

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

**EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF YOUTH EMIGRATION ON COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT: EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVES FROM THE WA EAST
DISTRICT OF THE UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA**

BY

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DECLARATION

Student

I hereby declare that this dissertation/thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere:

.....

Date

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

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ABSTRACT

Over the years various governments all over the world have made some efforts to invest in the youth. Governments have embarked on massive investment in the education and training of the youth with the view of making the youth functional in their respective communities. Ghana is making strives to enhance the potentials of its youth with the hope of retaining every youth in his or her community. However, the youth still migrate from the North to South of the country in anticipation for better socio-economic opportunities in the South. This phenomenon is common in the Wa East District. The main objective of the study was to examine how the relocation of the youth to other parts of the country affects community development efforts in the Wa East District. A survey was conducted on 395 respondents and some other key informant in the study area. The results were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that about 80% of the youth are potential migrants because the businesses they do are seasonal which require them to be travelling in and out of the district during the lean season and carrying out similar works in different environment. Majority of the youth further reiterated their stands on migrating from the district as a result of the absence of opportunities befitting their dreams and aspirations. In the Wa East District, economic conditions varying from access to decent job opportunity to improved incomes were ranked as the most push reason why most of the youth migrate from the district to other districts. The findings of the study showed that over 80% of the youth available in the district actively participate in the developmental activities in the district. The study recommends that gender-sensitive policies should be enhanced to assist those staying behind build their livelihoods and reduce vulnerability among them.



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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family and friends

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

AASU	All Africa Student Union
FGD	Focus Group Discussions
GLSS	Ghana Living Standard Survey
JHS	Junior High School
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
PHC	Population and Housing Census
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SEND	Social Enterprise Development
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
USA	United States of America
WHO	World Health Organisation



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to the United Nations, about half of young international migrants are women and girls, and 60% of these migrants live in developing countries (World Youth Report, 2013). Young migrants are a diverse group and as such often show different reasons for their migration. Their social economic, and educational background, how they migrate and their motivation for leaving all influence the scope, scale, and type of migration they experience the struggles and opportunities young migrants face often differ according to the type of migration such as regular versus irregular (United Nations Organization, 2013).

According to the International Labor Organization (2013), young migrants make up more than 10 percent of the overall 232 million international migrants and being the most mobile social group. Young people constitute the bulk of annual migration movements. While international migration represents an opportunity for the youth to provide a better life for themselves and their families pursue their educational aspirations, improve their professional skills and prospects, or satisfy a desire for personal challenges that come with living abroad, the migration of young people takes place in the context of high youth unemployment and the lack of decent work creation at home (World Migration Report, 2000). In Africa, the migration of young people to Europe increases as the days pass as thousands of migrants and refugees are making desperate journeys from North Africa to Europe Mediterranean's coast. In 2014, an estimated 170,000 migrants arrived in Italy by



sea, majority of them leaving Libya, most of who come from Syria the Horn of Africa (Eritrea, Somalia, and Ethiopia) and West Africa (AASU, 2015).

Over the years various governments all over the world have made some efforts to invest in the youth. Governments have embarked on massive investment in the education and training of the youth with the view of making the youth functional in their respective communities. Developed countries like the United Kingdom, China, Germany, the USA and the Middle East countries have made tremendous process in youth development (Arjan, 2000). With this process, most of these countries are able to retain their youth who are contributing significantly to the development of their country. The situation is different in most developing countries especially sub Saharan countries like Ghana, Liberia, Togo and Nigeria. The literacy rate in these countries is very low and most of their youth are uneducated. The unemployment rate is also sky rocketing in these counties and it is causing the youth to seek refuge in other parts of the world (Arjan, 2000; Carney, 1998; Brok and Coulibaly, 1999).

Like other countries, Ghana is making strives to enhance the potentials of its youth with the hope of retaining every youth in his or her community. However, the youth still migrate from the North to South of the country in anticipation for better socio-economic opportunities in the South. Most development practitioners often attribute this movement to the resource differentials between the North and South with which the economic vitality of the South serves as a pull factor rather than a poverty stricken north pushing the youth out of their communities. The Ghana living standard survey report (GLSS,



2014) revealed that majority of individuals do migrate for non-economic reasons, and this has not changed much over time. The survey further showed that about 18 percent and 23 percent of all migrants cited marriage and other family related reasons respectively as their reason for migrating, while 44 percent indicated that they had moved for work related reasons involving their own and their spouse's employment.

Ghana's population has a youthful structure with the youth constituting about one out of every four of the population. Over the past forty years, the number of the youth in the total population of Ghana has increased from 1.1 million in 1960 to 2.3 million in 1984, to 3.5 million in 2000 and to over 5 million in 2010. The data further show that the proportion of the unemployed among the youth is higher for females than for males over the past forty years. In addition, statistics from both the Fourth Round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS-4) and the 2000 Ghana Population and Housing Census further revealed that the youth unemployment is largely concentrated in the urban areas. As noted, the youth unemployment rate was as high as 30.8 percent in Accra, compared to 11.5 percent in the rural areas and 23.5 percent in other urban areas. However, most of these unemployed youth found in Accra and other urban areas are migrants from rural communities particular in the Northern parts of the country.



1.2 Problem Statement

In Ghana, there have been a myriad of interventions and programs aimed at promoting youth development in the past, but the constraint has been a lack of a policy framework as noted by various intellectuals (Carney, 1998). The rationale of most of the youth policies is to provide the opportunity for government to engage the youth and other stakeholders in a meaningful partnership to develop appropriate interventions and services for youth empowerment, vulnerability and patriotism and youth volunteerism among others (National Youth Authority, 2014). However, almost all the policies put out there turn to be mere window dressing for the youth since they do not serve their intended purposes. The youth in their own quest to have better living conditions often resolve to seek opportunities for themselves outside their communities.

Wa East District is one of the eleven districts blessed with natural resources. The soil fertility in the district has attracted migrant farmers and Fulani herdsmen from the nearby districts of Nadowli, Jirapa and Wa Municipal into the district as well as neighboring countries of Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali. This has helped to expand crop and livestock production. But, the destruction of farmlands by migrant Fulani herdsmen and environmental degradation which result from their activities often brings disputes with the locals.

There is also the movement of people especially the youth from the district to southern Ghana during the lean season in search of menial jobs. It is been realized that recent trend of the migration involves JHS and primary school pupils who during vacations move to



galamsey (local mining) areas in Tinga, Kuieetc as well as other towns and cities to engage in various activities ranging from kayaaye (porterage) to child prostitution. Most of them do not come back to continue their education hence low retention and high dropout rate in the district. The human capital and security of the district is threatened as farming and other economic activities also come to a halt as these mass migration take place year in and out. This has resulted in the drastic reduction in labor force for both infrastructural and agricultural activities.

In fact, it is not a bad idea for some of youth to seek better living conditions outside your birth place especially when the political, economic and social environment is not conducive. But the problem lies within the number of people particularly the working group, leaving the community to other place and their willingness to return back home after being successful. In some cases, those who even return come with diseases, weak and sick therefore unable to actively participate meaningfully in the development of the District. The need to empower and develop the youth is taking a center stage in the development agenda of many communities. Most youth particularly those in the urban areas have realized and accepted their responsibility of building their societies, hence revolved to stay in there. The youth in the Wa East District seem not to recognize the role they have to play in the development of the district. They keep migrating to the south and the district seems to be trailing back in terms of development. But the question that still left unanswered in literature is that; does the migration of the youth really have that much influence on the development of the Wa East District? With the use of some basic



research methods, this study intends to find empirical answers to this simple but fundamental question with regards to the development of the entire district.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 General research question

The main research question is; how does the migration of the youth affect community development efforts in the Wa East District?

1.3.2 Specific research question

1. What factors inform the youth to emigrate from the Wa East District to other parts of the country?
2. In which ways does youth emigration affect the lives of returning migrants of Wa East District?
3. How does youth emigration affect the development of local communities in the Wa East District?

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 Main objective

The main objective the study seeks to achieve is to examine how the relocation of the youth to other parts of the country affects community development efforts in the Wa East District.



1.4.2 Specific research objectives

The specific objectives of the study are;

1. To identify the influencing factors that causes the emigration of the youth to other parts of the country.
2. To examine the extent to which emigration impacts on the lives of return migrants in the Wa East District
3. To determine the impact of youth emigration on the development (i.e Security, infrastructure, economic and social) communities in the Wa East District.

1.5 Significance

It is widely recognized that complete development of any communities depends on its youth. This is an indication that been youth is not just belonging to a biological category, but also actively taking part in societal issues and inventions as many societies have moved from relying on the elderly for complete development to the society. Today, the youthful group has become a public institution objectified by the state to preserve law, encouraged to take up business opportunities and are nurtured and monitored by rational scientific expertise with the hope of preparing them for the task ahead of them (Alexander and Delaunay, 2012). But of late the youth particularly those in rural areas seem to be losing the sight of their responsibilities. Most of them are moving away from their areas of birth in search for better living conditions. The abandoned communities turn to be suffering the impact of the movement of the youth. In most case, lives are been threatened by outsiders due to the absence of the youth. Infrastructural development as well as social and economic activities comes to a standstill as the youth migrate from the



community to other places where life looks better. From the above, the study is intended to be significant in various ways.

Firstly, it will serve as a response to the calls by NGOs, international organizations and the general public with regards to the rate at which the youth are neglecting their communities. With this, the study would seek to respond to the theoretical and research gaps in youth migration in the Wa East District and Ghana as whole. This study in essence would provide a full data base of information on youth migration and its impact on the development of rural communities in the country.

Also, the outcomes of the study would serve as a basis for further research, policy formulations as well as inform future governments who would like to undertake policy reforms capable of retaining the youth in their areas of birth. The findings and recommendations would be useful in providing detailed information on pertinent issues in rural-urban migration and its consequences on community development to the government, international organizations, development practitioners as well as other stakeholders who are interested in youth policy issues and rural development.

Lastly, the study would seek to make a contribution to the body of knowledge on the theoretical and empirical perspectives on rural-urban migration and its relationship with rural-urban development which can inform policy makers on the way forward as far as equitable development is desired.



1.6 Scope of the study

The study was conducted in the Wa East district as the study area. The study aimed at examining how the movement of the youth from their communities to new destination hampers community development efforts in the Wa East District of the Upper West Region of Ghana. The district was chosen because, the rate at which the youth migrate to new destinations is relatively high.

The research also looked at factors that informed the decision of the youth in the Wa East district to move to new destinations either within the country or outside the country and as well assessed the role that education, youth policy fragment play in career opportunities of the youth and what influence the selection of destination for potential youth emigrants in the district.

1.7 Research Limitations

There is no research ever conducted without challenges or limitations and as such, the success of this research might be inhibited by certain factors which may include following;

1. The size of the population of the study area affected the information that was gathered. Not every single individual could be contacted due the large size of the population. The views collected from the few sampled ones was generalized to represent everybody within the study area even though some held different views.
2. Availability of existing literature on youth migration and community development hinder ed the success of this research. Preliminary investigations revealed that



much research related to the subject matter have not been conducted in the district, hence inadequate availability of data to the researcher to make comparisons between time periods.

3. Reliability and unwillingness of respondents to provide accurate responses.

Evidence shows that respondents have bad experiences with previous researchers and this have always influence their attitudes and behaviours towards subsequent research works, thus no exception to this study.

4. Other unforeseen physical and natural circumstances such as rainfall factors also hindered the speedy collection of data, thus delayed the early completion of this study.

These however, do not in any way suggest that the possibility, credibility, reliability and validity of the study and its finding cannot be guaranteed. All efforts were made to ensure that the study became a success and relevant to the general public, government and development practitioners and partners.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section presents a broad overview of studies on migration. The review cover four main areas namely; definitions and basic issues of migration, conceptual framework of the study, emergence of migration, overview of migration, types of migration, concept of rural-urban migration in Ghana, influencing factors causing youth emigration, the effects and impacts of migration on development. Apart from highlighting key results of the literature on migration, the discussion brings to the fore some limitations and knowledge gaps.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, the study is grounded on Stouffer's Theory of intervening opportunities. It is a theory of intervening opportunities which attempts to describe the likelihood of migration. Its hypothesis is that this likelihood is influenced most by the opportunities to settle at the destination, less by distance or population pressure at the starting point. Stouffer's law of intervening opportunities states, "The number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities." Stouffer theorizes that the amount of human migration over a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at the place of destination, and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities between the place of departure and the place of destination. These intervening opportunities may persuade a migrant to settle in a place in the route

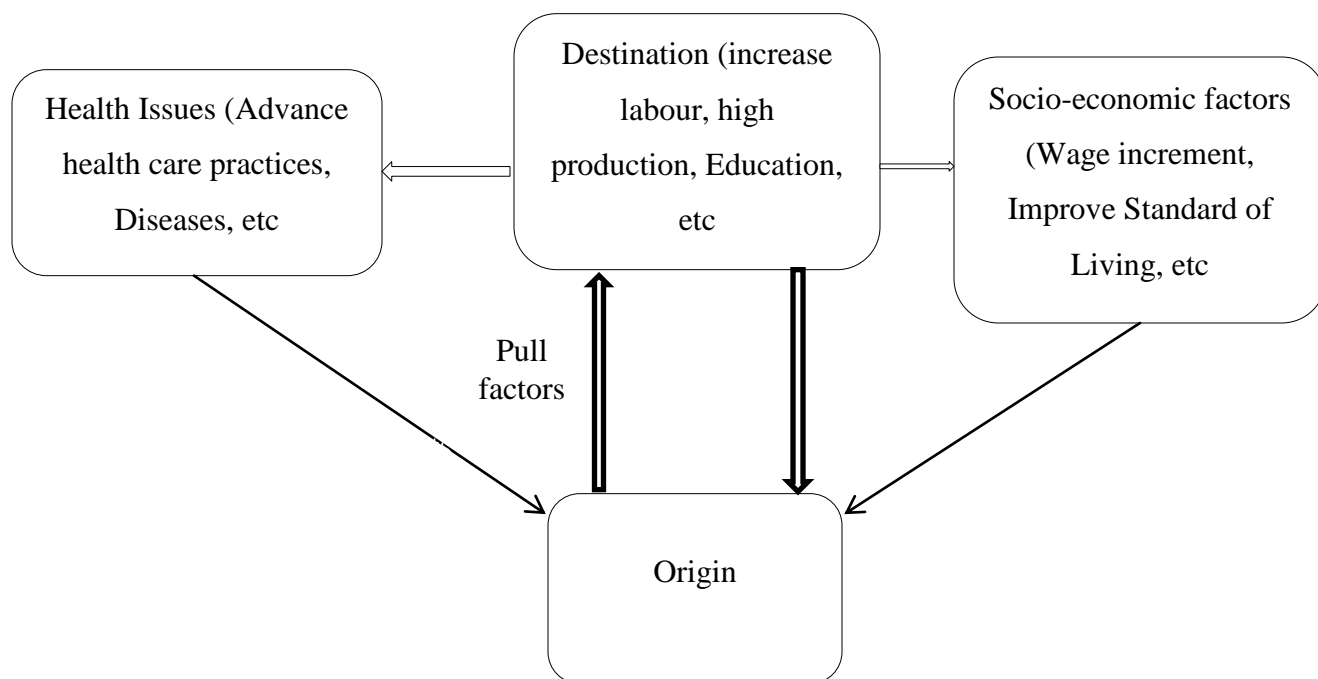


rather than proceeding to the originally planned destination. Stouffer argued that the volume of migration had less to do with distance and population totals than with the opportunities in each location (Stouffer, 1940).

Similarly, motivation for people to migrate is viewed as the relationship between two points (origin and destination) that is often affected by push factors and pull factors. Push factors exist at the point of origin and act to trigger emigration; these include the lack of economic opportunities, religious or political persecution, hazardous environmental conditions, and so on. Pull factors exist at the destination and include the availability of jobs, religious or political freedom, and the perception of a relatively benign environment. Pushes and pulls are complementary; migration can only occur if the reason to emigrate (the push) is remedied by the corresponding pull at an attainable destination. In the context of labor migration, push factors are often characterized by the lack of job opportunities in sending areas or countries, and pull factors are the economic opportunities presented in receiving areas or countries. Figure 2.1 shows the theoretical framework adapted from Lee (2007) theory.



Figure 2.1: Push and Pull Theory



Source: Adapted from Lee, 1966

From figure 2.1, labour is pushed away from their places of origin to a destination where they are exposed to several social, political, economic, cultural, educational, health and environmental factors that shape their lives. It shows possible migration between a place of origin and a place of destination, with positive and negative signs signifying pull and push factors, respectively. Flows take place between two places, but there are intervening obstacles to these spatial movements. Restrictive immigration laws, for example, can present a formidable barrier to prospective migrants. Both the origin and destination have pushes and pulls, reflecting the reality that any migrant must consider both the positives of staying and the negatives of moving, as well as their converses. The logic of the push-



pull theory is that if the plusses (pulls) at the destination outweigh the plusses of staying at the origin, then migration is likely to occur.

2.3 Concept of Migration

Migration has been described by various scholars differently as they tried to suit their field of studies. Migration comprises population movements across international borders (out-migration) and within country (in-migration) which broadly includes migrant workers, international displaced people, asylum seekers, refugees, illegal migrants and victims of human trafficking (WHO, 2007), whereas Millington (1994) view it as the movement of people driven by labor market consideration which entails both a change in residence and changes of jobs. Migration could further be viewed as the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence, usually across a political boundary.

According to Chisholm, (1911), “migration is the movement by people from one place to another with the intention of settling temporarily or permanently in the new location”.

The movement is usually over long distances and from one country to another, but internal migration is also possible. As noted by many scholars, migration may be individuals, family units or in large groups. Stouffer (1940, P.846) indicated that, “the amount of migration over a distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at the place of destination, and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities between the place of departure and the place of destination”.





Stouffer refers to this as the law of ‘intervening opportunities’ which is most likely to motivate a migrant to settle in a place on his way rather than continuing to the initially intended destination. Parnwell, (2002) examined the complexity of the interrelationship between migration and development and noted that the volume of migration has less to do with distance and population total than with opportunities in each location.

