

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

INFLUENCE OF LIVELIHOOD ENHANCEMENT PROGRAMMES ON  
RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN THE EASTGONJA DISTRICT OF  
NORTHERN REGION

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NORTHERN REGION

BY

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THIS ADVOCACY PROJECT IS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF  
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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this 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:

Candidate: Sunkwa Victor Asamoah

Signature:..... Date:.....

### Supervisors' Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor: Dr. Frank K. Teng-Zeng

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**Co-Supervisor:** Dr. Agatha Inkoom

Signature:..... Date:.....



## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my dear wife, Frico Hawa Belinda and my children Lovia Kodom, Vitalis Adorye, and Bryan Anim and to my late brother Sunkwa Augustine Yirenkyi.



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## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
GSOP	Ghana Social Opportunity Project
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
RING	Resiliency in Northern Ghana
SD	Sustainable Development
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development



## ABSTRACT

This study assessed the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration in the Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung and Libi communities in the East Gonja District in the Northern Region of Ghana. The descriptive and cross-sectional designs were adopted for the study. A representative sample size of 502 was selected out of the total population for the study. Semi-structured questionnaire was used for data collection. The descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data, including means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. Bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to identify the relationships. The product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) was used for the analysis. Inferential statistical tools like ANOVA, paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test were used in relevant comparisons in the data. The results revealed that the majority of the respondents associated migration with wealth and higher social status. The study also revealed that most of the beneficiaries in the Sheanut Processing Programme and the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme had either no challenge or very little challenge in understanding the new techniques, whereas most of the participants of the GSOP and RING project had moderate and very high challenge in understanding the new techniques being taught. It is recommended that a more in-depth internal assessment of the programmes be made to bring out their effectiveness on the livelihoods of beneficiaries. More sensitisation of the community members needs to be embarked on given that even most of the income sufficient community members had intentions to migrate for exposure and higher social status.



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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 Background to the Study

Rural-urban migration in developing countries has historically been an important part of the urbanisation process, but has also been labelled as the source of several urban and rural livelihood challenges (Lall, Selod & Shalizi, 2006). Although remittances remain one of the most crucial benefits of rural-urban migration in developing countries, several studies have established deleterious effects of high rural to urban migration of both destinations and the origins of the migrants (Ajaero & Onokala, 2013; Comwell & Inder, 2004; Mears, 1997). At the destinations, the development of squatters, over-population and intensification of urban, unemployment, underemployment, and poverty remain some of the developmental concerns that arise from high rural-urban migration.

Ajaero and Onokala (2013) noted that many developing countries have over concentrated capital cities with unmatched infrastructural development. This necessitates the need to decongest cities and spread development throughout the regions. In this regard, two models explain the causal theories of rural-urban migration and derive the possible reversal methods for rural-urban drift of labour.

First, the Lewis's (1954) Dual Sector Model established that rural-urban migration occurs because industrial sectors in urban areas has high demand for labour and offers wages that are higher than earnings in rural agricultural sector which is also characterised by zero marginal productivity. Thus, in this model higher wages is the most significant pull factor attracting rural labour to urban



jobs. While there are many assumptions in this theory, it presupposes that higher/competitive wages in rural employments could reverse or slow down the rate of rural-urban migration.

Second, the Todaro (1976) model, however, argues that the expectation of higher wages incomes in urban cities is the most significant factor underlying rural-urban migration, as opposed to actual wages. Todaro (1976) establishes that individuals compare the expected gains from the rural and urban employment opportunities and choose the one that gives the most gains from migration. This theory supposes that, if rural employments are made attractive enough, in terms of higher earnings, rural-urban migration could be reversed or slowed down.

Amalgamating the central ideas of the two models reveals that migration is primarily a rational economic decision underscored by expectations of higher real incomes in urban employments. This proposition has received several attestations through time and in different countries. For example, some studies conducted in Peru (Anderson et al., 2001), Bolivia (Todaro, 2003), South Africa (Comwell & Inder, 2004; Mears, 1997), Nigeria (Abass, 2012; Ajaero & Onokala, 2013; Johnnie, 1988), and Ghana (Caldwell, 1968; Appianing, 2013; Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995), typify rural-urban migration as an economic decision, where rural folk, usually of working age attempt to find better paying urban employments. Moreover, the theories presuppose that enhancing rural livelihoods, especially in terms of actual or expected earnings, has a potential to reverse or slow down the labour drift from rural to urban areas to levels that are not harmful to either the origins or the destinations.







Governments in developing countries, and in the specific case of Africa, have shown both intent and dedication to rural development, not only for the alleviation of rural poverty, but also as a means of curtailing rural-urban migration and sustaining the agricultural economic sector (Denkyi, 2013). For example, the Bage (2004) reported that in signing the Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa, African leaders resolved to allocate at least 10 percent of their national budgets to implement sound policies for agricultural and rural development.

Central to rural development programmes, and even more important to reversing rural-urban migration are efforts to improve on rural livelihoods, which usually revolve around primary economic engagement, including agriculture and other farming activities, as well as non-farming activities, such as mining/quarrying, pottery, weaving (FAO, 2007). In addition to developing existing livelihoods, other studies have noted an approach which involves rural livelihood diversification (United Nations, 2007; Mehta, 2009; Joshi et al., 2007). Mehta (2009) noted that rural employment diversification may take two forms: first, the household may engage in the alternative choices in the labour market and undertake different forms of rural employment, and second, additional income may be earned by the household from a diversified source.

One important concept for the success of rural livelihood enhancement programmes to yield expected results is the sustainability of the interventions. In the context of the livelihood framework, a sustainable intervention would have to take into account the current and forecasted shocks, trends, and seasonality of



rural livelihoods, as well as the resources or capitals available to rural folk, along with the institutions that can support the sustainability of interventions. This usually conforms to a participatory rural approach which was first developed in India and Kenya by non-governmental organisations operating at the grass-root level (FAO, 1999).

In Ghana, efforts made to enhance the economic lives of rural folks date back to 1943 when the idea to establish the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development was first considered (Essiamang, 2011). Over the years several government-funded initiatives, including the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program (CAADP) and the Accelerated Agricultural Modernisation initiatives, have been established for rural development. The core target of these programmes is to reduce rural poverty, notwithstanding the potential of these initiatives to slow down the rate of rural to urban migration. These programmes have involved a multi-sectorial approach of infrastructural development, agricultural development initiatives, as well as educational programmes aimed at collectively improving and sustaining rural livelihoods.

In Ghana, several studies have noted that the north-south migration, as well as the rural-urban migration is fuelled by a considerable development gap between the northern and southern Ghana (Kunfa, 1999; Mensah-Bonsu, 2003). Kwame-Darko (2013) also found that rural-urban migration in parts of the Central Gonja District was due to lack of jobs or sustainable economic activities in the rural areas, which reflected the north-south development gap.



One of the northern districts with serious out-migration issues is the East-Gonja district. On February 6, 2014, Alhaji Ibrahim Dey, the Member of Parliament for Salaga South acknowledged this challenge in a parliamentary discussion (GhanaWeb, February 6, 2014). He also stated that the situation is so grave that apart from the deleterious effects of out-migration from Salaga and the other rural areas in the district, rural-urban drift had contributed to shortages of brides.

However, there have been some livelihood diversification facilities in the East-Gonja District, some of which are the Rural Technology Facility (RTF) and the Sakpalua Skills Training Centre. The government also encouraged rice farming in the district in the year 2014, with the aim of processing the rice in local rice mills to create more jobs for the youth (The Chronicle, June 4, 2014). Non-Governmental Organisations including SEND Ghana have also distributed disease-resisting formulas to farmers to increase production (SEND West Africa, 2015).

While an appraisal of some of these facilities and programmes, such as the Rural Technology Facility (RTF) and the SEND Ghana Rural Development Programme in the East-Gonja District have been made, the impact of the programmes on rural-urban migration has not been much focused on. For example, SEND West Africa (2015) reported that the use of inoculants had boosted soya bean production in the East-Gonja district. Some of the facilities, for example, the Sakpalua Skills Training Centre was reported by the East-Gonja District Assembly to be facing challenges that threaten the sustainability of the

facility. The Programmes Officer of Training Centre, Mr Edward Abanga, noted that the programme aims to reduce rural-urban migration of the youth in search of non-existent greener pastures in urban areas.

