appointments in order to influence decisions; and eradicating or outlawing the various cultural practices that debase womanhood and perpetuate servitude among women. It also includes economic empowerment in which the dependency rate of women on their male counterparts will be drastically abated if not eradicated. Empowering women economically, should be seen as sine qua non for the other dimensions of women empowerment. One of the tools that have been recommended for achieving economic empowerment among women is through supporting them with microfinance interventions such as the ‘susu’ scheme.

One of the women groups in Ghana that patronize the ‘susu’ scheme as a way of capital accumulation are market women. By the nature of their work market women find it difficult, if not impossible, to transact business with formal financial institutions. This has compelled them to embrace any form of micro credit facility including the ‘susu’ scheme due to accessibility and flexibility the scheme offers in banking.

Despite the ever growing popularity of the ‘susu’ scheme among most market women in Ghana much work has not been done on how the scheme is contributing to the economic empowerment of market women in Ghana.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the above background, the study attempts to address the following research questions:

- What are some of the operational dimensions of the ‘susu’ scheme?
- Is the ‘susu’ scheme empowering market woman in Kumasi?
- Are the number of years of contribution and the amount of money contributed daily significantly related to the economic empowerment of ‘susu’ contributors?
- Does the ‘susu’ scheme need improvement?

1.4 Research Objectives

The overall objective of the study is to assess the effects of the ‘susu’ scheme on economic empowerment of market women in Ghana. Specifically, the study focused on the following objectives:

i. To identify whether or not the ‘susu’ scheme is empowering market women in Kumasi metropolis
ii. To identify whether or not the number of years of ‘susu’ contribution and the daily amount of contribution have any relationship with the economic empowerment of market women
iii. To indentify the opinion of the market women on whether or not the ‘susu’ scheme is empowering them
iv. To make recommendation(s) to policy makers on how the ‘susu’ system can be improved to mobilize funds among market women for economic development of Ghana.

Hypotheses

1. H_0: There is no difference between the mean empowerment level of the market women before and after joining the ‘susu’ scheme

   H_1: There is a difference between the mean empowerment level of the market women before and after joining the ‘susu’ scheme

2. H_0: The number of years of ‘susu’ contribution and the amount of daily contribution do not explain the economic empowerment level of a market woman.

   $H_{1:}$ The number of years of ‘susu’ contribution and the amount of daily contribution explain the economic empowerment abilities score of a market woman

1.5 Significance of the Study

It has already been established that the ‘susu’ scheme plays crucial role in developing economies. Apart from providing platforms for small-scale business owners to engage in banking transactions which contribute to economic growth, the ‘susu’ scheme also enhances the living standards of the citizenry, especially market women. This means that any effort that has the potential of enhancing its operation must be encouraged especially by policy makers. Thus, the study is significant because of the following reasons:

First, the results of the study are likely to provide insight on the saving practices of the ‘susu’ scheme in Ghana. This will help policy makers in formulating appropriate policies for the promotion of the scheme. This is because many studies have not been undertaken to gain insight on the significance of the ‘susu’ scheme as one of the sub segments of the informal sector of the Ghanaian economy.

Second, it is also in the anticipation of the study that operators of the ‘susu’ scheme will use the findings of the study to shape their operations. This will go a long way to improve the growth of the microfinance subsector of the Ghanaian economy.

Third, it is believed that the outcome of this study will be of much relevance to the government of Ghana and gender advocacy groups as it will enhance knowledge of the ‘susu’ scheme in Ghana and its impact on the economic empowerment of market women. Women empowerment has been a major feature in most development documents such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Goal number three of the MDGs seeks to promote gender equality and empower women. Indeed, it is one of the cardinal pillars enshrined in the MDGs and it is believed the ‘susu’ scheme is one of the means which can be used to achieve this goal.

1.6 Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study focused on market women in some of the major markets in the Kumasi metropolis. They included the Kumasi Central Market, Bantama Market, Asafo Market, Anloga Market and Race Course. These markets were visited on the advice of the ‘susu’ institutions.

In terms of content, this research sought to determine the relationship between the ‘susu’ scheme and economic empowerment of women in Ghana.

1.7 Organization of Report

The report of the study consists of six chapters organized as follows: Chapter one outlines the study proposal which includes the general overview of the study, the problem statement, the study objectives and the scope of the research under study. This chapter also covers the relevance of the whole research work.

Chapter Two reviews the existing literature on the ‘susu’ system in Ghana and women empowerment. Based on the review, the study crafts a conceptual framework that has been used to measure the economic empowerment of the market women.

Chapter Three discusses the methodology of the study. Issues such as data sources, data collection methods, data analysis methods have been discussed.

Chapter Four presents the data gathered from the field, their analysis, discussions and conclusions. Data have been presented and analyzed according to the objectives of the study.

Chapter Five presents the summary of the major findings of the research, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Chapter Six presents the summary of the entire report. It seeks to provide a brief overview of the contents of the five chapters of the report.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the microfinance literature and women empowerment literature. The first section discusses microfinance in general followed by a discussion of the 'susu' scheme which is one of the components of microfinance in Ghana. This is followed by women's empowerment concept. The discussions end with concluding remarks.

2.2 Microfinance

"Microfinance is a powerful tool for reducing poverty. It enables people to increase their incomes, to save and to manage risk. It reduces vulnerability and it allows poor households to move from everyday survival to planning for the future" (Paul Wolfowitz, World Bank President, November, 2005 cited in Dixon et.al.2007). This observation sums up the relevance of microfinance.

In their broadest sense, microfinance is defined as the provision of a broad range of financial services such as deposits, loans, payments services, money transfers, and insurance to the poor and low-income households and their farm or non-farm micro-enterprises. (Charitonenko and Campion, 2003 cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004). Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) can be regular banks (private or governmental), specialized branches of commercial banks, or financial intermediaries such as governmental and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) whose main area of expertise is not banking per se. Services offered include credit extension (for production, consumption and emergency), access to savings facilities, and the provision of basic insurance, such as life, health, and cattle insurance (Fallavier, 1998 cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004).

Microfinance is based upon providing small loans, often under $100, to the poor and very poor to enable them to earn additional income by investing in the founding or growth of "micro-businesses". More broadly, it aims at supplying micro loans, savings, and other financial services to the poor. It operates on the premise that the poor will invest loans in micro enterprises, repaying those loans out of profits, and their businesses will grow, thereby potentially lifting large numbers out of poverty. These expectations are based on the premise that the poor will be ‘empowered’, encouraged to participate and equipped to self-manage their activities (Dixon et. al, 2007).

Premchander (2003) argues that microfinance generally refers to the provision of financial services (e.g.: savings, credit, insurance) to the poor, those who normally do not have access to formal financial institutions. Microfinance services are not only provided by specialized microfinance institutions (MFIs) that belong to the ‘‘new world’’ of micro enterprise finance (Otero & Rhyne, 1996 cited in Copestake 2007) but also by a diverse group of state sponsored and cooperative institutions, particularly postal banks, who serve many poor clients (CGAP, 2004b cited in Copestake 2007) along with a growing number of ‘‘downscaling’’ commercial financial institutions (Marulanda & Otero, 2005; The Economist, 2005; Valenzuela, 2002 cited in Copestake 2007). "Microfinance institutions consist of organizations and agents that engage in relatively small financial transactions using specialized, character-based methodologies to serve low-income households, small farmers and others who lack access to the banking system. They may be informal, semi-formal (that is, legally registered but not under the central bank regulation), or formal financial intermediaries" (Steel 1998 cited in Aryeetey, 2008, p.13).

The microfinance institution (MFI) has evolved as a result of the efforts of committed individuals and assistance agencies to reduce poverty by promoting self-employment and entrepreneurship (Hartarska, 2005). The widespread enthusiasm for microfinance has spawned a dramatic increase in the number of microfinance institutions in the developing world. Spurred by an accord reached at the Microfinance Summit in 1997 to reach 100 million of the world’s poorest households with credit, there is arguably more widespread support for microfinance today than any other single tool for fighting world poverty. The Consultative Group to Assist the Poorest (CGAP) (the apex association of international donors who support microfinance) regards microfinance as ‘‘a powerful tool to fight poverty'' that can help poor people to raise income, build their assets, and cushion themselves against external shocks (CGAP, 2004a). The microfinance movement has been both praised and supported by a broad range of academic scholars, major development finance institutions such as the World Bank, and development practitioners (McIntosh and Wydick, 2005). Mahjabeen (2008) reports that microfinance institutions raise income and consumption levels of households, reduce income inequality and enhance welfare.

The microfinance sub-sector has evolved as a development tool intended to provide credit and financial services to the productive poor who do not have access to formal financial intermediation and are engaged in small and micro enterprises. In the beginning, such microfinance institutions were set up through state-run subsidized credit schemes and therefore were directly controlled by the state. Worldwide, microfinance program has been designed in a way to reach the poor who are left out of the formal financial system. However, microfinance institutions are more than merely financial institutions. In addition to providing financial services, MFIs typically provide information related to basic education, health, hygiene, child immunization, disease prevention and environment. Surely, one cannot deny the role of microfinance in poverty reduction as it raises income and consumption of poor households (Khandker, & Wright-Revolledo, 2005 cited in Mahjabeen, 2008). But the multifaceted approach adopted by MFIs has a larger effect on any society in terms of achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Mahjabeen, 2008).