Some theories differ slightly in their perspectives. Relative deprivation theory is of the view that responsiveness of the income difference between one’s neighbors or other households in the migrant-sending community is an essential factor that influences migration. The incentive to migrate is a lot higher in areas that have a higher level of economic inequality. In the short run, remittance may increase inequality, but in the long run, they may actually decrease it as noted. Every migrant passes through two stages of the migration process. Firstly the migrant has to invest in the human capital formation and secondly try to capitalize on their investments in order to make living conditions better in the near future. With this, successful migrants try to use their new capital to provide for 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 (Schaefer, 2008).

The social, economic, fiscal and political implications of evolving demographic changes – with developed countries facing ageing populations and declining workforces while many less-developed countries experience ‘youth bulges’ – make migration a major development challenge and opportunity. As such, it needs to be an explicit and important component of the post-2015 UN Development Agenda. The October 2013 GMG position



paper on Integrating Migration in the Post- 2015 UN Development Agenda highlighted inter-agency consensus that the human rights (including labour rights) and well-being of migrants should be addressed through appropriately disaggregated indicators. There is also agreement that an essential foundation for addressing migration and development is a human rights-based normative framework that guarantees rights as well as equal access and opportunity, and involves shared responsibilities between countries of origin, transit and destination. Incorporating youth migration implies goals, targets and disaggregated indicators defined in consultation with young migrants in cases where migration is relevant to the achievement of specific development goals (Jeromino et al., 2014).

2.3.1 Migration as a Social Process

To many scholars, an aspect of migration with undesirable effects often quoted is that it destroys social bonds, unravel the social fabric. In southern Africa, where the links between migration and apartheid, and uneven capitalist development have been central issues in debates, this theme has been particularly strong (Arjan, 2000). Since Wilson's work on northern Rhodesia in the early 1940s, many studies exposed the way in which oscillating migration unraveled the social fabric and undermined traditional leadership structures. Schapera's research on the Tswana concluded that migration undermined social cohesion. This view of declining social structures is consistent with conceptualizations of migration that focus entirely on its economic motivation.

Many studies now emphasizes that migration need not be associated with such a decline of social structures and values. In 1942, Read already stressed that migration did not bring the negative effects that were expected in Malawi. Watson argued that participation

in the Zambian colonial economy actually strengthened social cohesion and that co-operative labour relations were able to survive in the absence of men. Van Velsen showed that absent male workers played an important role in sustaining traditional practices in the rural areas because it was in their interest to counteract the instability of a temporary urban existence, through continued ownership of land and maintenance of social networks (Arjan, 2000).

Migration, apart from contributing to livelihoods, also is part of social networks, and is usually consistent with communities' values and norms. This section describes, first, how migration is determined by social structures, with a focus on household forms and gendered ideologies that are among the most important factors determining the dynamics of migration. Second, it describes the contribution migrants make to changing social structures, by creating new identities, but also by reinforcing old ones (Arjan, 2000).

2.4 Historical Development of Migration

Migration is one of the historical forces that have shaped the world. It has always been a part of human behavior (Sales, 2007; Cwerner, 2001; Lee, 1966). Migration historians agree that a crucial turning point in the history of migration occurred about 500 years ago with the voyages undertaken by European explorers that led initially to the discovery of “new worlds” such as the Americas and Asia, and then on to the development of colonial endeavors (Bell, 1986; Cadwell, 1968; Walton and Carns, 1973).





There is wide agreement among historians and anthropologists that major climatic shifts would have provided the impetus for large-scale migratory flows. While it is exactly not known how the prehistoric populations moved over the earth's surface, in Europe, for instance there would have been movement southward to escape the spread of ice sheets during periods of glaciation, and reverse migration northwards after the glaciers melted (Kline, 2003; UNDP, 2009). Evidence of early mass migration has been found virtually all over the world. It is believed for instance that both North and South America received migrants from Asia, in several successive waves via a land bridge across what is now the Bering Strait (Twumasi-Ankra, 1979; Hance, 1970; Brown and Feindt, 1969). Early myths and legends in many parts of the world often refer not only to ancestors who came from afar, but also to the push factors (eg natural disasters) that led them to leave their places of origin or the pull factors (e.g. the lure of adventure) that beckoned them on. In any case, reference is often made to the knowledge they came with or the skills they brought to their new locations (Ritchey, 1976).

The most important factors influencing transoceanic migration were mercantile and strategic. All major European economic and political powers competed for access to supplies of much sought after commodities and control of strategic locations. Large numbers of men and women went to the Americas, then Asia, and Africa as migrants/settlers. Some of these people had already moved from one country to another within Europe (Cwener, 2001; Cohen, 2008). Convicts, soldiers, farmers, traders, artisans, administrators, and priest migrated and served ever growing trading, mining and agricultural enterprises (Rubin and Weinstein, 1977).

As production needs increased in the new colonies, labour shortages were met through the development of an entirely new kind of international migrations: the slave trade. Some researchers consider modern labour migration to have started at that point. The first slave ships sailed from Africa to the West Indies in the mid-sixteenth century, and over the next two centuries, some 15 million slaves were transported to the Americas, with others going to the Caribbean and the Indian Ocean (Bell, 1986). During that period, slave labour was crucial to the cultivation of agricultural products such as cotton, tobacco and sugar as well as to the mining of precious metals (Abdul-Korah, 2008; Lee, 1966; Schmidt, 1994). The slave trade was organized along a triangular pattern. Chartered ships would carry manufactured goods, especially guns to “factories” or fortified trading places along the coast, where they would be exchanged for slaves abducted by local traders (Dovlo and Martineau, 2004; Castles and Miller, 2003). The slaves would then be taken and sold to colonial settlements in North or South America, not infrequently with loss of life on the way. The cash from the sales of slaves were then used to purchase agricultural products for the trip back home (Hance, 1970 and Rubin and Weinstein, 1977).



After the abolition of the slave trade in the mid-nineteenth century, another system of labor of migration emerged which was widely referred to as contractual/contracted labor. In theory, indentured laborers were workers who had accepted a contract to work for a specific period of time overseas (Lee, 1966). In practice, their condition was not far removed from that of a slave, and sometimes may have been worse. Wages were meagre, work discipline harshly enforced and general living standards very poor (Cadwell, 1986).



The emergence of new industrial technologies, the mechanization of means of production and the consolidation of industrial activity all contributed to the displacement of large numbers of people. The practice of indenture was gradually discontinued from the end of the nineteenth century but the wealth accumulated in Western Europe through colonial exploitation was to provide the foundation for an industrial revolution that would, in turn, create the impetus for a period of renewed and intense migratory activity (Cohen, 2008). Instant fortunes were rarely achieved, but a wide range of opportunities for economic improvement was available on farms and cattle ranches, on road and railway construction sites, or in fast-growing industrial complexes. Agricultural workers and tradespersons found in migration, if not a solution to their predicaments, then at least a hope for one (Kline, 2003; Bell, 1986).

Economic stagnation and general climatic uncertainty and insecurity between the periods of the two World Wars were the periods of reduced international migrations. In the depression of the 1930s, migrant workers were seen as competitors for scarce jobs and levels of hostility toward them rose. Governments of destination countries responded by introducing legislation authorizing tighter control of entry procedures, restricting employment possibilities for foreigners, and introducing strict penalties against the employment of irregular migrants (Twumasi-Ankra, 1979).

The Second World War is often identified as another important watershed in migration history. The devastation created in Europe by the war contributed directly or indirectly to the displacement within the continent of between 1 and 2 million persons (UNDP, 2009; Sales, 2007). Many of these people were refugees who had been victims of persecution or

had to flee persecution. Some found a new place of residence in Europe. Immediately after the Second World War, the British Government offered work permits to 90,000 workers from refugee camps in various locations. Others moved to Belgium, France and the Netherlands (Castles and Miller, 2003; Cadwell, 1986).

The main lasting impact that migration has had on all countries of destination everywhere has been social change, as previously homogeneous societies have undergone change and have evolved into complex multicultural societies. In certain countries, this has been seen as appropriate and even desirable, while in others it is the subject of much debate (Walton and Carns, 1973). A very large proportion of people displaced by World War II took advantage of the migration programmes established by the United States, Canada, Australia and Argentina (Cwerner, 2001; Lee, 1966). These countries saw migration as an appropriate way to enlarge their population bases and to generally increase their workforce capabilities at a time when these countries wished to take full advantage of the post war proponents to launch major infrastructure development projects such as dams, irrigation systems and hydroelectric plants.

A migration industry was then developed to support aspects of the migration process to these countries including promotion, recruitment and selection, administration of heavily subsidized travel schemes, and transport logistics. Some large reception centers were also built and training centers and programmes were also established to facilitate initial settlement and adaptation to new life and work surroundings (Dovlo and Martineau, 2004; King *et al.*, 1984).





For at least two decades after the end of the war, these lack of large-scale immigrations programmes relied almost exclusively on the willingness of Europeans to detach from themselves from their war affected surroundings and start new lives abroad. Legislation and programme criteria were specifically formulated to enable migration from Europe and to restrict migration from other parts of the world (UNDP, 2009). By the mid-1960s, the numbers of applicants for immigration began to fall and selection criteria were gradually adjusted to allow applications to be received from none European Countries. By the mid-1970s, migration programme objectives had been adjusted to focus less on the ethnic origin of the applicants and more on their qualifications, skills and work experience (Schmidt, 1994; Twumasi-Ankra, 1979). Both the demographic makeup and the social composition of the receiving societies were substantially transformed. It is also certain that lifestyles and values underwent significant change. On the economic side, positions are more nuanced, but the weight of opinion inclines towards the view that countries of destination benefited from economic growth and that countries of origin were helped as much by the migration of surplus labour as by the remittances they sent back. There has been much subsequent debate about the net impact of these migratory flows on the economic and social fabric of the countries concerned (Castles and Miller, 2003; Cwerner, 2001).

The highly industrialized countries of Western Europe turned to temporary labour to a lesser or greater extent between 1945 and 1973. European economies, after a sluggish start found their way back to solid economic growth. The first consequence of that was a slowing down of the flow of emigrants out of Europe and toward the traditional countries



of destination, and encouragement of active relocation within the European region of workers seeking to take advantage of rapid job creation in countries such as Germany, France, Belgium and Switzerland. Some workers were recruited under the terms of formal bilateral agreements; many others moved spontaneously (Castles and Miller, 2003; Cadwell, 1968 and Lee, 1966). These workers were subject to fairly strict entry, residential and employment conditions. Lengths of stay, job changing and family reunion were closely regulated although concessions were introduced in time. The prevailing policy objective was to meet the needs of labour markets, especially in the unskilled or semi-skilled sectors and it was considered that this was best achieved by labour contracted to work for a defined period, followed by return home. Permanent migration was not considered desirable or even necessary (King *et al.*, 1984).

Refugees are not migrants in the usual sense because they move through compulsion, not on the basis of meaningful choice and their immediate objective is to seek protection and not a migration outcome (Cohen, 2008). Refugees may also move within a broader mixed flow that includes both forced and voluntary movements. There are very few viable legal channels for regular migration and persons who are not refugees are seeking to enter countries of their choice through the asylum channel because it is often the only entrance possibility effectively opened to them (Schmidt, 1994; Hance, 1970).

Migration issues, which were traditionally dealt with by States on a national or bilateral basis up to the end of the First World War, increasingly required a multilateral approach as the twentieth century advanced. During the 1920s and the 1930s, the League of Nations became a forum of choice for the discussion, design and implementation of

actions to find durable solutions for those left displaced at the end of the First World War (King, 2000; Bell, 1986).

The concept of migration unfolds in time and space (Malmberg 1997) and is therefore defined against thresholds of distance and ‘time in migration’ (Cwerner 2001). For international migration, a nation-state border obviously has to be crossed, although this is not so straightforward as may appear at first sight, since such borders can come and go and can be of varying ‘thickness’ and therefore be ‘open’ or ‘closed’ borders to migration. Time-wise, the threshold for the statistical recording of migration (as opposed to other forms of mobility like tourism) is usually set at one year in the host country, but beyond this lie enormous variations: from migrants on one-year contracts to those staying for, say, five or ten years, to permanent settlers. Temporary migration leads sooner or later to return migration, whilst permanent migrants may make return visits to their home country from time to time. Note that the one-year threshold leaves out seasonal migrants, who are vital to certain economic sectors such as agriculture, tourism and construction.

Cohen (1996) and King (2012) offer further typologies of migration, mainly based on what they variously call migration binaries, dichotomies or dyads. They also stress that these dualities need to be blurred and deconstructed. Several have been referred to already: internal vs. international, temporary vs. permanent, and regular vs. irregular migration. Another important, yet problematic, divide is that between voluntary and forced migration, for instance ‘economic’ migrants vs. refugees. All these categorizations are useful up to a point, but can break down in practice. Many migrants move both



internally and internationally, one type of move followed by the other. Temporary migration can morph into permanent settlement, as migrants who intended to stay for a limited period of time continually postpone their return until it never happens (Castles *et al*, 1984).

Irregular migrants can become legalized through special schemes for regularization, such as those periodically implemented by the southern European countries whereas regular migrants can lapse into irregularity after their permits expire or because of the bureaucratic obstacles and delays they face in renewing them (Fakiolas, 2003). Finally the forced/voluntary divide is seen often to be too simplistic in practice. Sales (2007) critically notes that the theoretical distinction between refugee migration and ‘voluntary’ economic migration neglects the fact that conflicts can produce economic devastation which forces people to leave who do not satisfy the 1951 UN Convention on Refugees which stipulates a well-founded fear of persecution due to race, religion or political beliefs.

2.4.1 Migration in Ghana

The ‘middleman’ position that Northern Ghana occupied in the control of trade between Ashanti and Western Sudan was nullified with the redirection of primary products from Ashanti towards the coast for export. In addition, the colonial government in 1908 deliberately abolished caravan tolls on cattle and kola nuts, which was the only source of revenue left for Northern Ghana. Compounding the efforts at economic development in Northern Ghana was also the conscious ‘attempts made by the British administration to



lure young men to the south to work in the mines' (Dickson, 1968, p. 689-690). In view of these economic machinations in Northern Ghana, Plange (1979b, p.659) pointed out that 'relatively self-sufficient peasants and traders were rapidly transformed into unskilled wage labourers in the mines, in public works, and in various expatriate enterprises in the eastern, central, and southern regions of the country'.

Many people, mostly males, from Northern Ghana (Northern Territories) and the then French Territories were conscripted into the Royal West African Frontier Force (RWAFF), while the various colonial governments consciously developed the North as a labour reserve to serve the cocoa plantations and mines in the forest belt of Southern Ghana (Plange, 1979a; Killingray, 1982; Songsore, 2011). Following the closure of the mines in Southern Africa as a result of the Boer War, for example, the mining industry in the then Gold Coast witnessed a substantial increase in production and the number of workers (Lentz and Erlmann, 1989). Lentz and Erlmann contend that, much of the labour, 'particularly underground labour, was drawn from migrants from the French Territories to the north of Ghana and the Northern Territories that had been 'pacified' and thus opened up as a labour reservoir since 1906' (1989, p. 74).

The issue of north-south youth migration is particularly important to Ghana because of the long tradition of population mobility and high rates of rural-urban migration and in recent times child migration that has characterized migration patterns in the country (Hashim, 2005; Adaawen, 2009). In the face of poverty, lag in development and declining agricultural productivity, many families in Northern Ghana see migration as an





investment to recoup some income in the form of remittances (Van der Geest, 2011; Kwankye, 2012). The movement of youth, particularly children below 18 years of age, from rural Northern Ghana to the South (mostly Kumasi and Accra) in recent times has received attention (Kwankye and Tagoe, 2009). This is in view of concerns being raised about high rates of unemployment and marginalization among the youth and the implications for the socio-economic wellbeing of families and society at large (Gough et al., 2013). With increasing levels of educational attainment, many of the youth have abandoned agriculture and flocked to urban centres in search of lucrative ‘white collar’ jobs that are often difficult to get (White, 2012; Darkwah, 2013).

Also, the remittances that migrants send home form an essential component of migration and a source of income to many households in Northern Ghana, especially, during periods of economic shocks (Pickbourn, 2011; Kwankye, 2012). Generally, poverty levels over time seem to have declined nationally. However, the income disparity between the poor and the rich is still vast in Ghana. The three northern regions (Upper East, Upper West and Northern Regions) continue to experience high poverty rates (GSS, 2007; 2008; Obeng-Odoom, 2012). Scholarship has however, highlighted the significance of remittances in the socio-economic wellbeing of households in Northern Ghana (Mazzucato et al., 2008; Abdul-Korah, 2011; Pickbourn, 2011; Van der Geest, 2011; Kwankye, 2012). While these studies and several others have emphasised importance of outmigration and remittances in Northern Ghana, research into the dynamics: income levels of migrants, their mode of savings, how often they send money and the mode of sending the money home remains patchy. Furthermore, due to the scanty or unavailable

official data for estimating remittances from rural-urban migrants, sufficient studies of the amount and flow of remittances and utilization is lacking. It is therefore important to examine what encompasses 'migrant remittances'. Remittances from migrants have been seen to be crucial to the growth prospects of developing nations with potentially positive impacts (Ratha, 2007).

According to Addison (2004, p. 5), remittances are generally defined as 'that portion of migrants' earnings sent from the migration destination to the place of origin'. Although 'remittances' can also be in kind, it is often limited to monetary and other cash transfers from migrant workers to their families and communities back home. Also the reverse flow of resources can also occur from relations in source areas to migrants in destination areas to support them particularly in times of distress in their early days of settlement. Primavera (2005), distinguishes between three types of remittances: financial, food or goods and social remittances. According to her, financial remittances refer to the money earned by migrants in the region of destination, which they bring or send to the family or friends in the place of origin. This type of remittance she explains, could be directly spent on food and can also be saved or invested in real property. For remittances in the form of food or goods, it could come in the form of foodstuffs especially for consumption or such items that can be sold or used by relations at the place of origin. Social remittances have however, been described by Levitt (1998), as the ideas, behaviours, identities and social capital that flow from receiving to sending country communities and vice versa.





Migration is radically changing the socio-economic, demographic and development profile of developing countries, with far-reaching implications for agriculture-based economies. According to United Nations estimates, 50% of the projected increase in the world's urban population will come from rural-to-urban migration so that by 2025, over 1.1 billion urban people in less developed regions will be rural migrants (Guerny, 1995).