However, Abanga also said at a sensitisation forum for PFT-CDP stakeholders that the programme could not afford the salaries of tutors which were posing serious challenges in efforts to maintain qualified tutors at the centre. This raises both theoretical and practical questions regarding the factors that influence the sustainability of livelihood enhancement programmes in rural areas and whether high rural-urban migration can be curtailed or controlled with the approaches to implementing and managing these programmes.

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

Rahman and Chowdhury (2012) establish a significant relationship between rural poverty and rural-urban migration. Similarly, Lall et al. (2006) maintain that the lack of well-paying employment in rural areas is a significant push-factor underlying rural-urban migration. Tacoli, McGranahan and Satterthwaite (2015) also maintained that rural-urban migration contributes to urban poverty and economic hardships in both rural and urban areas.

Some of these problems of rural-urban migration have been identified by researchers in Ghana. For example, rural-urban migration has been associated with poor performance of the agricultural sector, poor sanitation and waste management, housing shortage and high accommodation and rent costs (Essiamang, 2011; Twumasi-Ankra, 1995). These raise concerns regarding the



effectiveness of the efforts of central and local governments to reverse or slow down rural-urban migration.

In theory, however, Lewis (1954) and Todaro (1976) have established that creating rural employments or enhancing existing employments in the rural economy has the potential to retain the working population in the rural economy if these employment options have competitive wages as urban jobs. Although most of the efforts made by the government and NGOs in strengthening and diversifying the rural economy may not be directly sourced from these theories, the fundamental idea that a stronger rural economy could curtail or even reverse rural-urban migration is a core factor underlying rural development programmes.

This study, therefore, sought to establish how the existing programmes have contributed to curtailing rural-urban migration, especially in Northern Ghana, as the north-south drift of labour is also seen as a contributory factor to the poverty and the development gap between northern and southern Ghana.

The East-Gonja District has been identified as one of the districts plagued with high out-migration of the working population. In a preliminary interview with the Assistant Coordinating Director of the East-Gonja District, it was found that the communities with the highest rates of out-migration in the East Gonja District included Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung, and Libi. The Assistant Coordinating Director also stressed that most of the migrants were within the ages of 14 and 23 years who migrated primarily in search of employment opportunities in cities.





Based on these assertions, this study adopted Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung, and Libi as typical cases of communities experiencing migration problems in the district. In the attempt to make rural employment in the district attractive enough to retain the population within the working age cohorts, the government and some NGOs have established livelihood enhancement and diversification facilities, but the impact of these programmes on curbing out-migration from the district has not yet been empirically established, and this is the main objective of this study. It is against this backdrop that this current study sought to assess the influence of livelihood enhancement programme on rural urban migration in the East Gonja District in Northern Region of Ghana.

## **1.2 Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the study was to assess the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration in the Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung and Libi communities in the East Gonja District. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Analyse the impact of the livelihood enhancement programmes on the living standards of beneficiaries;
2. Evaluate the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes in the reduction of high rural-urban migration in the East-Gonja District;
3. Compare the likelihood of migration between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes;

4. Examine the factors that constrain the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes in reducing high rural-urban migration in the East-Gonja District so as to suggest solutions for addressing the situation.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The main research question which guided the study was: What is the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration. In an attempt to finding answer to this and many other issues of concern in the study, the following specific research questions were formulated and used for the study:

1. What is the impact of the livelihood enhancement programmes on the living standards of beneficiaries?
2. How effective are livelihood enhancement programmes in reducing high rural-urban migration in the East-Gonja District?
3. In what ways is the migration intention of the beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes different from non-beneficiaries?
4. What factors constrained the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration in the East-Gonja District?

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study may contribute to the theoretical argument on the solution to curtailing rural-urban migration in the context of a developing country, and in the context of unequal spatial development. The propositions made from the findings



of this study would contribute to finding a lasting solution to overcoming the economic causes of rural-urban migration. This could have a ripple effect on controlling the consequent effects of rural-urban migration on both destinations and origins of migrants. Moreover, the findings of this study would serve as academic literature, teasing questions and gaps in literature that could incite further research into the problem of high rural-urban migration in Ghana.

### **1.5 Delimitations of the Study**

The study was limited to rural-urban migration in the northern parts of Ghana, with specific reference to Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung, and Libi communities in the East-Gonja District. The beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes which were identified form part of the study population. Non-beneficiaries in similar occupations and demographic characteristics were also included in the study group. The officials of the district Assembly and from the participating NGOs were also covered by the study. The conceptual scope of the study was limited to those bordering livelihood enhancements and diversification, rural-urban migration, and the theoretical underpinnings of these concepts.

### **1.6 Organisation of the Study**

This study was organised into five chapters. Chapter One provided the background, problem, objectives, research question, significance and scope of the study. Chapter Two dealt extensively with the various theories, conceptual issues, and the conceptual framework guiding the study. Chapter Three covered the





methodological issues, including the research design, a description of the study organisation, the sample size and sampling procedure, as well as the data collection instruments and procedures. The chapter also described the data analysis tools and presentation formats. Presentation and discussion of results is presented in Chapter Four and finally, the findings, conclusion and recommendations are presented in Chapter Five.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Theoretical Review

This section discusses the theoretical underpinning of the study. Three models of rural-urban migration have been discussed to explain the causes and psychology of rural-urban drift, and to deduce the likely effects of livelihood enhancement programmes in rural areas on rural-urban migration.

#### 2.2 Capability Theory

The capability approach to livelihood enhancement programmes is a broad normative framework for the evaluation of individual well-being, livelihood enhancement and social arrangements, the design of policies and proposals about social change and mobility in society (Sen, 2002). The capability approach is used in a wide range of fields, most prominently in development field, welfare economics, social policy and political philosophy (Sen, 2002). It can be used to evaluate a wide variety of aspects of people's well-being and their livelihood enhancement, such as individual well-being, inequality and poverty. It can also be used as an alternative evaluative tool for social cost-benefit analysis, or to design and evaluate policies, ranging from welfare state design in affluent societies, to development policies by governments and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in developing countries (Fukuda-Parr & Kumar, 2003).

In academia, it is being discussed in quite abstract and philosophical terms, but also used for applied and empirical studies. In development policy



circles, it has provided the foundations of the human development paradigm (Fukuda-Parr 2003; Fukuda-Parr & Kumar, 2003).

The core characteristic of the capability approach is its focus on what people are effectively able to do and to be that is, on their capabilities. This contrasts with philosophical approaches that concentrate on people's happiness or desire-fulfilment, or on theoretical and practical approaches that concentrate on income, expenditures, consumption or basic needs fulfilment (Nussbaum, 2003). A focus on people's capabilities in the choice of development policies makes a profound theoretical difference, and leads to quite different policies compared to neo-liberalism and utilitarian policy prescriptions (Nussbaum, 2003).

Some aspects of the capability approach can be traced back to, among others, Aristotle, Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill and Karl Marx (Nussbaum, 2003; Sen, 1999), but the approach in its present form has been pioneered by the economist and philosopher Amartya Sen (Sen, 1993; 1995; Drèze & Sen, 2002). It has also more recently been significantly developed by the philosopher Martha Nussbaum (Nussbaum, 2002; 2003). Sen (1993) argues that, in social evaluations and policy design, the focus should be on what people are able to do and be, on the quality of their life, and on removing obstacles in their lives so that they have more freedom to live the kind of life which, upon reflection, they find valuable. The capability approach to a person's advantage is concerned with evaluating it in terms of their actual ability to achieve various valuable functionings as a part of living. The corresponding approach to social advantage for aggregative appraisal as well as for the choice of institutions and policy takes the set of individual



capabilities as constituting an indispensable and central part of the relevant informational base of such evaluation (Sen, 1993).

A key analytical distinction in the capability approach is the distinction between the means and the ends of well-being and development. Only the ends have intrinsic importance whereas means are only instrumental to reach the goal of increased well-being and development (Klasen, 2000). However, both in reality and in Sen's (1993) more applied work, these distinctions are often blurred. The importance, therefore, lies especially at the analytical level we always have to ask and be aware what kind of value things have, whether the value is instrumental or intrinsic, hence whether what they are considering is intrinsically or instrumentally important. What are then, according to the capability approach, the ends of well-being and development?

Well-being and development should be discussed in terms of people's capabilities to function, that is, on their effective opportunities to undertake the actions and activities that they want to engage in, and be whom they want to be. These beings and doings, which Sen (1999) calls achieved functionings, together constitute what makes a life valuable. Functionings include working, resting, being literate, being healthy, being part of a community, being respected, and so forth (Sen, 1999). The distinction between achieved functionings and capabilities is between the realised and the effectively possible, in other words, between achievements and freedoms. People have to make a choice between moving from one place to another taking into consideration the relative advantage of the movement.





