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**EMPOWERING RETURNEE MIGRANTS: THE CASE OF “KAYAYEI” IN THE
KUBORI COMMUNITY OF THE MAMPRUGU MOADURI DISTRICT OF
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YAKUBU ISIAH FUSEINI WUMBEE



2018

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GHANA**

BY

YAKUBU ISAIAH FUSEINI WUMBEE

(BSC. MATHEMATICAL SCIENCE, STATISTICS OPTION)

**A PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF
DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION, FACULTY OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY
FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN
DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION**

MARCH 2018

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



DECLARATION

STUDENT’S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the award of a Master of Arts degree in Development Education, 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.

Student’s Signature..... Date.....

Name: Yakubu Isaiah Fuseini Wumbee (UDS/MDE/0021/14)

SUPERVISOR’S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the Project Work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor’s Signature..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Adam Sulemana Achanso



ABSTRACT

This project employed an action research design focused on the pre-intervention, intervention and post intervention processes to empower 20 returnee migrants (Kayayei) in the Kubori community. Specifically, the project sought to identify the reasons for out migration and the challenges that the migrants faced, reorient the returnee migrants to identify potentials in the communities and to build their capacities in the communities on skill development, as well as measure the effect of the returnee-migrants orientation programme on the livelihoods of the returnees. It was found that the main drivers of north-south migration by the girls of the Kubori community were lack of alternative job opportunities, ascribed witchcraft, household level conflict, and force marriages. Migrants mostly faced the problem of poor accommodation, rape and health hazard due to exposure to the weather and work environment. The study also concludes that an orientation programme made of effective counseling as well as technical training on business management skills and good agronomic practices to returnee migrants affected positively their welfare in terms of raising self-esteem, increasing incomes and expenditure, improving their savings for investment as well as improving their health status. The study recommends among others that the government and other social service providers device alternative sources of livelihood for the people in the Kubori community. The returnee migrants could be supported with equipment and inputs to practice dry season gardening at the banks of the White Volta which is closer to the community. More action research should be conducted with other returnee migrants in order to identify and solve their challenges to effectively eradicate the practice of north-south migration among the youth of the Kubori community.



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DEDICATION

I dedicate the work to my lovely wife, Mrs. Mabel Wumbee and to my children Grace and Nathalia



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LIST OF ACRONYMS

GES	– Ghana Education Service
GoG	– Government of Ghana
GSS	– Ghana Statistical Service
IWAD	_Integrated Water and Agricultural Development
MMD	– Mamprugu Moagduri District
SSSS	- Statistical Software for Social Science
VSLA	- Village Savings and Loans Associations
WASCE	- West African School Certificate Examinations



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The migration or movement of Northerners to Southern Ghana has been a recurrent phenomenon for a long time. As Adaawen and Owusu (2013) indicated, migration from Northern to the Southern part of Ghana existed since the colonial days and has since gained strength each year. Similarly, Ziblim (2013) has suggested that in the colonial days, migration was mainly reserved for males either with their dependents or alone who were being sent to work on cocoa farms and mining fields in the coastal zones in the Southern parts of the country. In recent years, however, the phenomenon has drifted from its focus on the adult population to the youth. This is especially so with girls who undertake the journey independently of their families to carry goods for some meager fee often determined by the owners of the goods (Kwankye, Anarfi, Tagoe and Castaldo, 2009). Many girls in the rural areas of Northern Ghana, therefore, consider the trip to the South as a pride and often desperate to undertake the journey before marriage. The situation by no means has become a teething problem as it poses so many challenges for national development.

The Ghana Statistical Service defines a migrant as a person who has moved and stayed at their destination for at least one year (Awumbila, Owusu and Teye, 2014). But for the purposes of this project, the emphasis of a migrant does not depend on the period of stay of the migrant but the movement of any person from their original place of residence to their current place of residence with the aim to make personal or family gains. They embark on such a journey with the anticipation of getting employment so as to earn



money to be able to support their families, as well as begin life (Adaawen and Owusu, 2013). As suggested by Adaawen and Owusu (2013), remittances of such migrants play a vital role in the economic development and the total improvement of the household welfare in Ghana (Adaawen and Owusu, 2013).

Political, cultural, structural, socio-economic and environmental issues are some of the factors identified as triggers to migration. Due to the imbalances in development between the Northern and the Southern sectors of the country, many young girls are encouraged to move from their various communities to the urban centers for survival (Kwankye, Anarfi, Tagoe and Castaldo, 2007).

Migration has been blamed for causing socio-economic and spatial disparities, resulting to an untold hardship in Northern rural communities. The youth who have the ability to move do so to be able to support the entire family out of what they are able to make out of their adventures (Owusu-Ansah and Addai, 2013). It has also been blamed for exacerbating the plight of the poor girls involved. Studies have revealed that a great number of girls are being exposed to many risks and dangers, such as passing the night under sheds or makeshift accommodation in cities (Kwankye, Anarfi, Tagoe and Castaldo, 2007). Another problem associated with this migration is the role it plays in the congestion and the developments of slums in cities. Despite the fact that governments and Non-Governmental Organizations have made strenuous efforts to curb these problems, migration still persist.



On June 3rd, 2015, Accra was hit by heavy downpour leading to loss of 150 lives and valuable properties to floods which is perceived to have been attributed largely to the activities of the migrants from Northern Ghana who illegally settled and put up makeshift buildings in water ways (Tabiri, 2015). According to Tabiri (2015), flooding in Accra started way back in o 1959 up till now and no lasting solution is being found to the situation. As part of measures to curb the menace, the government and the city authorities were compelled to repatriate all migrants to wherever they migrated from. Most of them being these youth (Kayaye) from the north of Ghana.

1.2 Problem Statement

The compulsory return of the migrants to their various communities by the government after the June 3, 2015 disaster in Accra rendered a lot of them in a serious dilemma. Many of them left to the cities to seek greener pastures with the anticipation of making their lives better. Considering the high rate of unemployment, high poverty levels, force marriages, broken homes in the rural areas, most young men and women sought employment in the cities. These challenges are caused by lack of educational facilities and inadequate social amenities, which exist mainly in the cities (Accra and Kumasi). As such the only way of rising above these conundrums is to migrate to these cities (Berg, 2007; Imoro and Nti, 2009)).

Having returned without any preparations or assistance how would these young men and women cope with life in the village? Resettlement would not only be a problem, but their survival and reintegration to community life would be a serious challenge. This project,



therefore, sought to empower these young men and women to enable them re-adjust themselves to community life so as to enable them to live comfortably in the community.

1.3 Objectives of the study

1.3.1 Main objective of the study

The main objective of this project was to empower twenty (20) returnee migrants (Kayayei) in the Kubori community to make them stay back in the community and utilize the resources that are available locally to better their lives instead of endangering their lives by exposing themselves to unknown hazards somewhere outside their familiar grounds.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

Specifically, the project sought to:

1. Identify the reasons and causes of out migration in the Kubori community
2. Outline the challenges that the migrants face in the cities and on return to the Kubori community.
3. Conduct a sensitization, reorientation and skills training for the 20 returnee migrants to identify the potentials of the community.
4. Assess the effects of the sensitization, orientation and skills training programme on the livelihoods of the returnee-migrants.



1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the reasons and causes of out migration in the Kubori community?
2. What are the challenges that the migrants face in the cities and upon return to the Kubori community?
3. How can returnee migrants be sensitized, reoriented to identify potentials and to build the capacities in the Kubori community?
4. What is the effect of the returnee-migrants sensitization, orientation and skills training programme on the livelihoods of the returnees?

1.5 Significance of the Study

It is the hope of this project that its outcome would be very useful for building the capacities of returnee migrants in the Kubori and surrounding communities. It is hoped that migrants would be reintegrated and settle back in their communities successfully.

Development of the nation depends on how well the human resource is developed. Empowering the youth in the district would go a long way to developing the district in particular and the nation at large. This will also serve as a yardstick for policy makers both at the national and community levels to know the consequences of returning migrants without any sensitization, orientation and capacity building programmes. Also the migrants who perceive wrongly that there is only one way of surviving and that is, in the urban centres will change their minds. Generally both policy makers and the youth misconstrued the issues of self-reliance as far as development is concern. As such the



project sensitization, reorientation and skills training will serve as a wakeup call to all stakeholders in the community as well as policy implementers at the district level.

The youth wrong perception that the only way to survive or make a living is through their movement to the southern part of the country or urban centres would be erased through advocacy and capacity building at the local level.

1.6 Organisational Structure of Project

This write up is organized into five (5) chapters where chapter one is composed of background to the study, the problem statement, purpose of study, research questions, objectives of the project, the project significance and the organization of the work. Chapter two is a review of relevant literature on the subject matter. Chapter three comprises of the methods employed in carrying out this project. Chapter four comprise of results and discussions of major findings supporting with relevant literature. Chapter five looked at the summary of major findings, conclusion and recommendation of the project.