Microfinance is thus one of the critical dimensions of the broad range of financial tools for the poor, and its increasing role in development has emanated from a number of key factors that include:

- The fact that the poor need access to productive resources, with financial services being a key resource, if they are to be able to improve their conditions of life;
- The realization that the poor have the capacity to use loans effectively for income-generation, to save and re-pay loans;

- The observation that the formal financial sector has provided very little or no services to low-income people, creating a high demand for credit and savings services amongst the poor;
- The view that microfinance is viable and can become sustainable and achieve full cost recovery;
- The recognition that microfinance can have significant impact on cross cutting issues such as women's empowerment, reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS and environmental degradation as well as improving social indicators such as education, housing and health (United Nations, 2000).

Studies have shown that micro-finance plays three broad roles in development:

- It helps very poor households meet basic needs and protects against risks;
- It is associated with improvements in household economic welfare; and
- It helps to empower women by supporting women's economic participation and so promotes gender equity.

The literature suggests that micro- finance creates access to productive capital for the poor, which together with human capital, addressed through education and training, and social capital, achieved through local organization building, enables people to move out of poverty. By providing material capital to a poor person, their sense of dignity is strengthened and this can help to empower the person to participate in the economy and society (Asiama and Osei, 2007).

The essence of microfinance is uncollateralised loans to borrowers without a constant source of income from a wage job (Schreiner and Colombet, 2001). There are many types of MFIs, depending on structure and function/philosophy. In many instances, the MFI market is segmented according to the clients involved (for example, women, agriculturalists, micro-businesses), which in turn determines various forms of methodologies and interventions such as credit unions, direct credit institutions, experiences with a credit component, and local cooperatives (Gnonhossou, 2001 cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004). A main goal of many MFIs, especially Rural Micro-finance

Institutions (RMFIs) is to provide sustainable micro-finance facilities to the poor to facilitate income generation and reduce poverty (Baumann, 2001cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004), because it is argued that the poor lack access to financial services, credit, and savings facilities. The non-existence of effective financial services in rural areas affects people in many ways, not limited to lack of credit for agricultural expansion to the long distances to banking services and payments in urban areas as well as the high risk involved in carrying cash on these long journeys (Mwenda and Muuka, 2004).

The aim of micro-finance according to Otero (1999) is not just about providing capital to the poor to combat poverty on an individual level, it also has a role at an institutional level. It seeks to create institutions that deliver financial services to the poor, who are continuously ignored by the formal banking sector. Littlefield and Rosenberg (2004) argue that the poor are generally excluded from the financial services sector of the economy so MFIs have emerged to address this market failure. By addressing this gap in the market in a financially sustainable manner, an MFI can become part of the formal financial system of a country and so can access capital markets to fund their lending portfolios, allowing them to dramatically increase the number of poor people they can reach (Otero, 1999). According to Simanowitz and Brody (2004) cited in Asiama and Osei (2007) micro-credit is a key strategy in reaching the MDGs and in building global financial systems that meet the needs of the poorest people. Therefore, it can be said that micro-credit is a critical contextual factor with strong impact on the achievements of the MDGs. It is also unique among development interventions and can deliver social benefits on an ongoing, permanent basis and on a large scale.

However, some schools of thought remain skeptical about the role of micro-credit in development. For example, while acknowledging the role micro-credit can play in helping to reduce poverty, Hulme and Mosley (1996) concluded from their research on micro-credit that "most contemporary schemes are less effective than they might be" (p.134). The authors argued that micro-credit is not a panacea for poverty-alleviation and that in some cases the poorest people have been made worse-off (Asiama and Osei, 2007).

This, notwithstanding, microfinance has emerged globally as a leading and effective strategy for poverty reduction with the potential for far-reaching impact in transforming the lives of poor people. It is argued that microfinance can facilitate the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as National Policies that target poverty reduction, empowering women, assisting vulnerable groups, and improving standards of living (Asiama and Osei, 2007). As pointed out by the former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan during the launch of the International Year of Micro Credit (2005). "Sustainable access to microfinance helps alleviate poverty by generating income, creating jobs, allowing children to go to school, enabling families to obtain health care, and empowering people to make the choices that best serve their needs." (Asiama and Osei, 2007).

Although microfinance is not a panacea for poverty reduction and its related development challenges, when properly harnessed can make sustainable contributions through financial investment leading to the empowerment of people, which in turn promotes confidence and self-esteem, particularly for women (Asiama and Osei, 2007).

Bikbaeva and Gaibnazarova (2009) writing on the "Impact of Microfinance on Alleviating Rural Poverty in Uzbekistan" argue that microfinance for regional development is significant for the following reasons:

- Many regions with inadequate infrastructure are experiencing problems with the population's access to finance and credit services;
- This creates problems not only for small business development and business initiatives of citizens, but for improvement of living standards;
- Microfinance is ideally suited to addressing the problem of financial "hunger" in the regions;
- The development of credit cooperatives creates a money multiplication effect and involves nonpublic funds in financial circulation;
- The use of effective microcredit technologies creates favorable conditions for the launching and development of small businesses, thereby reducing the social burden of the budget and increasing the index of business activity; and

• The combination of institutional funds and credit cooperatives ensures the system's sustainability, and increases liquidity and financial independence (with microfinance organization [MFO] funds at the second level).

2.2.1 Challenges Facing the Microfinance Sector

Generally, since the beginning of government involvement in microfinance in the 1950s, the sub-sector has operated without specific policy guidelines and goals. This partially accounts for the slow growth of the sub-sector, and the apparent lack of direction, fragmentation and lack of coordination. There has so far not been a coherent approach to dealing with the constraints facing the sub-sector. (Asiama & Osei, 2007).

Among the constraints are inappropriate institutional arrangements, poor regulatory environment, inadequate capacities, lack of coordination and collaboration, poor institutional linkages, no specific set of criteria developed to categorize beneficiaries, channeling of funds by MDAs, lack of linkages between formal and informal financial institutions, inadequate skills and professionalism, and inadequate capital. Better coordination and collaboration among key stakeholders including the development partners, government and other agencies, could help to better integrate microfinance with the development of the overall financial sector. (Asiama & Osei, 2007).

Secondly, traditional commercial banking approaches to microfinance delivery often do not work. According to traditional commercial banking principles, the credit methodology requires documentary evidence, long-standing bank-customer relationship and collateral, which most micro and small businesses do not possess. The commercial banking system, which has about twenty-three (23) major banks, reaches only about 5% of households and captures 40% of money supply. Therefore there is room for expanding the microfinance sector in Ghana. (Asiama & Osei, 2007).

2.3 The ‘Susu’ Scheme

‘Susu’ as one of the microfinance schemes in Ghana is thought to have originated from Nigeria and spread to Ghana in the early twentieth century (Asiama & Osei, 2007).

In a World Bank study on the financial systems in Africa it was found that individuals who operated primarily on the savings side of the financial market were found only in West Africa.

It is an informal financial identification for daily or weekly deposit collection on the West African markets. It can be described as a form of banking because it is a system of trading in money, which involves regular and periodic collection of fixed amount of deposits that are made available to the owners after a specified period of time or when required or to borrowers within the scheme at a fee. Though “susu” does not require collateral it relies on a guarantee system to reduce risks associated with ‘clean lending’ (Alabi et al., 2007).

The savings collectors take regular deposits (often daily or weekly) of an amount determined by each client and return the accumulated sum at the end of a stipulated period (usually a month), minus 1 day's deposit as commission. These 'mobile bankers' form a symbiotic relationship with market traders, protecting their daily earnings from competing claims and ensuring working capital to restock supplies at the end of the month. They sometimes extend 'advances' to their clients before the end of the month and occasionally lend to non-clients, though lending is constrained by their lack of a capital base other than monthly collections (World Bank, 1997 cited in Alabi et al. 2007).

2.3.1 Growth in the Informal Financial Sector

In his paper '*From Informal Finance to Formal Finance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Lessons from Linkage Efforts'*, Aryeetey (2008) uses the term informal more broadly to include a number of semi-formal activities. These include:

- such institutions as credit unions and savings and credit co-operatives; 11 less formalized, smaller-scale group arrangements such as savings groups, mutual aid associations, non-rotating savings and credit associations (SCAs), rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs);
- Commercial lenders such as individual savings (*susu*) collectors, estate-owners. landlords, traders, shopkeepers, and professional and non-professional money lenders;
- Friends, relatives and business associates among whom transactions take place on a non commercial basis.