What is ultimately important is that people have the freedoms (capabilities) to lead the kind of lives they want to lead, to do what they want to do and be the person they want to be (Koggel, 2003). Once they effectively have these freedoms, they can choose to act on those freedoms in line with their own ideas of the kind of life they want to live. For example, every person should have the opportunity to be part of a community and to practice a religion, but if someone prefers to be a hermit or an atheist, they should also have this option, the same applied to migration. Thus, the capability approach is clearly a theory within the liberal school of thought in philosophy, albeit arguably of a critical strand within philosophical liberalism (Koggel, 2003).

However, it needs to be noted that the word ‘liberal’ in political philosophy refers to a philosophical tradition which values individual autonomy and freedom (Kymlicka, 2002; Swift, 2001), and should not be confused with the word ‘liberal’ in daily life. In daily life ‘liberal’ has different political meanings in different countries, and can cover both the political right and left. In addition, it is often used to refer to neo-liberal economic policies which prioritise free markets and privatisation of public companies such as water suppliers or the railways.

In contrast, philosophical liberalism is neither necessarily left or right, nor does it *a priori* advocate any social or economic policies (Jasek-Rysdahl, 2001). The capability approach to well-being, livelihood enhancement and development thus evaluates policies according to their impact on people’s capabilities. It asks whether people are being healthy, and whether the resources necessary for this capability, such as clean water, access to medical doctors, protection from



infections and diseases, and basic knowledge on health issues, are present. It asks whether people are well-nourished, and whether the conditions for this capability, such as sufficient food supplies and food entitlements, are met. It asks whether people have access to a high quality education, to real political participation, to community activities which support them to cope with struggles in daily life and which foster real friendships, to religions that console them and which can give them peace of mind (Kuklys, 2003).

For some of these capabilities, the main input will be financial resources and economic production, but for others it can also be political practices, such as the effective guaranteeing and protection of freedom of thought, religion or political participation, or social or cultural practices, social structures, social institutions, public goods, social norms, traditions and habits (Nussbaum, 2000). The capability approach thus covers the full terrain of human wellbeing. Development and well-being are regarded in a comprehensive and integrated manner, and much attention is paid to the links between material, mental, spiritual and social well-being, or to the economic, social, political and cultural dimensions of life (Nussbaum, 2003).

The capability approach is primarily and mainly a framework of thought, a mode of thinking about normative issues, hence loosely defined as a paradigm. Sen (1993) has stressed that the capability approach can be used for a wide range of purposes. What does it mean to see the capability approach as a general framework of thought for the assessment of individual advantage and social arrangements? The capability approach focuses on the information that we need

to make judgements about individual well-being, social policies, and so forth, and consequently rejects alternative approaches that it considers normatively inadequate, for example when an evaluation is done exclusively in monetary terms.

The capability approach also identifies social constraints that influence and restrict both well-being and the evaluative exercises. The capability approach can be used to measure poverty or inequality, or can be used as an alternative for traditional utilitarian cost-benefit analysis. It is a perspective that can be applied to efficiency evaluations. It can serve as an important constituent for a theory of justice but, as Sen argues, the capability approach specifies an evaluative space and this does not amount to a theory of justice (Sen, 1995). He stresses that a theory of justice must include both aggregative considerations as well as distributive ones, whereas the capability approach does not specify an aggregative principle. An important illustration of how the capability approach can be used as such a broad framework of analysis and evaluation, is Sen's own work with Jean Drèze on development in India (Drèze & Sen, 2002).

It is important to note that in real life, two people with identical capability sets are likely to end up with different types and levels of achieved functionings, as they have made different choices from their effective options. In philosophical terms, we could say that they have different ideas of the good life, that is, different desires and wishes on what kind of life they want to lead. As a liberal philosophical framework, the capability approach respects people's different ideas



of the good life, and this is why capability, and not achieved functioning is the appropriate political goal.

However, it is also clear that in real life, our ideas of the good life are profoundly moulded by our family, tribal, religious, community or cultural background. There are very few children from Christian parents who end up being Muslim, for example. One could question, therefore, to what extent this is a choice at all, and if we characterise it as a choice, it would still remain a constrained choice. This does not mean that these constraints always have to be negative or unjust; on the contrary, some people might find them very enabling and supporting.

There is very little about these constraints that one could say in general terms, as they are so closely interwoven with a person's own history and thus with her personality, emotions, values, desires and preferences. It is however important to question to what extent people have genuinely access to all the capabilities in their capability set, and whether or not they are punished by members of their family or community for making certain life-style choices.

### **2.3 Theoretical Review**

A framework for poverty analysis and livelihood enhancement must seek to reflect societal change and economic shocks, such as the current crisis in distinctly human terms. For this, the right concepts and measures are needed. This study discusses some problems associated with existing approaches to conceptualising poverty, social exclusion and deprivation leading to rural-urban





migration, and the contribution that the capability approach might offer in resolving them. It is argued that the capability approach can provide a framework that can reflect the many ways in which human lives can be blighted, and which thus offers some promise for livelihood enhancement and poverty analysis.

This may come as some surprise to some familiar with the exchange between Sen and Townsend in the 1980s (Sen, 1983; 1985; Townsend, 1985), which did little to endear the Social Policy community to Sen's (1983) approach. However, there are at least two reasons why it is timely to reconsider the potential of the capability approach. First, in the years since the Sen-Townsend debate, the capability approach has become much more prominent. It has provided the theoretical and conceptual underpinning for the UN's Human Development Reports (UNDP, 2010), has influenced the understanding of well-being in the recent 'Sarkozy Commission' (Stiglitz et al., 2009) and has been the basis for the Equality and Human Rights Commission's approach to monitoring equality in the UK (Burchardt & Vizard, 2011).

Given this increased prominence, one might ask whether some advantages of the approach have been overlooked. Second, there is, at present, an unresolved tension within poverty analysis between a desire to emphasise a broad measure of multidimensional poverty (Atkinson et al., 2002) and an insistence on conceptualising poverty in narrower terms around a core concept of resources (Nolan & Whelan, 1996). One of the functions of the concept of social exclusion was to cover important additional terrain beyond the concept of poverty. However, the lack of progress in identifying what is meant by social exclusion not



only raises questions about its suitability as a concept but also places this additional terrain in jeopardy. It will be argued that the capability approach offers a way to reconcile this tension between narrow and broad conceptions of poverty, by respecting the former without losing sight of the latter.

This study examined the theoretical and conceptual contribution the capability approach might make to the analysis of poverty and socio-economic well-being of people. As will hopefully become clear, the approach is not a distinct field of study (“capability studies”), but it is rather a lens with which to view our existing concerns in this case, livelihood enhancement programmes, rural urban migration and the problem of poverty. This study examined the original justifications for contemporary approaches to poverty analysis within Social Policy so that the distinctiveness of the capability approach, and the contribution it might make in this field, can be identified. A wider approach, drawing on literature from other disciplines, or contrasting concepts of poverty employed in developing and developed contexts, would also be of interest, but is beyond the scope of the present study. While the focus of the study is primary conceptual, in the penultimate section some empirical applications of the approach are discussed and some implications for adopting a capability framework are considered.

The capability approach focuses on what people are able to do and be, as opposed to what they have, or how they feel. Sen argues that, in analysing well-being, we should shift our focus from ‘the means of living’, such as income, to the



‘actual opportunities a person has’, namely their functionings and capabilities (Sen, 2009).

Functionings refer to the various things a person succeeds in ‘doing or being’, such as participating in the life of society, being healthy, and so forth, while ‘capabilities’ refer to a person’s real or substantive freedom to achieve such functionings; for example, the ability to take part in the life of society (Sen, 1999). Of crucial importance is the emphasis on real or substantive as opposed to formal freedom, since capabilities are opportunities that one could exercise if so desired. The capability approach places particular emphasis on the capabilities a person has, irrespective of whether they choose to exercise these or not.

The capability approach questions the central role often afforded to income in poverty measurement. Sen (2009) draws a distinction between the actual opportunities, or capabilities, a person has, which he argues are intrinsically important, and their income, which is merely a means to such opportunities, and whose importance is thus both instrumental and contingent (Sen, 2009). This relates to the distinction between direct and indirect concepts of poverty drawn by Ringen (1988). Direct concepts of poverty focus on cases where living standards fall below a certain level, and typically assume that this is because of a lack of resources. Indirect concepts focus on cases where resources fall below a certain point, and typically assume that this results in a low standard of living (Ringen, 1988; Berthoud & Bryan, 2010).