1.7 Conclusion

The above chapter is the introductory chapter that gave the background of the study, the problem statement, research questions, objectives of the project, significance of the project as well as the organisational structure of the project. The next chapter will be focus on the review of relevant literature and definition of relevant terms specific to this project under the following headings: Introduction, definition of terms, conceptual framework, theoretical review of migration, neoclassical economic theory, dual labour market theory among others.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents both theoretical and empirical review of relevant literature on the study variables. The theoretical aspect covers the existing theories on the concept of migration. It also addresses the definition of key concepts that found very relevant in the study topic. Such concepts are identified, defined and operationalised in its application in the study context. The second part of this chapter also identifies relevant empirical literature on the substantive objectives of the study and reviews them as they appropriately apply to the study. The purpose of the later part of this chapter is to identify what exist in terms of previous researches conducted on the study area and also to assist in establishing the research gaps in the area. Presented below is the theoretical and/or conceptual review of the study. In the light of the preceding discussion, the following definitions are proposed:

2.2 Definition of terms

In-migrant: an “adult” (aged at least 15 years) born outside current place of residence, and who was, at least, six years old at the time of moving to current place of residence(Boakye-Yiadom and Mckay, 2007);

Return-migrant: an “adult” born at current place of residence (or who moved to current place of residence before sixth birthday) and who has lived elsewhere for



more than one year and returned to current place (Boakye-Yiadom and Mckay 2007);

Migrant: an in-migrant or a return-migrant (Boakye-Yiadom and Mckay 2007)

Non-migrant: an “adult” who has lived at current place of residence since birth (or before sixth birthday), and has never moved and lived elsewhere for more than one year (Boakye-Yiadom and Mckay 2007).

2.3 Conceptual Framework

According to the definition of the Central Statistical Bureau (CSB) internal long-term migration implies movements of the population from one local administrative territory to another with an aim to change the place of residence permanently or for a period of at least one year. However, if a person changes the place of residence within the boundaries of a town, a local, rural, municipality according to the recommendations of international organisations, the migratory movements of such a person are not counted (CSB, 2011). Rural-urban migration results from the search for perceived or real opportunities as a consequence of rural-urban inequality in wealth (Sorenson, 2004; Madu, 2006).

This inequality and/or urban bias in development according to research findings over the years results from the overwhelming concentration of wealth, assets, purchasing capacity, economic activities, and variety of services in the urban centres as well as the continued neglect and degradation of rural environments or areas (Harris and Todaro 1970; Ajaero and Mozie, 2011).



Merton (1968) cited by Opare1 (2003) argued that social systems have structures of opportunity that enable individuals and groups to pursue and achieve their individual and collective goals and aspirations. These suggests that, wherever and whenever opportunity structures are absent or are limited in a social system, it becomes extremely difficult, if not impossible, for individuals and groups to achieve their goals and aspirations. Whenever opportunity structures are viable and fully functioning, individuals and groups feel a sense of security in the environment.

The frustrations resulting from their inability to achieve their aspirations in a given social system can cause strains and stresses among some social actors. In this event, ambition and frustration can impel the adventurous to seek ways of achieving their goals and aspirations. One way is to move out of the environment to seek their fortunes. The phenomenal rise in the rate at which teenage girls and young women these days move down south from the northern Savannah zone of Ghana and adjoining areas of Burkina Faso and Togo could be explained within the context of Merton's opportunity structure postulate (Merton, 1968).



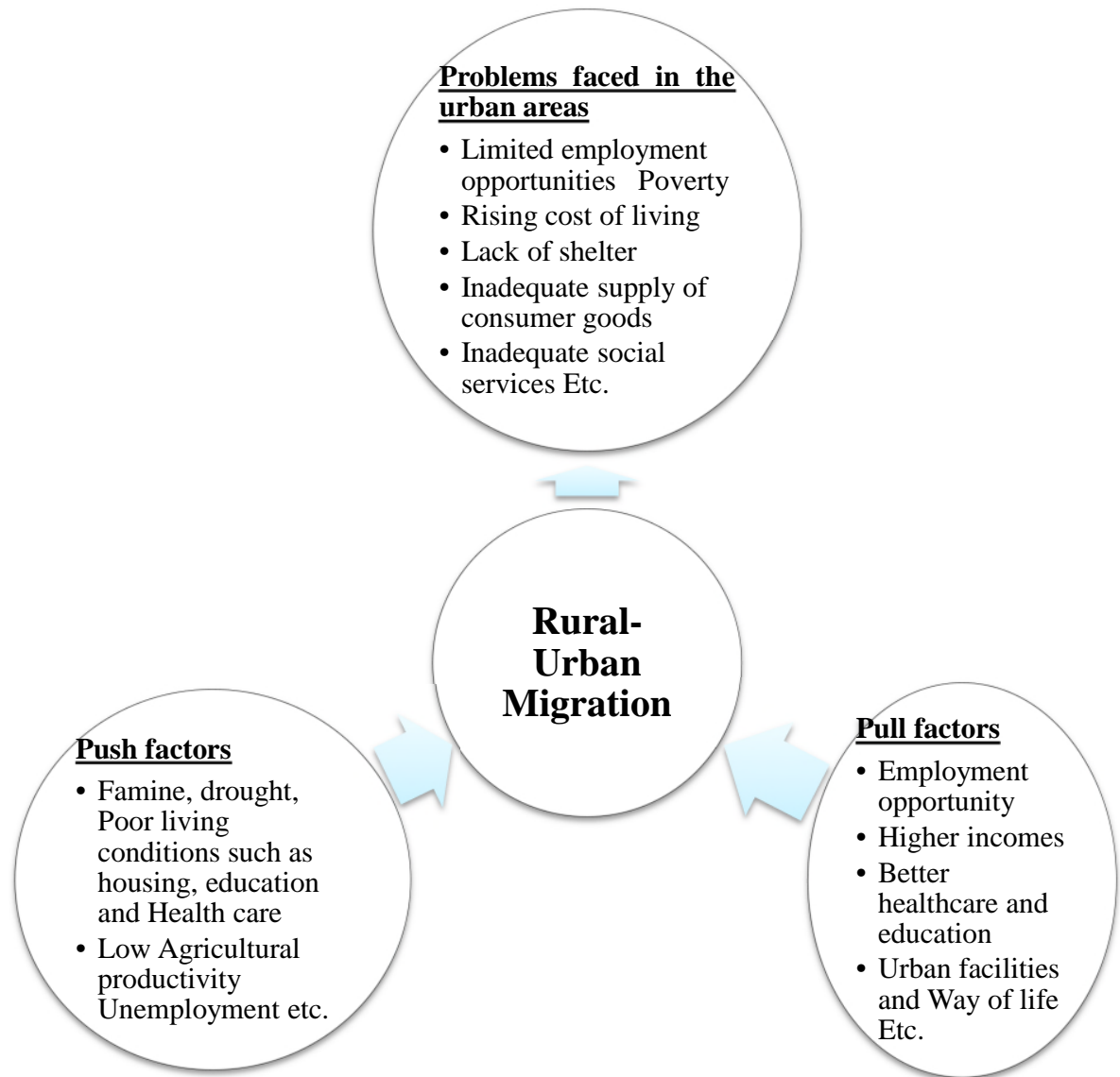


Figure 1: The conceptual framework for the analysis of rural-urban migration

Source: (Qin, 2009)



2.4 Theoretical Review of Migration

The concept of migration has over past decades expanded with emerging issues of characterisation and typology. Classification of migration has increasingly become a bigger task in contemporary times due to the unlimited categories of migrants in both domestic and international environments. These imply that the concept of migration cannot be explained by a single theoretical framework in the mixed of diverse typologies of migration across the world today (Arango, 2004). What is implied herewith is that there are several attempts made over the years to model and develop observed pattern of activities around migration aimed at establishing a better theoretical frameworks upon which the concept of migration could be explained.

An earlier and popularly cited and referenced migration theory is neoclassical economics and push-pull theory. This theory of migration was led by Rovenstein between 1885 and 1889. The theory was among the very earliest attempts at theorizing migration. It provided what is described as laws of migrations, thus, factors that underscore the migrants' situation and warranting the movement in whichever direction. The theory was generated using the British context through which empirical data and information that was observed over time period and thereby informing the generalization of those laws (O'Reilly, 2015).

The conception of this model and/or theory is migration as driven by a set of push factors operating from the region or country of origin (poverty, unemployment, landlessness, rapid population growth, political repression, low social status, poor marriage prospects etc.), and pull factors operating from the place or country of destination (better income



and job prospects, better education and welfare systems, land to settle and farm, good environmental and living conditions, and political freedom) (Arango, 2004). Another later group models that took queue from the neoclassical economics and push-pull theory is historical-structural models. There are three main model theories under the historical-structural models. These models are; dual and segmented labour markets, dependency theory, and world systems theory. These models are each inspired by the Marxist interpretation of capitalism, underdevelopment and structuring of the world's economy (King, 2013).

Each of these models see the causes of international migration as lying within the realm of historically formed macro-structural forces, and stress the inherently exploitative nature of the economic power that shapes global capitalism (Morawska, 2012). The arguments of this model theories are that international labour migration is primarily driven by pull, not push factors. The demand for certain types of cheap and flexible labour that is the dominant force. Specific discussions of the commonly cited theories of migration during the 21st century are presented as below.

2.4.1 Neoclassical economic theory

The Neoclassical theory of migration is premised on the thinking that variation and differences in wages accounts for labour migration. The arguments in the theory that labour tend to migrate from low wage geographic locations to highly paid wage geographic locations in the world. Thus, labour is highly sensitive to wage value and that the wage constitutes the pull factor that attracts labour from low wage location to high wage locations. In essence areas with shortage of labour but excess of capital have high



relative wage while areas with a high labour supply and a dearth of capital have a low relative wage. Naturally, labour tends to move from low wage locations to high wage locations either domestic or international (O'Reilly, 2015). Contextually, this theory is best suitable for describing transnational migration because international immigration laws and similar governmental regulations do not confine such type of migration (Jennissen, 2007).