Traditionally, Ghana has been a net migration country with migrants mainly from Togo, Burkina Faso, Nigeria and Cote D'Ivoire. This trend continued until the late 1970s when economic and political instability led to reversal of migration trends in Ghana. The introduction of Economic Recovery Program in 1983 led to improvements in living conditions but this coincided with the repatriation of illegal Ghanaian immigrants from Nigeria and Cote D'Ivoire.

Although migration is very common in Ghana, it has attracted a modest number of economic analytical studies. This dearth of economic migration studies is apparently due to the fact, that over the years, there has been a general lack of detailed migration data. Some notable attempts have, nevertheless, been made to capture the main patterns and rationale for migration in Ghana. Whilst most of these studies are descriptive, they often present cross-tabulated survey statistics and other information that offer valuable insights into the reasons, extent and patterns of migration (Tutu, 1995; and Gbortsu, 1995). Thus, for instance, according to the literature, the reasons for migrating either within or outside Ghana include job search, schooling, marriage, and other family-related considerations (Tutu, 1995; and GSS, 2000).

2.5 Factors Influencing Youth Emigration

A review of the literature has shown that youth migration takes place for economic (Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009), educational, social and political reasons (Abdul-Korah, 2008) which are all identified in the push-pull factors of migration. The decision to migrate could be personal as well as based on a household need. People simply vacate their posts, resign or take leave without notice (Awases et al., 2004). Reasons vary from country to country but there are common causes that studies on migration have shown to be consistent with all forms of migration that contribute to emigration and immigration.

Migration is primarily a household-based strategy; this is especially the case for youth, who often depend on family support to cover the costs associated with migration. Moreover, the migration decision process is related to the larger family system and the family may exert authority and oversight over young migrants through explicitly stated expectations, periodical personal visits or monitoring via extended social networks (WB, 2006a; Konseiga, 2005; Akhter and Bauer, 2014).

The main household-level determinants of the decision to migrate can be summarized as follows:

Household head's age, gender and educational level:

The head of a household (HH) with at least one migrant is usually older and more educated than the head of a household without migrants (Akhter and Bauer, 2014; Ferrone and Giannelli, 2015; Herrera and Sahn, 2013). The older the head, the more s/he is able to diversify income and allocate farming and family responsibilities across the





household's members (both within the household farmland and outside). Similarly, the more educated the head, the more s/he is able to gather and process the information required to migrate. In Nigeria, households with heads aged 21–40 years were found to be more prone to migrate (Osawe, 2013). In Ghana, the probability of sending a migrant increases by about 8 percent for each additional year of schooling of the household head (Ratha et al, 2011b). On the other hand, female-headed households have lower earning capabilities than male-headed households, and for this reason may be more driven to become migrant households (Ackah and Medvedev, 2010). Evidence of this has been found in Ethiopia (Gray and Mueller, 2012) and in Senegal (Kusumawardhani, 2012).

Larger households are more likely to resort to migration. As the size of the family increases, its per capita income decreases, and family members may migrate to seek work elsewhere. According to Thorat et al.(2011), an increase of one unit in family size produces an increase of 8.7 percent in the probability of migrating. Moreover, a study conducted in Kenya revealed that large households with numerous dependents are more likely to consider migration as a livelihood strategy (Agesa and Kim, 2001). Similarly, the surveys conducted in Ghana, Burkina Faso, Senegal and Nigeria under the African Migration Project found that the larger the household, the greater the probability that a household member emigrates (Ratha et al., 2011b).

The share of active members and dependents (0–14 years and the elderly) influences the income-generating capacity of a household, and hence its propensity to migrate. Taylor (2001) provides evidence that when the number of children in a family is high, families

tend to encourage younger members to migrate, as they have higher earning potential and they are more likely to remit money. Youth with younger siblings are more likely to migrate, as there is someone to substitute them in their labour force work (men) or household responsibilities (women) (Herrera and Sahn, 2013).

Family and community networks play a key role in determining migration, especially in terms of lowering migration costs (Dolfin and Genicot, 2010). They can provide information about opportunities in potential destinations and arrange jobs for migrants prior to their arrival. Moreover, migrants often rely on networks once they reach their destination, especially for food, shelter and advice about customs and language (de Brauw and Carletto, 2012). Data from rural Mexico show that migration rates are higher among households that are part of family networks (Angelucci et al., 2009). Family-related motives may also determine the migration decision. For example, evidence from Ethiopia shows that for rural youth aged 15–24, living with family is the main reason for migrating to rural areas and the second main reason for migrating to urban areas, with no significant gender differences (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2013).

Migration is largely the result of the interplay of political, social, economic, legal, historical, cultural and educational forces at both ends of the migratory axis (Mejia *et al.*, 1979). These forces can be classified as either “push or “pull” factors. Push factors are viewed as influences that arise from within the source community and facilitate a potential migrant’s decision to leave and the pull factors reflect actions and omission of recipient countries that create the demand for, or encourage potential migrants to leave





home (Dovlo and Martineau, 2004). Both forces must be operating for migration to occur, and in addition, facilitating forces must be present as well, such as the absence of legal or other constraints that impede migration (Kline, 2003). There are multiple reasons for migration and even though there are unique individual differences in reasons for different countries, there are universal similarities in reasons for migration. Whereas Hall (2005) argued that problems of access to research and weak institutional support structures are key factors besides higher income motivate researchers and scientists to move abroad, Kangasniemi et al. (2007) showed that advancing career and financial advantages are the most important incentives as opposed to lack of facilities at home country.

The Neoclassical Theory identified the “push” factors to cover a broad range of issues including income, poor working conditions, unclear career paths and opportunities for further education. It is reported in many studies that large numbers of African-trained physicians leave home upon completion of their medical school training in search of careers in higher income countries or to further their education in various specialties in the medical profession (Hagopian, et al., 2004). Supervision is infrequent and when it does take place, is often not constructive (Roenen et al., 1997; McCallum and Tyler 2001; Pang, 2002; Dovlo and Martineau, 2004; Stilwell et al., 2004; McDaid et al., 2008).

The “pull” factors are primarily the better opportunities and conditions that migrants can be obtained in other countries. Such factors include higher pay, opportunities for



remittances, better working and living conditions, career and educational opportunities, better-resourced health systems, good governance, job recognition among others. In addition to these, there were peculiar factors that confronted the migrants from Ghana in particular and most of the Sub-Saharan African countries in general. The economic crisis of the 1980s and 1990s necessitated the adoption of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund conditions of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) requiring cuts in subsidies, freeze on recruitments and mandatory retrenchment in the public sector including health served as a great impetus to pushing professionals abroad (Corker, 2000; Dovlo, 1999). . The negative impact of SAP with its associated measures opened the doors to further migration as identified by Mato (2003). Ngoma and Ismail (2013) found that as the income gap between developed and developing countries narrows, the incentive to migrate reduces, skilled migration falls and return migration is encouraged.

As compared to other demographic phenomena, rural-urban migration is a concept which is hard to ignore. These phenomena are increasing its importance in comparison with births and deaths in Ghana. Moreover, its importance in the political debate is becoming of the same magnitude as other problems such as fertility decline and demographic ageing (Bretz, 1999). The concept of migration involves both space and time. To be precise, space is concerned twice; once in the place of departure and a second time in that of arrival. The same is also true for time when the duration of the stay is defined in each of the places of origin and destination. Generally, among all human movements,

migration is mostly viewed as one or more movements resulting in the change of place of abode on an individual or groups of people (Poulain and Perrin, 2001).

The usual place of residence of the individual or groups of people is usually said to be the place, or more precisely the dwelling, where he or she is accustomed to live. In a more subjective perspective, it is referred to as the home (Adams, 2005). In addition, the dwelling is usually viewed as being the meeting place of the household to which the individual or groups of people belong to, whilst the household is made up of all persons whether or not linked by family ties living together in the same dwelling (Addison, 2005; Adams, 2005). The space criterion does not raise difficulties since it is clear that the places of departure and destination belong to two separate countries and that consequently, the movement which forms the basis of the change of usual place of residence is made at least once across a national border (Aminuzzaman, 2005). Migration consequently appears as a change of usual country of residence (Billah, 2011; Asis, 2000).

For some reasons, some migrants do not declare their new places of residence in the country of destination, therefore, there is no record of a change of country of administrative residence and the individual or groups of people are often not included in the *de jure* population of the country of destination. In other words, there is no account of the related migration. At the opposite side, if an individual or groups of people leaves the country without declaring, he or they will still be considered as living in the country and



will remain a member of the *de jure* population of the departing country of residence (Asis, 2006).

The time criterion, on the other hand poses more problems for the definition of migration; internal or international. It is closely connected with the definition of the usual place of residence of the individual or groups of people. Two main elements intervene in the identification of this usual place of residence: the duration of stay and the reason for occupying the dwelling under consideration (Billah, 2011). In parallel with the modal case where an individual occupies only one dwelling in a “permanent” manner, certain persons successively, and periodically occupy, two or more separate houses that may be located in different countries (Black et al., 2006). In this instance, the selection criteria to identify the usual place of residence and subsequently the usual country of residence are generally connected with either the duration of occupation of each dwelling or the reason for it (Black et al., 2006; Bretz, 1999). In addition, certain dwellings occupied occasionally, on business trips or tourism cannot be regarded as normal dwellings and their occupation does not involve migration (De Brauw and Harigaya, 2007; Landau and Segatti, 2009).

It is evident that a strict time criterion regarding the minimum period of occupation of a dwelling is necessary in order to make a distinction between temporary and permanent dwellings, according to whether it is occupied for more or less than the selected time threshold. In relation to this distinction, only a change of the usual place of residence with duration of stay is larger than the threshold considered as a migration (Freemantle, 2011).





As regards to migration, it is not the occupation of a dwelling, which matters, but the duration of stay in or away from the country concerned. Somebody will be considered as an emigrant for a specific country if he or she leaves the country and transfers his or her usual place of residence outside the country for more than a minimal duration of time (Martin, 2011). In parallel somebody will be considered as an immigrant of a specific country if he or she enters the country to settle as his or her usual place of residence for more than the same minimal time duration (Zachariah and InidayaRajan, 2009; Black et al., 2006). In both cases, the transfer of usual place of residence will not be for specific reasons like tourism, health, and business... and therefore no migration will be counted in these cases, within the criteria defining migrant's reasons for migration as important. In the case of some sub-populations, the right of entry and duration of permit should also be taken into account. The difference between the validity and duration of the permit, the time that the migrant intends to stay and the actual duration of the stay should be emphasized. Ex post measurements of the actual duration of stay may be very useful in order to give an exact account of migrations but they will never been considered to revise migration statistics that have to be published as early as possible by National Statistical Institutions.

2.6 Youth Emigration and lives of return Migrants

Remittances from migrants have been seen to be crucial to the growth prospects of developing nations with potentially positive impacts (Ratha, 2007). According to Addison (2004, p. 5), remittances are generally defined as 'that portion of migrants'



earnings sent from the migration destination to the place of origin'. Although 'remittances' can also be in kind, it is often limited to monetary and other cash transfers from migrant workers to their families and communities back home. Also the reverse flow of resources can also occur from relations in source areas to migrants in destination areas to support them particularly in times of distress in their early days of settlement. Primavera (2005), distinguishes between three types of remittances: financial, food or goods and social remittances. According to her, financial remittances refer to the money earned by migrants in the region of destination, which they bring or send to the family or friends in the place of origin. This type of remittance she explains, could be directly spent on food and can also be saved or invested in real property. For remittances in the form of food or goods, it could come in the form of foodstuffs especially for consumption or such items that can be sold or used by relations at the place of origin. Social remittances have however, been described by Levitt (1998), as the ideas, behaviours, identities and social capital that flow from receiving to sending country communities and vice versa. Although north-south migrants in Ghana send cash and non-cash remittances, the paper focuses on only cash or monetary remittances.

Generally, the motives underlying remittance are several. While the resolve on the part of migrants to send remittances may be influenced by their personal motives, it can to some extent be related to the responsibility or commitment they may have towards relations back home. It can also be dependent on the conditions prevailing either at the migrant's place of destination or origin. It will thus be insightful to delve into the varying motives why migrants may send remittances. Several studies have sought to explain the motives behind migrants' decisions to send resources (be it cash or goods) to their relations back



home. These have been categorised into four. They include the altruistic motive, self-interest motive, and implicit family contract, which entail loan repayment, and co-insurance. The altruistic motive considers remittance as emanating from the affection and responsibility towards the wellbeing of the family (Solimano, 2003, p. 6). This model contends that there is always some kind of satisfaction derived as a result of remittances sent which is borne out of the concern the migrant has for the welfare of his/her family. For the self-interest motive as observed by Solimano, the sending of remittances to the place of origin is normally motivated by economic and financial self-interest.

The crux of the argument underpinning this motive is that, at every point in time the successful migrant at the place of destination often makes savings. Migrants may on the one hand decide, depending on their commitments or demands from relations at home, whether to accumulate wealth by making savings at the place of destination. On the other hand, the migrant can also decide to remit or accumulate wealth by making investments at home. In instances where the migrant decides to make investments at home by purchasing property, land and engaging in other ventures, the family normally act as a trusted agent overseeing these investments in the absence of the migrant. Implicit family contract or loan repayment and co-insurance motive for remitting is based on the reasoning that there is always some kind of implicit contract that ensues between families and those who choose to migrate. The contract normally has elements of investment and repayment. In the loan repayment aspect as observed by (Addison, 2004), the family invests in the education of the migrant and usually finances the costs of migrating. This is the loan (investment) element of this motive. The repayment part comes after the migrant

settles at the place of destination and his income profile starts rising over time and is in a condition to start repaying the loan back to the family in the form of remittances.

The co-insurance aspect of the implicit family contract, on the other hand, sees remittances as an implicit family contract based on the notion that it is a source of risk diversification. Thus, in times of difficulty at home the migrant, according to this theory, can help his/her family. Also, the migrant having a family in the place of origin is a form of insurance as bad times can also occur at the place of destination. In this theory, as argued by Solimano (2003), migration becomes a co-insurance strategy with remittances playing the role of an insurance claim. Normally, these implicit family contracts are enforced by considerations of family trust and altruism, a feature often absent in legally sanctioned contracts. Remittances thus take different forms and can come from either way from the migrant or place of destination. It is pertinent to note that the people who undertake the north-south migration in Ghana cut across the different age, sex and educational brackets. In order to appreciate the types of jobs and income levels these migrants will likely earn, a cursory look at their socio-demographic characteristics will suffice.

In Ghana, Ackah and Medvedev (2010) found that the probability of being a migrant rises until a person turns 36 years old and then it begins to decrease. The propensity to migrate differs between men and women, but there is wide variation across different contexts. According to some studies, women are less likely than men to migrate because of their reproductive and care responsibilities and financial and decision-making



constraints (Awumbila et al., 2015). On the contrary, Herrera and Sahn (2013) reported that rural women were 6.4 percent more likely than men to move to rural areas, because they have limited access to productive resources and are more vulnerable. In some cases, women migrate to solve economic disparities and escape restrictive gender roles and social norms (Zachariah et al., 2001; UNFPA and IOM, 2006).

The propensity to migrate varies among ethnic groups, depending on their sociocultural characteristics or the level of development in the areas in which they are concentrated (Amin, 1974). Mberu (2005) identified ethnicity and religion as key independent predictors of internal migration in Nigeria. This is supported by further evidence, especially among women in sub-Saharan countries (Brockhoff and Eu, 1993). For example, in Senegal, Herrera and Sahn (2013) reported that belonging to the Serere group decreased by 17 percent the likelihood of migrating to urban areas, while belonging to the Wolof group decreased male migration to urban areas by 12 percent. Individuals who are more educated tend to be more mobile; they seek work that matches their higher skills and expectations, and which pays returns on education costs incurred (Ackah and Medvedev, 2010; Richter and Taylor, 2006).

Also relevant for rural youth is migration for education purposes, which depends on two main factors: (i) the potentially high returns on investment in education through access to more skilled, better paid job opportunities; and (ii) the persistent scarcity of quality education institutions in rural areas, especially at secondary or higher level. Evidence of the role of education in migration decisions varies considerably between countries: it is





almost negligible in Morocco and Senegal, but is central (especially for young women) in Egypt and Ghana (European Communities, 2000). Unemployed youth are more likely to migrate. Mutandwa et al. (2011) show this to be the case in Rwanda, and Besharov and Lopez (2015) demonstrate that underemployed youth in North Africa, Central Africa and the Horn of Africa are significantly more likely to migrate than employed ones. Youth in rural areas can feel socially and politically excluded; they may have no participation in family decision-making processes or civic life, despite their significant contribution to family production (Porter et al., 2010).

According to UNICEF (2007), the majority of Moroccan youth make the decision to migrate at an early age: they desire emancipation and wish to escape oppressive social and gender inequality. This focuses on the economic reasons for migration but acknowledges that often it is hard to extricate the main factors influencing the decision to migrate. For example, women might frequently migrate for family/marriage reasons (Safir, 2009), but then they may also work upon arrival at destination. 9 Employment status can also be an endogenous variable, as youth inclined or under pressure to migrate might not search for a job in their rural area of origin, or they may reduce their work on the farm until migration eventually occurs. 16 relations that sometimes persist in rural areas. The frustrations generated by heavy workloads, surveillance, youth exclusion and immobility push them to move away from their places of origin (and out of the agricultural sector), usually towards an urban context, where they believe they will access decent employment, stabilize their income and have a stronger voice and greater engagement in society.



Scholars such as Kunz, (2008) and Wong, (2006), argued that migration can disrupt traditional care arrangements for children and the elderly, and there is no compensation through increased use of remittances for social purposes. There may be a drop in the time available for and quality of child care, and the youth left behind are sometimes forced to drop out of school to undertake responsibilities previously assumed by other adults. Similarly, young women and men may have less time available to seek employment that matches their skills and aspirations. Remittances can increase the demand for valuable land, resulting in changes in land use. For example, remittance supported land purchase has fuelled the transition from agricultural land to residential areas in West Africa, with soaring land prices (FAO, 2004).

2.7 Impacts of Migration on Development

Migration is a decision that impacts the welfare of the household, the home community, and in the end the whole economy in various ways (Azam and Gubert 2006). Migration contributes directly or indirectly to development in many ways. Urban employment brings economic and material gains to some migrants (Black et al., 2006; Freemantle, 2011). Through their voluntary tribal associations, to which some of them have great attachment and commitment, the migrants, especially the successful ones, can help in the planning and implementation of various projects at their home towns and villages (Addison, 2005). In many cases, the tribal associations have contributed to projects

including the installation of street lights, building and maintenance of roads, streets, schools, clinics and health posts, wells and other sources of water supply.