Of course, such distinctions would be of little importance if low income were a good proxy for deprivation. But the capability approach holds that this is





unlikely to be the case: people have varying needs and will thus require different levels of resources in order to achieve the same standard of living. For example, the additional costs associated with disability might mean that a disabled person requires a greater amount of resources to achieve the same standard of living as an able-bodied person (Sen, 2009).

Sen (2009) uses the term ‘conversion factors’ to refer to this variability in translating resources (or means) into capabilities (or ends). While he discusses such conversion factors primarily in theoretical terms, the mismatch between indirect and direct measures of poverty has been one of the primary empirical findings from poverty analysis in the field of Social Policy in recent decades (see, inter alia, Gordon et al. 2000; Bradshaw & Finch, 2003).

## **2.4 Human Development within the Context of Sustainable Development**

The study has its bases on the theories of human development within the context of sustainable development, sustainable livelihoods and poverty reduction. The justification for the access to social services indicators is linked to the concept of human well-being and human development (Prescott-Allen, 2001).

Sustainable development (SD) or sustainability has its significance embedded in intergenerational human development (Bell & Morse, 2003). This concept was borne from the notion of ensuring human development, while maintaining the planetary life support systems throughout the world by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 (WCED, 1987). The report of the commission titled our “common future” highlighted the significance of improving the living conditions of societies through the use of

natural resources and ensuring that future generations will have similar opportunities to utilize these resources and enjoy the same benefits without endangering them.

The concept, however, professes upholding the three fundamental pillars; economic, environmental, and social regarding the issues of continuity and equity among current and future generations. Considering the need for the south to catch up with developments already achieved by the north in the world, SD served as a framework of strategies on which to base developmental projects for the achievement of such developments. The developments intended within this study are not only focused on the growth of the economies of nations, but developments that will reflect improved living conditions of the people of the countries (Anand & Sen, 2000).

In order to achieve sustainable human development aspirations as enshrined in SD and get African countries from the bottom of the UNHDI, the growth of African economies should be targeted towards improving the standards of living of its people. The exploration contained in this study is conceived to be within the notion of human development through improved livelihoods. This is because this study aims to provide information that will be useful for the enhancement of projects that will improve opportunities for the capacities of people to earn better incomes for their livelihoods and eventually improve their standards of living.

This study is within the framework of SD with the justification of the need to assess the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural urban



migration and to provide the social needs of improved conditions of living for people who migrate from rural areas to urban centers. Improve standards of living is considered here as the main focus of human development, which is also the central theme of SD, therefore justifies the theoretical basis of the study within the framework of SD.

## **2.5 Rural-Urban Migration**

Migration has a very important role in redistributing the population size between rural and urban areas. One of the most noteworthy demographic phenomena faced by many developing countries in the world is the shortage of skilled labour and food security, and conversely the rapid population growth in the urban centres, which is largely caused by the prevalence of rural-urban migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001).

According to Justina (2007), migration is a wide spread phenomenon, that any study made on an urban centre in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) of which Ghana is part, will ever, deal largely with a population that was not born in the place. Bahns (2005) contends that about half of the population in the world lives in cities and urban areas and the population are hypothesized to be around 1 million every year. Most of these have migrated from other parts of the country particularly from the rural areas. The rate of current urban population growth has reached up to 6% in many African countries including Ghana (Accra), (Dao, 2002).

Migration is particularly important in Ghana because of long tradition of population mobility and particularly high rates of rural–urban migration. Caldwell





(1969) argued in his study of migration that moving from rural areas to towns has been an important part of farm household livelihood strategy for decades. He observed that to many Ghanaians, urban life represents new employment opportunities, the possibility of working indoors, modernity and being less tied to family duties, which is different from working mainly on farms, coupled with enormous family responsibilities. Northern Ghana has long been characterized by outmigration. Rural households in these communities send out internal migrants for prolonged periods, primarily to the large urban centres in the south (Wouterse, 2010). Recently a new dominant north-south migration stream has emerged involving that of females moving independently of their families to urban centres such as Accra and Kumasi (Awumbila & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008).

In SSA, most social roles and status (attributed to gender and age, opportunities and constraints such as access to resources and the opportunity to migrate) are socially embedded. Internal migration is attracting increasing attention among researchers, academics, development practitioners, and policy makers, many of whom attribute the growth of rural–urban migration in particular to increasing unemployment and rural poverty in developing countries (Anarfi et al., 2001; Chant, 2002; Zhao, 2003).

Afshar (2003) contended that, the inadequacy of incomes, lack of gainful employment, coupled with poverty in the rural areas, have pushed people out of their villages in search of better sources of livelihoods in the urban areas. According to Bryceson et al. (2000), most of these migrants do not possess

relevant skills or education that would enable them secure employment in the formal sector in urban places.

Migration can be considered as a significant feature of livelihoods in developing countries in pursuit of better living. Fundamental to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow are the traditional push-pull factors. “Push factor” refers to circumstances at home that repel the migrants to leave home. Examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. Whilst “pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants. There are many factors that cause voluntary rural-urban migration, such as urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc (Kinuthia, 2003; Yeboah, 2008).

There is no doubt that, apart from these factors, urban areas also offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle. The provision of services such as electricity, pipe borne water, and public services make urban areas attractive. Another drive for migration is that migration is used as strategy for risk aversion in times of bad weather and poor harvest. While the motives for rural movement are important in themselves, the means of movement are also of importance. Improvements in transport systems and increasing awareness of the urban areas through media, social networks, together with improved educational standards are equally important factors to be taken into account when dealing with rural-urban migration as a phenomenon. Rural inhabitants see and hear success stories about people that leave their communities for the cities. This acts as incentive for more out-migration from the rural areas. Therefore, rather than targeting the migration





itself, it is preferable to focus on the causative factors and its consequences (Yeboah, 2008).

## 2.6 Theory of Sustainability

The concept of sustainability was first employed in relation to natural resources and how they should be used. Many theorists feel that natural resources are finite and cannot support the world's projected population at current levels of resource utilisation and growth. There are those theorists who argue, however, that resources should be defined more broadly to include stocks of technology and know-how. As knowledge and human capability have increased over time, resources have actually increased (Taylor, 1993). Sustainability then involves sustaining free markets and human knowledge capacities. In the first view, the threats to sustainability come mainly from overpopulation and consumption while in the second view, the threats to sustainability come from bad policies.

There is debate about the role of technology development and transfer in sustainable resource use. As a recent World Bank study put it, "Technological optimism may or may not be appropriate: it is certainly contested in the discourse on sustainability" (Norgaard, 1992). In any case, most theorists agree that the sustainable development process goes beyond technology transfer and centers on the better use of local resources, be they for research, technology design, or development implementation (Sharif, 1992).

Thus, sustainability has been viewed as a broad set of concepts which should serve to guide research in all of its facets. It is not a set of technologies





(Graham-Tomasi, 1991). It has been defined as the ability to maintain a given flow over time from the base upon which that flow depends, and as primarily an issue of intergenerational equity (Norgaard, 1992). It involves calculation of the balance between present and future use of a resource or set of resources, as well as debate over the valuation of resources in relation to different uses. Within the development community, the notion of sustainability came to be applied to financial resources, including project funds, indicating that projects and donor support are not limitless and must be used efficiently in ways that local actors support so that benefit flows are sustained.

Even an operational definition of sustainability must include additional social objectives (Graham-Tomasi, 1991). Sustainability of particular benefits flowing from projects or programmes should be linked to careful analysis of a country's or region's potential for and constraints to sustainable development. Sustained benefits help a community, country or region move toward self-sustained development by reducing stress on the population and/or environment, increasing productivity producing more for less or providing more equal access to resources, thereby reducing stress and increasing productivity in the long term. Sustainable development involves strategies for assessing what benefits need to be sustained over what time frames with what resources. As change is unpredictable and hard to understand even in our own society, development planning theory must shift toward integrative/multilevel analysis of patterns of change, and away from models that limit our thinking to one trajectory of change or one mode of problem solving. As sustainable development integrates

beneficiaries into the planning process, decision and action become more flexible and mobile.