2.4.2 Dual labour market theory

In the dual labour market theory of migration, it is indicated that migration is as a result of pull factors that are available at the developed countries. In this type of migration, labour movement is from the less developed countries to more developed countries. The assumption underlying this theory is that the labour market in the developed countries are segregated into tertiary that requires highly skilled types of labour and the secondary labour markets demands for unskilled labour who plays a critical role in whatever engagements the tertiary labour seeks to achieve. According to this theory, unskilled labour is deficient in developed countries pushing the wages for such low jobs high as incentives that attract labour in less developed countries to migrate to fill such vacuum in the developed countries. In this context, the native laborers are usually not interested in the unskilled and labour intensive jobs and that creates the issue of deficiency in the secondary labour demand (Reich *et al.*, 1973).



2.4.3 The new economics of labour migration

The tenets of this theory of migration revolve around socio-economic situation of households. That is, when the household realizes the need for additional income to cater for their livelihoods, individuals look out for available opportunities and that includes moving to areas where there are income generating opportunities. This situation depicts a coping strategy of risk aversion by household members. According to this theory, migration flows and patterns cannot be explained solely at the level of individual workers and their economic incentives, but that wider social entities must be considered as well. When family members seeks employment abroad there is that remittances back to their families in order to avert livelihood risks. Migration as provided by this theory ultimately has effects on both the point of destination and movement of the migrants in view of issues of remittances (Jennissen, 2007; Kaplan, Greg, and Sam Schulhofer-Wohl, 2015; and Karahan, Fatih, and Serena Rhee, 2014).

2.4.4 Relative deprivation theory

Relative deprivation theory states that awareness of the income difference between neighbors or other households in the migrant-sending community is an important factor in migration. The incentive to migrate is a lot higher in areas that have a high level of economic inequality. In the short run, remittances may increase inequality, but in the long run, they may actually decrease it. There are two stages of migration for a worker: first, they invest in human capital formation, and then they try to capitalize on their investments. In this way, successful migrants may use their new capital to provide for better schooling for their children and better homes for their families. Successful high-



skilled emigrants may serve as an example for neighbors and potential migrants who hope to achieve that level of success (Jennissen, 2007).

2.4.5 World systems theory

The main focus of the world system theory of migration seeks to explain interaction between different societies and how that interaction could influence social change. It does this assessment by looking migration from a global perspective. According to this theory, trade between countries sometimes creates economic decline in another and could serve as source of incentive that attract labour to migrate to countries that has stronger and more vibrant economies to seek livelihood opportunities (Hagen-Zanker, 2008).

A typical trend is the view of migration linked to after decolonization. Some colonies are still dependent on the mother countries for many things because of the gaps that are perceived with colonies especially in Africa. The bottom line is this theory is also that international trade reinforces migration from less developed countries to more developed countries. It is also possible for international trade to neutralize this type of migration (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). It can be argued that the developed countries import labor-intensive goods, which causes an increase in employment of unskilled workers in the less developed countries, decreasing the outflow of migrant workers. The export of capital-intensive goods from rich countries to poor countries also equalizes income and employment conditions, thus also slowing migration. In either direction, this theory can be used to explain migration between countries that are geographically far apart (Jennissen, 2007).



As earlier indicated, several attempts at modeling migration have occurred and that there exist continuous emergence of dimensions to the trend of migration in the contemporary world. This makes a unified theory that is all encompassing highly impossible (King, 2012). However, based on the focus of a study in the context of research, a particular model and/or theory is mostly adopted as the theoretical bases upon which the variables of the study is measured.

In view of the pattern of this study thus, investigating the characteristics and factors of North-South migration, the neoclassical economics and push-pull theory is adopted for the study due to the relevance of the theory in terms of how it views migration as a development concept.

2.5 Concept of Migration

Human migration is the movement by people from one place to another with the intentions of settling temporarily or permanently in the new location. The movement is often over long distances and from one country to another, but internal migration also possible; indeed, this is the dominant form of migration globally. Migration may be individuals, family units or in groups.

According to Asare (2012) migration is the movement of persons from one country or locality to another. The purpose of this movement is to take up permanent, semi-permanent and temporary residence. This type of movement usually involves crossing a political boundary. It is also indicated that migration occurs at different levels. It could be intercontinental, continental, interregional, and regional. The most significant migration





pattern has been rural to urban migration, i.e. the movement of people from the countryside to cities in search of mainly job opportunities (Asare, 2012). Labour migration is further described as the process of shifting a labour force from one physical location to another. Migrations of this type have sometimes occurred due to shifts in technology, the emergence of new industries, or the relocation of the main operational facilities of a given business. Labour migration may commence due to the interest of job seekers, or because a business has instigated a move that necessitates that labour also move in order to keep a job (Asare, 2012).

Available literature has recognized that migration is an important strategy that is practiced by human societies across the world. However, due to associated varied processes involved in its practice, a universally accepted definition is lacking in addressing the concept of migration. This means that there is no universally accepted definition for the processes of migration in view of the heterogeneity of the migration processes and variation of experiences involved. Hence, definition of migrant is usually contextual since migrant in a context may be different in another (Awumbila et al., 2014; Songsore, 2003). According to Ghana Statistical Service, “a migrant as a person who has moved and stayed at his/her current place of residence for at least a year” (GSS, 2008). This definition discounts seasonal migrants who usually move and stay at the point of destination for less than a year.

Another definition of migration was offered by Bilsborrow *et al* (1984) who defined it as the movement of a person/group of people who move away from original place (village/town/city) in the past 10years and with the intended absence of at least three (3)

months. In the context of the current study, migrants are addressed as persons or individuals who have moved from the northern to the southern parts of Ghana with intention of staying to achieve an objective with a respectively long time span of stay.

2.6 Theoretical Overview of Labour Migration in Ghana

Trend of migration in Ghana has increasingly become more regional in focus. Formerly, most Ghanaian migrants had their destination in Nigeria during the 1980s. Post this period have exposed varied migration destinations of Ghanaians across the world. Estimates from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs show the breakdown of per cent of emigrants and their destinations in various countries in the world. However, majority of Ghanaian emigrants still have their destinations in West African countries. Departure records in Ghana show that “majority of resident Ghanaians leave for commercial activities, followed by spouses and child dependents” (Quartey, 2006).

Aside West African countries, the other common point of destinations for Ghanaian emigrants are the United States (7.3%) and the United Kingdom (5.9%) (DRC, 2007). Although emigration has been increasing at a faster rate than immigration since 1990, Ghana continues to be an important country of destination. According to recent census-based estimates, the migrant population, i.e. foreign-born population, still constitutes 7.6 per cent of Ghana’s total population in 2005. Net migration rate (per thousand persons) for 2000-2005 was positive at 0.1 compared to the -0.6 recorded in the previous five-year period (UNPD, 2008).



2.7 Empirical Review of Factors that Influence Migration

2.7.1 Characteristics of migrants in Ghana

Several categories of people are involved in migration especially the north-south migration where people move from the northern parts of Ghana to southern parts either for permanent or temporary stay for various jobs. In characterizing these categories of migrants in Ghana, a study was conducted by Adaween and Owusu (2013) that revealed that the sex distribution of the north-south migrants showed that females were the dominant majority at the most common destinations in the southern Ghana, thus, Accra and Kumasi. The study found that at Accra and Kumasi that constituted study area, the total females who had migrated from the north to south far exceed the males in numbers. Abdul-Korah (2011) also explained that the female dominance is attributable to increasing female participation in outmigration to southern Ghana over the years. Also, the concentration of females in the kayaye practices could be a reason for female dominance in terms of sex distribution of migrants at the points of destinations (Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008).

In terms of age distribution of migrants, Adaween and Owusu (2013) noticed that within the age groups, migrants in the ages of 15-19 years were the most dominant and concentrated at the migrants' destinations in Accra and Kumasi. In addition to this dominant age group, migrants within the ages of 20-24 years were also significant in terms numbers. The results of the study showed that a little less than half of the male migrants were within the age ranges of 20-24 years in Accra and that of Kumasi. Among the females in Accra, less than 1% of them were aged below 10 years and all the females in Kumasi were 10 years or older. According to very early studies by Hart (1971) the



reason for the large number of migrants within the 15-19 years recorded in the southern Ghana was attributed to their large representation and also due to the presence of more organized and vibrant migrant associations like BONABOTO, Mamprusi Youth Association and Kori Youth Association among others in the city. The migrant associations provide safety nets for most of these young migrants (Hart, 1971). Also, these networks serve as a safety net for those already there and indeed for new arrivals, who normally resort to these networks in times of need and thus further attracting them to migrate to Accra (Mohammed and Apusigah, 2005). These associations stand in for all registered members in terms of both physiological, Safety, social, Esteem and Self Actualization needs as explain by Maslow Hierarchy of Needs (Poston, 2009).

The individual migrant is assured to have the needs of food, shelter, water etc. upon the arrival to the urban areas as people in their respective communities are already in the system and may want to show solidarity. With regards Safety in the unknown place, the associations makes the individuals feel secure and safe in the various aspect of their lives in the their stay in the big cities because of the assurance of these associations to come to the individual aid in terms of trouble or any crises

In doing away with life challenges such as anxiety, depression and loneliness, one need to feel accepted and supported by others such as friends, family members, coworkers, which the associations tend to offer as in fulfilment of their social need. This eventually leads to the satisfaction of love and belongingness, esteem that is earning the respect of other community members and peers of all level. The individual then becomes creative, problem solving and morally sound.