The welfare implications of migration on the places of origin are most often, though not always, sizable and positive. The two main channels through which migration alleviates poverty are increased incomes from remittances, ability to smooth consumption, access to finance for starting a new business, as well as tapping on to the knowledge and resources provided by the international community of the migrant diaspora. Besides pure monetary gains, migration and remittances allow for higher investment in health care and, the health implications could be positive or negative. The positive impacts can be seen in the improvement of family diet that constitutes all the required food nutrients needed for human health.

Furthermore, migration has been observed to increase health knowledge in addition to the direct effect on wealth, which has led to lower rates of infant mortality and higher birth rates (Hildebrandt & McKenzie, 2005). Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health-improving practices such as drinking safe water and better sanitation (UNDP, 2009). On the other hand, migration as such might also present a threat to migrant's health as certain jobs expose migrants to occupational hazards, such as tuberculosis, pneumoconiosis and workplace injury by mine workers (Kahn *et al.* 2003). Increased mobility of workers has also contributed to a rapid spread of communicable diseases such as HIV (Decosas *et al.*, 1995; Lurie 2000; Lurie *et al.* 2000; Brummer, 2002).





While migrants are often comparatively healthy, a phenomenon known as the “healthy migrant effect”, they often face particular health challenges and are vulnerable to a number of threats to their physical and mental health. However, the specific health needs of migrants are poorly understood, communication between health care providers and migrant clients remains poor, and health systems are not prepared to respond adequately. The situation is compounded by the problems migrants face in realizing their human rights; accessing health and other basic services; and being relegated to low paid and often dangerous jobs, with the most acute challenges being faced by undocumented migrants, trafficked persons and asylum-seekers.

Migration also has some economic implication to the origin country. While migration has social and cultural implications for the sending and host societies, remittances the migrants send home are perhaps the most tangible and least controversial link between migration and development (Ratha, 2007). According to the official estimates, migrants from developing countries sent over \$315 billion to their origin countries in 2009, three times the size of official development assistance (Ratha et al., 2010).

Socially, migration can be a rewarding experience that is made in the interest of the household welfare, but in most cases moving to another country and being separated from one’s immediate family takes place at considerable emotional cost (D’Emilio et al., 2007). Especially temporary circular migration increases the risk for family breakdown, fragmentation of social networks and psychosocial stress (Kahn et al., 2003). The emotional impact is not just limited to the migrants themselves, but also to the family left

behind. Especially in poorer households where the whole family cannot afford to emigrate together, they emigrate one member at a time resulting in eroded family structures and relationships.

Separation from the parents has also long-term consequences in all aspects of the children's lives. Evidence points to the fact that the offspring from migrant families have lower educational attainment than other children, as the boys of the migrants are more likely to opt for migration themselves (implying decreasing returns to education) while the domestic workload of the daughters increase (McKenzie & Rapoport, 2006). Adolescents left behind are also commonly overrepresented in adapting risky behavior, and absence of mothers has been found to be associated with the involvement of children with violence. Thus female migration often leads to separation of mothers from their children (Oppong, 1997).

Another positive effect of migration is the reduction in underemployment in economies that are experiencing little growth. If surplus of skilled or unskilled labour exists, then out migration of that labour can lead to increase productivity and wages of the labour left behind. Sending countries can also benefit from the Diaspora networks in various ways namely, remittances, transfer of expertise, among others. The Diaspora does only remit but networks can be created in the form of associations in the host country with links in migrants' country. This goes to improve communication between the sending and host country and enhances trade, market activities, capital flows and growth. In Ghana, the 'Okyeman' state has benefited from Diaspora associations located in the UK, USA, Canada and other countries (SEND, 2004).





Migration has significant impacts on the life of the migrant. In destination areas, there might be more attractive employment, education and vocational training opportunities as well as better access to services. However, negative experiences can affect youth more than adult migrants because of their greater vulnerability: they are less experienced and might have different social roles, and thus have limited access to social networks. In particular, rural youth migrants might not be competitive in urban job markets, and they risk ending up in informal and low-paid work, with no job security and unsafe working conditions. Once far from the informal safety nets of their social networks and traditional culture, young men and women can easily end up being socially excluded, they may become human rights victims (UNICEF, 2014) or might even be subject to radicalization. There can also be significant gender disparities, given the gendered household roles and cultural norms parents may be willing to invest more in the education of sons than in that of daughters. Distress migration of rural youth can also affect rural livelihoods in the areas of origin, in both positive and negative terms. Moreover, impacts may be immediate or medium-term, and their direction and intensity depend on a variety of factors.

Also, Migrants can transmit technical know-how and new norms, values and ideas to non-migrants. This transfer of knowledge may take place on return to their place of origin, through contacts with relatives, or indirectly through networks connecting Diasporas with groups in the areas of origin (Beine et al., 2011).

Young migrants might send remittances to their households. The stronger and more frequent such relations are, the higher the case is for circulation of knowledge and skills,

as well as remittances and investments through diaspora and return migration. For example, seasonal migrants have been found to continue their agricultural activities and maintain strong linkages with their community of origin, while taking advantage of opportunities available in rural areas (Skeldon, 2003). This confirms that the direction and entity of the final impact of migration are strongly influenced by the characteristics of the local context, households and individual. This provides scope for policy interventions to shape the final outcome. Moreover, it is acknowledged that, given the endogeneity of migration decisions, few empirical studies can demonstrate a causal relationship between migrations and (positive or negative) changes in income, food security and inequality outcomes in the areas of origin. Nevertheless, the evidence reveals very interesting correlations useful for designing and implementing policies aimed at better managing rural youth migration and harnessing its potential benefits for the rural areas of origin. Young migrants may also receive financial support from their households of origin, especially when migration is a costly multi-year investment (e.g. for education). Consequently, for a certain period, there may be reverse remittances to cover living costs until settlement is economically sustainable (Mazzucato, 2011).



2.7.1 Migration as a channel for the transfer of norms, values and expectations

According to Levitt (2008), young migrants might not only transmit new norms and values (e.g. importance of education, lower rate of reproduction), but they may also interpret and adapt them to their original context. There is evidence that young migrants who have studied abroad can have influence in their home societies, fostering prodemocracy attitudes (Spilimbergo, 2009). In Morocco, one low-status ethnic group

was able to acquire higher social status thanks to remittances; it subsequently rejected traditional authoritarian structures (Ilahiane, 2001; Otte, 2000).

Also, Wahba (2007) in a study noted that migrants returning to Egypt have higher levels of human capital than non-migrants and they are more likely to be entrepreneurs. Siar (2011) has shown that knowledge transfer will only succeed if the areas of origin are receptive to learning and knowledge exchange. In the medium–long term, these immediate impacts could have further repercussions. International and internal remittances have important effects at micro level, as they increase household income and act as safety nets against external shocks (Shen et al., 2010; Adams and Page, 2005).

They can smooth consumption (de Haas, 2010) and improve household living conditions. They also produce multiplier effects on the local economy, by increasing the local purchasing power (Vargas-Lundius and Lanly, 2007). Internal remittances seem to have the greatest impact on the poorest households in the countries of origin (Housen et al., 2013). As a social benefit, studies show that remittances are used primarily to better sanitary conditions, advance educational attainment and improve healthcare (Amuedo-Dorantes, 2014; Ratha et al., 2011a; Valero-Gil, 2008).

Furthermore, Adams (2005) indicated that households receiving internal and international remittances spend 45 and 58 percent more, respectively, on education than nonmigrant households. There is also some evidence that migration may affect school achievement in





some places where people view further schooling as a means to creating better opportunities for migrating later once they have completed their education (Böhme, 2015; Batista et al., 2012). Remittances can be used to buy agricultural inputs and improved seeds, or to fund productive investments, including the start-up of new entrepreneurial activities (Ratha, 2013). De Haan et al. (2003) report that in South Africa and Botswana, where rural financial markets are almost absent, cash remittances are essential to finance the purchase of agricultural inputs. The extent to which a migrant's success in accumulating capital and skills translates into higher investments in the area of origin depends on other factors, including the migrant's degree of education, and the capacity to access local assets and the business environment (Hull, 2007; McCarthy et al., 2006).

A study in Egypt reveals that 80 percent of migrant-sending families do not engage in investment, mainly because of previous financial constraints and the high risks involved (IOM, 2010). Despite the existing barriers to the transferability of skills and qualifications (ILO, 2015), the increasing financial capacity and entrepreneurial inclination of many migrants can influence the nature of peasant agriculture, producing a gradual shift from subsistence to more commercial farming. Migrant households are more likely than non-migrant households to use new farming technologies to improve agricultural productivity (Mendola, 2006). Moreover, as remittances may reduce credit and insurance constraints in rural areas, remittance receiving households can undertake riskier but higher-return agricultural activities. With regards to this, Veljanoska (2014) observed that in Uganda remittances led to crop specialization for credit-constrained households.

2.7.2 Migration and the creation of innovative employment opportunities

Literature has established that return migrants always invest productively in their place of origin hence creating new employment opportunities for other villagers and inspiring others to start up enterprises (Nielsen and Riddle, 2010; Lowell and Gerova, 2004). While away, migrants may learn new skills, gather savings and build foreign networks. All of these efforts can assist alleviate the constraints to starting a new enterprise upon return (Marchetta, 2012). Black and Castaldo (2009) using data from Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire, observed that return migrants are more likely to start a new enterprise when they have accumulated savings and stayed abroad longer.

Wahba and Zenou (2012) analysed migration data from Egypt and found that loss of social capital as a result of absence from the country is outweighed by the benefits of finance and experience in starting up a firm. Migrants can act as catalysts in their place of origin, leading to changes in values and attitudes towards gender and youth roles within households and society (Ghosh, 2009). For example, they may stress the importance of girls' schooling and call for a higher age of marriage (Fargues, 2006). With regards to the environment and dependence on natural resources, out-migration can lead to agricultural de-intensification and reduced pressure on natural resources, due to a decline in the available labour force combined with an increase in income through remittances (Qin, 2010; Rudel et al., 2005). There is less tendency to overuse the land, with positive impacts on agricultural productivity and soil fertility. In Ghana, van der Geest (2011) showed that the vegetation trend is more positive in districts with a higher level of out-migration.





Migration out of rural areas can result in the feminization of agriculture and a shortage of skilled agricultural labour, with potentially negative effects on farm productivity and the household food supply (Dugbazah, 2012). Evidence from Kenya associates migration and the subsequent loss of labour with negative effects on crop income, not offset by remittances (Sindi and Kirimi, 2006). In Morocco, there is indication that the rural exodus has led to agricultural decline or even abandonment of agriculture (De Mas, 1990). According to Adaku (2013), in Ghana a household member engaging in temporary migration significantly reduces household production by 55.4 percent, while the permanent migration of a household member results in an insignificant increase in household production of 8.8 percent. In Mexico, rural households with labour migrants were found to have lower agricultural productivity than those without migratory workers (Schmook and Radel, 2008).

2.8 Policy Implications of Rural-Urban Migration

The lack of meaningful employment in rural areas is often a consequence of poor government policies. This is an area of major concern when discussing rural-urban migration and urbanization. As issues of rural-urban migration and urbanization are increasingly receiving more and more attention, policy makers in developing countries are considering the impact of their policies on migration. According to Gugler (1997), in countries with rapid urban growth, governments aim to slow this growth and redirect it into smaller cities. In general, governments usually feel obligated to provide more services to urban inhabitants; this is merely a question of efficiency. Urban areas are

more densely populated with people living in close proximity to each other, allowing easier provision of basic services (Agesa and Sunwong, 2001).

By contrast, people in rural areas are assumed to live further from each other, making it harder to provide such services. Also there are political reasons, in that major cities are often used by governments to signal economic prosperity to a larger proportion of the voting population (Anderson, 2002). Governments see a larger political payoff from having prosperous cities and hidden rural poverty, rather than unattractive capitals and rural investments. Policy makers must realize that rural-urban migration is an inevitable consequence of both asymmetric policies and economic development favoring urban areas. Migration should be seen as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium existing in the economy, and it is the responsibility of governments to reduce this disequilibrium (Bussey, 1973). As long as there are gaps in rural-urban employment opportunities caused by urban bias, there will be migration (Dickovick, 2003).

A widely held view is that urban populations are too concentrated in a few large cities, and that by implementing policies aimed at restricting urban growth, there may be reductions in social welfare. An alternate argument however, suggests that it is better to go to the root of the problem to determine why people are migrating, and then implement policies to effectively deal with these problems (Gilbert and Josef, 1992). In countries where there are issues of urbanization, there are a variety of policies that may be considered, depending on the issues of greatest concern. These policies generally are



aimed at restricting or redirecting rural-urban migration and reducing population growth (Goldscheider, 1984).

2.8.1 Policies to Reduce Urban Bias through Promoting Rural Development

Rural migration is a major contributor to the problem of high unemployment in urban areas (Gugler, 1997). Since wage differentials caused by urban bias encourage people to migrate to urban areas, it would be in the best interest of countries facing issues of rural-urban migration to reduce urban bias. Rural development policies aimed at creating more employment and income in rural areas should therefore receive greater emphasis (Jones, 1975).

Agricultural development can be a positive factor in a country that is heavily dependent on inputs from rural areas. However, one has to be careful because some crops are more capital intensive than others, and utilization of high technology methods of production may encourage migration all over again (Lucas, 2002).

2.8.2 Pricing Policies

Interestingly enough, low agricultural prices can diminish production, resulting in lower levels of urban manufacturing, which can act to slow city growth in the long run (Lucas, 2002). The most important element when in agricultural pricing is whether or not urban export sectors are strong. If they are, then low agricultural pricing would not have an adverse effect on urban development, because export earnings would come from urban production, and agricultural products may be imported (Morrisson, 2002). However, low agricultural pricing leads to low rural incomes thus increasing rural-urban migration



(Nguyen, 2003). Therefore, in very underdeveloped countries, agricultural development is closely linked to the growth of cities. It is a given that poverty alleviation is one of the main goals of development policies (Oberai, 1987). Fewer policies benefit the poor more than those that directly or indirectly increase the incomes of rural areas.

In most cases, rural development means increasing agricultural productivity which translates into income gains, inducing rural farmers to remain on farms. If there is a liberal foreign trade policy, increased agricultural productivity does not necessarily bring about lower prices (Rogers, 1984). If the rural sectors are only producing for domestic consumption, an increase in supply would imply falling rural prices which in turn would reduce revenues. Falling food and industrial prices lower the costs of urban production, leading to employment creation, further contributing to rural-urban migration (Sabates, 2002). Governments therefore have to be mindful that there be harmonization of policies to minimize conflicts between those aimed at increased rural production, and those aimed at lowering prices to stimulate urban production (Smith, 2003).

2.8.3 Promotion of Secondary Cities

In developing countries it is very important to promote secondary cities and market towns. Many countries have huge primary cities because of urban bias. It is important to promote secondary cities in order to encourage agricultural and other rural development and slow the growth of the main city (Todaro, 1976). Rural areas close to secondary cities have easy access to storage facilities thus reducing the distance to the market, and the levels of post-harvest losses. Also if the nearest market is a considerable distance



away, farmers will receive low prices for their crop yields, because middlemen would have to be compensated for higher transportation costs (Anderson, 2002). From urbanization point of view, secondary cities have the potential to provide attractive alternative destinations for city bound rural migrants. They do not only serve as market intermediaries, but also create employment. This would create less strain on the primary cities, and help to alleviate urban poverty (Gugler, 1997).

2.8.4 Decentralizing Governance Activities

Effective and efficient decentralization of government responsibilities gives decision-making power to the local residents, who have greater understanding of their issues and so are expected to make more appropriate decisions (Lucas, 2002). However, to be truly effective, both taxing and spending authority should be given to local governments. While the right policy will greatly assist in reducing rural-urban migration, it is recognized that the process cannot be stopped altogether (Nguyen, 2003).

Every policy has its advantages and disadvantages, and governments have to be realistic when making rural development policies. A specific case of a country successfully implementing rural development policies is Thailand. With the help of the UNDP, the government of Thailand has implemented several policies aimed at alleviating poverty in rural areas, with particular focus on strengthening the capacity of government, communities and other entities to provide economically and environmentally sustainable livelihoods and employment opportunities for the rural poor (UNDP, 2009).



Governments should place great emphasis on the need for "job opportunities and equitable income distribution among all groups of people in all regions of their respective countries" and that "the quality of life in the provinces and rural areas should not be inferior to the capital city (Smith, 2003; Jones, 1975). A major part of the plan is to move toward decentralization, relying on collaborative efforts and participation among all stakeholders (Sabates, 2000; Rogers, 1984). This program could be successful in building capacity at national and local levels needed for effective implementation of policies and programs that support sustainable poverty alleviation (Anderson, 2002; Agesa and Sunwong, 2001). Through its inter-related and mutually reinforcing elements, the program progressively will make significant changes in policy development, management development, enhanced economic opportunities, environment and natural resources, and human resources development hence hold migrants back at their respective places of origin (Gugler, 1997; Oberai, 1987).





CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter comprises the profile of the study area, techniques and procedures employed in carrying out the study. It also gives a detailed description of the research design, data requirements for the study as well as sampling procedures for data collection and mode of analysis.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area

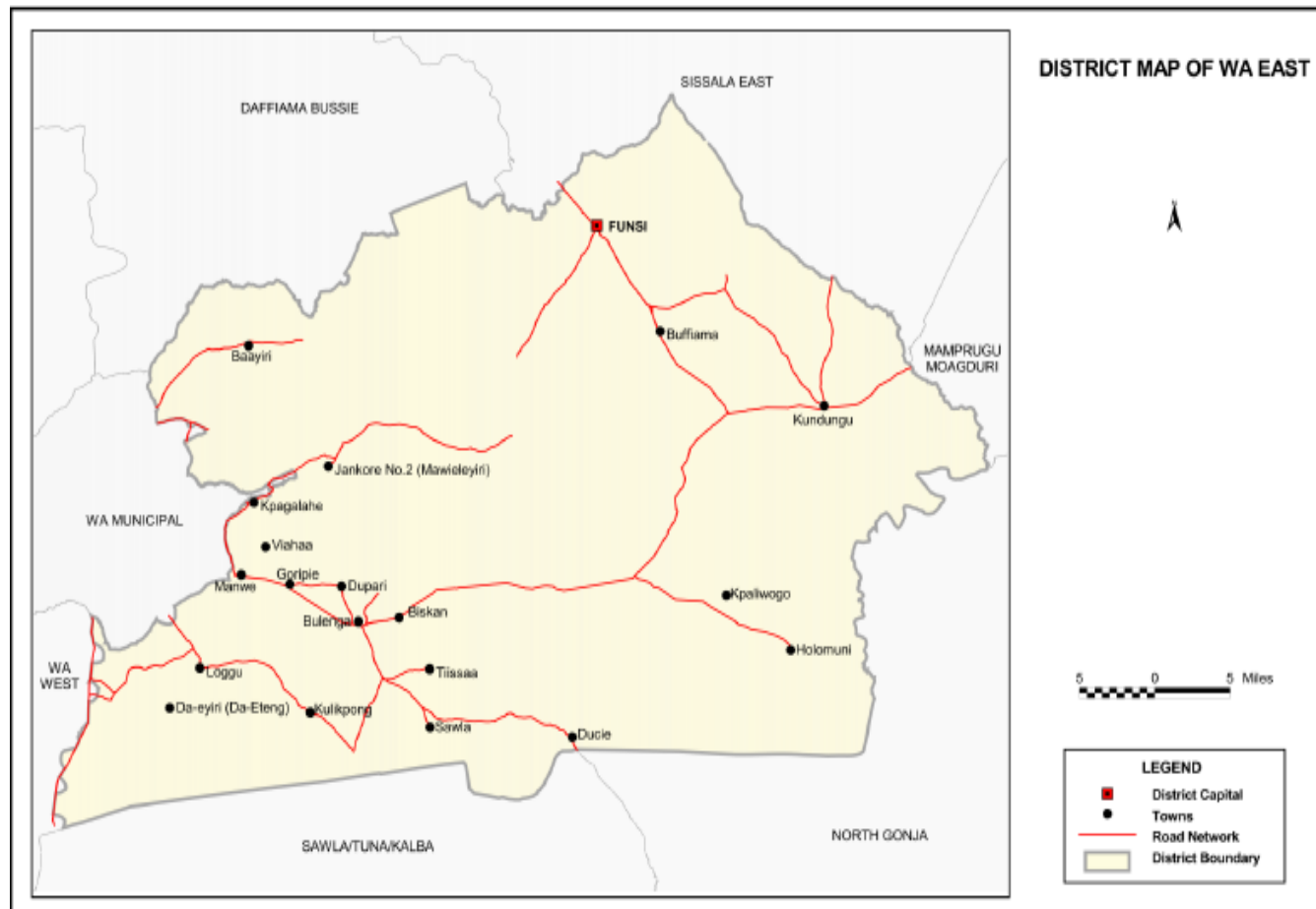
3.2.1 Location and Size

The Wa East District was carved out of the former Wa District and made a district by L.I 1746 in July 2004. The district is located in the south eastern part of the Upper West region. Funsi, the district capital is about 115 km away from Wa, the regional capital. The district shares boundaries with West Mamprusi to the northwest, West Gonja to southeast and the Sissala East district to the north. It has a landmass of about 4297.1sq/ km², which is located between latitudes 9° 55''N and 10° 25''N and longitude 1° 10''W and 2° 5''W. The district occupies (17.3%) of the total landmass of the region

(18,478.4sq/ km²). The remoteness of the district relative to other districts of the region has deprived it of basic social and economic infrastructure and services.

3.2.2 Map of the Wa East District

Figure 3. 1: Map of the Wa East District indicating the Study Area



Source: Wa East District Assembly, 2016



3.3 Design and Methodology

Triangulation of different related research techniques are employed in this study. This consists of a combination of mainly qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. The two styles have different complementary strengths and a study that employs both is comprehensive. The shortcomings of one method are complimented by the positives of the other method (Neuman, 2000). To Merrian and Simpson (1984) qualitative data is “...detailed description of solutions, events, people’s interactions and observed behaviour, direct quotations from people about their experience, attitudes, beliefs and thoughts”. Smith and Debus (1992) also affirm this view by arguing that qualitative research involves the use of in-depth interviews and observational techniques with target groups to investigate attitudes, beliefs and social contexts associated with human behaviour.



This approach therefore comes in handy as the research delves into the influencing factors causing the migration of youth and the impacts it has on the development of communities in the Wa East District. Regarding quantitative research, the lucidity of the issue investigated becomes the yardstick for the use of such a method according to Brown (1996) and where the research issue is less straightforward and the questions likely to generate a multiplicity of answers, qualitative methods are appropriate. However, the

question of whether there is straight jacket watertight segregation of data along the quantitative and qualitative lines have been asked by Strauss and Corbin (1990) and rather contend that qualitative and quantitative data rather complements each other as qualitative data may be used to illustrate or clarify quantitatively derived findings and vice versa (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

The rational for mixing both methods is to provide a fuller representation of the influencing factors causing youth migration and its impact on development of communities in the Wa East District. This provides a framework upon which the quantitative and qualitative aspect of the conceptual framework of the study is fully assessed. Behavior, thought and the normative aspects of societies influences the outcomes and livelihoods of the people; therefore this research uses both qualitative and quantitative research designs to investigate the problem.

3.3.1 Research Design

The selection of the right research design is crucial in the research process and for arriving at valid findings is dependent on how right the research design is. To this end, cross sectional Survey Design is employed to adequately investigate the research problem. According to Brown (1996), Survey researches are convenient for the study of both large and small populations. The objective often is to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of the study variables. It is premised on the questioning of a sample of a population and then extrapolating the findings to cover the general population (Saunders et.al., 1997).





Discussing the benefits of this design to researchers, Brown (1996) enumerated that the collection of large amounts of data is quick and cheaper; generalization of findings to the whole population is possible and the allowance of quick and easy comparison of data and assessment of relationships of variables is permitted by this design. The researcher therefore finds this design for the study as not intending to experiment or test a stimulus on an experimental group.

3.3.2 Sampling

Sampling is a process of scientifically selecting cases or respondents for a research (Neuman 1997). The selection of the sample for the study is a combination of probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The reason behind the choice to use both probability and non-probability techniques stems from the guiding philosophical principles surrounding the use of mix methods. As the probability sampling technique would ensure representation of all the characteristic variables involved in the study, the non-probability sampling technique enables the research to target those elements of the study population of particular relevance to the study. The study communities and respondents are drawn accordingly for the study.

The totality of individuals or objects upon which a social inquiry is applicable is what Pilot and Hungler (1987), refers to as the population. The population is also referred to as the “universe” to which research findings can be extrapolated. The total population of the

Wa East District is estimated at 77,765 according to the Ghana Statistical Service Population outlook for 2014. The youthful population falls within the age group of 15-44 years. The total youthful population has been estimated at 30,007 people representing about 38.6% of the total population of the district.

The study will use the youthful population as its sample frame, thus a sample frame of 30,007. Out of the total sample frame, the study targeted a sample size of about 395 people who are to be drawn from nine (9) selected communities across the district. The uneven distribution of the district population fairly explains the over concentration of social and economic infrastructure in the north –eastern part of the district. It is important to indicate that the distribution of services and facilities in the district are woefully inadequate and skewed towards the capital, major settlements with populations above 1000 people in the district namely, Finsi, Baayiri, Kundugu, Loggu, Bulenga, Kulkpong, Goripie, Duccie, and Buffiama are selected for the study. The selection was done under the condition that every youth of the community has the tendency of migrating from the community. Another assumption is that every youth has the chance of contributing in one way or the other, to the development of the community and as such as the chance of being interviewed. With this, the sample size is to be obtainable via the formula $n = N / [1 + Ne^2]$ where “N” is the Sample frame and “e” the significance level or sampling error to be taken at 5% significant level or 95 percent confidence level.

Therefore,

$$n = N / [1 + Ne^2]$$

$$n = 30,007 / [1 + 30,007(0.05)^2]$$



$$n = 394.783$$

$n = 395$ as the sample size for the study

Probability and non-probability sampling techniques were employed to draw the samples for both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study. This ensured representativeness of the characteristic elements of the study.

3.4 Sample Size and its Determination

The sample size of each of the nine selected study area was determined using the proportional methods of sample size distribution as follows in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Sample Size Distribution

Name of Community	Total Population	Sample Size
Funsi	3311	71
Baayiri	1531	33
Kundugu	2325	50
Loggu	1180	25
Bulenga	2793	60
Kulkpong	1759	38
Goripie	2339	50
Ducie	1738	37
Buffiama	1458	31
Total	18434	395



3.4.1 Sampling Procedure

The main sampling procedure employed for this study is a combination of probability and non-probability sampling designs. Simple random sampling constitutes the probability sampling techniques whiles accidental random sampling technique is the non-probability sampling technique. Simple random sampling technique is called upon to help do the selection of the communities to be part of the study. A register of all communities with population above 2,000 people was obtained. Nine communities (Fungsi, Baayiri, Kundugu, Loggu, Bulenga, Kulkpong, Goripie, Ducie and Buffiama) of the Wa East District were then selected by no pre-defined pattern. Again, simple random sampling was used to draw men and women in the study communities for the research. The selection was made using the household register of the Population and Housing Census (PHC) as a sample frame from which the lottery method was used to deploy the respondents for the Focus Group Discussion. A total of 95 respondents were drawn using this technique.

Conversely, accidental sampling constitutes the non-probability sampling technique where respondents for qualitative in-depth interviews were drawn. Criteria for selection are not tied to knowledge of migration and also on the specialty of role in the design and implementation of strategies towards curbing migration in the district for both institutional and non-institutional actors. However, gender featured prominently in the selection of the respondents from the non-institutional actors.



3.5 Data Collection Process

Both structured and semi-structured interviews were employed for the study. The structured interviews were conducted using a closed ended questionnaire. A list of questions and multiple choice answers were provided to respondents. As a quantitative tool of data collection, the questionnaire helped the research source a wide array of information from respondents concerning youth migration its causes and impacts on development in the district. Data comparability and analysis was deeply enhanced with the usage of this tool. A total of three hundred and ninety five questionnaires were disbursed to community members concerning the various influencing factors causing youth migration and the impacts in the Wa East district.

Semi- structured interview techniques, Focus Group Discussions (FGD), and Key Informant (KI) interviews were used to generate qualitative data. Research tools used in this regard included the checklist and interview schedule. These are lists of thematic areas used to guide the conduct of a social conversation. The research therefore employed such skills and tactics needed to guide and probe into emerging issues during discussions. The purpose for employing a technique such as Focus Group Discussion enabled the research to gather consensus data on youth migration, influencing factors causing youth migration and the impacts of youth migration on the development of the Wa East District. The focus group discussion respondents consisted of men and women from the sampled communities. While the key informant interviews were conducted with people with relevant knowledge in migration issues in the District. The respondents in this category largely were drawn from public, private, civil society and traditional authorities with



relevant knowledge in youth migration, its causes and the impacts it has on the development of the district.

3.5.1 Focus Group Discussions

Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) is an interview run according to an interview schedule with open ended questions where a small group in terms of purpose, size, composition and procedures is investigated (Neuman, 1997). Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were conducted among 36 men and women in the communities in the Wa East District. The purpose was to assess the causes of youth migration, the causes and impacts it has on the development of the District. It also aimed at exploring the various institutional frameworks for migration in Ghana. The FGDs enabled the research tap into participants' perceived normative knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and practices that either limits or promotes migration in the District.

Three group discussions were held in three different communities namely Finsi, Bulenga and Baayiri. Each of the group was made up of 12 participants both males and females. A discussion guide was developed and used to guide Due to the exploratory nature of the study, focus group discussions were much useful for a study of this nature in that even the illiterate were able to understand the issues under discussion and articulated their thoughts well during the discussions. Consequently, the researcher was able to probe, and participants also were able to interrogate one another as they seek clarifications among themselves.



3.5.2 The Survey

Survey as a research design, entails using standardized questionnaires, personal interviews or telephone interviews to collect data about a topic of interest to the researcher (Lindsey and Beach 2000). McNeill (1990:19) notes the term survey as “...a method of obtaining large amounts of data, usually in a statistical form, from a large number of people in a relatively short time. It may be descriptive or exploratory or a combination of both”. In this study a questionnaire with closed ended questions was used to gather data on the patterns of migration, the causes of youth migration and the impacts of migration on the development of communities Wa East District.

As noted by Nueman (1997), surveys yield benefits such as ease of respondents responding to questions which offers a high degree of data comparability. Consistency of response is central to this approach as questions are asked in the same manner and with the same wording hence data processing and analysis becomes much easier. As advanced by Leedy (1991), the survey techniques do not limit respondents in empirical studies but rather serve to enable respondents to explore and broaden their understanding in applying their senses to questions given.

Regardless of highlighted positions, surveys have shortcomings as well. According to Neuman (1997), questionnaires have the tendency of suggesting responses even when the respondent genuinely does not have answers to such questioning. To overcome the above obstacle pretesting the questionnaire in a pilot study was done to establish the suitability



of the questionnaire options. Where pre-coded responses given seem to be constraining the respondents, the option of “Others” would be given to cater for that situation.

3.5.3 In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews were conducted with respondents chosen. This forms part of the qualitative aspect of the study. However, gender and knowledge in the subject matter were key determinants for the selection of respondents. The respondents were drawn from target population comprising men and women, private, public and civil society actors in the Wa East District. Here, two different tools were employed to solicit information from respondents. The interview guide/protocol is used to gather data from illiterate respondents while an open ended questionnaire is used to collect data from literate respondents.

3.6 Validity of the Instruments

Validity according to Leedy (1980) is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity ultimately is concerned with measuring soundness and the effectiveness of measuring instruments or research techniques. To ensure validity in this study the questionnaire, interview guides or schedules were pretested to assess their suitability in measuring the variables including the youth migration, the causes and impacts among several others contained in the study.



3.7 Reliability of Instruments

Nachmias and Nachmias (1981) note that reliability is an indication of the extent to which a measure contains variable errors, that is errors that differ from observation and that vary from time to time for a given unit of analysis measured twice or more by the same instrument. Abrahamson (1981) contends that reliability is the stability or consistency of the information, the extent to which the same information is supplied when a measurement is performed more than once. In order to check for the stability, consistency, accuracy and dependability, the instruments and techniques of data collection were pretested to establish the extent to which they can consistently measure what they are designed to measure. Areas of concern that needs clarity would be revise in line with results of the pretest.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis of the questionnaires in this study aimed at reducing masses of quantitative data to meaningful information. Data will be coded and a data matrix created using the SPSS computer package version 20. Variables will be categorized and measured in accordance to the objectives of the study. Descriptive statistics was employed to analyze quantitative data mainly using bivariate analysis in the form of cross tabulations. The emphasis here was to measure relationships among variables contained in the study so as to establish their degree of dependence and interdependence.



Qualitative data were organized according to the emerging themes. Variables attributes were described and normative aspect of communities is explained in accordance to the emerging themes from the data gathered. The data was also coded and presented in frequency distributions and diagrams; mainly graphs and tables.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF

4.1 Introduction

This section is considered as chapter four of the study. It presents detailed analysis of the data collected from the field. It also discusses the findings in relation to various arguments, opinions and perspectives advanced by various scholars. In totality, the chapter is divided into three parts. The first part assesses the demographic characteristics of respondents. The second part provides an assessment of the factors that often influence the youth to emigrate from their various communities. The last part of the chapter examines the impact of youth migration on the development of communities in the Wa East. The summation of all the sub-section provides a comprehensive evaluation of the research questions as outlined in the first chapter.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics presented data on the sex, age, marital status, educational background and the occupation of the respondents in the District. This is intended to determine how these characteristics influence the understanding, behavior and responses of the respondents on the topic under consideration. In Ghana, the laws and by-laws provide every citizen the right to participate in the development of their communities and the nation as a whole. In fact, the laws provide that a citizen who is not less than 18 years of age and of sound mind has the right to participate in any developmental activity within his/her community. With this, a citizen should not be prevented from participating in local development activities based on age once above 18



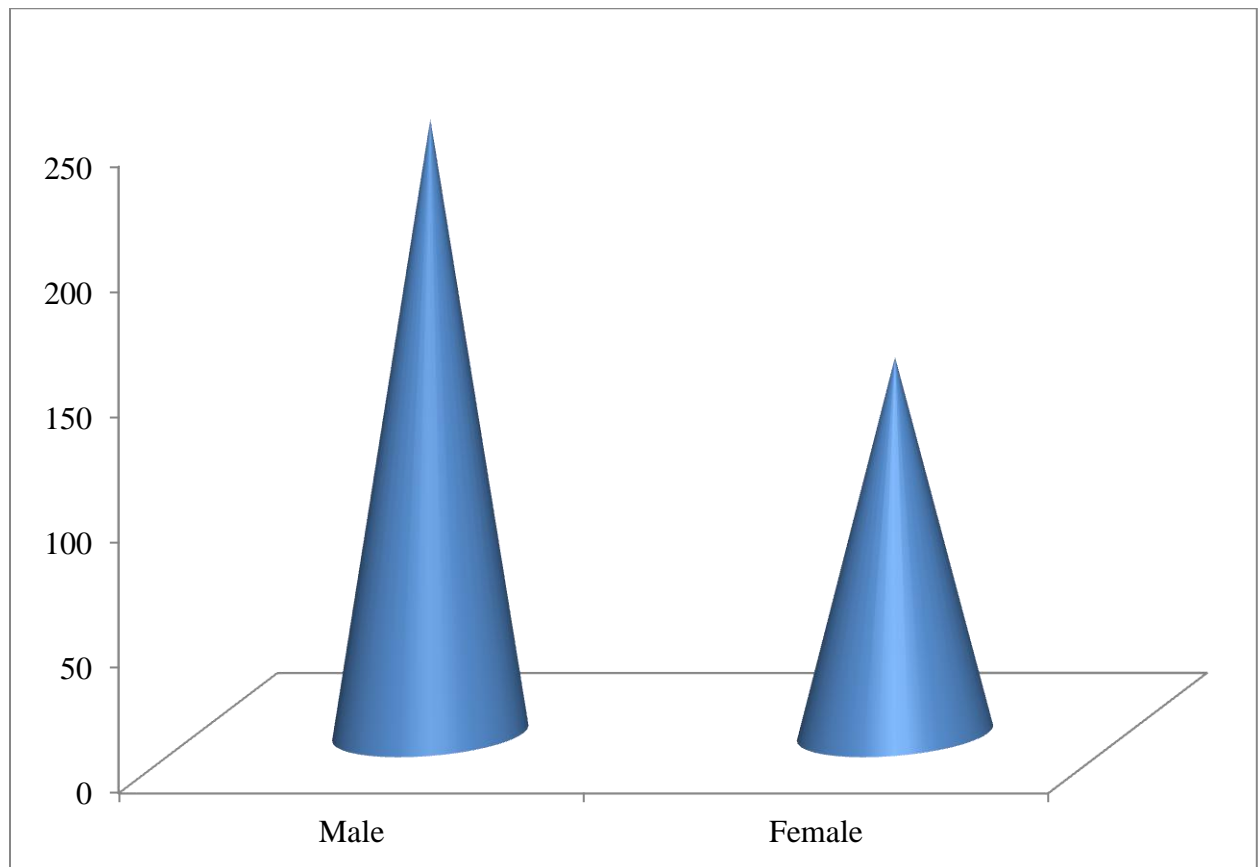
years, sex, marital status, occupation and/or level of education once a resident (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). It is a well-known fact in research that these characteristics in one way or the other influences the responses from individual respondents, hence a point of consideration by the study.