## 2.7 Sustainable Livelihoods

The significance of the theory of sustainable livelihood and its basis for this study is borne by the desire to empower the capacity of people to earn income that meet their current and future economic and social needs. To also help minimize their vulnerability to external stresses and shocks (Ashley & Carney, 1999). According to Arce (2003), the theory of livelihood is not only limited to income generation but also entails the social welfare of people. It is, therefore, essential to put into context the social well-being of people into the concept of sustainable livelihood. The desire to enhance the sustainability of livelihoods for poor people in developing countries has attracted the attention of many international organisations (Toner & Franks, 2006).

But, according to Toner and Franks' (2006) citation of Bond and Hulme (1999), most of the approaches employed to enhance sustainable livelihoods of people failed because of their top down nature (Toner & Franks, 2006). It is very vital for any effective intervention in the enhancement of the sustainability of livelihoods to allow the beneficiaries to make the choice of the nature of the intervention.

Similarly, according to Farrington, Carney, Ashley and Turton (1999) indicate that sustainable livelihood approaches should include a central focus on people and a holistic approach. The central focus on people entails pro-poor





strategies that include analysing the dynamics of livelihoods, rendering support and allowing the total participation of beneficiaries. It should also entail bringing together the various policies and institutional settings that exist with the intent of being to influence and harmonize the differing arrangements in furthering a pro-poor agenda (Farrington et al., 1999). The holistic approach involves eradication of the marginalization of poor people, understanding the complexity of the relationship of their influences, recognition of various institutional stakeholders, encouragement and promotion of a diversity of livelihood strategies adopted by people.

More so, a thrilling issue specifically with regards to rural urban migration is how should livelihoods of the migrant be enhanced? Several issues can be brought into the focus of livelihoods for a meaningful discussion. These issues include the economic, social and institutional concepts of sustainability, and issues of intra and inter-generational equity. The economic sustainability of livelihoods enhancement programmes with the adequacy or inadequacy of the economic benefits generated from the programmes required to meet improved standards of living for those engaged in it as prescribed by the ILO conditions of decent work (Rogers, 2007).

The quality of decent work described by ILO is one that ensures job security, reliability and social protection, while the incomes should be capable of lifting workers from poverty (Rogers, 2007). It is apparent that the purpose of people migrating from rural areas to urban areas is to realize economic benefit

that will lift them out of poverty. The failure of the income to meet improved standards of living can be regarded as an unsustainable livelihood activity.

Furthermore, the continuity of the economic benefit should be seen in the long term perspective, specifically as long as individuals are engaged in the activity. The social sustainability of livelihood with respect to livelihood enhancement programmes entails issues such as social security of the programmes, and other social services relevant for improved standards of living. A livelihood activity that enables an individual to afford access to the above social facilities can be regarded as sustainable (Toner & Franks, 2006).

The sustainability of livelihoods of people cannot be guaranteed if institutional capacity required to design and implement policies and regulations in the interest of the people is lacking. According to Toner and Franks (2006), the formulation and implementation of policies and regulations determines the level of benefits achieved in sustaining livelihoods.

## **2.8 Conceptual Definition of Livelihood**

Livelihood approach was used as a theoretical perspective in understanding the livelihoods of the urban people in general and those who migrate in particular. The livelihood approaches refocuses development efforts on the elimination of poverty and encouragement of economic growth which benefits the poor through sustainable development which targets projects that create sustainable livelihoods for the poor by promoting human development and conserving the environment (Solesbury, 2003).





A livelihood, according to Carney (1998), comprises the capabilities, assets, including both material and social resources and activities required for a means of living. It is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain the assets both now and in the future without undermining the natural resource base. The sustainability of livelihoods become a function of how men and women utilise assets portfolios on both short and long term basis to be able to cope with and recover from shocks and stresses through adaptive coping strategies they should be economically sound, ensuring that livelihoods activities do not irreversibly degrade natural resources within a given ecosystem.

In general, a livelihood is the means of securing the basic necessities of life, which include food, water, shelter and clothing. Some authors have also included the concept of a minimum threshold of living in a familial context in the definition of livelihood. For example, Nair (2014) defined livelihood as working either individually or as a group, through the application of human and material endowments, for meeting the basic requirements of the self and members of a household on a sustainable basis with dignity. This hinges on the concepts of sustainability and minimum standards of living.

In terms of sustainability, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987) first proposed the concept of sustainable livelihoods as an integrating concept. The Commission defined livelihood as “adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs” and sustainability as “the

maintenance or enhancement of resource productivity on a long term basis” (p.2-5).

The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) expanded the concept of livelihoods include sustainable resource management to achieve poverty eradication objectives (UNDP, 1997). Therefore, the UN and other agencies, such as the World Vision and CARE International, as well as governments globally aim to improve the livelihoods of people with the main objective of reducing the poverty.

Chambers (1991) on the other hand, focused on rural livelihoods and defined livelihoods as the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood came to be defined broadly as people, their land, their capabilities and their means of making a living (Chambers & Conway, 1991; Chambers, 1995). Scoones (1998) also defined livelihood to include the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living.

According to LaFlamme (2010), the livelihood has been variously defined at different hierarchical levels, but most authors use the concept at the household level. In some cases, LaFlamme (2010) also noted that livelihood is applied at the individual level, as well as broader levels of extended family, social groups and community.

Livelihood as a concept, however, has latent concepts, which Scoones (1998) conceptualised as the livelihood framework. Chambers and Conway (1991) on the other hand, expressed that the underlying concepts of livelihoods



include capability, equity, and sustainability, which are intricately linked. They also indicated that each concept is also a means to good ends, which linked together sustainability present a framework or paradigm for normative and practical development thinking.

## **2.9. Capability**

Capability, as a concept, has been used to represent the ability to perform certain basic functionings, and also to what a person is capable being (Sen, 1984, 1987; Dreze & Sen, 1989). Leinart (2015) established that the basic functionings include adequate nourishment, comfortable clothing, avoiding preventable morbidity and mortality, leading a life of dignity, and being able to visit and entertain friends. Capability, however, can be interpreted variably with diverse and specific meanings for different people, but capabilities generally also include gaining access to and using services and information, experimenting and innovating, competing and collaborating with others, and the ability to exploit new conditions and resources (Serrat, 2008; Davies, White, Wright, Maru & LaFlamme, 2008). These activities work together to provide the means of accessing and perform basic functionings

Improving livelihoods would therefore amount, in part, to improving the capabilities of individuals, thus enhancing their abilities to acquire the resources they need to maintain at least a minimum level of dignified living (Davies et al., 2008). Some studies have observed that within the general use of capability, there is a subcategory of livelihood capabilities that include being able to cope with







stress and shocks, and being able to find and make use of opportunities (Shiferaw, Tesfaye, Kassie, Abate, Prasanna & Menkir, 2014). Capabilities are not just reactive to conditions, but also proactive and variably adaptable. For example, higher literacy levels could improve on information seeking of an individual, in as much as some form of technical or skill training can improve the competitiveness of an individual in the job market. Education and skill training can also bring about innovativeness, which is a proactive approach to livelihoods.

## **2.10. Equity**

Equity implies a relatively equal distribution of livelihood assets, capabilities and opportunities and especially enhancement of those of the most deprived. According to Davies et al. (2008), a primary role of livelihood enhancement is identifying inequity and raising the economic status of the most deprived, such as women who are often without livelihood endowments. Equity of assets and endowments therefore become a means to up scaling the capabilities of the weak and minorities in societies. This also has interrelationships with the power structure, culture, and norms in society. Thus, Scoones' (1998) livelihood framework, which he developed for the DfID, comes to play. Scoones (1998) identified six composite components of livelihoods which must be integrated in livelihood enhancement programmes.

The DfID (1999) established that the interplay vulnerability context, assets, transforming structures and processes, livelihood strategies determine the livelihood outcomes, which in essence are the parameters by which the concept of



dignified living is measured. They also indicated that among the various components of a livelihood, forms a portfolio from which people draw their capabilities. The portfolio comprises tangible assets including food stocks, gold, jewelry, and cash savings. In rural settings, tangible assets typically include resources, such as land, water, trees, livestock, and farm equipment. Intangible assets such as claims and physical access to assets, such a feeder roads linking farms to market centres, or financial services, offer practical opportunities to use assets to improve a livelihood.

### **2.11 Sustainability of Livelihoods**

Sustainability has taken a central stage in development where sustainable development has been defined as meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (UN, 1987). Sustainability as a word could, however, be defined as an ability or capacity of something to be maintained or to sustain itself. Thus, in terms of livelihoods, sustainability would refer to the maintenance or enhancement of resource productivity on a long-term basis (Lamsal, 2015). In order for any livelihood to be productive on a long-term basis, it has to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1991).