In terms of age and international migration, it is revealed that young adults are more mobile compared to older people. In the study, the youth constitute about 30% of international migrants (International Organization for Migration, 2013). Similarly in Ghana, it was found that the probability of being a migrant rises until a person reaches the age of 36 years old, and thereafter decreases. Thus, age is a factor that determines one's tendency of engaging in migration for whatever reason in Ghana (Ackah and Medvedev, 2010).

Adaween and Owusu (2013) also found that 48.7% of migrants who were interviewed in Accra had no formal education and 50% of them in Kumasi also had no formal education. Also, 34% of the migrants in Accra had primary education as compared to 31% of migrants in Kumasi who had primary education. It was established that less than 5% of both migrants interviewed in Accra and Kumasi had tertiary level of education. In line with these educational characteristics of migrants, Frempong-Ainguah *et al.* (2009) also found in another study that majority of the youth who migrated down-south from the rural areas of Northern Ghana had little or no education. More so, Ghana Statistical Service (2008) also revealed that there is low school attendance in the northern regions relative to other parts of the country. This study noted that the poor educational infrastructure, lack of schools and teachers, high dropout rates and poverty in the northern parts of Ghana explains the relatively lower levels of education observed among the migrants from the north to southern Ghana.

On the aspect of the marital status of the migrants who participated in the study, Adaween and Owusu (2013) found that 84% of the migrants interviewed at Accra and



Kumasi were single while 16% were married. The implication that emerge from this earlier finding is that majority of the migrants are youth and falls within the active labour population.

Another study conducted by Ackah and Medvedev (2010) also acknowledged the influence of education on people's migration. Ackah and Medvedev also found that in Ghana a migrant's educational attainment is correlated with an increased probability to migrate. This study further revealed that "Their study further revealed that the tendency of people's migration rises when they attain secondary and tertiary education. It was further indicated that households that has educated heads are more secured in terms of livelihoods and therefore less chances of migration and the reverse is the case for households with uneducated household heads".

Another characteristic of migrants that strongly emerges in migration discourse is gender/sex of migrants. Studies have recognized that even though migration is increasingly feminized in West Africa, the males still dominate in engaging in migration activities in the sub-region. Literature is clear that gender is yet another feature that influences migration (Banerjee and Raju, 2009; Adepoju 2005; Awumbila *et al.*, 2014b). It is noted in Ghana that men are more engaged in migration for reasons of education as compared to women who migrate much more than men for purposes of marriage (Awumbila et al 2014). Similar to this finding is that women in Ghana and India are more likely to migrate for marital reasons than men. Whiles men are rather more likely to migrate for purposes of work related reasons such as job transfers, business engagement and/or seeking for employment, etc. as compared to women (Castaldo *et al.*, 2012).



Another study in Nicaragua revealed that the motive of women migrating from the rural areas to the urban areas is mostly motivated by their desire to find wealthier men to marry than economic reasons (Behrman and Wolfe, 1984).

Contrary to this view are studies by Findley and Diallo (1993) and Chen (2004) that were conducted in rural Mali and rural China respectively had revealed contrary findings that women do not necessarily migrate from the rural to the cities with the intention of marrying wealthier husbands as indicated by Behrman and Wolfe (1984).

McKay and Quartey (2008) also recognized resource availability as a characteristic of society that determines migration in some situations. They found in their study that cocoa production opportunities and mines exploration are opportunities that attract migrants from the northern to southern parts of Ghana especially Ashanti and western regions. It implies that the availability of range of economic opportunities in one location is a factor that induces migration and also choice of destination. Similar to this view is that of Afsar (2005) who argued that access to land and ecological vulnerability are issues that induce migration from one location to another.

2.7.2 Effects of Migration on Economic Activities

Several studies on migration and its effects on economic activities of migrants moving locations were acknowledged by available literature (Lobnibe, 2010; Ackah, C. and Medvedev, D. 2010; Mahama, 2013, Coulombe *et al.*, 2000). A study was conducted by Awumbila *et al.*, (2015) in Ghana to examine the relationships between migration and poverty outcomes in migrant and non-migrant households. The study revealed that



generally migration is viewed as being a route out of poverty. A slightly higher percentage of migrant households felt that their financial situation had improved a lot or somewhat improved compared to non-migrant households. Having current migrants within Ghana, either male or female, is associated with greater perceptions of adequacy of financial situation of the household, possibly suggesting a steady remittance flow helping to smoothen income and consumption. However, male migrants are more likely to belong to households who report an improvement in their financial situation, while female migrants seem to be drawn more evenly across households. The study found that internal migration is contributing positively to wellbeing of migrant's households and therefore, the study suggests the need to incorporate internal migration into development policy in Ghana (Awumbila *et al.*, 2015). In addition, the study revealed that migration has led to a change in the occupation of many migrants.

Whereas majority of migrants were engaged in agricultural/farm activities before migration, the occupational dynamics of migrants changed and in favour of 'sales worker-ship'. Many of the migrants sent remittances back to their families left behind, either in the form of cash or goods, although cash amounts were small (Awumbila *et al.*, 2015). In another study, it is indicated that migration has negative effects on the socio-economic development of both the sending and receiving locations, despite recent arguments that recognizes migration as livelihood and adaptation strategy for poverty mitigation in Ghana.

According to this study, the adverse effects of migration are felt in the form of shortage of labour, declining productivity, and brain drain. On the aspect of receiving locations of



migrants, the negative effects of migration take the form of pressure on social amenities, emergence of slums, increased unemployment, and declining standards of living (Awumbila *et al.*, 2014a; Owusu *et al.*, 2008). On the contrary, recent literature on migration has also placed so many premiums of the positive effects of migration and its potentials in contributing to socio-economic development of both sending and receiving locations.

In the work of Srivastava (2005), it is indicated that when migration is properly managed it can contribute to the socioeconomic transformation of economies of both developed and developing countries. According to this study, there is increasing evidence to suggest that migration can be mitigation to severe poverty and/or an option of livelihood strategy to enhance household wealth.

In a more recent study, it was found that “migration acts as a catalyst in the transformation process of not only the fate of individual migrants but also the conditions of family members left behind, local communities, and the wider sending regions thereby improving their welfare” (Ajaero and Onokala, 2013).

2.8 Effect of Migration on Development

Migration is a complex phenomenon which became even more complex as results of globalisation. The direction and motivation to move are determined by different economic, political and social factors on different scale throughout the whole world. The phenomena of migration resulted in a world that exists out of complex transnational



spaces which are changing societies of both sending and receiving countries. A key question that needs to be answered is: which positive and negative effects does migration have on sending countries and how can the positive effects be used to aid development?

One of the positive effects migration can have in sending locations is the flow of money coming in as financial remittances sent by migrants who want to contribute to their families back home. There is a huge flow of money through remittances across the world which provides opportunities for development within households, families and whole communities through these flows of money (Castles and Miller, 2009).

Remittances have become a broad researched phenomenon and are seen as a significant financial flow for developing countries (Sander, 2003). The amount of financial remittances sent are exceeding flows of Official Development Aid (ODA) and Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) but it is difficult to estimate the precise amount because a lot of remittances are sent through informal channels due to high tax rates on money flows (World Bank, 2006; Davies, 2007; de Haas, 2005).

There is also difficulty in collecting data on remittances for research purposes due to these informal and formal flows and an overall lack of data about remittances within developing countries (Sander, 2003). Although there is a difficulty in precise data collection, remittances are viewed as a crucial economic factor in developing countries because they flow directly to (low-income) households and have a direct effect on fighting poverty (Newland, 2007).

Despite the positive outcomes of remittances, there are also possible negative outcomes and there is rising critique against the “remittances development mantra”. Different



scholars argue that remittances can have uneven effects between migrants and non-migrant families and increase inequality between them (de Haas, 2005; Massey et al., 1998). People who migrate are often not from the poorest background because to be able to migrate there is a need for certain resources in the first place (de Haas, 2005).

The flow of remittances will thus not go back to the poorest families and these people can even be worse off due to price inflations for land and other scarce resources (Massey et al., 1998). It is thus important to note that remittances do not automatically lead to development and that it might even have a negative outcome. Still remittances are a huge money flow into developing countries and have great potential for development if spent wisely. Next to financial remittances there are also social remittances which can have both positive and negative effects on developing countries.

The positive outcomes found in studies on the effect of emigration are that attitudes and skills leading to change improve and this can have a positive effect on development. Important to note is that the impact of skills and attitudes in conduct to change differ from place to place and between different migrants. It can even lead to negative outcomes where it becomes a natural rite of passage for young people to migrate in their young years to earn money whilst these are their most productive years which might have a negative effect on social change and economic growth (Castles and Miller, 2009).

Social and financial remittances can both have positive and negative effects in sending countries and it is therefore important to note that there is a need for policy approaches which link transfer of new attitudes and income of financial flows with development-



friendly economic and social reform in both sending and receiving countries (Castles and Miller, 2009; de Haas, 2005).

2.9 Summary and Conclusion

Migration is the movement of persons from one place to the other for various reasons and purposes involving a longer span of time. This study looked at the rural-urban migration occurring within Ghana. It considered all other forms of migration both seasonal, temporary, semi-permanent and permanent migration. Migration in this study area is normally the movement of younger persons from the Kubori community to Accra and Kumasi for menial jobs. Migrants in this case are farm hands or farmers who provided labour for the community during the farming season. This mass exodus will lead to loss of farm labour especially at the critical times since agriculture practised the Kubori community is rainfed (Mahama, 2013).