4.2.1 Sex

The views of people may vary due to their sex orientation. The views of women may be different from the views of men because of the differences in their gender needs. Factors that could motivate a male respondent to migrate from his place of birth might not necessarily influence a female respondent to migrate from her community, hence a relevant point of consideration.



Figure 4. 1: Sex of Respondents



Source: Field Survey, 2016

A total of 395 respondents were contacted and out of this, 62% were males whereas the remaining 38% constitute females. Males dominated the study because the male population of the district outweighs the female population as revealed by the 2010 Population and Housing Census for the district (GSS, 2010). Also, the male migrant population (66%) of the district far outweighs that of the female migrant population (34%). The difference in these statistics justifies why the male respondents outweighs the female respondents. However, it is worth noting that the gender biasness does not have any significant influence on the findings of the



study.

In literature, Jeromino et al, (2014), observed that the achievement of gender equality is a fundamental condition for the full enjoyment of human rights by young women and men. Though they may not be the majority as demonstrated by the study, young women are an important part of the migration phenomenon, and often face multiple forms of discrimination as women, young people and migrants, as well as on ethnic or racial grounds. Migration is an opportunity and enriching experience for many young women. However, for others, it is a source of vulnerability, violence and disruption.

Furthermore, Arjan (2000) argued that some people have argued that female migration is increasing compared to men's. This is undoubtedly true for migrations for some kinds of activities. Global shift towards a more service-intensive economy and more labour-intensive manufacturing for exports have increased demand for female labour.¹⁶ Research in Bolivia, The Dominican Republic and Mexico shows high rates of female migration from rural to urban areas, to work in the maquila industries for example (as well as in domestic jobs), while men in rural areas tend to migrate more for rural temporary jobs.¹⁷ Female employment in garment factories in Dhaka has probably increased rural-urban migration by women, though the large majority of migrants remain men.¹⁸ Female migration is thought to have increased in Africa as a result of economic crisis and structural adjustment programmes, though empirical evidence for this is not strong; in any case, it should



not overshadow the fact that women have always contributed to household's livelihoods, including through migration (Arjan, (2000).

4.2.2: Age of respondents

In Ghana, the youth falls within the age group of 15- 44 years (GSS, 2010). Individuals below this age bracket and above the bracket are considered as children and old age respectively. The study does not consider the views of children who are noted to be below the age of 15 years. However, it regarded the opinions of the aged since they might have one point in their life migrated from the community for various reasons.

Table 4. 1: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
15-24	94	24
25-34	132	33
35-44	120	30
Above 44	53	13
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.1, the study revealed that the age of respondents falls between 15 years to 44years and above. Majority of the respondents constituting about 33% fell within the age groups of 25-34 years, 30% within the age group 35-44 years, and 24% of them are



between the ages of 15-24. The remaining 13% of the respondents were above 44 years. In essence, the data showed a youthful respondents constituting about 87%, this support the youthful nature of the population according to the 2010 population census. This significantly demonstrates that the population is within the active labour force group that is willing and able to engage in activities that will either contribute to the development or retrogression of the district. From literature it shows, this age brackets are those who invariably seek greener pastures and are therefore compelled to migrate. This falls in line with what has been observed by Lucas, (2015) that the youth who mostly migrate are within the active labour force and as jobseekers, their departure eases the pressure on local labour markets, resulting in more employment opportunities and higher wages for those who remain (Lucas, 2015).

Also, the number of students migrating abroad is growing rapidly, a trend likely to continue. As a result of this, international collaboration is needed for cross-border higher education and technical training, including defining terminologies and unifying criteria for regulatory frameworks, particularly to ensure that qualifications obtained abroad are recognized at home and vice versa. International dialogue and collaboration are essential to defining standards that can be mutually recognized.

4.1.3 Marital Status

Several factors have influenced migration of people, of these factors marriage is one of such influential factors; this status could be whether or not the individual is married, single, divorce or widowed. The influence of these elements on migration makes them a



point of consideration for the study. A total of 395 respondents were contacted for their marital status and the decision to migrate from the Wa East District. Table 4.2 shows the responses from the field.

Table 4. 2: Marital Status Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Number of Migrants	Percent of Migrants
Married	230	56	30%
Single	110	92	49%
Divorced	30	21	11%
Widowed	25	20	10%
Total	395	189	100%

Source: Field Survey Report, 2016

From table 4.2, above it can be observed from the sample population 47.8% were regular migrants, of which 30% were married, while 49% of these regular migrants were single and searching for life partners. From the total number of respondents, 30% of the settlers were married as compared to the 49% of being single. That notwithstanding, 11% and 10% respectively were either divorced or widowed. This status had parallel effect on whether or not a respondent will migrate or otherwise. On a whole, the results show that majority of the respondents who regularly migrate are single, though a substantial number of married people do migrate. This group of respondents mostly migrates from their communities to avoid the teasing from married colleagues. A female respondent stated



that;

“I try always for the community because I want to get a husband. I am not a partner to marry in the village so I have to look elsewhere for partner. A lot of my friends have travelled away and they all have husbands now.”(Kundugu)

Marriage is a social value and as such cherish by many families. Similar to the findings of the study, Levitt (2008), revealed that young migrants do not only transmit new norms and values, but also interpret and adapt such norms and value to their original context. There is evidence that young migrants who have married abroad have influence in their home societies, fostering prodemocracy attitudes among those at home (Spilimbergo, 2009).

4.2.4 Occupation

It is widely recognized that the occupation of an individual has the potential to influence ones’ decision of migrating from his/her place of birth. With this, the occupation of respondents was also investigated to ascertain the particular sector that contains most of the migrants in the Wa East District as shown in Table 4.3 below. The responses are provided by the 395 people contacted across the selected communities.



Table 4. 3: Occupation of Respondents

Occupation	Frequency	Percent (%)
Formal Sector	65	17
Informal Sector	198	50
Unemployed	132	33
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From table 4.1, the occupational status of the respondents of the study indicates that the informal sector which mostly involves farming and trading (business) was the major occupational category of respondents in the Wa East District. From the study, a total of 198 respondents representing 50% were found in the informal sector, whereas 132 respondents representing 33% were unemployed. The remaining minority constituting only 17% were found to be in the formal sector. Most of these respondents in the formal sector were mainly Civil Servants and Health Service workers in the district. These public servants are migrants who have moved to carried out government work in the district. The finding of the study further show that those in the informal sector mostly farmers and petty traders are all potential migrants because their businesses are seasonal. Their business activities require them to be travelling in and out of the district during the lean season and carrying out similar works in different environment.



A respondent who is farmer revealed that;

“I live in Wa and Funsì. When it is time for farming, (that is during the rainy season) I move to Funsì farm and after harvest, I move back to Wa to do some laborer work. So I stay in two places.”

The experience these migrants gain through their in-and-out movement shape their thinking and way of life as revealed by the respondents. The new migrants identified stated that their decision to migrate was influenced by the senior brothers who have been migrating in and out of the communities. The way of living of old migrants inspires the new to follow their footsteps. In literature, Lucas (2015) noted youth migration have immediate effects on the occupation particularly agriculture in the areas of origin. He further noted that the Agricultural sector losses efficient labor forces to other sectors as most of the youth engage in Agriculture depart and seek for better job opportunities.

Also, Amuedo-Dorantes, (2014) and Vargas-Lundius and Lanly, 2007) indicated that migration of young men and women can affect agricultural productivity by destabilizing traditional farming systems at household and community levels, leading to a significant ageing of the rural labour force and thus to a reduction in labour productivity and farm income and/or adopting land intensification practices, such as shorter fallow periods and increased weeding, to counterbalance the loss of labour productivity. Tuladhar et al. (2014) showed that migration in Nepal negatively affected agriculture yields as it mostly turn to increase the inequality between remittances recipients and non-recipients.



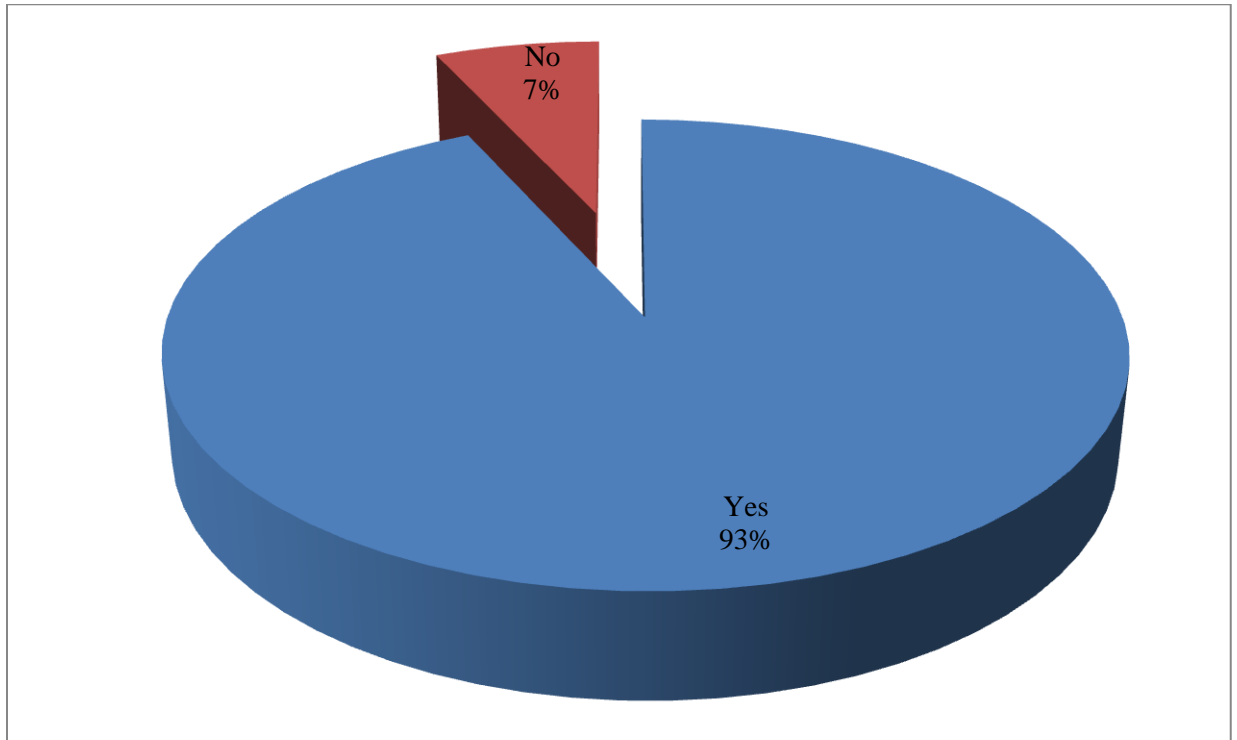
With respect to demographic characteristics, Jeronimo et al., (2014) stated that available global migration data provides mainly statistics on stocks, revealing little about migrants' age, sex, education or other important factors. However, they further indicated that good governance policy and practice require a stronger evidence base on migration by collecting and disseminating detailed data disaggregated by age and sex, country of birth, country of previous residence, country of citizenship, education, occupation, employment status, qualifications and skill level.

4.2 Youth and Migration

In Ghana, most areas either rural or urban areas have majority of their population been youth. In many rural communities the youth constitute about 70% of the total population (GSS, 2010). The statistics from the field revealed that the population for the study in the Wa East District is youthful as 63% of the respondent fall within the age of 25years and 44 years (Field Surveey). Like in other district, the youth in the Wa East district are prone to emigrate from the district to other destinations outside the district in search for better life opportunities. Figure 4.2 below shows how the general public perceive the ability of the youth to emigrate from the district.



Figure 4. 2: Youth Emigration



Source: Field Survey, 2016

From figure 4.2, 93% of the respondents attested to the fact that the youth moves or emigrates from the district. Majority of these respondents revealed that the youth of today are more adventurous, hence their continue movement from the district to other places where they can explore life to its fullest. On the other hand, only 7% of the respondents were of the view that the youth are not that adventurous because of their involvement in family activities and farming in the community and hence do not emigrate from the community. Moreover, these respondents indicated that the recent discovery of gold in some communities has further necessitated the staying of the youth in the communities and most of them have ventured into small scale mining. Similarly the 93% further reiterated their stands on migrating from the district as a result of the absence of



opportunities befitting their dreams and aspirations. Moreover their inability to access modern day tools and equipment like good communication network services and also the non-existence of good road networks and inaccessibility of good health facilities. These factors among others have contributed to youth migration in the Wa East district.

In the view of Jeronimo et al., (2014), Young migrants are generally resilient, ambitious and adaptable, and are sought after by employers. However, while migrant youth commonly face social exclusion, disruption of family, and absence of social protection, young women and girl migrants are more at risk of abuse, discrimination and gender-based violence, including sexual violence. Youth migrants belonging to specific ethnic or cultural groups, as well as youth with disabilities, face particular difficulties. Jeronimo et al., (2014) further indicated that available data show that youth, particularly migrant youth, are more likely to experience unemployment, lack of access to decent work, exploitative working conditions, inadequate access to skills and vocational training, and social marginalization and exclusion. Consequently, development benefits, protection, employment, and social participation and inclusion can be achieved with policy approaches and frameworks addressing specific age groups, education and skill levels, and gender differences that effectively meet young migrants' diverse needs, experiences, challenges and opportunities (Jeronimo et al., 2014).



4.3 Age Distribution of Youth Migrants in Wa East District

Different people with different ages travel or migrate for different reasons. The age at which youth migrate from the district was obtained. A total of 395 respondents from the nine selected communities namely Funsi, Kundugu, Duccie, Baayiri, Loggu, Bulenga Baayiri Buffiama and Gorpie provided responses for the item. The results are shown in Tables 4.4 below.

Table 4. 4: Age Distribution of Youth Migrants in Wa East District

Age Group	Communities									Total	Rank
	Fun	Baa	Kun	Log	Bul	Kul	Gor	Duc	Buf		
15-24	30	8	10	16	14	6	10	4	2	100	3rd
25-34	39	9	13	20	28	7	30	8	6	160	1st
35-44	34	10	9	18	22	4	24	7	7	135	2nd

Source:

Note: **Fun**-Funsi, **Baa**-Baayiri, **Kun**- Kundugu, **Log**- Loggu, **Bul**- Bulenga, **Kul**- Kulkpong, **Gor**- Gorpie, **Duc**- Ducie, **Buf**- Buffiama

Table 4.2 shows the age distribution of youth migrants community by community in the Wa East District. These communities were sampled as major hotspots of migrants in the Wa East District. Moreover the age distribution showed a more youthful one with majority ranked between the age group of 25-34 as the most affected age group in the





district and the most communities affected are Funsì, Loggu, Bulenga and Goripie. It was also observed that majority of these youth migrants were from the district capital Funsì, which was surprising due to the level of improvement in educational facilities and suppose enlighten nature of the youth in community. It was further explained by respondents between the age brackets of 25-34 that they were migrating as a result of the mostly neglected nature of the district with regards to dry season farming since there is always less available water source to enhance dry season gardening. More so, these same group of people were most often than not students of either tertiary or second cycle institutions and hence needed money to facilitate their education hence the need to engaged in activities that will generate incomes.

It was observed that both male and female youth fall within this age bracket. The results further show that the age group of 35-44 is the second most ranked by respondents as far as youth migration is concerned. The respondents revealed that most of the people within this age bracket face serious challenges in taking care of their families as well financing their farming and other livelihood activities. They are therefore forced to resort to migration as a better way of solving their economic challenges. The third most ranked as revealed by the respondents is the age bracket of 15-24 years. Respondent within this age bracket are noted to be students within Junior High School and Senior High School levels and not so much concern about moving out of the district. Though ranked as the least, most of the migrants within this category move to nearby communities during holidays engage in small scale mining often referred to as “galamsey”.

4.4 Social and Economic Factors Influencing Youth Migration

There various factors that influence individuals top migrate from their original settlement to new destinations. Some factors are noted to be forcing people to move away from their birth communities (Push Factors), whiles other factors within the same communities motivate communities members to stay and even encourage other settlers to relocate to the community (Pull Factors). The purpose of this study, both push and pull factors are considered as either social or economic factor and as such treated together. The 395 respondents were used to provide responses and the results are indicated in Table 4.5 below

Table 4. 5: Factors Influencing Youth Migration

Influential Factors	Communities									Total	Rank
	Fun	Baa	Kun	Log	Bul	Kul	Gor	Duc	Buf		
Household Size	15	5	8	13	10	6	12	4	2	75	3rd
Gendered	7	4	6	5	4	6	7	2	1	42	4th
Ideology											
Social Contacts and Networks	22	6	9	18	15	9	14	6	3	102	2nd
Economic Condition	30	8	12	24	18	11	22	9	6	140	1st
Religious/Ethnic Conflicts	7	2	4	6	5	4	4	3	1	36	5th

Source: Field Survey 2016



Note: **Fun**-Fungsi, **Baa**-Baayiri, **Kun**- Kundugu, **Log**- Loggu, **Bul**- Bulenga, **Kul**- Kulkpong, **Gor**- Goripie, **Duc**- Ducie, **Buf**- Buffiama

From table 4.3 above, economic conditions varying from access to decent job opportunity to improved incomes were ranked as the most push reason why most of the youth migrate from the district to other districts as 140 of the respondents attested to this. This was not surprising because it supports the findings of Hall, (2005) and Kangasniemi et al. (2007) in their studies which indicated that the need for improved conditions of living including getting decent incomes were the foremost reasons that youth migrants gave in their studies. Within the Wa East district, access to job opportunities are only limited to just farming, gathering, hunting, cattle rearing, tabletop small scale business. These livelihood options are well patronized because little or no formal education is required. Moreover the formal sector is also limited to just teaching, nursing, and workers of the district assembly where intakes are limited.