Sustainable rural livelihood is a much more complex concept given that rural livelihoods have closer relationships with the natural environment, culture, and belief systems. In the modernisation theory, Rostow (1960) proposed a total



abandonment of culture and belief systems, but several other practitioners and authors have stressed the importance of maintaining cultural integrity of rural folk (Hunt, 1989; Meier, 1989; Yoichi, 1963). For example, in the social context, source indicated that sustainability can be achieved through a power structure and social influence that discourage gender imbalances, while maintaining or enhancing the local assets and capabilities on which livelihoods depend.

Capabilities, equity, and sustainability are central to the concept of sustainable livelihoods. While a livelihood, in its simplest sense, refers to a means of gaining a living (Chambers, 1991), capabilities enable a livelihood to be gained and livelihood also provides the support for the enhancement and exercise of capabilities (Scoones, 1998; Serrat, 2008). In the same way, equity in assets and access are preconditions for gaining adequate and decent livelihoods, while adequate and decent living for all is achieved through livelihoods (LaFlamme, 2010). Sustainability is also means and an end to livelihoods, wherein sustainability provides conditions for livelihoods to be sustained for future generations and achieving sustainability is a value in itself.

This study therefore adopts the comprehensive definition of livelihood by LaFlamme (2010) as “the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living, with ability to cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term” (p.9).

## 2.12 Livelihood Enhancement

Livelihood enhancement is promoted by conservationists and development practitioners as an approach to sustainability by encouraging people to desist from the harmful exploitation and degradation of natural resources (Farrington, 2001). Another aim, rather latent, of livelihood enhancement is to maintain rural production which is mainly agrarian. The importance is that a failing rural economy in any country would have implications for food supply shortages and high importation costs of food.

In many developing countries, rural production is labour intensive as most agrarian production is non-mechanised and employ traditional or, at best, semi-modern techniques, thus reinforcing low efficiency of efforts, profitability, and low production (Fischer, Manning, Steffen, Rose, Daniell, Felton, Garnett, Gilna, Heinsohn, Lindenmayer, MacDonald, Mills, Newell, Reid, Robin, Sherren & Wade, 2007). Therefore, livelihood enhancement, while expected to reduce rural poverty, strengthen rural occupation, and also increase efficiency and earnings, is also aimed at retaining rural populations to engage in rural production to maintain the balance of co-dependence between rural and urban areas.

Livelihood enhancement, therefore, refers to increasing the capabilities, such as skill, knowledge, or financial endowment of a people to gain higher returns from their occupations. The IUCN (2008) contended that the most the livelihood enhancement and diversification programmes tend to be supply-driven and focused on single, “blueprint” solutions. They further indicated that “such solutions are not built on an understanding of the underlying factors helping or





inhibiting livelihood enhancement, and often fail to appreciate the obstacles faced by the poor in trying to enhance and diversify their livelihoods” (p. 7). This underscores unsustainable initiatives that are poorly adapted to the beneficiaries’ capacities, have limited market appeal and fail to reflect people’s aspirations for their future.

Hunt (2005) reviewed practices of international development agencies and argued that building capacity “without paying much greater attention to the changes needed in the non-indigenous environment, to create genuine and trusting partnerships, will fail to realise the potential which is there” (p. 26). This has created the need for sustainable livelihood enhancement, which either takes the form of alternative livelihood initiatives or capacity building within existing livelihoods. It has also paved way for entrenched position of the sustainable livelihood framework (SLF). Chambers (2004) however, criticised international development practice on the basis that the SLF has primarily met the needs of development organisations for whom it was designed. Outcomes for poor people continue to be constrained by their unequal power relationships with such organisations.

### **2.13 Rural Livelihood Enhancement and Migration**

Some development practitioners have established that the development and migration are related in two major ways. On one hand, authors, such as Ghosh (1992) have established that development strategies, termed as stay-at-home strategies are aimed at reducing migration levels which are detrimental to rural development. The EPRDF Agricultural Sector Strategy in Ethiopia, for



example, aimed to reduce urban-bound migration by creating favourable conditions and increasing the utilisation of rural labour within the horticulture and nomadic populations (EPRDF, 1995). The second link between development and migration is that development, such as infrastructure, can induce population movement. In South Africa, McDowell (1996) found that infrastructural development projects directly induced population displacement and resettlement.

Beauchemin and Schoumaker (2005) therefore found that populations are drawn towards where development takes place. Their supposition was that bringing development to the rural folk has potential to maintain valuable agric labour in the rural areas to protect rural livelihood and reduce harmful migration rates. Development organisations usually aim at alleviating poverty and social exclusion by various ways (Bromideh, 2011). Their intent does not directly border on migration, but indirectly, their work is seen to influence migration.

Given that poverty and a search for better economic gains have been sighted in theory and in proactive as the push and pull factors in migration, there is the possibility that successful poverty alleviation measures could slow down or reverse migration out of rural areas. This consequent effect is further advocated on the premise that most migrants may not find jobs in the cities as they anticipated. For example, Zug and Graefe (2014) indicated that most urban production are moving from labour and cost intensive processes to machination and cost cutting techniques. The economic incentive for migration is, therefore, not as lucrative.



Livelihood enhancement comes about as result of improving on the capitals and assets of a people, and reducing their vulnerabilities, within a power structure that supports a decent and dignified living standard of a household (Christen & Schmidt, 2012). Therefore, the link between livelihood enhancement and migration comes about through the poverty-migration linkages.

Poverty and economic hardship in rural areas have been linked to migration in different studies. On one hand, some studies indicate that the poor are more likely to migrate, which suggests that improving living standards through livelihood enhancement would reverse or slow down the migration rates (Institute for Security Studies, 2015; Dzingirai, Egger, Landau, Litchfield, Mutopo & Nyikahadzoi, 2015). Other studies found that migrants are often not from the poorest regions, and usually not from the poorest households (Deshingkar & Start, 2003; Nelson, 2015).

This is because remoteness and the cost of migration often make migration difficult for poorer households. De Haan and Dubey (2002) found that the incomes of migrants are often not far behind the average as compared to non-migrants. Rogaly, Coppard, Rafique, Rana, Sengupta and Biswas (2002) however, noted that the types of migration the poorest engage in have a lower propensity to be captured in surveys and census, which makes it difficult to conclude that poverty is a major underlying factor for migration.

## 2.14 Sustainable Livelihoods and Migration

Economic theories establish that migration is livelihood choice by people who wish to better their economic statuses (McCatty, 2004). According to De Haan (1999), migration is usually conceptualised in a negative context, used as a last resort of the poor people to improve their economic, demographic and environmental distress, but which leads to their exploitation and further impoverishment. De Haan and Rogaly (2002) acknowledged an expansion of interest in a more complex analysis of migration in the context of the sustainable livelihoods framework. They laid emphasis on two major issues. First, migration can occur in response to crises or as a central livelihood strategy, given a specific physical, economic, social and political dynamics. In addition, the impact of poverty and vulnerability on migration, as well as the implications of migration for living standards are highly context specific.

Households in developing countries often undertake multiple livelihood strategies in order to diversify livelihood sources in the context of social, economic, political, environmental and historical circumstances (De Haan & Yaqub, 2008). Rural livelihood enhancement therefore operates within these complex livelihood frameworks. They indicated that, in the sense of economic theories of migration, the net gains from migration should be greater than the combined net earnings from rural livelihoods in order to induce migration. The enhancement programme would slow down the rate of migration if it could sustain higher net benefits of livelihoods above average wages in urban areas.







The livelihoods of households and communities are defined within their ability or incapableness to pursue different livelihood strategies, in response to prevailing conditions and how this impacts on their preparedness and vulnerability to adverse circumstances (De Haan & Rogley, 2002). An important factor in this process is access to different forms of “livelihood resources (human, physical, social and environmental capital) and the role of livelihood enhancement strategies play in fostering access to the capitals (Carney, 2004).

In resource poor areas, outmigration may be the major approach to improving livelihoods and well-being. For example, they found that in rural dry lands, entire communities may follow circular migration routes, which comprises a form of seasonal migration where households or communities send out excess labour seasonally to provide remittances or accumulate savings, to supplement consumption during lean seasons and to provide some resistance against shocks or fund investment (Ashley & Carney, 1999; Dzingirai, Egger, Landau, Litchfield, Mutopo, & Nyikahadzoi, 2015; Reynolds, Stafford, Lambin, Turner II, Mortimore, Batterbury, Downing, Dowlatabadi, Fernandez, Herrick, Huber-Sannwald, Jiang, Leemans, Lynam, Maestre, Ayarza & Walke, 2007). Therefore, rural livelihood enhancement would reduce temporary migration through securing perennial livelihoods for households (Reynolds et al., 2007). Severe poverty may, however, propel people to undertake permanent migration, and possibly deepening their deprivation where there is no insurance of gaining urban employment.