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was employed for the study. The methodology is designed to meet the research objectives and address data gathering problems imminent to the research. Essentially, this chapter presents the research design, study population, sample and sampling technique, data sources and research instruments, and data collection processes. The statistical tools and techniques used for data analysis are also discussed. A profile of the study area is also included in this chapter.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area – Mamprugu Moagduri District

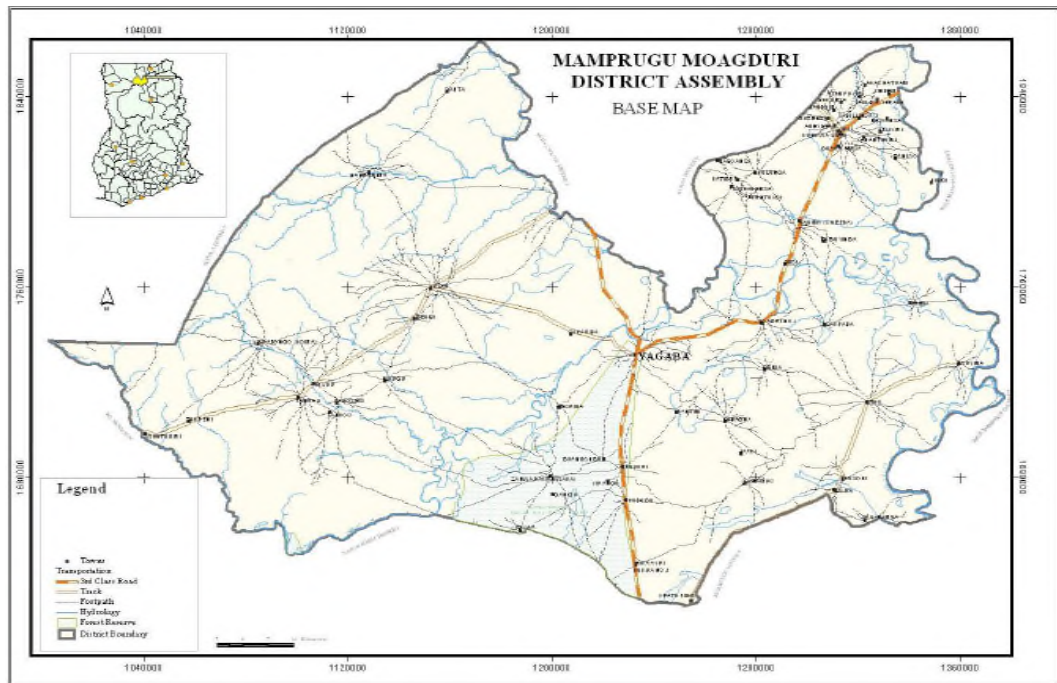


Figure 2: The Map of Mamprugu Moagduri district

Source: Geo Unique Maps, 2012



The Mamprugu Moagduri District was carved from West Mamprusi District. Its capital is at Yagaba. It was established by LI 2063 of 2012 and forms part of the districts and municipalities created in the year 2012. The district was inaugurated on 28th June, 2012.

The 2010 National Population and Housing Census (PHC) (GSS, 2012) puts the total population of the district at 46,894 comprising 23,439 males (49.9%) and 23,455 females (50.0%). In terms of rural urban distribution, the district has 99.9 percent of its inhabitants living in rural localities. This implies that the district is to a large extent a rural one.

For all ages, the sex ratio (defined by number of males per 100 females) of the district stands at 99.9 percent. This means that there are more females than males in the district. This follows the national and the regional patterns where the sex ratio for all ages stands at 95.2 and 98.4 respectively (GSS, 2012).

The 2010 PHC put the total employed population, 15 years and older of the district at 40.7 percent with majority in the agric and fishing industry (93.5%). The sector distribution of employment in the district indicates that the private informal sector provides employment for about 98 percent of the district population, 15 years and older. Among the employed in the district, there are more males (80.4%) than females (70.4%). The most economically active age group in the district is within the age group of 25-29 years (GSS, 2012).

Agriculture is the mainstay of the district as majority of the people are engage in agriculture. Along the river valleys are large stretches of arable land, good for cultivation of rice and cereals on a commercial scale. This also presents opportunities to do dry



season farming. Crops such as millet, beans, maize, rice and groundnuts are cultivated throughout the district (GSS, 2012).

Sheanut is harvested from the shea tree which grows wildly in the district for shea butter processing. Animal rearing is lucrative as ample land is available for livestock farming. Cattle, sheep, goats and pigs are kept for domestic and commercial purposes (GSS, 2012).

Majority of the employed in the district are in the agriculture, forestry and the fishing industry (93.5%). The Manufacturing industry constitutes the second largest industry (2.4%) followed by wholesale and retail (2.3%). Water supply; sewerage waste management, and remediation activities as well as the arts entertainment and creative industry constitute the least industry in the district. In terms of agricultural processing, sheanut, groundnut and dawadawa processing are the main activities in the district. The processing is mostly undertaken by women groups in the district (GSS, 2012).

The key development issues captured by the district's 2015 fiscal year budget include (GoG, 2015):

- Lack of infrastructure to support business development especially electricity
- High dependence on seasonal and erratic rainfall
- High cost of agricultural inputs
- Non-availability of agricultural inputs dealers
- Poor land use and settlement development
- Lack of electricity
- Poor road network



- Poor housing condition
- Limited access to quality water and High number of broken down water facilities
- Poor quality of teaching and learning materials especially text books, furniture and class room
- Inadequate access to quality health care as a result of absence of critical health staff and inadequate health infrastructure

3.3 Research Design

The research design refers to the overall strategy that is chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical manner, thereby, ensuring you will effectively address the research problem (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2006). It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. The research problem determines the type of design to use. For this study, the researcher used the Action Research Design as prescribed by the Faculty of Education of the University for Development Studies.

The essentials of Action Research Design follow a characteristic cycle whereby initially an exploratory stance is adopted, where an understanding of a problem is developed and plans are made for some form of intervention (Coghlan and Brydon-Miller, 2014). For this study, a situational analysis was conducted with in-depth interviews at the pre-intervention phase to analyse and properly understand the problems of the “Kayayei”. The intervention phase then followed (the "action" in Action Research) during which time, the researcher put in place a number of strategies to solve the problems of the returnee migrants. The new interventional strategies were carried out, and the cyclic



process repeats, continuing until a sufficient understanding of the problem was achieved. The protocol is iterative or cyclical in nature and is intended to foster deeper understanding of a given situation, starting with conceptualising and particularising the problem and moving through several interventions and evaluations (Efron, and Ravid 2013).

Although Action Research is harder to do than conducting conventional research because the researcher took on responsibilities of advocating for change as well as for researching the topic, it came with some advantages. The design focused on pragmatic and solution-driven research outcomes rather than testing theories. Action research studies often have direct and obvious relevance to improving practice and advocating for change (Geraldine and Kathryn 2001).

3.4 Population of the Study

All females from the Kubori community who had ever travelled to Accra (the national capital of Ghana) in search of a living was essentially part of the population of this study. No definite figure was available from the District Assembly or the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) at the time of the study to indicate the number of migrants moving from the district/community to and from Accra. However, eye witness accounts have it that more than 100 girls leave the district for Accra within a week, especially at periods when farming activities were brisk.



3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study employed purposive sampling technique to target 20 girls who were willing to return and had returned from Accra to the Kubori community.

3.6 Data Type and Source

Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. Primary data were obtained through semi-structured questionnaires and in-depth interviews with the Kayayei, and stakeholder including the District Assembly and related NGOs. Secondary data were obtained from review of literature on migration, writings of other scholars and theorists. These multiple sources of data offered the researcher the opportunity of viewing the issue under investigation from different facets.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments - Action Research Tools

According to O'Brien (2001), Action Research is more of a holistic approach to problem-solving, rather than a single method for collecting and analysing data. Thus, it allows for several different research tools to be used as the project is conducted. According to O'Brien (2001), these various methods, which are generally common to the qualitative research paradigm, include: keeping a research journal, document collection and analysis, participant observation recordings, questionnaire surveys, structured and unstructured interviews, checklist and case studies. A combination of participant observation recordings, questionnaire survey, checklist, structured and unstructured interviews were employed as tools for this particular action research on migration of female youth.



3.7.1 Observation

Observation can be done directly or indirectly with the subject knowing or unaware that you are observing them. You may choose to collect data through continuous observation or via set time periods depending on your project. You may interpret data you gather using the following mechanisms:

- Descriptive observations – where you simply write down what you observe
- Inferential observations – where you may write down an observation that is inferred by the subject’s body language and behaviour.
- Evaluative observation – where you may make an inference and therefore a judgment from the behaviour. Make sure you can replicate these findings. (Babbie, 1992).

For this study, both evaluative and descriptive observations were done during the intervention phase. This allowed for drawing inferences on the extent of application of the knowledge from the training received.

3.6.2 Checklist (Interview Guide)

Checklists structure a person’s observation or evaluation of a performance or artefact (Trochim, 2000). They can be simple lists of criteria that can be marked as present or absent, or can provide space for observer comments. These tools can provide consistency over time or between observers. Checklists can be used for evaluating databases or for structuring peer observations of instruction sessions. The checklist was used at two levels. First, it was used to collect information from the District Assembly and NGOs



operating in the district. It was also used to compliment the observation method employed during the intervention phase of the study.