Most informal financial agents tend to specialize in either lending or savings mobilization. And most organizations tend to be membership based. Informal financial units have been developed in response to the demand of a distinct clientele and each unit tends to serve a particular market niche (Aryeetey 2008). Many analysts estimate that the informal financial sector is larger than the formal financial sector in terms of outreach since they are accessible to most socio-economic groups. It is also estimated that there is a rapid and growing demand for informal savings and credit facilities given the large number of people moving into the informal real sector. High proportions of rural credit and savings are still managed informally. To varying degrees, informal financial services are characterized by easy access, flexibility in loan use, rapid processing, flexibility in interest rates and collateral requirements. However, informal agents are restricted in the size and duration of lending and in their area of operations.

According to Aryeetey (2008) a lot of the initial growth that was observed in the informal sector in the mid-1990s is continuing in many countries. He advances that in Ghana, for example, it is now common to find that large numbers of individual '*susu'* *collectors* have established offices (kiosks) at various points in cities and towns where their clients can actually walk to make deposits and engage in other transactions.

So clearly, some process of transformation is taking place in the business of 'susu' collection without necessarily making it formal in the sense of regulation. The business of informal savings collection is now being institutionalized with better record-keeping and a fixed address, a development that solves the earlier problem of collectors having no fixed address that was known to the clients. '*Susu' collectors* have tried to extend their clientele well beyond the market women who were their traditional clients. Most small and informal businesses are now seen as prime targets for savings mobilization.
There are many more susu collectors in Accra today than a decade but the number of clients on average is still 500 (Barclays Bank of Ghana, 2006). So in general the growth is in the numbers of informal operators. The association of 'susu' collectors in Ghana has increased it numbers of registered members by 1000% in the last ten years.

It is interesting that most other aspects of the actual business of collecting deposits and lending informally have not changed much. In 1994 loan sizes in the studies earlier mentioned were found to generally lie between \$50 and \$1,000, with a median value of about \$250. Evidence from Steel and Andah (2005) suggest that this has not changed much. Lending is still for short periods and interest on deposits is almost non-existent. (Aryeetey, 2008).

It is important to observe that in many countries, including Uganda and Ghana, there have been significant efforts to discuss the regulation of informal financial agents, (Steel 2006). The Financial Institutions (Non-Banking) Law of 1993 in Ghana made it possible for nine new categories of licensed financial institutions/agents to operate. These included savings and loan companies (S&Ls) and credit unions. Individual '*susu' collectors* were recognized under the law. They were encouraged to join the registered Ghana Cooperative *Susu* Collectors Association [GCSCA]. In practice, member-based cooperatives and other savings and credit associations (including rotating savings and credit associations [ROSCAs] and *susu* clubs) are allowed to mobilize savings from and lend to members, and this is with the understanding that they do not engage the general public directly. What this overview shows is that in spite of the growth of the formal financial sector many years after reforms began, there is still a vibrant informal financial sector that has sought to make itself relevant in many countries. The growing numbers of informal operators suggest that there is still a significant demand for their services and this would explain why formal financial institutions are beginning to direct some attention to linking up with them in a number of countries. (Aryeetey, 2004 cited in Aryeetey, 2008).

2.3.2 Key Characteristics of the Susu Scheme in Ghana

a. Client Features

In a study commissioned by the Ministry of Finance on the Ghanaian MFIs' best practices it was discovered that women predominated the clients of MFIs. The report indicates that women constitute 75% of total Susu clients at Nsoatreman Rural Bank; 65% of the total susu clients at First Allied Savings and Loans Limited; and 80% of the total susu clients of CITI Savings and Loans Limited (CHORD, 2000).

In addition to the gender factor, the 'susu' schemes cut across a wide range of socio-economic or occupational groups such as farmers, petty traders, artisans, food processors and salaried workers. These groups are generally within the low income bracket. The practice can also thrive in both rural and urban settings. On that score, the scheme is inherently universal, making it a potentially good outreach tool for microfinance service delivery (CHORD, 2000).

b. Deposit Collection Strategy and Safety

Collectors move round the activity site of clients (market place, work places homes, etc.) in order to ensure proximity to savers. This feature is unique to 'susu' as it enhances outreach performance. Also, daily collection of small savings from 'susu' clients makes it quite flexible and suitable to the poor. Perhaps, this explains why the method has succeeded in targeting women, the majority of whom are poor. (CHORD, 2000).

In terms of collection, two main methods have been identified: independent/private (non-salaried) collectors and salaried/commissioned staff. Under the independent (non-salaried) collector's method, the collector undertakes daily door-to-door collection of agreed/fixed amount from clients for a cycle usually one month. In each cycle the collector's fee for rendering this service is a day's deposit of each client. For example, if in each day a client contributes GH¢ 5 then at the end of the contribution cycle the collector will subtract GH¢ 5 from the contributor's total deposit as service charge. The major risk inherent in dealing with private collectors is possibility of the collectors absconding with contributions. However, the private collectors have been found to be more aggressive in reaching out to more potential savers since their profit is contingent on the number and per capita daily contribution of their clients.

Under the salaried/commissioned staff deposit collection the collecting agents are full-time employees of the MFI who do the door-to-door collection for and on behalf of the MFI for basic salary. Here, the collecting agents are full-time employees of the MFIs who receive basic salary. This is the practice at most banks. Examples are First Allied Savings and Loans Company and the Rural Banks. This method is usually preferred to the private one because it involves less risk. (CHORD, 2000).

2.3.3 Strengths and Weaknesses of Susu Scheme

CHORD (2000), in a draft report on inventory of Ghanaian microfinance best practices cite the following strength of the susu scheme in Ghana:

- Flexibility in the amount that one decides to contribute allows even the poorest to participate.
- The door-to-door savings collection strategy (at workplace and homes) allows many more people to be reached.
- The traditional 'susu' system (operated by private collectors) has been linked up to the semi-formal banking system for good for the Ghanaian economy. For example, the fact that daily collections are lodged at the bank ensures security of deposits.

- Easy modification/adaptability of the methodology; for instance, the practitioner may base it on group concept, or individual concept. That notwithstanding, the central feature remains unchanged.

The major weakness identified by CHORD (2000) is the risk of losing deposits as a result of the fraudulent disappearance of the ‘susu’ collector.

2.3.4 Conditions for Success

Comparing the strengths and weaknesses of the ‘susu’ method, CHORD (2000), argues that, it is clearly a good system and can be adopted to suit varying settings. However, for ‘susu’ to function effectively certain conditions must be satisfied. These are:

- Proximity to clients via ‘door-to-door’ collection strategy
- Flexibility on the amount that one wants to contribute
- There should be an assurance of safety/security of deposits
- Well-trained and motivated customer intermediaries/agents
- Shorter cycle (3 months in this case) for contributors to qualify for loan
- Aggressive promotion of the scheme/product (through print and electronic media)
- Faithfulness of the MFI in promptly meeting all loan requirements associated with contributions
- Effective supervision and control of collection agents to avoid fraudulent practices.

2.4 Women's Empowerment

Empowerment is a process of change by which individuals or groups, with little or no power, gain the power and ability to make choices that affect their lives (Kessey, 2005). Women in Africa are inundated with an avalanche of prejudices and biases most of which are culture-rooted. Bhatt et al. (1998) suggest that women face under-employment and a casual nature of work; lack of skills and education; lesser mobility, heavy responsibilities; a systematic social practice of under-rating women's work, and lack of access to better technologies, tools and productive assets.

Many NGOs have taken on the task of women's empowerment through micro-enterprise in recognition of the impact it can have on women, their families, and poverty alleviation. In doing so, however, these NGOs and the women they support often find themselves confronting a reality where attitudinal biases, lack of collateral security with women and women's lack of awareness and reluctance to approach banks for facilities create lack of access to credit, raw material, and markets (Premchander, 2003). As a result, various accords and affirmative actions have been signed and undertaken to promote the welfare of women. It is therefore not surprising that female empowerment is one of the cardinal goals of the millennium development document. The eight goals of (MDGs) are: poverty and hunger reduction, universal primary education, female empowerment and gender parity, improvement of maternal health, reduction of child mortality, combating diseases, like HIV/AIDS, malaria and environmental sustainability (Mahjabeen, 2008).

Now, accelerated human development can take place through financial and social empowerment of the poor, specifically, women. Microfinance programmes are mainly directed towards women. Evidence shows that through microfinance, women are empowered in terms of decision making, asset ownership and political and legal awareness (Cheston & Kuhn, 2002). This eventually enables women to make decision regarding the education and health of their children, specifically, of female children. Studies have found that the children of these women are guarded against starvation, disease and illiteracy (Wydick, 1999; Afrane, 2002, cited in Mahjabeen (2008).

This realization led to the development—world's initial strategy of promoting income generating activities (IGAs) for women on a large scale. The strategy did not fully succeed, however, as poor women are faced with fewer and poorer opportunities to work.

Women Empowerment is therefore a process by which women can gain power to reduce significantly the forces of institutional deterrents to their development. (Agarwal, 1994). Equity is achieved when women build the capacity to challenge the existing power relations which place them in an inferior position to that of men. Gender quality is necessary to achieve social justice. The process towards gender equity and empowerment can be greatly justified if women attain economic independence (Roy and Tisdell, 2004).