The causal effects of income poverty on migration choices, and subsequent implications of migration for well-being, are complicated by two major issues. Some experts argue that the option of migrating is not available to mostly the chronically and severely poor, given that they cannot afford the cost of migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001; Kothari, 2002; LaFlamme, 2010). The chronically poor are therefore compelled to adopt migration, when they are forced to do. The second complication is therefore related to the blurring of voluntary and involuntary migration, because, while the decision to move may be technically 'voluntary', the severely or chronically poor may have no feasible alternative survival choice (Lipton, 1980; LaFlamme, 2010). The complication for livelihood enhancement approach is that the chronically poor may choose to migrate once they have enough financial gains to foster migration through the enhancement option.

### **2.15 Livelihood Enhancement and Assets Control**

Kothari (2002) linked the livelihood framework to migrations and noted that migration options are influenced by the economic, human, social, cultural, geographical, and political assets. The role of livelihood enhancement is to improve on households' control over these different types of resources in order to expand their livelihood options and earnings. The link between increased ownership of these assets and migration is not a clear cut path. For example, Chambers and Conway (1991) observed that ownership of economic assets such as land and livestock and financial savings are usually essential predictors of an

individual's or household's financial capacity to pursue livelihood diversification through migration.

Studies conducted in India and sub-Saharan Africa have revealed that although the poorer households are more motivated to migrate, they often cannot afford the material costs of migration (De Haan 2002; De Haan & Rogaly 2002). However, as stressed by De Haan (1999) and LaFlamme (2010), rural out-migration is often perceived to be the result of poverty. This is typical of seasonal migration, in which members of poor households migrate in search of alternative livelihoods as a coping mechanism to livelihood shocks, such as the dry season on agricultural production and poor yield, and to supplement home production and reduce vulnerability. Studies on seasonal migrants in Mali and Niger (Hampshire, 2002) and also in Zimbabwe (Cush & Tavera, 2010; Dzingirai et al., 2015) have found that migrants are usually the most destitute, but in most cases the benefits are outweighed by loss of production and weakened social networks that result from outmigration.

Hampshire's (2002) research on the Fulani ethnic group in Burkina Faso's Sahel Region found that there is a higher propensity for wealthier households to engage in inter-regional migration. This is because, households with limited assets are incapable of affording migration as a livelihood strategy, due to their low financial assets and the opportunity costs of labour. These migrants were found to suffer low economic returns from migration due to their inability to travel over a wide area or for long periods in order to maximise returns.





While economic theories suggest that migration rate can be slowed by closing the income gap between rural and urban occupations, the preceding arguments suggest that higher livelihood returns and access to the livelihood capitals can induce people to migrate, given that they can now afford it. Thus, it is suggested that migration can be encouraged if access to livelihood assets are heightened among a previously poor populace.

For example, De Haan, Brook and Coulibaly (2002) found that in Malian villages, the majority of seasonal migration is undertaken among households ranked in the 'middle group' in terms of available assets, whereas poorer households have fewer migrants. They explained that poorer households have higher opportunity cost of migration, due to their lack of available spare labour. Therefore, enhancing assets ownership from destitution to higher ownership can encourage rural-out migration. Another discovery was that permanent migration was rare, but restricted to severely poor households.

In contrast, in three Ethiopian sites, De Haan, Brock, Carswell, Coulibaly, Seba and Toufique (2000) found an inverse relationship between land and livestock ownership and migration, suggesting that poorer people migrate more, however, households with no assets claim did not migrate at all. De Haan et al. (2000) also found that in Bangladesh migrants were less likely to be from landless households and on average owned more land than households without migrants, but the differences were small and varied according to locality.

In terms of gender differences in migration, Lucas (1997) indicated that in Latin America, and countries like the Philippines, most rural-urban migrants were

females, because females sent more remittances than males. Agesa and Agesa (1999) found that, in Kenya relatively low levels of education of females and lower wages at destination discourage female migration.

In Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Mali, De Haan et al. (2000) found that the educational attainment was not a significant determinant of migration, and differences in migration likelihood could be explained by household's variances physical asset endowments. Francis (2002) also revealed that in India and in parts of eastern and southern Africa the impact of male labour migration contributes to long term disempowerment of women who become permanently dependent on men.

In terms of social capital, Adams (1993) found that in Egypt, most migrants were unskilled labour and the major determinant of migration was landlessness combined with low returns from agricultural employment. Scoones (1998) also observed that individual human capital in terms of education, skills, knowledge, age and health determines access to economic opportunities and ability to migrate. Several studies including Lucas (1997), De Haan et al. (2000), and De Haan et al. (2002) have given significant amount of evidence indicating that those with higher assets, such as education and skills have a comparative advantage in destination labour markets and are therefore more likely to migrate to urban areas.



## 2.16 Non-economic Factors of Migration Decision

In contrast to economic theories, which establish migration as an approach to close the inter-sectoral wage gap, Stark (1991) argued that migration is not only a consequence of income gap but responds as well to other individual or familial incentives. He espoused that migrants search to maximise the expected income of the household and at the same time to minimise risks in order to cope with shocks and minimise vulnerability.

Kothari (2002) indicated that migration encompasses monetary and non-monetary factors, where decision-making occurs within a broad context of factors at the micro-level, meso-level and macro-level. At the micro-level, individual and household circumstances influence migration decisions, whereas socio-economic conditions at source and destination areas influence migration decisions. A much broader spectrum of factors, including speed and unevenness of the development process and national and international policy environment, influence migration decisions at the macro level. Stark (2003) concluded from empirical analysis that other variables other than wage differentials influence migration decisions, and that may underscore instances when people even when substantial earnings differences does not cause migration, and why migration occurs in places that may not have substantial earnings differences.

Gubert (2000) argued that even more important, family ties and cultural differences between source and receiving countries raise the cost of immigration. He argued that if the household predicts that returns from migration can contribute the well-being of future generations or their descendants will be better





off in the receiving country, they might migrate even if the change in their own wealth is small or negative. Migration can also be motivated if it is a means to achieve a better social status. Therefore, household members may migrate to improve his social standing or simply change his reference community (Stark, 2003).

Bardhan and Udry (1999) showed that migration is one of the strategies to ensure that households' income uncertainty. They noted that households might spread their members across space through migration in order to reduce the variance of the aggregate household income. This is in support of Stark's (1991) portfolio investment theory, which states that families spread their labour assets over geographically dispersed and structurally different markets to reduce income vulnerability. Thus, if future earnings are uncertain in a geographically specific area, migration a member of a household which engages in income pooling, helps to stabilise the economic status of the family (Stark, 2003).

## **2.17 Challenges Confronting the Livelihood Enhancement Programmes**

According to Nair (2014), the major problems in livelihood enhancement programmes cuts across challenges associated with the demographics of rural population, including education and health of the people, poor infrastructural development, land rights and usufructs rights, gender-biases, and socio-cultural factors. In terms of education, Nair (2014) established that low literacy among rural populations generally make them slower in adopting new practices, which are essential to livelihood enhancement. Particularly, education among women in

many traditional areas is lower as compared to men (LaFlamme, 2010; Tsegai, 2005). Thus, the adverse effects are seen on their skills development and employment productivity. Low education heightens the vulnerability of rural populations because it lowers their adaptive capacity to new technology and skills development.

In order to realise the expected impacts of rural livelihood enhancement programmes, such vulnerabilities must be reduced. Another problem arises as to which entity must ensure that rural folks are educated prior to livelihood enhancement programmes (Konseiga, 2005). Literacy can be achieved in the short and medium term, but the question remains whether the programme donors have the budget for literacy training before delving into the full-scale livelihood enhancement or diversification technology training. In many cases, simple technologies are adopted, which may suit the adaptive capacity of the uneducated rural folk, but then another question as to whether those technologies can sustain the aim of the programme in the long-run arises.