3.7.3 In-depth Interviews

In-Depth Interviews include both individual interviews (e.g., one-on-one) as well as “group” interviews (including focus groups). The data can be recorded in a wide variety of ways including stenography, audio recording, video recording or written notes (Trochim, 2000). In depth interviews differ from direct observation primarily in the nature of the interaction. In interviews it is assumed that there is a questioner and one or more interviewees. In-depth interviews were conducted with the migrants. The purpose of the interviews was to probe for further understanding about the phenomenon of interest (being migration) – in this case, the reasons for migration, the challenges of migrants and possible solutions for returnees.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

Different procedures were used to collect the relevant data for the study. However, at different times, prior appointments with the key informants were secured. At the meeting with each official and the migrants, the purpose of the study was explained, and all questions in this regard answered. In-depth interviews led by the researcher were conducted with the returnee migrants.



The process was in three stages – the Pre-intervention phase (situational analyses), intervention phase and the post intervention phase. The problem under study is one of out-migration by females of the Kubori community.

3.8.1 Situational analysis (Pre-intervention)

Situational analysis is conducted to present a broader understanding of a problem. It provided details on the magnitude of a particular problem under study and offered the opportunity for appropriate remedies. The purpose of the situational analyses was to identify the reasons for out-migration and the challenges that the migrants face as they are away in Accra. This involved the use unstructured interviews with the returnee migrants.

3.8.2 Intervention

At the intervention stage, the researcher took the beneficiaries through serious of orientations and workshops to psych them and to prepare them adequately for reintegration. This included trainings on business development skills, credit management and basic farming methods. Some were also taken through counselling and career development processes.

3.8.3 Post-intervention

Some interview sessions backed by focus group discussions were employed to conduct a post-intervention study aimed at measuring the effect of the returnee migrants' orientation programme on the livelihoods of the returnees. This is reported in the next chapter of this report.



3.9 Data Presentation and Analyses

The data were processed using MS Excel and the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SSSS version 20). The objectives were analysed qualitatively, supported by descriptive statistics, mainly percentages; and presented in Tables and Charts to facilitate easy understanding and interpretation. Mean values were also calculated in some cases to examine the central tendency of the responses provided. Chi squared test was then performed with the help of the SSSS tool to ascertain and test for the significance of the responses provided by the respondents.

3.10 Data Quality and Ethical Issues

The data were screened and edited thoroughly before processing to generate the required results for discussion. McNamara (1994) identified five ethical concerns to be considered when conducting a qualitative or action research. These guidelines deal with voluntary participation, no harm to respondents, anonymity as well as confidentiality of information supplied by a respondent. Each of this guideline was addressed individually with explanations to help eliminate or control any ethical concerns. In other words, to avoid possible harm to respondents, the questionnaire did not include sensitive questions that could cause embarrassment or create uncomfortable feelings. The researcher also ensured that respondents' identity were protected. This was accomplished by exercising absolute anonymity and confidentiality. For the purpose of anonymity, names of respondents are represented by Alphabets of the English language.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents the field results and discussions. It provides the details of the problem with a situational analyses conducted at the pre-intervention phase of the action research. The Chapter also discusses the intervention in detail. The post intervention is also discussed under this chapter.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

All the target respondents were females aged between 18 and 40 years. The result from (Table 4.1) indicates that all 20 respondents were youthful in age, with majority (60%) of them aged between 26 and 30 years. Many of the migrants who moved down south from Northern Ghana are mostly the youth within the ages of 10-25 years. These persons are normally termed ‘hustlers’ who travel down-south to seek greener pastures and to support families back home with some remittances. With the motive to earn quick money and to cope with the high cost of living in the city and debt accumulated over time, migrants often engage in whatever jobs that comes their way to make ends meet (Hart, 1973). Similarly, Kunfaa (1999) argues that young people in rural areas feel they have no choice but to leave home in search of work, since their remittances are likely to make a difference in their families. This was worrisome because the migration of effective labour force which could hitherto have a positive effect on the local economy of the district in terms of agriculture and trade have been lost.



Again, 80% of the respondents were married, and had left their husbands and families behind in search of “greener pastures” in southern Ghana. This situation could affect some marriages and may lead to divorces and broken homes.

The result indicates that majority (70%) of the respondents had no formal education, a situation which was consistent with GoG (2015) that majority of the population of the Mamprugu Moagduri district had no formal education (Table 4.1). These result is useful for assessing the factors that account for migrants’ engagement in the north-south migration. Clearly, having no formal education directly affects your ability to acquire a gainfully employed job. Therefore the need to resort to menial jobs in the south which offers some sought of financial relief.

This trend agrees with similar findings by Frempong-Ainguah *et al.* (2009), that majority of the youth who migrated down-south from the rural areas of Northern Ghana had little or no education. According to GSS (2008), school attendance rates are high in all localities across the country except in the rural savannah of Northern Ghana. Characterised with poor educational infrastructure, fewer number of schools and teachers, high dropout rates and poverty in the northern parts of Ghana explains the relatively lower levels of education observed among the migrants. The reason for the concentration of migrants in *kayayei* (Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008), which is often seen as an occupation for most female migrants from Northern Ghana is due to their low level of education (Source: Table 4).



Table 4.1: Demographics of the respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	0	0
	Female	20	100
Age	18-25	5	25
	26-30	12	60
	31-35	2	10
	35-40	1	5
Marital status	Married	16	80
	Single	4	20
Education	No formal education	14	70
	JHS	2	10
	SHS	4	20

Source: Field data, 2016

4.2 Pre-intervention (*Situational Analyses*)

Situational analysis was conducted as part of the pre-intervention phase of the study to present a broader understanding of the problem. A comprehensive review and analyses of the reason for out migration and the challenges the migrants face was done and presented in the next two sections.



4.2.1 Cause of out-migration

All the respondents indicated that their main reason for migrating from the north to the south was to seek better livelihood opportunities in the south because the job opportunities in the community or the Mamprugu Moagduri district were limited (Table 4.2). Other reasons were given by some of the migrants included household level conflict (5%), escape from the effects of witches (10%), running away from force and early marriage pressures (15%) and the lack of social amenities in the district (50%).

Majority of the respondents are below 30 years old, and this age range are less likely to consider farming as a job opportunity. The youth are more susceptible to white collar jobs than farming which they consider as being for the older generation. It is important to note that the incidence of poverty reduced everywhere in Ghana in the 1990s but increased in Northern Region (Coulombe and Mckay, 2004). Poor roads and transport system with poor mobile telephone communication network leading to inaccessible information has affected livelihood opportunities in the northern part of Ghana as well.

The northern parts of Ghana have been plagued by recurrent intra-ethnic and inter-ethnic conflicts. These conflicts have multiple causes, including, land, chieftaincy, and sometimes religion disputes, aggravated by local or national politics. These have often led to loss of lives and property. Violent conflicts are major sources of insecurity and also discouraged investments in the north, it is therefore no surprising that majority of the migrants have reported that factors that influence their movement is as a results of insecurity and seeking better livelihood and job opportunities else where



Lastly, certain cultural practices and beliefs were given by some of the respondents as their reason for migrating. Early marriage is a predominant practice in the northern part of Ghana, and some respondents who had given early marriage as their reasons for migrating from the north had explained that they ran away from their husbands' home or were potential candidates for the practice. They further explained that parents do this at the blind side of their daughters in exchange of money or any form of material wealth. As such potential candidates flee their community since they cannot predict the time of this practice.

Table 4.1: Causes of north-south migration

Reasons for Migrating	Frequency	Percent
Conflict Situation	2	10
Escape from witches	1	5
Force/early marriage	3	15
Lack of job opportunities in the north	20	100
To seek better livelihood opportunities	20	100
Lack of social amenities at the community	10	50

Source: Field data, 2016

4.2.2 Challenges of migrants (Kayayei) in Accra

This section discusses the challenges that confronted the migrants as they lived in Accra. A focus group discussion conducted with all 20 returnees revealed lack of accommodation as the most challenging situation for the northern migrant in Accra. There was an indication that migrants slept at varied places under varied conditions. 10 returnees indicated that they slept at the market squares in Accra. Another 6 indicated



that they slept in kiosks, while the remaining 4 indicate that they slept in single rooms of membership up to 10, a situation that could breed communicable diseases.

Getting accommodation in the major cities is very expensive, and since migrants barely make enough for themselves, it is not surprising where many reported as their sleeping places. It is obvious those majorities slept in open and unsecured places and were exposed to several dangers such as attacks from thieves, rapists, bad weather, mosquitoes, and exposure to sicknesses.

Those who slept in kiosks will have to compete with the goods packed in the kiosks for space and also double as security persons for the safety of the goods in the kiosks. Some admitted that there were times they were thrown out of the kiosk when items were unaccounted for, sending them back to the streets.

4.2.2.1 Types of Economic Activities Engaged in by Migrants

Migrants at their various locations in the south (Accra) were engaged in varied and several economic activities including; head potting (85%), shop attendant (5%), trading (5%), and other activities including cleaning and washing services for richer families (5%) (Table 4.3). Consequently, a typical migrant normally will 'hustle' from one job to the other where in most cases the jobs involve exerting much physical energy in order to earn as much as possible in a day.

Majority of the migrants are often engaged in the informal, low-income earning jobs; combining jobs like selling on the street or working as a cart pusher at a point in time of the day, and as a night-watchman (security) or bar attendant in the evenings (Adaawen



and Jørgensen, 2012). This is because many of the migrants have little or no education. Only a few of the migrants that were interviewed had education up to secondary or higher level. This has put majority of them in the lower income bracket in both study areas, which has implications for remittances. These economic activities of the migrants constitute the various types engagements of the migrants through which they generate income to support livelihoods of their families.