There are some indicators of MFI-effectiveness in empowering people in rural Africa, especially women, to sustainably emerge from extreme poverty and contribute to human development on the continent, in line with the poverty dimension of the MDGs (Mayoux, 2000).

There are basic links and rationales between micro-finance and women's empowerment; the latter defined as the expansion of individual choice and capacities for self-reliance (Mayoux, 2000). Sustainable micro-finance empowers women because they, as a group, are consistently better in promptness and reliability of repayment of credit. Targeting women as clients of micro-credit programs has also been a very effective method of ensuring that the benefits of increased income accrue to the general welfare of the family, and particularly the education of girls in countries like Zambia. At the same time, women themselves benefit from the higher status they achieve when they are able to provide new income.

The reason for targeting women lies in the higher levels of female poverty and women's responsibility for household well-being, an argument that Mayoux (2000) also articulates. There is also the added advantage that targeting women goes a long way towards achieving both gender equality and human rights, which are important MDGs.

Women's control over decision-making is also seen as benefiting men through preventing leakage of household income to unproductive and harmful uses such as beer drinking in the case of rural Africa. Other welfare interventions are advocated in addition to micro-finance, typically nutrition, health and literacy campaigns to further decrease vulnerability and improve women's skills (Mayoux, 2000 cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004).

There are some essential elements needed for gender mainstreaming, empowerment and poverty alleviation. Such gender guidelines should include, without being limited to: changes in collateral requirements to include female forms of property; reduction in loan sizes and more flexibility in savings requirements (timing and location of service delivery); and group formation to decrease administrative costs and increase women's “social capital”. Gender mainstreaming involves equality of women's access to services and mechanisms to ensure translation of this access into empowerment. Evidence indicates a clear linkage between contribution to women's empowerment, and even women's access to micro-finance, and positive impacts on levels of poverty (Mayoux, 2000).

Efforts must be made to maximise women's ability to increase and control incomes and resources through, for instance, registration of property and assets in women's names, graduated loan sizes, special packages for women in non-traditional and more lucrative activities, and some compulsory long-term savings (Mwenda and Muuka, 2004).

From the above discussions, it is clear that women do predominate ‘susu’ clients. Most of these women are petty traders who are normally found at the market place. A market woman in Ghana typically sees her "banker" every day to deposit as little as 25 cents. At the end of the month, she gets back her accumulated savings, with which she replenishes her stock or buys something that she could not afford out of one day's profits. This banker is an informal savings collector, known in Ghana as a ‘susu’ collector. They play an important role in mobilizing savings in West Africa through their daily collection of deposits.

2.4.1 Microfinance and Women Empowerment

There is a recognition that microfinance can have significant impact on cross cutting issues such as women's empowerment, reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS and environmental degradation as well as improving social indicators such as education, housing and health (United Nations, 2000 cited in Mahjabeen, 2008). Kessey (2005) reports that through microfinance interventions, Sunyani Gonja Muslim Women Fish Sellers' group has developed the ability to pay the school and hospital fees of their children and have also seen some improvement in their nutritional status considerably because of their ability to supplement the food budget or money for food.

Arguably, women have a predisposition to use profits to meet family needs rather than to reinvest (Downing, 1990; Clark, 1991 cited in Kessey, 2005). Cheston and Kuhn (2002) cited in Kessey (2005) also note that, "women have been shown to spend more of their income on their households; therefore, by helping women increase their incomes, you are improving the welfare of the whole family". Whitehead (1985) cited in Kessey (2005) also adds to the above generosity of women in terms of family welfare in her 'ideologies of maternal altruism'. The 'maternal altruism' often lead women to deny themselves the resources to satisfy their own needs and preference in favor of other members of the family.

2.5 Analytical Framework

The above exposition indicates there are some indicators which one can use to measure economic empowerment of the woman. These include the ability to contribute to food budget (housekeeping); ability to pay children's school and hospital fees; and ability to acquire personal assets. Moreover, evidence establishes that women save to provide for their families (Mwenda and Muuka, 2004). Consequently, these three abilities constitute the framework for measuring how the 'susu' scheme is economically empowering market women in the Kumasi metropolis. The diagrammatic representation of this conceptual framework is presented below:

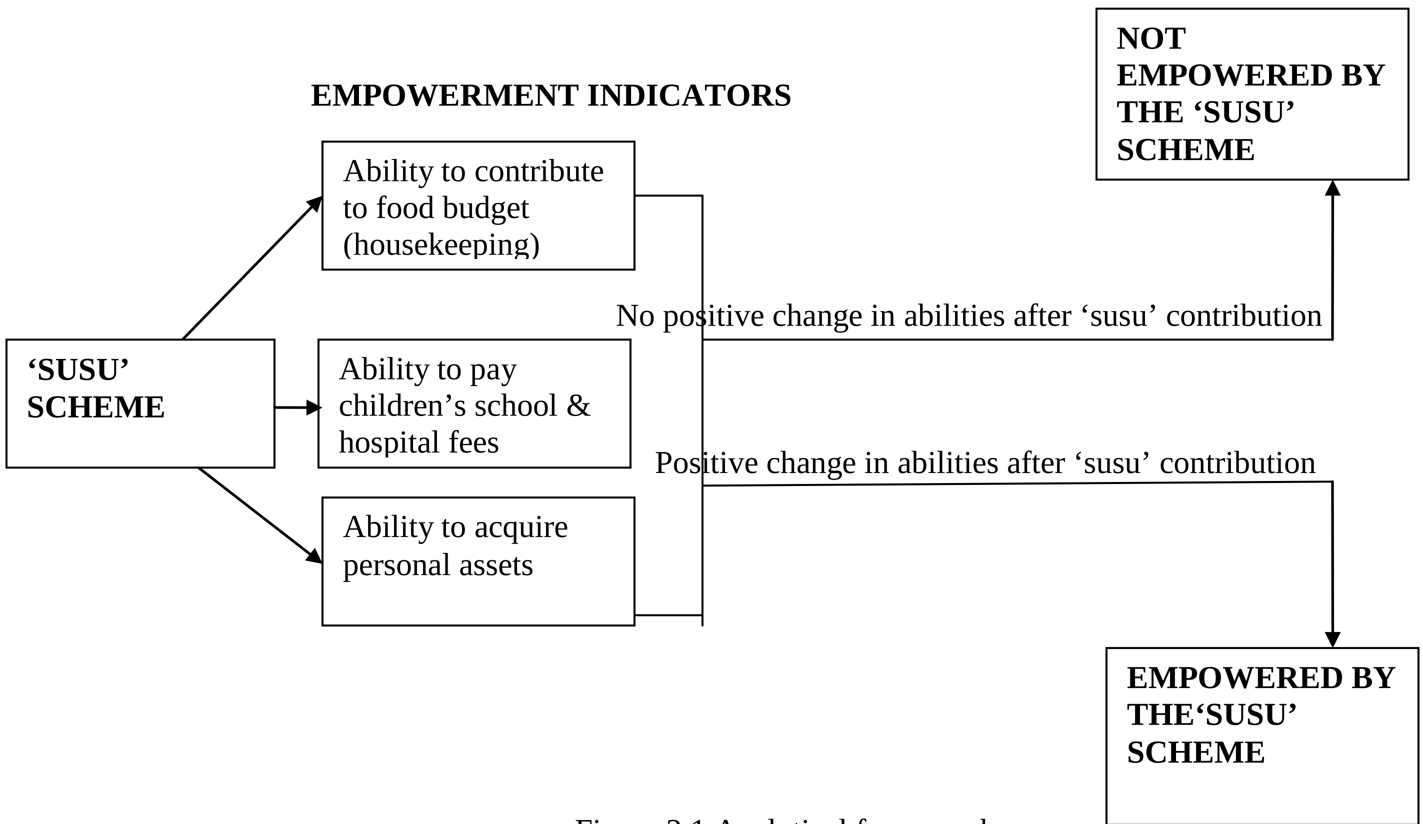

Figure 2.1 Analytical framework

Source: Author's construct (2009)

KEY

1. Where the respondent's abilities score before the 'susu' scheme equals after 'susu' abilities score or where the respondent's before 'susu' abilities score is greater than after 'susu' abilities score she was considered not to have been empowered by the 'susu' scheme
2. Where the respondent's before 'susu' abilities score is less than her after 'susu' abilities score she is considered empowered by the 'susu'

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter explains the methodology adopted for the study. It highlights the research strategy used; study variables and units analysis; data sources used, tools for data collection; sampling techniques; methods of primary data collection; and how data were analyzed.

3.2 Research Strategy

In line with the research questions and the accompanying objectives, the study adopted the survey approach in which data on some market women in the Kumasi Metropolis who are members of 'susu' schemes were collected to gain insight into how the susu scheme in Ghana was empowering them economically.

A review of literature on 'susu' scheme was done to gain a better cross sectional understanding of the scheme in Ghana. The information obtained from the review shaped the research objectives.