The need to meet new people and increase the human network base of the youth was ranked as the second influential factor or reason why the youth of Wa East continuously migrate to other cities. Out of the 395 respondents contacted, 102 of them indicated that they travel away from their communities in order to increase their social contacts and widen their network base. This they acknowledge as a new form of development need of the youth. Majority of the youth as respondents felt that there is the need for them to expand their network base afar their location and this has compelled their movement away from the district to access and interact with different class of people, thus increasing their social contacts and network base.



Also, the need to fulfill the basic household obligations one way or the other compelled the youth to migrate from their various homes. This was evident as 75 of the respondents identified House obligation and size as a factor that influences the youth to migrate from the district. This mostly happens in homes where the responsibility of household leadership is transferred from the parents to the youth where cases of death of family heads or ill health occurs. In other instances the increase in the household size and the decrease in the amounts of food stuff available for feeding compelled the youth to migrate to reduce the household size also enable them to remit to the families back home.

Fourth on the ranked list of reasons why most youth migrate include, gendered ideology from primitive gendered role of men and women where men hunt and women gather for their families. This has pushed most youth to fast develop and accept such roles. Lastly is the issue of religious and ethnic conflict, the district expresses less of religious and ethnic conflict although these are prone reasons why some people will migrate from this district. This finding of the study supports what has been observed by Alvarez-Tinajero, (2010) as he argued that many people in rural communities are always confident that the economic conditions of migrants will continue and remain stable and this motivated has others to migrate.



4.4.1 Frequency of Youth Migration

The frequencies at which people travel vary depending on the circumstances surrounding the individual migrant. This sector looks at how regular or frequent with which the migration possible among the youth in the Wa East district.

Table 4. 6: Frequency of Youth Migration

Response	Frequency	Percent (%)
Very Frequent	220	56
Moderately Frequent	115	29
Less Frequent	60	15
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The frequency of migration among the youth stands at 56% as shown in the table above, this goes to buttress the point that most youth of today move away from their birth families due to economic hardships. There are those that are moderately frequent representing 29% of the respondent, this tandem that fact the youth needs to pick up household leadership roles and responsibilities. This therefore calls for the frequency in their travels in attempts to explore other avenues of gaining income to remit home. Lastly, about 15% of the youth less frequently migrate to other communities. Respondents within this category attributed their frequency of movement to the discovery of small scale mining centres within the district which are within their reach. They only travel to these areas to engage in the mining activities any time they hear that the gold has



appeared in large quantities.

In literature, Uma et al., (2013) revealed that most of the youth frequently migrate to areas they believe have high economic opportunities for them. This is mostly observed among the skilled and innovative youth in rural communities which has led to a fall in human capital stocks.

4.4.2 Length of Time Migrants spent before returning to their community

The time an individual spent away from his/her place of birth was considered by the study. The 395 respondents provided responses as to the length of time spent in their new locations. The responses are presented in table 4.7 below.

Table 4. 7: Length of Time spent

Time Frame	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 3 months	35	9
3-6 months	68	17
7-12 months	124	31
Over 12 months	168	43
Total	395	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016





In table 4.5 above, the findings exposes the length of time that youth migrants stay before they return to their home communities or district. It can be observed that 9% of the respondents indicated that the youth migrants stay less than three (3) months before they return. This category of youth were mostly those in secondary institutions who use the holiday period to go to southern Ghana to engage in farming activities and other petty trading activities like (kayaye) to enable them cater for their basic needs when school resume. The majority constituting 43% of youth migrants who stay longer above a year (over 12 months) in their destination location are mostly those who are either adventurous desirous of getting similar goodies like returned migrants or willing to explore the much alluded opportunities that exist in the urban areas. Those who stay with time periods of between 3-12 months are those who have either accomplish their mention or failed or aborted their missions. Hence they return back to their home districts afterwards.

In literature, Cwerner (2001), indicated that time-wise, the threshold for the statistical recording of migration (as opposed to other forms of mobility like tourism) is usually set at one year in the host country, but beyond this lie enormous variations: from migrants on one-year contracts to those staying for, say, five or ten years, to permanent settlers. He further opined that temporary migration leads sooner or later to return migration, whilst permanent migrants may make return visits to their home country from time to time. Note that the one-year threshold leaves out seasonal migrants, who are vital to certain economic sectors such as agriculture, tourism and construction.

4.3.3 Types of Youth Migration

Youth migration in the Wa East district has been categorized into three (3) major dimensions.

Table 4. 8: Type of Youth Migration

Type of migration	Frequency	Percent (%)
Rural-Rural Migration	150	38
Rural-Urban Migration	220	56
Rural-International	25	6
Total	395	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Migration of the youth in Wa East has been predominately a rural-urban one with about 56% of the youth populace moving from the district to southern urban centres to engage, with a few moving to the urban centres within the region. That notwithstanding 38% of the youth also engage in rural to rural migration this mostly consist those moving to during the off season in the northern part of Ghana to southern part to engage in seasonal farming, mostly in cocoa plantations. The remaining 6% mostly returnees, who upon return from urban centres are convinced that moving to international levels upon their engagement with overseas returnees are encourage to engage in such adventures.



In literature, Cohen (1996) and King (2012) offered typologies of migration, mainly based on what they variously call migration binaries, dichotomies or dyads. They stress that these dualities need to be blurred and deconstructed. Several have been referred to already: internal vs. international, temporary vs. permanent, and regular vs. irregular migration. Another important, yet problematic, divide is that between voluntary and forced migration, for instance ‘economic’ migrants vs. refugees. All these categorizations are useful up to a point, but can break down in practice. Many migrants move both internally and internationally, one type of move followed by the other. Temporary migration can morph into permanent settlement, as migrants who intended to stay for a limited period of time continually postpone their return until it never happens (Castles *et al*, 1984).

4.5 Identified Reasons influencing Youth Migration

Respondents have identified certain external factors or reasons which influences their decision to move away from their places of birth.

Reason 1: *To enable one start his/her own business*

Reason 2: *To support one’s Education*

Reason 3: *To seek better medical support*

Reason 4: *To enhance one’s personal development through exposure.*



Table 4. 9: Reasons for Youth Migration

Reason	Communities									Total	Rank
	Fun	Baa	Kun	Log	Bul	Kul	Gor	Duc	Buf		
R.1	34	7	11	18	20	10	24	9	5	138	1 st
R.2	25	4	6	8	12	9	21	7	3	95	3 rd
R.3	12	3	4	7	8	6	5	4	1	50	4 th
R.4	23	9	10	17	15	10	19	7	2	112	2 nd

Source: Field Survey 2016

Note: **Fun**-Fungsi, **Baa**-Baayiri, **Kun**- Kundugu, **Log**-Loggu, **Bul**-Bulenga, **Kul**-Kulkpong, **Gor**- Goripie, **Duc**-Ducie, **Buf**-Buffiama.

The study went further to ascertain the reasons behind youth migration in the district. It also ranked these reason and which of the reasoning was more pushing enough among the sampled towns and villages in the district. The most outstanding was the reason; starting peoples own business which needed initial capital to invest, this constituted 138 of the respondents. It is not surprising because 24.5% of these respondents were mostly from the district capital. This is further to buttress the point of the need for capital for the start of business and also the lack of employment opportunities in the district, because employment is usually limited to farming.

The second ranked reasoning behind migration was also for the purposes of personal development through education, exposure to different people and working environment aside the surrounding of the district where there is little capital and infrastructural



investment to help develop potentials of the growing youth. Mostly education which is seen as the key to development was one of the third ranked reasons why the youth migrate. They most often than not need financial support purchase the basic needs for furthering their education, hence the need to travel and engage in miniature jobs that will help them save and invest in their education for brighter futures which education has promised.

The findings of the study fall in line with what has been observed in literature. A review of the literature showed that youth migration takes place for economic (Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009), educational, social and political reasons (Abdul-Korah, 2008) which are all identified in the push-pull factors of migration. The decision to migrate could be personal as well as based on a household need. People simply vacate their posts, resign or take leave without notice (Awases et al., 2004). However, the reasons for migrating as revealed by the study, vary from country to country though there are common causes that studies on migration have shown to be consistent with all forms of migration that contribute to emigration and immigration.

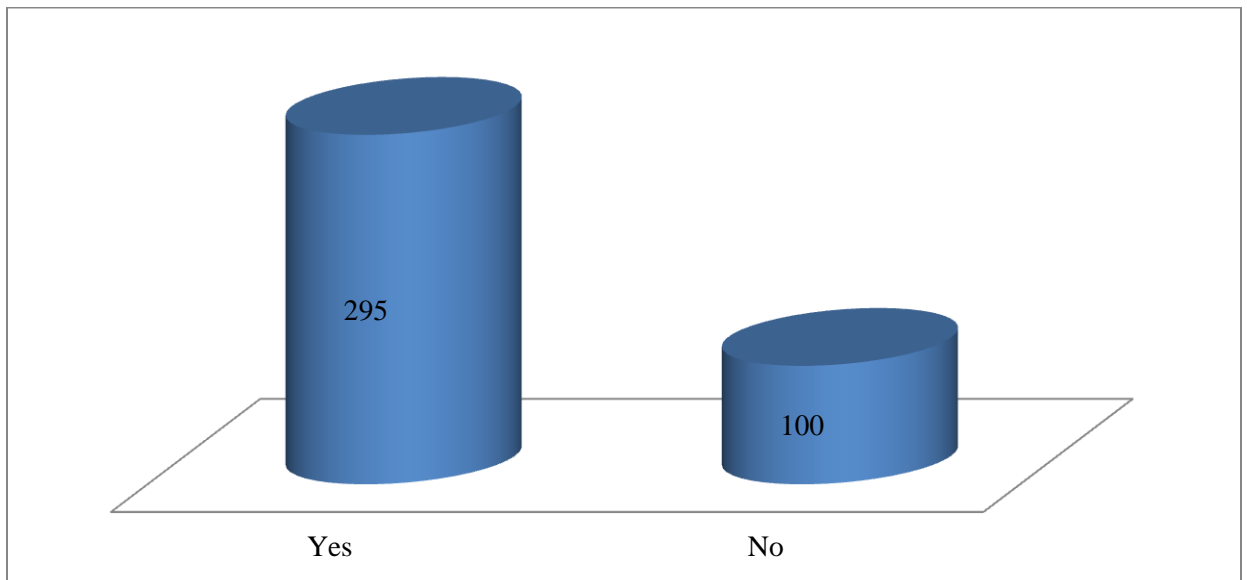
4.6 Youth Migration and Community Development

The youth of any community have a significant impact on the growth of that country or community. This is because the youth have the potential to shape the future of the community through the replacement of the previous generation in important political, social and cultural roles. The youth are always the ones' to get involve in various developmental activities. The involvement of the youth in development process makes



such development sustainable and continuous. These are the human capital under which all development perspectives of all communities or country are drawn, hence there involvement not only a requirement but rather a need for effective development. The section below fast forwarding props how youth migration contributes to the development of the Wa East District.

Figure 4. 3: Youth Involvement in Developmental Activities



Source: Field Survey, 2016.

From the figure 4.4.1 above, 295 respondents representing about 74.6% acknowledged their total involvement in the development of the district, whereas 25.6% of the respondents were negative about their participation in development. The involvement were further categorized into three thematic areas thus youth as natural leaders, security



apparatus and youth as labour force the community and the nation as whole as show in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4. 10: Youth as Natural Leaders

Likert Response	Frequency	Percent (%)
Very Important	110	28
Somewhat Important	90	23
Not Important	195	49
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Natural leaders are people who out of self-determination are willing to take risk or are adventurous when they are faced with challenges. This the youth consider as relatively important to the development of the district as about 51% consider their involvement as relatively important to the development needs of the district. However 49% of youth see that such natural leaders pay less roles in the development of the district, since they presence are hardly releases and impacts take long before they seen. To support this, Levitt (2008) revealed that young migrants might not only transmit new norms and values (e.g. importance of education, lower rate of reproduction), but they may also interpret and adapt them to their original context and form strong leadership for the community. There is evidence that young migrants who have studied abroad can have influence in their home societies, fostering prodemocracy attitudes (Spilimbergo, 2009).



Table 4. 11: Youth as Security Apparatus

Likert Response	Frequency	Percent
Very Important	285	72
Somewhat Important	40	10
Not Important	70	18
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016.

The security of every community is essential as a less secured community is vulnerable to all sorts of challenges. As mentioned earlier the youth is the core of human capital of development and they also form the security detail in terms of providing capital in farming and also providing adequate security for the aged. Table 4.4.2 illustrate the important role the youth play in their attempts in addressing security development of the Wa East district, thus the reason why about 72% of the responses seeing the youth an important tool to engineering security development. The youth don't just provide security; they are also a strong force of human labour in communal development process as noted by a respondent.



Table 4. 12: Youth as Labor Force

Likert Response	Frequency	Percent
Very Important	310	79
Somewhat Important	55	14
Not Important	30	7
Total	395	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From table 4.4.3 above, about 79% of the youth have participated in providing communal labour needed in facilitating development in their communities whereas 14% of the respondent considered youth as labor force to be somewhat important. An insignificant percentage of seven (7%) do not consider youth as labor force for the community to be important.

4.7 Evaluation of Research Questions

In the estimation of this study, the backbone to community participation, security and community development lies in the hands of the youth. The presence of the youth in every community is critical to its collective stability and transformation. However, the youth is sometimes challenged by certain responsibilities by either the family level or the community for which reason they are tempted to look elsewhere for hopes to be able to shoulder some of their responsibilities. From the perspective of resource availability for the youth in the various communities of the Wa East to engage and stay are enormous, but limited in variety. These resources include: vast agricultural land, dams for irrigation





purposes, and dugouts, these are supposed to encourage the youth to stay in their communities on the contrary the youth see less potential in agriculture since it is believe as a way of life than as a source of livelihood. Hence their constant migration to different settings to engage in jobs which are less paying but returns are faster than that of agriculture back in Wa East which is seasonal. These stem from the experience of return migrants who upon return are able to save enough capital to either establish their own business. The push factors mentioned in the neoclassical theory, which see that levels of income as in returns been limited in meeting the needs of the youth visa-vi the activities that they engaged in, hence the need for emigration of the youth out of the district. This is evident as 34.6% of migrants reason for migration has been to get the needed capital to either start a business or facilitate his/her business activities.

Like in many other places, the marital status of people in the Wa East influences their decision to migrate from their community of birth. This was revealed by the outcome of the data collected from the field. The institution of marriage in the African cultural sense involves the movement (this could be the migration from one geographical location to the other) to settle with a spouse. In cases where death occurs, under certain jurisdiction, widows/widowers are compelled to move due to suspicions of their involvement in their partners' death. They could also move as a result of new marriages or distancing themselves to avoid the pain of the lost. People may also migrate from their area of birth to other places in search of life partners.

4.8 Impact of Return Migrants

The section of highlights and illustrate how the impactful the role that return migrants play in either encouraging or deterring the youth of engaging in migration.

Their experiences and revelations help shape the future of other migrants or potential ones. One of several of such migrants interviewed opined that;

“I made some money and use it as capital. On my return to the community, I was able to establish two businesses with my capital. I realize that other people try to also establish but they could not do as they were not having capital like me”

This hasn't only shaped the view of potential migrants but also provide them with a solid ground of hope when they do migrate to urban centres they would return with the needed capital enough to cater for the needs of their business and also be able to cater for the needs of their immediate families.

4.9 Human Capital Development

Furthermore when it comes to human capital development the impact of return of migrants is enormous, since a large percentage take time to learn a trade of two which develop them to be responsible for their livelihood and that of others. This mostly common with female returnees who are engage in dress-making, hair-dressing, bead-making among others which hinder to where assent in the Wa East district. This is supports studies that of (Ratha 2007) which suggest that return migrants have positive



economic implication in the receiving district. A young lady returnee during interview revealed that;

“I was able to learn a trade (Dressing Making) and now I have a shop. As I am able to do this, others want to also travel out of the community to also learn a trade or look for other jobs. I know some people are trying to copy me and so my return is influencing the youth in my community (Bulenga)”.

This self-development of migrants has also turn into a motivational factor that encourage others to also migrant to either join the trade of the returnees to either compete or engage in different trades and come with different perspectives to complement the existing.

4.10 Networking and Exposure.

According to (Black, *et al.*, 2006; Freemantle, 2011) migration had both economic and social capital impacts on the receipt town / communities since the exposures of to urban life style, gives them a different worldviews different from what they have perceived in the environments. They call it enlightenment and “eye opening”. This most of than not influences their demands. Examples include there way of dressing, they food demands, their demands from the society as stated by a respondent:

“I have been enlightened now and I can say is because of my travel out of Funsì to others places like Wa, Kumasi, Tamale and Accra. Any time I returned back to Funsì, I bring new and nice clothes and sandals which cannot be found in the community. I even give some of these clothes to my friends”.

There is an overwhelming potential in the life of the returnee migrants to their communities, however there are associated negatives to these which when not cater for



will degenerate the moral fiber upon which the society is built in the rural area (receipt of returnee migrants). Due to competitive nature of the urban environment there is general demand for space and time and the moral bar is highly applicable in activities as may apply in the rural settings. This is not surprising when an elder mentioned.

“when they come back from there techiman and Accra they don’t respect we the elders and hence engage in a lot immoral activities because they believe they have made their own money”

In literature, it has been established that migration is a decision that impacts the welfare of the household, the home community, and in the end the whole economy in various ways (Azam and Gubert 2006). Migration contributes directly or indirectly to development in many ways. Urban employment brings economic and material gains to some migrants (Black et al., 2006; Freemantle, 2011). Through their voluntary tribal associations, to which some of them have great attachment and commitment, the migrants, especially the successful ones, can help in the planning and implementation of various projects at their home towns and villages (Addison, 2005). In many cases, the tribal associations have contributed to projects including the installation of street lights, building and maintenance of roads, streets, schools, clinics and health posts, wells and other sources of water supply.