Table 4. 2: Economic Engagements of Migrants

Activity	Percent
Head Porter	85%
Shop attendant	5%
Trading	5%
Other	5%
Total	100%

Source: Field Data, 2016.

4.3 Intervention

This section discusses the intervention processes and activities, and includes the meetings held with the returnees in the Kubori community after having identified their challenges after they returned from the city of Accra after the 3rd June 2015 fire cum flood disaster. A series of meetings were held in trying to find out why they cannot stay at the community to develop themselves but leave without hopes of any place to stay or kind of ready job to lay their hands on in Accra.



On separate accounts, meetings were held to help them identify their talents and abilities in the community and how to make use of those strengths they have. They were also empowered through knowledge shearing and experience.

The first meeting was held in the Kubori area on evening of 13th November 2015. During this meeting, the women were taken through the process of building rapport so as to make subsequent meetings free of tension and fear of intimidation. The women took turns to introduce themselves.

The question was then asked. *What was the motivation for the trip to Accra?*

A study participant noted that, they go there not to create fun but for survival. She continued that the community can only boast of farming activities which only favours the male counterparts because of issues of culture and religion that assign authority to men. Women are home makers and therefore would like to keep the family going even if there is no much harvest from the farms.

Another participant said, I am a young girl who wants to marry. All my utensils are not set. No man in this community wants to marry a liability. One wants to help the “husband to be” in the marriage process.

One other participant said, that it is (Kayayei) the only thing they can do without putting in so much. They need to support the children to go to school but nothing in the hands to start any trade. So when they go for six months, they can support them till the husbands sell the farm produce if there is any.



The discussion went on and on and every woman tried to justify the reason for the trip. The fact remains that the trip is not the best option for them all but there is no other available activity for them at community level. The problems of these women surpass the gains they claim to have obtained from this trip to the city.

4.3.2 Search of potentials

In this meeting, the women were guided to identify the abilities which spelt out their strengths and the potentials and opportunities available for them in the community. Out of the twenty (20) women that attended the meeting, fifteen (15) of them were very good in shea butter processing, ten (10) could par boil rice for sale and all the twenty could do farming if the resources were made available to them. However four of them were students who completed Senior High School but could not make the qualifying grades to proceed to the next level of the academic ladder due to inadequate financial and morale support.

After the process of identifications, they were put into groups of similar abilities and tasked to come out with possible means of financing these ideas and making them a reality.

The category of groupings were as follows:

- The self-financed farmers,
- The supported farmers and,
- The students.



For the Self helped farmers, they believed they could raise money for inputs and to be able to prepare land to do some farming. The supported farmer-group needed support from individuals and NGOs and even financial institutions by way of farm inputs to begin with. Whereas the students could still go back to school to better their grades when assisted.

4.3.3 The empowerment process

This process involved training sessions in which the participants were exposed to the opportunities that were available at the community level and how each of them could tap into them. The vast arable land in the area which is also lying close to the river could be used for all year cultivation of fruits and vegetables to feed the community and the entire district at large. A private organisation, IWAD is into large scale farming in the area, gives opportunities to individuals to have some acres of land under their demarcated area for them to supply all the inputs needed and for the farmer to only supervise and take care of the farm until the crops are ready for harvest. IWAD engages their clients in contract arrangements and only deducts the cost of their inputs from the total production of the farmer. And this is done all year round provided the individual is ready to work with the company.

Another opportunity that was available in the community was the Africa Indoor Residual Spraying (AIRS) programme. This was a USAID sponsored programme that aimed at reducing malaria cases in the district. This project was purposed to empower the young girls and boys to gain the skills in the chemical application as well as broaden their knowledge in the causes and the effective ways of preventing malaria in the rural



communities and above all provide temporary employment opportunity support within the period. The project engages the youth for three to four months during the off-farming season for various activities in the malaria control programme serving as an alternative employment for them.

Farming

Farming in the area can be said to be the easiest venture one could go into. Almost the total population around the Kubori community are into crop and livestock farming. Land for farming is free reducing the initial capital requirement to start.

The only challenge for the youth going into farming was the acquisition of credit for land preparation and inputs, as well as basic agronomic knowledge. For that matter the participants were taken through the basic production planning, credit proposal writing and financial management skills to assist them to raise the necessary money to go into production. They were also taken through good agronomic practices for vegetables, maize, rice, soya beans and cowpea production.

The researcher took an initiative of introducing the returnees to the management of IWAD to include them as their community farms beneficiaries since they were giving some basic training. This was also fruitful because three (3) of the females were enrolled into the programme and were given an acre of land each with input support from IWAD for a start.



The rest of the returnees who took to agriculture were formed into a small savings (Susu) loans (VSLA) group who contributed a token into a group box on a weekly basis. They hope to use the money generated for ploughing services and buying inputs for farming.

Schooling

Other returnees who still desired to continue their education were put under serious counseling on the need to continue their education without giving up to the pressures of the community. Three of the Senior High School Leavers agreed to go back to school by registering for the private WASCE. They moved to Bolgatanga, Walewale and Tamale respectively to attend private extra tuition. Those who could read and write were recruited to join a malaria control programme in the area as temporary workers to help raise money to register for the examinations, and to support themselves while they were at home. They were engaged as temporary workers for a period of three months.

4.4 Post Intervention

4.4.1 The effect of the returnee-migrants orientation programme on the livelihoods of the returnees

This section discusses the effect of the intervention measures put in place by the researcher on the livelihoods of the returnees. A set of methodologies including observations, focus group discussions, and the use of a questionnaire were employed to collect information for analyses. Gross margin analyses of the various businesses of the returnees was chosen as proxy for improvements in their livelihoods.



Upon follow ups, it was revealed that one of the returnees was admitted to University for Development Studies to undertake a Diploma in Education. She was able to achieve this upon successfully passing her re-sit WASCE. The two others could not pass all their re-sit subjects, but are still poised to making it on another trial. One of them is currently in Tamale, the regional capital of northern Ghana to work as an untrained teacher in a private school to raise the needed money to re-sit the pending WASCE.

The three returnees who got supported by IWAD were each able to produce 15 bags of maize as contract farmers. By deducting the cost of support from IWAD which amounted to GHC 500.00 for each returnee, a gross margin of GHC 1000.00 was realised by each of the three beneficiaries.

Each of the unassisted farmers was able to raise GHC 250.00 which was invested in their farm business on inputs, land preparation and labour costs. The average output was recorded as 9 maxi bags of maize, which had a market value of GHC 900.00 at the time of the study. This also resulted in an average gross margin of GHC 650.00 for each of the returnees who saved for their farming business.

The six returnees who also went into shea butter processing, and three others who went into parboiling rice have started making some economic gains as well. The district is endowed with the shea trees, and so the initial basic raw material for their business was in abundance and was harvested from the wild by themselves. They were able to buy some cooking pots, basins and other materials needed for shea butter processing from savings they had made while working in Accra on menial jobs and head potting. On the average,



each shea processing and rice parboiling returnee was making between GHC 50.00 – GHC 100.00 per week, something they all hail as having improved their wellbeing since they were in the comfort of their homes and family.

The strength of agreement of the returnees on the effect of the orientation/training programme by the researcher on their livelihood was measured on a Likert scale of 1-5 (1 being weakest, 5 being strongest) on certain parameters that defined welfare or livelihood. This was because returnees expressed being free from unnecessary arm robbery attacks and being rape victims. The result indicates that the returnees agreed that their personal savings had improved dramatically upon receiving the orientation programme (mean of 4.00) since they were not paying bills, weekly rent. Also, their income and expenditure patterns (3.85) had improved upon being beneficiaries of the researchers training programme. All 20 returnees agree that their self-esteem, dignity and confidence had since been restored and they are now also enjoying improved health status as well as healthy relationships.

Table 4.3: Improvements in livelihood

Indicator	Mean score	Chi-square	Asymp. sig
Improved personal savings	4.00***	12.100	0.002
Improved income and expenditure	3.85*	4.900	0.086
Increased confidence and self esteem	3.85***	9.700	0.008
Improved health status	3.95**	9.100	0.011
df		2	
N		20	

Note: *, **, *** represent 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively.

Source: Field data 2016.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The main objective of this project was to empower twenty (20) returnee migrants (Kayayei) in the Kubori community. The project aims at making the youth in this community aware of the natural resources in the community and train them on how to utilize them. The project also aimed at encouraging them to remain in their various communities and focus on the resource that are available locally to better their lives. This will help them create wealth instead of endangering their lives by exposing themselves to unknown hazards somewhere outside their familiar grounds. The project will sensitise them to also do away the perception that you cannot make it in the village.

Specifically, the project sort to identify the reasons and causes of out migration in the Kubori community, outline the challenges that the migrants face in the cities and on return to the Kubori community, conduct a sensitization, reorientation and skills training for 20 returnee migrants to identify the potentials of the community as well as assess the effects of the sensitization, orientation and skills training programme on the livelihoods of the returnee-migrants.

Action research design was employed for the study – focusing on the pre-intervention, intervention and post intervention phases of the project. Observations, checklist and in-depth interviews using focus group discussions and questionnaires were the main data collection tools.



All the target respondents were females aged between 18 and 40 years. Again, 80% of the respondents were married, and had left their husbands and families behind in search of “greener pastures” south of Ghana. Again, the study found that majority (70%) of the respondents had no formal education, a situation which was consistent with view that majority of the population of the Mamprugu Moagduri district had no formal education at the time of the study.