3.3 Study Variables and Unit of Analysis

The units of analysis constitute the most elementary part of the phenomenon to be studied. They are the basic units of investigation. According to Kumekpor (2002), the units of analysis in any investigation refer to the actual empirical units, objects, occurrences which must be observed or measured in order to study a particular phenomenon. In this regard, 'susu' collection units; market women with regards to their before 'susu' and after 'susu' abilities constituted the main variables of analysis. Empowerment was operationalised in terms of the ability of the respondent to contribute to food budget (Housekeeping); ability to pay children's school and hospital fees; and ability to acquire personal assets. Respondents were asked to indicate whether before joining the 'susu' scheme they were able to pursue all, one or more of these financial obligations. The same question was posed to respondents with the same responses provided in the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to indicate whether after joining ‘susu’ they could pursue all, one or more of these obligations.

3.4 Data Sources and Collection Instrument

Both primary and secondary data were employed for the research study. The researcher reviewed relevant literature from secondary sources to assemble information as well as expand knowledge base to make conclusions about the subject matter. Journals, publications and the Internet were employed to understand the concepts, key components, principles and dynamic operations of the ‘susu’ scheme.

Structured and unstructured questions designed into standardized questionnaire were used in collecting data at the various ‘susu’ collection units. A standardized questionnaire along the objectives of the study was designed for market women. This instrument was administered by the researcher in view of the fact that most of the market women are usually semi-literate or illiterates.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

In Ghana the ‘susu’ scheme is practiced by various financial institutions. These are commercial banks; rural banks; savings and loans companies; and credit unions. Besides, the scheme is also practiced by private individuals who are commonly referred to as ‘**susu’ collectors** in the various communities.

The sampling frame encompassed all the clients of the ‘susu’ collection units selected for the study. Since the study adopted a survey design, the researcher decided to interview about 100 clients of the four ‘susu’ collection units. A simple random sampling method and snowballing sampling technique were adopted for the study.

3.5.1 Methods of Primary Data Collection

A letter of introduction was obtained from the Department of Planning of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to the identified ‘susu’ operators in the Kumasi Metropolis. As indicated in the literature review in chapter two ‘susu’ is operated by private individuals, banks and savings and loans companies. Thus, the researcher selected two savings and loans companies and two private ‘susu’ operators, using purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which an experienced individual selects the sample based upon his or her judgment about some appropriate characteristic required of the sample members (Zikmund, 1994). Thus, the selection of the four institutions was based on their accessibility and popularity in the Kumasi metropolis.

After obtaining the permission of the management of the four ‘susu’ units an arrangement was made to contact their ‘susu’ clients using simple random sampling method. It was difficult to obtain the sampling frame so the study decided to sample 82 ‘susu’ clients.

The study adopted personal interview method to collect primary data from the field using standardized questionnaire due to the perceived weak educational background of most market women in the Kumasi metropolis. This enabled the researcher to clarify perceived ambiguities in the questionnaire. The questions were translated into Twi to aid easy comprehension. The Twi language was used because it has been the most dominant language in the metropolis. Respondents were interviewed on some of major markets in the Kumasi metropolis such as Bantama market, Central Market and Asafo market. The targets were reached through the ‘susu’ collectors of the ‘susu’ units.

Led by ‘susu’ collectors of the ‘susu’ units each market woman was interviewed at her place of business. The study, therefore, benefits from the advantages of personal interview such as opportunity for instant feedback; opportunity for respondents to probe complex questions to clear doubts; opportunity to receive response to all items in the questionnaire; and high participation as the respondents only talked, they did not read or write. The researcher is also aware of the disadvantages of personal interview. It was expensive. The geographic proximity of the respondents and the length and complexity of the questionnaire and the number of people who could not be contacted all made the personal interview method expensive. In addition, because most of the respondents were either illiterates or semi-literates a lot of time was spent on translating the questions from English to Twi. Furthermore, the researcher is aware of biases that might have occurred as a result of face-to-face contacts with respondents; some responses might have been given to please the interviewer. However, these possible biases have been abated by the fact that the presence of the ‘susu’ collectors at the point of the interview made the exercise appear like one being undertaken by the ‘susu’ units to enhance their operations so it was visible that respondents were frank and candid with their responses to the questions.

3.6 Data Processing and Analysis

Data collected were processed by editing, coding and tabulation. Editing was carried out to detect and eliminate errors in the data. Data were analyzed in line with the objectives outlined above. Cross tabulation and paired sample t-test were adopted to relate one variable to the other. The analysis of the data employed both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative data analysis was done using univariate level where frequency tables, pie charts, and bar charts were used to describe the variables in the study. Quantitative data analysis was done at multivariate level by computing the economic abilities of the market women before and after joining the ‘susu’ scheme. As indicated in the analytical framework outlined in Chapter Two of this report, empowerment of a market woman was measured by three abilities: ability to contribute to food budget (housekeeping); ability to pay children’s school and hospital fees; and ability to acquire personal assets. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used in the analysis. Chapter four presents the data collected analyses and discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the research findings and discusses data on the perceptions on the impact of ‘susu’ schemes on the economic empowerment of market women. The analysis is done with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In order to address the research questions and objectives stated in Chapter One of this report, both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis have been used.

The data presented were gathered using questionnaires. In all, eighty two (82) questionnaires were administered by the researcher. The various data sets have been presented in tables and a pie chart. The profile of the respondents consisting of the age categories; marital status; number of children; and the number of dependants is analyzed first followed by testing of hypotheses. The outcome of the analysis serves as input to the discussion and recommendations section of this report.

4.2 Background of Respondents

4.2.1 Age Ranges of Respondents

The age structure of the population in a country provides a picture of the level of age dependency in the economy and also serves as a determinant for measuring economic activity of the population. It also gives an indication of the level of awareness and responsibility within the populace. From the survey, the ages of the respondents interviewed reflect a high rate of the population who are economically active. Of the 82 women interviewed, 18.3 percent fell within the age bracket of 21-30; 34.1 percent were aged between 31-40 years; 35.4 percent were in the age bracket of 41-50; and 12.2 percent were either 50 years or above. The age distribution of the respondents is displayed in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: Age Ranges of Respondents

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percentage
21-30	15	18.3
31-40	28	34.1
41-50	29	35.4
51 and above	10	12.2
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2009.

Table 4.1 shows that majority of the women in the sample fell within 41-50 age bracket. The age distribution indicates that all the women were mature. Since the analytical framework sought to measure abilities of the market women to meet domestic financial obligations it is argued that the age distribution of the sample was appropriate for the study. This argument is confirmed by other details of the sample provided below.

4.2.2 Marital Status of Respondents

Marital status reflects a person’s level of commitment, responsibility and mobility among other factors. Knowledge about the marital status of market women was necessary to ascertain their level of commitment and responsibilities to themselves, their families and to society as a whole. In general, people who are married have high financial and social responsibilities to meet.

As indicated in Table 4.2 below, 15.9 percent of the market women interviewed were single and were therefore mobile and could easily relocate. The proportion of married respondents was 64.6 percent, 12.2 percent were divorced with about 7.3 percent being widowed. The result indicates that majority of the women interviewed were married which was good for the study.

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Table 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	13	15.9
Married	53	64.6
Divorced	10	12.2
Widowed	6	7.3
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

4.2.3 Number of Children of Respondents

It was also found from the survey that 12.2 percent of the respondents had one child with about 10 percent having two children. Also, as can be seen from Table 4.3 below, about 29 percent of the respondents had three children while 13 percent of them had four children and 12 percent had five children. The remaining 11 percent respondents had six or more children. 12. 2 percent of the sample indicated that they did not have children. This means that close to 88 percent of the respondents had at least one dependent. For those who had children, however, the average number of persons per household was lower than the Ghanaian standard of 3. Table 4.3 shows that the majority of the women had three children. The majority of the women having at least a child also lend credence to the appropriateness of the sample. This is because one of the tests for economic empowerment is ability to pay children's school/hospital fees. Thus, majority of the women having at least one child makes them suitable for the study.

Table 4.3: Number of Children of Respondents

Number	Frequency	Percentage
1	10	12.2
2	8	9.8
3	24	29.3
4	11	13.4
5	10	12.2
6	5	6.1
7	4	4.9
No children	10	12.2
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

4.2.4 Number of Dependants of Respondents

The number of dependants reflects in the expenditure patterns of the respondents and also in their ability to expand their businesses over time. From the field data, it was revealed that about 8.5 percent of the sampled market women had only a dependent while 7.3 percent had two dependents. Also, as can be observed from Table 4.4 below, about 22 percent had three dependents with 20.7 percent having four dependents while those with five dependents were about 9.8 percent. About 9.8 percent of the sampled respondents had six dependents; 7.3 percent of the sample had seven dependents; and 2.4 percent had eight or more dependents. 10 of the respondents representing 12.2 percent of the sample had no dependents. Table 4.4 shows that about 88 percent of the sample had at least a dependent. This implies that the majority of the women had financial obligations at home.