The welfare implications of migration on the places of origin are most often, though not always, sizable and positive. The two main channels through which migration alleviates poverty are increased incomes from remittances, ability to smooth consumption, access to finance for starting a new business, as well as tapping on to the knowledge and resources



provided by the international community of the migrant diaspora. Besides pure monetary gains, migration and remittances allow for higher investment in health care and, the health implications could be positive or negative. The positive impacts can be seen in the improvement of family diet that constitutes all the required food nutrients needed for human health.

Furthermore, migration has been observed to increase health knowledge in addition to the direct effect on wealth, which has led to lower rates of infant mortality and higher birth rates (Hildebrandt & McKenzie, 2005). Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health-improving practices such as drinking safe water and better sanitation (UNDP, 2009). On the other hand, migration as such might also present a threat to migrant's health as certain jobs expose migrants to occupational hazards, such as tuberculosis, pneumoconiosis and workplace injury by mine workers (Kahn *et al.* 2003). Increased mobility of workers has also contributed to a rapid spread of communicable diseases such as HIV (Decosas *et al.*, 1995; Lurie 2000; Lurie *et al.* 2000; Brummer, 2002).

4.11 Conclusion

From pregnant positives externalities of expanded human capital, to the development of skills, increased in household income, the reduction in burdens of parents to cater for the needs of the children among others, one can say without an invocation that migration doesn't only draw the urban area to the rural area but the impact of return migrants puts the rural area on the map of the demanding for the basic life substance issue since these enlighten migrants consider demand for them will further pressurized there provision.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The final section of the study is designated as Chapter Five and it provides the summary of key findings of the entire study. The chapter also presents the conclusions of the study from which it made recommendations for policy makers and future researchers. The study made its conclusion based on the major findings and with respect to various views express in literature. Also, the recommendations are made based on the revelations of the study which the study believes can help strengthen the decentralization process in Ghana.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

The study involved the demographic characteristics of respondents with the view to understanding the different opinion expressed by different people. This presented data on the sex, age, educational background marital status, and the occupation of respondents. The involvement of these elements is to help determine how these demographic characteristics influence the understanding of migration issues and the delivery of basic social services to the people. In the view of the current study, migration offers young women and men the prospects to obtain productive and decent employment, learn new skills and improve their socio-economic status. The phenomenon also increases the human and financial capital of many communities including the Wa East District. In many parts of Ghana including the Wa East District, youth migration is anticipated to increase which will give the youth tremendous potential for enhancing and sustaining development, productivity, and economic stability across the entire country. Like in other





districts, young people in the Wa East are facing limited opportunities for decent work. Some of the youth are confronted with political circumstances, social situations or life conditions which are forcing them to leave their communities of birth to places they consider safe and better. Others migrate to reunite with their families, get married or pursue opportunities for tertiary education abroad. At the same time, young people are in demand for employment at all skill levels in destination countries.

Based on these, the study revealed that the male migrants dominated the study. The 2010 Population and Housing Census for the district showed that the male population of the district outweighs that of the female population and this reflected in the migrant statistics (GSS, 2010). Also in the district, the youth between the age group of 25-34 years and 35-44 years are the most migrants as the results show that over 60% of the youth migrants are within this age bracket. The youth between the age group of 15-24 years, 25-34 years and 35-44 years are the most migrants as the results show that over 80% of the youth migrants are within this age bracket who turn to seek greener pasture.

The results as well show that majority of the respondents who regularly migrate are single and they constitute about 49%. Most of these people use the opportunity to search for life partners and those who were married migrants constituted 30%. The married migrants do engage in this act with view of bettering the living condition of their families. With regards to occupation, the result further indicates that majority of the respondents were those unemployed and those within the informal sector. The findings revealed that about 80% of the youth are potential migrants because the businesses they do are seasonal

which require them to be travelling in and out of the district during the lean season and carrying out similar works in different environment. It was also observed that the experiences migrants gained through their in-and-out movement from their place of birth shape their thinking as well as their way of life. The decision of fresh migrants was influenced by the old migrants who have been “living well” because of their migration in and out of the communities.

A lot of people (93%) in the Wa East District attested to the fact that a lot of youth are moving away from their communities due to various reasons. In the district, Funsu, Loggu, Bulenga and Goripie are most affected communities when it comes to youth migration. The findings revealed that the youth of the district have become more adventurous of late and as such their quest move from the district to other places where they can explore life to its fullest. Majority of the youth further reiterated their stands on migrating from the district as a result of the absence of opportunities befitting their dreams and aspirations. Moreover their inability to access modern day tools and equipment like good communication network services and also the non-existence of good road networks and inaccessibility of good health facilities. On the other hand, few people express the view that were of the view that the youth are not that adventurous because of their involvement in family activities and farming in their communities and hence do not emigrate from the community. Data from the field further showed that the recent discovery of gold in some communities has further necessitated the staying of the youth in the communities and most of them have ventured into small scale mining.





As observed in literature, there various factors that influences individual's decision to migrate from their original settlement to new destinations. In the Wa East District, economic conditions varying from access to decent job opportunity to improved incomes were ranked as the most push reason why most of the youth migrate from the district to other districts. This was not surprising because it supports the findings of Hall, (2005) and Kangasniemi et al. (2007) in their studies which indicated that the need for improved conditions of living including getting decent incomes were the foremost reasons that youth migrants gave in their studies. Also, the need to meet new people and increase the human network base of the youth was yet another influential factor motivating the youth of Wa East to continuously migrate to other cities. Most of the youth indicated that they travel away from their communities in order to increase their social contacts and widen their network base and they acknowledge this as a new form of development need of the youth. The need to fulfill the basic household obligations further compelled the youth to migrant from their various homes. This was evident as some of the youth identified House obligation and size as a factor that influences them to migrate from the district.

The frequency at which the youth migrate from the Wa East District is very high. At any point in time, over 50% of the youth in the district do migrate to the cities in search for better living conditions. However in recent times, majority of the youth only engage in rural-rural migration dues to the discovery of gold in near-by communities like Manwe and Polley. The findings of the study further revealed the length of time that youth migrants stay before they return to their home communities or district. The findings indicates that majority of the youth stayed over six (6) months before returning their

communities. The few individual youth who stayed less than three (3) months were mostly those in secondary institutions who use the holiday period to go to southern Ghana to engage in farming activities and other petty trading activities like (kayaye) to enable them cater for their basic needs when school resume.

Like in other districts, the youth of Wa District play a significant role on the growth of their community and the district at large. The findings of the study showed that over 80% of the youth available in the district actively participate in the developmental activities in the district. Though most of the youth felt neglected when it comes to leadership in their communities, substantial number of them considered to be the natural leaders and are willing to take up the mantle of leadership in their communities. As recognized by many, the youth is the core of human capital of development for any community. The youth in the Wa East District constitute the security detail in terms of providing capital in farming and also providing adequate security for the aged in the district. As shown by the results, the youth did not only provide security; they also provide a strong force of human labour in communal development process.

It is also important to indicate the lives of return migrants have been very influential and impactful on the decision of the youth to emigrate from their place of birth to new places. As observed, the results revealed that the experiences and revelations of these return migrants help shape the thinking and minds of other migrants or potential ones. With orientation, potential migrants are provided with a solid ground of hope to migrate to urban centres and most of them believe they will return with the needed capital enough to



cater for the needs of their business and also be able to cater for the needs of their immediate families. From all these, it is important to understand the role of migration in development as it may help to make policies more relevant to peoples' livelihood strategies, and more sensitive to the negative consequences of certain measures put in place by the central government.

5.3 Conclusions of the Study

The concept of migration has differently been described by various scholars. Many of these scholars described the concept in such a manner that could suit their field of studies. But generally, migration is noted to involve the movements of people across international borders (out-migration) and within country (in-migration). This could broadly includes migrant workers, international displaced people, asylum seekers, refugees, illegal migrants and victims of human trafficking (WHO, 2007). As indicated by Millington (1994) migration involves the movement of people which is driven by labor market consideration. The movement also entails both a change in residence and changes of jobs. Migration could further be viewed as the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence, usually across a political boundary.

Across the Globe, there has been an improved pledge by Governments in many countries especially in the developing countries to address youth unemployment. To the international community, addressing youth unemployment is an adequate means of fighting extreme poverty in the country. Most importantly, dealing with it adequately



ensures that individual countries equitably distribute their resources and meet their development goals. This has led to an increasing demand for relevant information on how labor markets operate, especially in the context of addressing youth unemployment challenge (Amankrah, 2006).

Across disciplines, rural-urban migration is one social demographic phenomenon that cannot be ignored and this can be attributed to its significance on the development of communities. As observed by Azam and Gubert (2006) migration as an individual decision impacts on the welfare of many households, home communities as well as the whole economy in diverse ways. Like in many other communities, migration contributes directly or indirectly to development of the Wa East District in many ways. Those of the youth who migrated to the urban centers got employed and as result are able to bring economic and material gains to their communities. In the Wa East District most of the youth belong to voluntary tribal associations and have great attachment and commitment to those associations. The successful youth migrants assisted financially in the execution of many projects in their home towns and villages. Some of these projects included the installation of street lights, building and maintenance of roads, streets, schools, clinics and health posts, wells and other sources of water supply. Furthermore, the issue of youth migration has brought enormous positives externalities which included expanded human capital, development of skills, increased in household income as well as a reduction in burdens of parents to cater for the needs of the children. From the above, one can say without any doubt that migration doesn't only draw the urban area to the rural area but the impact of return migrants puts the rural area on the map of the demanding for the



basic life substance issue since these enlighten migrants consider demand for them will further pressurized there provision.

5.4 Recommendations

With the experiences gained from the field that the study recommends the following to traditional, policy makers and other potential researchers who might be interested in exploring the issue of migration and its consequences on development of rural communities.

1. In Ghana, few policies relate directly to migration, particularly at the national level and in line with this, the study recommends that the government formulate policies that would focus on enabling environments, enabling migrants to build up their own livelihoods and express their own capacities. With the large scale of male labour migration, gender-sensitive policies should also be enhanced to assist those staying behind build their livelihoods and reduce vulnerability among them.
2. There should also be an institutional support from the Assembly to deal with the needs and demands of the over growing population in the district. This type of support should come in a form of logistics, equipment and other Agricultural and sanitation facilities that can enable the youth focus on their farming and health activities. The NGOs in the district should also increase their sensitization and training activities to constantly build the capacity of youth so that they can take job opportunities in the district. This will build the human capital base of the district.



3. Furthermore, the central government should collaborate with the Assemblies towards organizing sensitization programmes where minors of school going age will be educated on the dangers of migrating to unknown places. This will shape the thinking, behavior and perception of the youth on so many issues affecting the development of the Wa East District.
4. Also, the study recommends that NGOs and other development partners should roll out practical measures that have the potential to improve the conditions of employment, arrangements for child care, health and hygiene, and education in the district. This will encourage community members to stay and work for the development of the district.
5. Lastly, the study recommends that future researchers should consider investigating deeply other social and economic factors motivating the youth to migrate to other places. This will help identify more factors influencing youth migration.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE GENERAL PUBLIC

Abdul-Razak Waasi-u is my name, a student of University for Development Studies. As a partial fulfilment of my MPhil degree, I am conducting a research entitled; **Exploring the Influence of Youth Emigration on Community Development in the Wa East District of the Upper West Region of Ghana.** Your response to this questionnaire is highly important as it will enhance the credibility of my thesis. I hope it will not take you more than 10 minutes to complete the questions. I will like to assure you that your response to questions will be treated under the strict ethics of research, thus anonymity and confidentiality. I sincerely would like to thank you very much for accepting to participate in this survey. I really appreciate your time and energy spent on this questionnaire.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Please tick the appropriate box

1. Sex;

Male [] Female []

2. Age

Less than 15 year [] 15-24 [] 25-34 [] 35-44 [] Above 44
[]

3. Marital Status

Married [] Single [] Divorced [] Widowed []

4. Level of education



No formal Education []

JHS/SHS graduate []

College/Undergraduate []

5. Occupation

Formal sector []

Informal Sector []

Unemployed []

SECTION B: YOUTH AND MIGRATION

1. Does the youth of your town Migrate to other towns?

Yes []

No []

2. What is the age group of those who travel to these other towns?

Less than 15 years []

15-24 []

25-34 []

35-44 []

3. How frequent do they travel to these other towns?

Very frequently []

Moderately frequent []

Less frequently []

4. For how long do they stay in these towns?



Less than month []

1-6 months []

7-12 months []

Over 12 months []

5. Are the youth migrants able to maintain links with their communities as they are in their new destination?

Yes []

No []

6. Which of the following best describes the movement of the youth?

Rural-rural []

Rural-Urban []

Rural-International []

7. In your opinion, what are some of the reasons why the youth of your town travel to these other towns? Please mention them.

a.

...

b.

...

c.

...

d.

...



8. Are the youth able to return home after leaving the community for some time?

Yes []

No []

9. What differences do you see in the youth as they travel back home?

a.

.....

b.

.....

c.

.....

d.

.....

10. In your opinion, do you think the life of these return migrants have any influence on those who have not travel before?

Yes []

No []

11. If yes, please can you kindly explain how the life of these returned migrants have influence or affected other youth in the community?

.....

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.....

12. The following are classified as “motivational factors” for migration and as such form the basis upon which youth leave their original homes to other places. How



important do you consider these motivational factors to youth migration in the Wa East District? Please tick the appropriate box based on the scale provided as follows;

1= Very Important, 2= Somewhat Important, 3= Not Important

Motivational Factors	1	2	3
To enable one start his/her own business	[]	[]	[]
To support one's Education	[]	[]	[]
To seek better medical support	[]	[]	[]
To enhance one's personal development through exposure	[]	[]	[]

The following are recognized to be factors influencing the youth to migrate from their areas of origin. To what extent do you agree or disagree? Please indicate by ticking the appropriate box.

1= Strongly Agree, 2= Agree, 3= Disagree, 4= Strongly Disagree

Determinants	1	2	3	4
Household composition	[]	[]	[]	[]
Gendered ideologies	[]	[]	[]	[]
social contacts and networks	[]	[]	[]	[]
Economic conditions	[]	[]	[]	[]
Religious/ Ethnic conflicts	[]	[]	[]	[]



	[]	[]	[]	[]
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SECTION C: YOUTH MIGRATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

1. Before their migration, have the youth been involved in the development of their communities within district?

Yes []

No []

If yes, what development activities were they involved in prior to their travel? Please mention

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

2. In your opinion, how does youth involvement influence the development of their community?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. What are some of the developmental activities that have been affected by youth migration





- 1= Very Important, 2= Somewhat Important, 3= Not Important**

6. Are the youth being able to carry out these responsibilities whiles they are away from the community?

- 140

7. If yes, by what means are they able to perform these responsibilities?

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APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE YOUTH

Abdul-Razak Waasi-u is my name, a student of University for Development Studies. As a partial fulfilment of my MPhil degree, I am conducting a research entitled; **Exploring the Influence of Youth Emigration on Community Development in the Wa East District of the Upper West Region of Ghana.** Your response to this questionnaire is highly important as it will enhance the credibility of my thesis. I hope it will not take you more than 10 minutes to complete the questions. I will like to assure you that your response to questions will be treated under the strict ethics of research, thus anonymity and confidentiality. I sincerely would like to thank you very much for accepting to participate in this survey. I really appreciate your time and energy spent on this questionnaire.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Please tick the appropriate box

13. Sex

Male [☐] Female [☐]

14. Age

15-24 [☐] 25-34 [☐] 35-44 [☐] Above 44 [☐]

15. Marital Status

Married [☐] Single [☐] Divorced [☐] Widowed [☐]

16. Level of education

No formal Education [☐]

JHS/SHS graduate [☐]



College/Undergraduate []

17. Occupation

Formal sector []

Informal Sector []

Unemployed []

SECTION B: YOUTH MIGRATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

1. As a youth, have you ever migrated from your town to other towns?

Yes []

No []

2. Are you able to maintain links with your community you are in your new destination?

Yes []

No []

3. How frequent do you travel to other towns?

Very frequently []

Moderately frequent []

Less frequently []

4. For how long do you stay in these towns?

Less than 3 month []

Between 3-6 months []



7-12 months []

Over 12 months []

5. Which of the following best describes your movement?

Rural-rural []

Rural-Urban []

Rural-International []

6. What are some of the reasons why you travel to other towns? Please mention them.

a.

b.

c.

d.

6. Are you able to return home after leaving the community for some time?

Yes []

No []

7. What differences do you see in yourself as you travel back home?

e.

.....

f.

.....

g.

.....

h.

.....



8. In your opinion, do you think your life after the travel has any influence on those who have not travelled before?

Yes []

No []

9. Please can you kindly explain how your life of these returned migrants have influence or affected other youth in the community?

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10. How important do you consider these motivational factors to youth migration in the Wa East District? Please tick the appropriate box based on the scale provided as follows;

1= Very Important, 2= Somewhat Important, 3= Not Important

Motivational Factors	1	2	3
To enable one start his/her own business	[]	[]	[]
To support one's Education	[]	[]	[]
To seek better medical support	[]	[]	[]
To enhance one's personal development through exposure	[]	[]	[]

11. Before your migration, have you been involved in the development of your local community within the district?



Yes []

No []

If yes, what development activities were you involved in prior to your travel? Please mention

e.

f.

g.

h.

12. In your opinion, how did your involvement influence the development of the community?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. As you and other youth leave the community, do you think community will be able to undertake its developmental activities effectively?

Yes []

No []

14. What are some of the developmental activities that you think have been affected due your migration?

a.

.....

.....



b.

.....

.....

c.

.....

.....

d.

.....

.....

15. How important do you consider the following responsibilities of the youth in terms of development.

1= Very Important, 2= Somewhat Important, 3= Not Important

Youth Responsibility	1	2	3
Youth are the natural leaders for the community	[]	[]	[]
Youth provides the security apparatus for the community	[]	[]	[]
Youth forms the labour force for the community	[]	[]	[]

16. Are you able to perform these responsibilities when you were away from the community?

Yes []

No []

17. If yes, by what means were you able to perform these responsibilities?



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