Situational analysis was conducted as part of the pre-intervention phase of the study to present a broader understanding of the problem. The main reasons for migrating from the community to the south was to seek better job opportunities in the south because of the lack of white collar jobs in their community or the Mamprugu Moagduri district. Other reasons were given as household level conflict, escape from the effects of witches, running away from force and early marriages and the lack of social amenities. The researcher intervened by first of all probing to identify the drivers and the causes of migration from the Kubori community. The causes included peer pressure, family pressure, insecurity in times of escalated conflicts, low economic and commercial activities in the community, poor infrastructure among others.

Several meetings were held with the returnees at which times they were given an orientation and reintegration processes were also started. Challenges of the migrants both in the city and upon return to the Kubori community are outlined below. The migrants faced issues of inadequate decent accommodation, theft, rape and health hazards as they were away in Accra. They returnees also received humiliation, living in dehumanizing conditions, discriminated assaulted, cheated, enslaved, infested with STIs and living lives without dignity and honour. Upon returned they faced rejection, broken marriages and



homes, loss of respect, loss of social capital, broken relationships, loss of family positions and birthrights, loss of identity among others.

Sensitisation and counselling sessions were organised for the selected returnee migrants in the Kubori community. During this meeting participants were also reoriented and facilitated through community resource mapping to identify renewable natural resources in their communities and appreciate their values and how to utilize them sustainably for wealth creation. The resources identified were shea trees from which they get sheanuts to process into shea butter, a vast fertile arable land, streams and white Volta river for irrigation, wide animal grazing area, among others. Smock weaving and cotton cultivation are all opportunities in the community. Opportunities such as the IWAD project, the Indoor Residual Spraying and Animal production also exist in the community and were identified. Skills training was given to participants on rice production and processing, shea butter processing, vegetable cultivation and animal production as well as simple farm planning and VSLA (financial literacy)

In general, the intervention on the returnees significantly affected their livelihoods in the areas of improved health status, improved savings and investment, improved incomes and expenditures as well as increased self-esteem and confidence.

5.2 Conclusion

The quest for better jobs to improve livelihoods and household incomes has been a driving force responsible for the migration of rural young people to migrate. Household level conflict, witchcraft, and forced marriages were found to be the main drivers of out-migration in the Kubori community. The migrants mostly faced accommodation



challenges, rape, theft and health hazards to their exposure to extreme weather conditions at night and during working hours. An orientation programme made of effective counselling as well as giving technical training on business management skills and good agronomic practices to returnee migrants affects positively their welfare in terms of raising self-esteem, increasing incomes and expenditure, improving their savings for investment as well as improving their health status.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations are made:

It is recommended that an orientation and reintegration programme is organized to support the returnee migrants. The government and other social service providers (NGOs) provide alternative source of livelihood for the people in the Kubori community and the entire northern Ghana as a whole. Having identified lack of job opportunities as the major push factor influencing the youth, creating more income generating opportunities in the districts of the north will eventually help reduce the north-south drift of labour. Moreover, with farming being the main economic activity in the community and the district, the tendency for them to also migrate during the dry season was also very high. There is therefore the need for government and development agencies to consider the provision of irrigation dams, other modernised farming interventions for them. The returnee migrants could be supported with equipment and inputs to practice dry season gardening at the banks of the White Volta which is closer to the community.



The accommodation and sleeping places for the migrants was identified as a major location problem in Accra. Decent hotels could be built to house the migrants. They could be charged hotels fees moderate enough for the migrants.

The National Commission for Civic Education and other stakeholders in education need to sensitise the youth on the dangers associated with migration. An educational campaign can be launched in the Junior and Senior high schools and at the community level to inform people about the dangers and disadvantages of migrations.

Again, a well-structured transition program from each level of education should be made available by the Ghana Education Service (GES). This is because the longer students who have completed either junior or senior high stay at home before they transition into the next level of education, the more the tendency to migrate to the south while they wait for better results to continue their education. The government of Ghana could look at reforms which would engage the youth while they wait to transition into the next level of their education. Also the Non Formal Education programmes (School for Life) should be instituted in the community to cater for those young ones who have not gotten the opportunity to go through the formal sector of education could be engaged during the period they are less busy more especially in the dry season.

Finally, the researcher recommends that stakeholders such as universities, social NGOs and the district assemblies should conduct more action with other returnee migrants in order to identify and solve their challenges to effectively eradicate the practice of north-south migration among the youth of the Kubori community.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Survey Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

EMPOWERING RETURNEE MIGRANTS: THE CASE OF “KAYAYEE” IN THE KUBORI COMMUNITY OF THE MAMPRUGU MOADURI DISTRICT OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

Introduction:

These questions are designed to solicit your views and experiences on factors that influence North-South Migration in Ghana. This study is aimed at empowering returnee migrants in the Mamprugu Moagduri district. These questions are raised to generate primary data to support analysis of the study objectives. The aim of this study and for that matter the data will be used purely for academic purpose. The outcome of the study report will serve as a partial requirement for award of an academic certificate from the Faculty of Education, University for Development Studies. I therefore seek your support as a respondent to provide me with adequate and relevant information in this regard. Thank you.

SECTION A: INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Q1. Age of respondents

- a. Below 18years { }
- b. 18-25yrs { }
- c. 26-35yrs { }
- d. 36-45yrs { }



e. 46-55yrs { }

f. 56+yrs { }

Q2. Sex of respondents

a. Female { }

b. Male { }

Q3. Educational Status

a. Formal education { }

b. Non formal education { }

c. Other (specify) { }

Q4. Level of Education

a. No Formal Education

b. Primary

c. JHS

d. SHS

e. Other (specify)

Q3. Marital Status

a. Married { }

b. Single { }

c. Divorced { }

d. Widowed{ }





Q6. Do you have children?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Q7. If Yes, how many? Please specify.....

Q10. Whom do you live with most of the time?

- a) Father and Mother
- b) Father only
- c) Mother only
- d) Alone
- e) Other relatives..... specify

Q11. Main economic activity in the north

- a. Farming
- b. Hunting
- c. Student
- d. Food stuff vending
- e. Petty trading
- f. Others (specify).....

Q12. Why did you migrate?

.....
.....
.....

Q15. What is the name of your village/town?

SECTION B: PARENTAL CHARACTERISTICS

Q16. Employment status of Father

- a) Employed
- b) Unemployed
- c) Retired
- d) Deceased

Q17. What is your father's profession?

- a) Farming
- b) Hunting
- c) Artisan
- d) Trader
- e) Clerk
- f) Professional eg. Teacher, Nurse.....
- g) Other ... specify

Q18. What is the educational attainment of your father?

- a) No education
- b) Primary



- c) Secondary
- d) Tertiary
- e) Other... specify

Q19. Employment status of mother

- e) Employed
- f) Unemployed
- g) Retired
- h) Deceased

Q20. What is your mother's profession?

- h) Farming
- i) Hunting
- j) Artisan
- k) Trader
- l) Clerk
- m) Professional eg. Teacher, Nurse.....
- n) Other ... specify

Q21. What is the educational attainment of your mother?

- f) No education
- g) Primary
- h) Secondary
- i) Tertiary
- j) Other... specify



SECTION: C: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE MOVEMENT

Q22. What major factors compelled you to move?

Select in order of priority

- a) Lack of Job Opportunities
- b) The quest to stay away from parents,
- c) Escape from early marriage
- d) Escape from force marriage
- e) To seek money to support food at home
- f) Peer pressure
- g) Security (conflict)
- h) Infrastructure
- i) Lack of family support
- j) To attend school
- k) Escape disturbances of witches

Q23. What factors attracted you to come to the south?

- a) Availability of social amenities and infrastructure
- b) Perceived Job opportunities
- c) Influences of Friends already in the south
- d) The quest for exposure
- e) Seeking freedom away from parents/guardians

Q24. Where do you sleep?

- a) In a single room
- b) In a kiosk



- c) On the streets
- d) Uncompleted building
- e) In the market

Q25. Where you sleep, how many are you?

Q26. How much do you pay for where you sleep?

Q27. How much money do you make in a day?

Q28. What economic activity are you engaged in?

- a) Porter
- b) Dish washer
- c) Shop attendant
- d) House help
- e) Trading
- f) Other (specify).....

Q29. How many people do you support financially?

Q30. What are the difficulties you face?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you.



Appendix 2: Focus Group Discussion Guide

Introduction:

These questions are designed to solicit your views and experiences on factors that influence North-South Migration in Ghana. This study is aimed at empowering returnee migrants in the Mamprugu Moagduri district. These questions are raised to generate primary data to support analysis of the study objectives. The aim of this study and for that matter the data will be used purely for academic purpose. The outcome of the study report will serve as a partial requirement for award of an academic certificate from the Faculty of Education, University for Development Studies. I therefore seek your support as a respondent to provide me with adequate and relevant information in this regard. Thank you.

Q1. What are the individual Characteristics of Migrants? (Probe: age, sex, education, economic activities engaged, etc.).

Q2. What are the Migrants' Parents Characteristics? (Probe: age, sex, education, economic activities engaged, etc.).

Q3. What are the location characteristics of migrants? (Probe: age, sex, education, economic activities engaged, etc.).

Q4. What are the challenges faced by the migrants? (*Probe*).

Q5. What are the effects of north-south migration on the economic activities of the migrants community? (*Probe*).

Thank you.