Table 4.4: Number of Dependants of Respondents

Ages	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
1	7	8.5
2	6	7.3
3	18	22
4	17	20.7
5	8	9.8
6	8	9.8
7	6	7.3
8 or more	2	2.4
None	10	12.2
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

4.3 Main Features

4.3.1 Main Reason For 'Susu' Contribution

The driving force behind the concept of 'susu' is the desire to build cash savings to meet future financial needs. However, the concept involves the granting of small loans based on the accumulated amount of savings one has been able to make. The study sought to ascertain the main reason why the market women had joined the 'susu' scheme. As shown in Table 5.2 86.6 percent of the women had joined the 'susu' scheme to build up cash savings to meet personal and business needs. They indicated that the petty nature of their trading activities required them to make savings in small amounts on daily basis in order to build up capital to meet personal and business needs. The table indicates that 13.4 registered with the 'susu' scheme to have access to flexible and affordable loans to support their businesses. It is, therefore, clear that saving for future personal and business needs appears to be the major motivation for the market women to join the 'susu' scheme

Table 4.5: Respondents' Main Reason for Joining the 'Susu'

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
To build up savings to meet personal and business needs	71	86.6
To have access to flexible and affordable loans for business	11	13.4
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009

4.3.2 Number of Years of Contribution

The micro finance industry in Ghana is a young and emerging one. Each scheme has its own policies on the number of years one would have to be a member before qualifying for a loan. Also, given that impact assessment can be undertaken after years of the implementation of a particular phenomenon, it was important to have a fair knowledge of the number of years the respondents had been part of the 'susu' schemes which would give an indication of the extent of the empowerment. It was realized that about 19.5 percent of the market women had contributed to the scheme for one year while about 26.8 percent had contributed for two years. Also, 17.1 percent had contributed for three years while about 14.6 percent of the total respondents had contributed for four years with the remaining 22 percent having contributed for five or more years.

Table 4.6: Length of Contribution

Year	Frequency	Percentage
One	16	19.5
Two	22	26.8
Three	14	17.1
Four	12	14.6
Five or more	18	22
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

4.3.3 Amount Contributed by a Respondent per Day

The main principle for micro financing is that the quantum of one's contributions to a very large extent determines the amount of money one gets as loans. Also, because the main beneficiaries of these 'susu' schemes are the informal sector workers who cannot take time off their busy schedules to go to the banks, and hence such schemes where the bank is virtually brought to the doorstep of the people was encouraged. Therefore, the daily contributions of sampled respondents were assessed. The results of this assessment are shown in Table 4.7 below. 22 percent of the sampled respondents contribute GH¢1 and GH¢2 a day respectively. It was also realized that 7.3 percent of the total sampled respondents for this study contribute GH¢3 and GH¢4 a day respectively while 41.5 percent contribute GH¢5 or more per day.

Table 4.7: Average Daily Contributions

Amount	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
One Ghana cedi	18	22
Two Ghana cedis	18	22
Three Ghana cedis	6	7.3
Four Ghana cedis	6	7.3
Five or more Ghana cedis	34	41.5
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

The result is a further indication of the micro nature of the various businesses. From the data the market women are not in a better position to access loans at the level that would help expand the business. They rather save to make ends meet and to balance their capital stock. It is also an indication of the financial strain that those market women some of whom are single parents face in terms of single-handedly providing for the needs of their dependents. Thus, at an average daily savings of GH¢1, one's monthly contribution is estimated at GH¢30 with an annual contribution of GH¢360. Therefore, assuming that it is the policy of the scheme to give two times the amount saved as loans (as is the case for most of the susu schemes in the metropolis), then that trader would get only GH¢720. This is insufficient for any meaning expansion.

4.3.4 Determination of Daily Contribution

The amount saved per day is determined mostly by the trader herself; about 99 percent of the respondents whilst just above a percentage said it was determined by a representative of the institution. The higher number who determined the amount on their own did so based on their cash flow analysis but surprisingly about 70 percent of the respondents said that the amounts they saved was principally based on the credit they needed as can be seen from Tables 4.8 below.

Another finding was that where savings were determined by a representative of the institution, it was only communicated to clients based on the loan amount they desire. Thus, as pointed out earlier, no analysis whatsoever is carried out by the Savings and Loans Institutions.

Table 4.8 Who Determines How Much To Save In A Day?

	Frequency	**Percent**
Myself	81	98.8
Saving institution	1	1.2
Total	**82**	**100.0**

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2009.

4.3.5 Ability to contribute daily

Out of the 82 market women interviewed, about 70 percent were able to contribute on a daily basis due to ability to work daily. About 30 percent of the respondents were unable to undertake a daily savings with the main reason being the fluctuations in the sales.

4.3.6 Opinion of Respondent on the ‘Susu’ Scheme

The study explored the opinion of the market women on the ‘susu’ scheme in terms of whether or not the scheme had benefited them. In response to the question, 93.9 percent responded in the affirmative and 6.1 percent responded in the negative. The 6.1 percent who responded that the ‘susu’ scheme had not benefited them were among those who joined the scheme to have access to flexible and affordable loans but had not been able to get the loans. It was gathered that the ‘susu’ institutions hardly grant loans to contributors and when they did the terms were harsh and burdensome. The responses indicate that from the perspective of the respondents joining the ‘susu’ has added some value to their lives.

4.3.7 How the ‘Susu’ Scheme Has Benefited the Respondents

As a follow-up question the respondents who indicated that the scheme had helped them, were asked to indicate how the scheme had benefited them. 52.4 percent indicated that the scheme had helped them to increase their cash positions; 12.2 percent indicated that the scheme had aided in the expansion of their businesses and 29.3 percent indicated that the scheme had assisted them to increase their cash positions and to expand their businesses. These results show that the majority of the respondents confirmed that the ‘susu’ had had some impact on their cash positions. This is an indication that the majority of the market women are able to save through the ‘susu’ scheme. Most women admitted that their habit of impulse buying has come to a halt since they have cultivated a new habit of at least giving some amount of their daily sales to the ‘susu’ collectors when they come around.

Meanwhile, the 29.3 percent of respondents who have been able to do both gave thanks to their ‘susu’ institutions for the assistance they obtained through loans that was given them at their qualification. Table 4.9 summarizes the results.

Table 4.9: Benefits Respondents have received from the 'Susu' Scheme

Amount	Frequency	Percentage
Increase in cash (capital accumulation)	43	52.4
Ability to expand my business	10	12.2
Increase in cash and ability to expand business	24	29.3
Missing system	5	6.1
Total	**82**	**100**

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2009.

According to the survey the effect of their affiliation with their respective institutions has been encouraging. Quite a number of the respondents reported that the impact of the operations of the Susu Schemes has been very good. The only reason given was the fact that they have been able to secure loans from these institutions which was very difficult or impossible to obtain from the formal banks.

It was realized that lack of credit seems to be the major constraint facing the entrepreneurs of small and medium scale enterprises in the informal sector in Ghana. Issues that bother on effective management practices, capital accumulation through their own effort, simple book keeping, and a host of others do not seem to be a problem to them.

4.3.8 Performance Rating of Susu Institution

Due to the numerous benefits and effects of the 'susu' scheme as mentioned by the respondents, it was ideal to have the respondents themselves rate the performance of the various 'susu' institutions. From the survey, about 67 percent of the respondents were of the view that the services and activities of their 'susu' institutions were excellent. By this they meant, the time spent at the offices of the 'susu' institutions was sometimes less than 15 minutes and as business people, time means money. Also, they contended that the staff took enough time to explain issues to them and because the staff came to the market places on a daily basis, there was a sense of belonging and they felt really held in high esteem.

About 23 percent of the respondents rated the performance of the ‘susu’ institutions which they joined as very good while about 7 percent rated the performance as good. The remaining 2.4 percent rated the performance as satisfactory, thus there was still room for improvement.

Table 4.10 Performance Rating of Susu Institutions

	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	55	67.1
very good	19	23.2
Good	6	7.3
Satisfactory	2	2.4
Total	82	100.0

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2009.

4.3.9 Benefits from ‘Susu’ Scheme to Business

One of the potential benefits of microfinance is its ability to promote employment and entrepreneurship (Hartarska, 2005). 72 percent of respondents have seen a positive impact of the scheme on their businesses. They explained without the ‘susu’ scheme the petty nature of their daily incomes would not have enabled them to expand their businesses. With the daily ‘susu’ contributions they are able to have access to substantial amounts of money at the end of every month which they channel into the expansion of their businesses. However, 28 percent of the women indicated that they had not seen any positive impact of ‘susu’ on their businesses. They attributed it to the unwillingness of the ‘susu’ institutions to grant them loans. These market women who sounded a bit disappointed apparently joined the ‘susu’ scheme with the aim of accessing loans to expand their businesses. Unfortunately, their ‘susu’ institutions have adopted a ‘no loan policy’ due to the high risk involved in lending to the poor and the needy in society. However, the essence of microfinance is the granting of uncollateralized loans (Schreiner and Colombet, 2001). Thus, the ‘susu’ institutions must review their ‘no loan policy’.

4.4.0 'Susu' and Economic Empowerment of Respondents

The study sought to measure empowerment along three abilities of the respondents. The measurement of empowerment was done on three levels which are; ability to contribute to housekeeping, ability to pay children's school fees and hospital bills and their ability to acquire personal assets. They were asked to indicate the domestic financial obligations they could perform 'before' and 'after' joining the 'susu' scheme. Here, the 'before' and 'after' analytical tool was employed.

The means of the computed scores for 'before' and 'after' the 'susu' scheme were tested using a paired-sample T-Test statistical method. The output from performing a paired samples t-test on the 'before' and 'after' 'susu' scheme abilities scores data gives a p-value of 0.000. Thus, the probability of getting a difference of 0.39 between the mean abilities scores is 0.000. Therefore, the study rejects the null hypothesis with these data, and concludes that there is sufficient evidence to suggest a difference between before- and after-susu abilities of the market women. The results of the paired-sample T-test are presented in Tables 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13.

Table 4.11: T-Test Results

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	BSUSU	2.15	82	.918	.101
	ASUSU	2.54	82	.773	.085

Table 4.12: Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	BSUSU & ASUSU	82	.619	.000

Table 4.13: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Pair 1	BSUSU - ASUSU	-.39	.750	.083	-4.7	81	.000

Where:

T value = -4.171

Degrees of freedom=81

Significance (2-tailed) = .000

The correlation of approximately 62% significant at 0.000 implies that the mean scores difference between the economic abilities of the market women 'before'- and 'after' the 'susu' scheme are significantly correlated. This finding is in tandem with the position of the literature. Cheston and Kuhn (2002) argue that evidence shows that through microfinance, women are empowered in terms of decision making and asset ownership. This eventually enables women to make decision regarding the education and health of their children, specifically, of female children (ibid). Premchander (2003) also makes the same argument recognizing the potential of microfinance programmes to improving status of women and helping them to rise above challenges such as attitudinal biases.

4.4.1 Determinants of Respondents' Empowerment

The researcher used the after-'susu' economic abilities score, years of contribution and the daily amount of contribution of respondents to test the hypothesis below:

H_0: The number of years of 'susu' contribution and the amount of daily contribution do not explain the economic empowerment score of a market woman.

H_1: The number of years of 'susu' contribution and the amount of daily contribution explain the economic empowerment score of a market woman

The purpose was to ascertain whether the number of years of contribution and the amount contributed daily determined the empowerment score of respondents. The multiple-regression equation was:

$$\textbf{Score}_t = \alpha + \beta_1 \textbf{yrs of cont}_t + \beta_2 \textbf{amt}_t$$

Where:

Score $_{t}$ = Economic empowerment score of the respondent

Yrs of cont$_t$ =The number of years of contribution of the respondent

Amt$_t$ = The amount of daily contribution of the respondent

α and β = Intercept and slope coefficients of the regression equation

The results of the regression analysis are presented in tables 4.14, 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, and 4.18 in appendix A to this report.

Table 4.14 presents the descriptive statistics of the model. The mean of the economic empowerment score is 2.54 with a standard deviation of 0.773. The mean of the years of contribution is 2.94 with a standard deviation of 1.460. The mean of the daily amount of contribution is 8.40 with a standard deviation of 19.609. A large standard deviation indicates that the data points are far from the mean and a small standard deviation indicates that they are clustered closely around the mean. This implies that the data points of economic empowerment score and the years of contribution of the respondents cluster around the mean. The large standard deviation of 19.609 of the amount of contribution means that the data points are far from the mean. This means that they are not strong to aid explanation of the variation in the dependent variable.

Table 4.15 shows the correlations of the regression equation. The number of years of contribution has about 6% correlation with the economic empowerment score whilst the amount of contribution per day has about 14% correlation with the economic empowerment score. The results indicate that there are positive correlations between the economic empowerment score of respondents and the years of contribution and the amount of contribution per day. However, the relationship is weak and statistically insignificant, meaning the observed relationship has occurred by chance factors alone. The relationship is statistically insignificant because the researcher chose 5% significance level. Thus, the one-tailed significance results of 29% and 11% of the number of years and the amount of contribution per day, respectively, are higher than 5%, meaning that the observed correlations are statistically insignificant. This is corroborated by the t-test results in Table 4.18. The t values of 0.462 and 1.182 significant at 0.645 and 0.241 respectively indicate that the two independent variables do not have any significant impact on the economic empowerment of the respondents. In other words, the apparent weak correlations have occurred by chance factors alone.

From Table 4.16, the coefficient of multiple determination, R^2 is about 15% which means that the variability in the economic empowerment score of the respondents could be explained by the number of years of contribution to the 'susu' scheme and the amount of contribution per day by 15%. However, this is not statistically significant because the F-statistic is 0.854 significant at 0.430 displayed in Table 4.17 indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the economic empowerment score of a market woman and the number of years of contribution to the 'susu' scheme and the amount of contribution per day. The study has, therefore, failed to find any statistically significant relationship between women empowerment and the amount of 'susu' contribution per day and the number of years of 'susu' contribution. It is, therefore, argued that a market woman who signs up to the 'susu' scheme is likely to be economically empowered irrespective of the amount contributed per day and the number of years of contribution.

4.4.2 Suggested Operational Changes of your 'susu' institution

The researcher sought whether or not the market women wanted some change in the operations of the ‘susu’ institutions they were associated with. The results as shown in Table 4.19 indicate that 69.5 percent of the respondents wanted no change; 24.4 percent of the respondents dislike ‘no loan policy’ of the ‘susu’ scheme; 2.4 percent of the respondents wanted no interest on savings changed; 1.2 percent wanted savings-based loans changed; 1.2 percent dislike small loan policy; and 1.2 percent dislike the high interest charged on loans. It is evident from the results that not all the market women are satisfied with the operating policies of the ‘susu’ scheme, although majority of them seem to be satisfied with the status quo of the ‘susu’ scheme.

Table 4.19 Suggested Operational Changes of your 'susu' institution

Response	Frequency	Percent
No loan policy	20	24.4
Small loan policy	1	1.2
High interest	1	1.2
No change	57	69.5
Savings-based loans	1	1.2
No interest on savings	2	2.4
Total	82	100.0

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2009.

4.4.3 Introduction of New Services

As a follow up question, the respondents were asked if they wanted their institutions to introduce any new services that would be of help to them. Although, the majority of them disliked some of their operations as indicated above, they could not come up with suggestions of new services that can be introduced. Of the 82 market women interviewed, 55 indicated that they did not want any new services. 27 of the respondents, however, responded in the affirmative.

4.4.4 Type of additional service to be integrated into 'susu' scheme

Since the majority of the respondents were not sure of any new services to be introduced in the ‘susu’ scheme, 72 percent opted for no additional service to be integrated into it. About 27 percent indicated that they would love it if special hire purchase was made on their behalf by the ‘susu’ institutions and deductions made on their contributions. They listed items with very high prices such as refrigerators, air conditions and other appliances which will be of help to them in their businesses. Only 1.2 percent opted for special loans. This is illustrated on Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20 Type of additional service to be integrated into 'susu'

Response	Frequency	Percent
Special hire purchase	22	26.8
No service	59	72.0
Special loans	1	1.2
Total	82	100.0

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2009.

The chapter has focused on the presentation and analysis of data collected from the field. The analysis has revealed that the ‘susu’ scheme has made some impact on the economic empowerment of the women sampled. Evidence could, however, not be found to support the hypothesis that the number of years of ‘susu’ contribution and the amount of contribution per day do not explain the economic empowerment of a market woman. In chapter five of the report the findings are discussed and recommendations made.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter Four, data analysis was done. In this chapter the findings in the analysis are discussed and appropriate recommendations made. The presentation begins with the discussion of the main findings and ends with recommendations.

Women's empowerment is an issue that has been of major concern to policymakers both locally and internationally. As noted in Chapter Two of this report, women empowerment is one of the Millennium Development goals. Due to the increasing interest in the concept of women empowerment many studies have been undertaken to identify tools of empowerment. One of the tools for empowering women that has received much attention is microfinance. The current study sought to contribute to the existing knowledge on women empowerment by looking at its relationship with the 'susu' scheme. The results of the analysis reveal that the scheme has made a significant impact on the economic empowerment of the market women. This finding confirms the assertion of Mayoux (2000) that there are basic links and rationales between microfinance and women's empowerment.

The implication of this finding is that encouraging more women to join the 'susu' scheme could be a major step towards engineering their economic emancipation in an environment where many of them usually struggle to gain access to the formal financial systems in the economy. Economic empowerment of most women strikes a chord with quality family life as women are usually home managers. The literature argues that women have been shown to spend more of their income on their households. Therefore, by helping women to increase their incomes through the 'susu' scheme, you are improving the welfare of their families. In particular, Whitehead (1985) cited in Kessey (2005) emphasizes the generosity of women in terms of family welfare in her 'ideologies of maternal altruism'. She argues that 'maternal altruism' often leads women to deny themselves the resources to satisfy their own needs and preference in favour of other members of the family.

The ‘susu’ scheme deserves much attention of policymakers in Ghana because it is a significant tool for fighting illiteracy and social vices. Economically, the Government of Ghana can strengthen the ‘susu’ scheme by integrating it into the formal banking system as a way of mopping up excessive liquidity in the economy. If more people are encouraged to join the scheme, the culture of saving will be accentuated which will go a long way not only to control inflation but also to alleviate poverty in the economy. In respect of the latter, building up cash savings could lead to self-employment and entrepreneurship which will boot the growth of the economy (Hartarska, 2005).

The finding that the economic empowerment resulting from the ‘susu’ scheme has no significant relationship with the number of years of contribution and the amount contributed daily indicates that the government of Ghana can encourage everybody to join the ‘susu’ scheme irrespective of the current economic standing of the person. The finding suggests that however little the amount contributed by a ‘susu’ contributor some degree of economic empowerment could be observed. Thus, the issue is not the quantum of savings but the habit of saving. The ‘susu’ scheme helps its contributors to cultivate the habit of saving to meet future financial obligations. This unique feature of the scheme makes it ideal for fighting poverty in a developing economy like Ghana.

The study has shown that most of the market women are satisfied with the current modus operandi of the ‘susu’ scheme. However, some of them have raised some issues which deserve attention. One of the concerns expressed by some of the women is ‘no loan policy’ of some of the ‘susu’ collection units. According to the women, this ‘no loan policy’ denies them the opportunity to pursue viable business projects. Ostensibly, this practice is at variance with the true concept of microfinance. The essence of microfinance is uncollateralized loans to borrowers without a constant source of income from a wage job (Schreiner, 2001). A main goal of many MFIs, especially Rural Micro-finance Institutions (RMFIs) is to provide sustainable micro-finance facilities to the poor to facilitate income generation and reduce poverty (Baumann, 2001 cited in Mwenda and Muuka, 2004). It is, therefore, suggested that the ‘susu’ collection units should reconsider their policy of no loan policy. This is because attaching loans to the ‘susu’ scheme will further boost the empowering force of the scheme for women. Another issue that has been raised by the market women is savings-based loans practiced by some ‘susu’ collection units. They lament that the practice of determining the amount of loans on the amount of savings already made is unacceptable to them. This is because it results in loans that are inadequate to meet viable projects. Thus, to empower these market women to engage in self-employment and entrepreneurship there is the need to scrap this policy to pave way for many of them to access funds. High interest charged by some of the ‘susu’ collection units has also been a matter of concern to some of the women. The earlier something is done about this the better. Small loans policy and no interest on savings policy have also been criticized by the market women. All these concerns bring to the fore the need for policy-makers to take a second look at the modus operandi of the ‘susu’ scheme to make it more responsive to the emerging needs and challenges of the market women.

5.2 Recommendations

The above discussions prompt some recommendations aimed at enhancing the ‘susu’ scheme. At the heart of the microfinance concept is making flexible and affordable credit available to the poor and financially excluded. However, as the findings on the modus operandi of the microfinance institutions have indicated some of the ‘susu’ collection units either charge high interest on their loans or decline to grant loans, thus, making it difficult for the women to access funds for their entrepreneurial exploits. It is speculated that the reluctance of some of the ‘susu’ collection units to grant loans may be due to the high risk involved in lending to the women. The researcher therefore, recommends the scrapping of this policy and recommends group lending instead of individual lending. Group lending in which market women put themselves together to access credit is likely to reduce the risk of default since group members will put pressure on defaulting members.

The reluctance of some of the ‘susu’ collection units to grant loans and even pay interest on savings may be due to undercapitalization. The study, thus, re-echoes the recommendation made by Kessey (2005) that the government of Ghana should embark on a comprehensive programme of re-capitalising the rural banks, credit unions, and other microfinance financial institutions that practice microfinance. The re-capitalisation would make credit readily available to local women in order to enhance their productive role. The readily availability of capital would even soften current draconian rules governing the micro credit facility, that are denying many females access to credit for their productive endeavors.

The study has reinforced position of the existing literature that through microfinance women could be empowered economically. The researcher, therefore, recommends that policy makers should design microfinance sensitization programme aimed at encouraging women, especially the financially-excluded ones, to join the ‘susu’ scheme. This will go a long way to empower more women and in turn significantly enhance family life in Ghana. This should be augmented with the streamlining of the operations of the microfinance institutions by clearly defining operational guidelines to ensure effective service delivery. Bringing the operations of the microfinance institutions under the direct watch of the Bank of Ghana so that acceptable banking standards to be enforced will not be out of place. Alternatively, a new body with proper mandate could be formed with the Act of Parliament to oversee the operations of the microfinance institutions in Ghana.

With the poor savings mobilization in Ghana it is expected that ‘susu’ institutions and other depository financial institutions will educate people to appreciate the need to save rather than using credit as “bait” for people to save. This will contribute to economic development of Ghana.

The researcher only focused on the impact of the ‘susu’ scheme on economic empowerment of the market women in the Kumasi metropolis. Since Kumasi metropolis is only one city in the ten regions in Ghana, the findings of the study may not be representative of how the scheme is empowering market women in Ghana. The study, therefore, recommends that future studies should focus on getting samples from other regions so that a comprehensive assessment of the scheme could be made.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter Five, discussion of the main findings of the study was done and recommendations also were made. This chapter presents a summary of the entire report.

The study sought to find the effect (if any) of the 'susu' scheme on the economic empowerment of market women in the Kumasi metropolis.

The main objectives were:

- To determine whether or not the 'susu' scheme is empowering market women in Kumasi metropolis
- To determine whether or not the number of years of 'susu' contribution and the daily amount of contribution have any relationship with the economic empowerment of market women
- To ascertain the opinion of the market women on whether or not the 'susu' scheme is benefiting them
- To make recommendation(s) to policy makers on how the 'susu' system can be improved to mobilize funds from market women for economic development of Ghana.

Survey design was adopted for the study. Both secondary and primary data were used. Questionnaire was used as the research instrument and administered through personal interview. Eighty-two (82) market women who were 'susu' contributors were sampled at random. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were done using the SPSS statistical software. Qualitative analysis involved the use of tables and charts to describe variables. Quantitative analysis involved the use of paired-sample T-Test and coefficient of determination to explore relationships between variables.

6.2 Main Findings

The main findings of the study are as follows:

- The paired-sample T-Test shows that the ‘susu’ scheme has had a significant impact on the economic empowerment of the market women sampled. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis has been accepted
- The multiple-regression results indicate that the number of years of being a ‘susu’ contributor and the amount contributed per day do not explain the variability in the economic empowerment score of a market woman. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.
- That the majority of the market women in the study have seen the benefit of the ‘susu’ scheme and that the scheme has helped them to build cash savings
- That majority of market women joined the ‘susu’ scheme to build up cash savings to meet personal and business needs.
- That majority of the market women pay five or more Ghana cedis per day.
- That majority of the market women want no change in the ‘susu’ scheme

The conclusion of the study is that the ‘susu’ scheme has made a significant impact on the economic empowerment of market women in the Kumasi metropolis. In addition, the study concludes that it is not advisable to predict the empowerment level of a ‘susu’-contributing market woman in the Kumasi metropolis by the number of years she has been contributing to the scheme and the amount of daily contribution.

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APPENDIX A

Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SUSUABIL	2.54	.773	82
YOFCONT	2.94	1.460	82
AMT	8.40	19.609	82

Source: Author's construct (2009)

Table 4.15: Correlations

		SUSUABIL	YOFCONT	AMT
Pearson Correlation	SUSUABIL	1.000	.062	.136
	YOFCONT	.062	1.000	.080
	AMT	.136	.080	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	SUSUABIL	.	.290	.111
	YOFCONT	.290	.	.238
	AMT	.111	.238	.
N	SUSUABIL	82	82	82
	YOFCONT	82	82	82
	AMT	82	82	82

Source: Author's construct (2009)

Table 4.16: Model Summary

		Model
		1
R		.145
R Square		.021
Adjusted R Square		-.004
Std. Error of the Estimate		.774
Change Statistics	R Square Change	.021
	F Change	.854
	df1	2
	df2	79
	Sig. F Change	.430
Durbin-Watson		1.993

Predictors: (Constant), AMT, YOFCONT

Dependent Variable: SUSUABIL

Source: Author's construct (2009)

Table 4:17ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.024	2	.512	.854	.430
	Residual	47.366	79	.600		
	Total	48.390	81			

Predictors: (Constant), AMT, YOFCONT

Dependent Variable: SUSUABIL

Source: Author's construct (2009)

Table 4.18: Coefficients

		Model		
		1		
		(Constant)	YOFCONT	AMT
Unstandardized Coefficients	B	2.413	2.734E-02	5.201E-03
	Std. Error	.195	.059	.004
Standardized Coefficients	Beta		.052	.132
t		12.403	.462	1.182
Sig.		.000	.645	.241
95% Confidence Interval for B	Lower Bound	2.025	-.090	-.004
	Upper Bound	2.800	.145	.014
Correlations	Zero-order		.062	.136
	Partial		.052	.132
	Part		.051	.132
Collinearity Statistics	Tolerance		.994	.994
	VIF		1.006	1.006

Dependent Variable: SUSUABIL

Source: Author's construct (2009)