Nair (2003) indicated that the major challenge with livelihood enhancement can be related to lower levels of capitals among rural population. The issue of low literacy and adaptability borders on low social capitals. In this case, poor health also becomes a matter of concern. In most cases, it has been found that older populations are engaged in rural agriculture. Several studies have also found that rural populations are usually challenged with problems related to drinking water, hygiene, sanitation and drainage facilities, and inadequate health care facilities, leading to high child mortality and morbidity rates (Chambers &





Cornway, 1992; Chambers, 1995; Sen, 1981). This also amounts to loss of labour productivity, economic loss, indebtedness and poor quality of life. With these fundamental problems in social capital, the sustainability of livelihood enhancement programmes diminishes.

The sustainability of livelihood enhancement programmes is also challenged by low financial capital of the rural populations. The acquisition of new and improved technology for occupational progress or for diversification is often a dire challenge for rural folk. Usually, shared facilities are provided by NGOs and other donors who support the programmes, but after the community exit, the issue of maintenance cost and funding becomes a challenge. Sally and Abernethy (2011) found that, on an irrigation system in the Gambia for improving rural livelihoods, the running costs and maintenance needs of pumps and other modern technologies are often unclear to users, who are unfamiliar with the rationale for timely repairs and replacements. In general, maintaining infrastructure or machinery used on a communal basis is problematic in terms of the planning, organising contributions and allocating responsibilities. According to source, these problems worsen when participation is voluntary, as is often the case with rural-based systems.

There are also gender issues in terms of the management of livelihood enhancement programmes. Mombeshora (2003) found that at a Zimbabwe irrigation scheme, the men wanted to use the tractor for journeys to town, which was seen as a social activity by the women. The women on the other hand, wanted





the tractor on-site for ploughing, resulting in a conflict, and a disincentive for both men and women to cooperate to fund the maintenance of the tractor.

Labour market opportunities, and to a lesser extent product market access, like other valuable resources, are restricted by gender, class, as well as social inequalities. In Latin America, Bryceson (2000) noted that gender inequalities in terms of market access are less prevalent, and thus rural labour market access and returns are more egalitarian. In South Asia, on the other hand, Start and Johnson (2001) reported that the agricultural labour market is dominated by women, given that most men in the sector move out of farm work to take the generally more lucrative non-farm work from which females are mainly barred.

According to Ellis (2000), the interaction between beneficiaries of the programmes and planners is a key process. They stressed that rural folk are usually ill-informed about the requirements and limitations of technology, but designers are also handicapped about agricultural practices and the impact of their technology on workload. Therefore, top-down approaches and straightjacket designs create communication and adaptability problems for the farmers and the programme implementers.

According to De Haan (1999), the development of physical as well as social infrastructure is essential to the entire concept of rural development through its direct contribution to employment generation and asset creation. Infrastructure availability also goes a long way to support livelihood enhancement programmes. Usually, donors would have to close cater for the infrastructural deficit, which impinges on the donors' budget (Bromideh, 2011). The absence of infrastructure



such as well-built roads, irrigation, rail links, power and telecommunications, information technology, food storage, including silos, barns, and cold stores can be detrimental to the sustenance of livelihood enhancement programmes. Essential services such as health and education, water and sanitation, and veterinary services also key to livelihood enhancement programmes.

Rural folk are also found not be keen of using infrastructure for receiving timely information on development opportunities, market demand and prices for agricultural commodities, new technologies, forward and backward linkages, credit facilities and development policies of the government (Start, 2003). For example, the low internet penetration in the African sub-region poses a challenge to marketing avenues of rural products and further integration into the global system (Bryceson, 2000).

Marketing of rural produce also becomes a challenge in the face of a global trend in corporatising the rural economy. There are quality standards needed to be met for consumers and in most cases, while production may boom due to enhanced occupational technology, the quality of produce may be reduced through improper storage, thus threatening sales and the sustainability of the programme. Nair (2003) established that poorer do not have the capacity face the cut-throat competition and hence they are bound to perish.

There are also issues with non-agricultural rural livelihood enhancement. Most non-agricultural rural activities are non-subsistence, where in the returns are conditioned by terms of exchange on labour or product markets. Bryceson (2000) noted that the utilisation of casual rural labour also poses a challenge to livelihood



enhancement programmes. Many jobs like farm hands are temporary and characterised by no clear pattern of sustainable wages. Thus, a complete diversification and replacement of such jobs with perennial one would lead to the phasing out of temporary hands which may be needed in times of harvesting and planting, given the labour intensity of such activities in developing regions of the world.

Some of the challenges of livelihood enhancement programmes are found within the donor organisations or the NGOs that support the programme. According to Bromideh (2011), most livelihood programmes suffer from paucity of funds. NGOs have to make matching contributions to government funds which they are sometimes unable to make available, thus creating funding challenges. NGOs sometimes fail to attract people and engage them in enthusiastic participation in the programme. According to Nair (2003), general backwardness rural folk, inadequate number of dedicated persons, over-emphasis on targets and time bound programmes, as well as political interference and vested interest are some of the factors that work against coordination between the programme officials and the community.

Bromideh (2011) pointed out that poor coordination between NGOs existing at local, state and national level lead to problems such as overlapping, duplication, and non-coordination that disrupt livelihood intervention programmes. Low inter-coordination among NGOs and the scramble for donors prevent a united stand against the government which government policies militate against the efforts of livelihood enhancement programmes.

The problem of short time-span for the programme implementation also factors in (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). Prabhakar (2011) observed that donors or governments offering grants often set target and time-bound programmes for NGOs implementation plans. In cases of short time-span allocated for project completion, the quality of services may fall below expected standards. Moreover, donors have specific areas of interest which are usually not negotiable and thus may not be very suitable for the type of livelihood enhancement results needed by the community.

### **2.18 Empirical Studies**

This section reviews empirical studies related to livelihood enhancement and rural-urban migration. The empirical studies are reviewed in terms of the aims of the study, the methodological approaches employed, the results found and the recommendations made.

Yongo (2010) studied the problems and prospects in developing aquaculture for livelihood enhancement in Kenya. Yongo's (2010) study adopted a cross-sectional survey in which the major stakeholders included the Ministry of Fisheries and Development (Research and Extension Departments), Traders, Aquaculture Association of Kenya (AAK), local Universities, Large scale fish farmers, Feed manufacturers, Aqua shops and other non-governmental institutions. In all, a total number of 531 farmers purposively selected and interviewed, in addition to 55 traders and 15 key informants in each study area. Structured and semi structured questionnaires were used to collect information on the current status of aquaculture development and procedures in the study areas.





The results were keyed into an Excel and SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) statistical packages and results developed. The key findings of Yongo's (2010) study were that due to the livelihood enhancement activities, considerable number of farmers had already expanded their activities by constructing more ponds, while others were phasing out other farm activities, such as dairy in order to give space for aquaculture development. Most of the recommendations which the study made to improve the sustainability of aquaculture livelihood were within the realms of improving technology.

Miheretu (2011) investigated the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Woldiya town in North Ethiopia. His study adopted a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches where in 500 household heads were randomly sampled. Questionnaires were used to collect data from the household heads, whereas focus group discussion was used to gather data from key informants. Observation was also used to collect observable data in the study areas. The SPSS software version 13.0 was used to analyse the quantitative data and the qualitative data were discussed in the analysis. Miheretu (2011) found that rural push-factors were stronger than the urban pull-factors. Moreover, the lack of investment in agriculture or alternative employment in rural areas, including vulnerabilities such as droughts and famines were among the reasons for migration. The rural migrants perceived life chances in the destination town were highly misconstrued and rather exaggerated, based on here-say and wrong information about the opportunities available in the town.

Agyemang and Abu-Salia (2013) researched into rural-urban migration and rural community development in Kpong community of the Upper West Region of Ghana. They used a qualitative methodology and a total of 200 returned migrants were purposively sampled. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were used to collect data from the respondents. The responses were analysed using qualitative discussions, quotes, and summaries of focus group discussion sessions. Most of the research respondents noted that they migrated to find employment opportunities. Others noted that they migrated out of stress and boredom for staying in the community for far too long, whereas others migrated because of failing agriculture resulting from harsh environmental conditions. The researchers recommended that the Ministry of Food and Agriculture Block Farming Project should be extended to the community. The construction of an irrigation facility was also recommended to ensure better food security within the region in particular, and the entire nation in general.

Amoah and Eshun (2013) researched into tackling rural-urban drift through labour intensive public work (LIPW) in the Wa East District in Ghana. Their study took place in two communities, namely Loggu and Saggu which are located in the Wa East District. The research design they used was descriptive in a layout of a quantitative research and a total of 96 respondents were sampled using the sample formula of Taro (1970) at an alpha of 0.10. Data were collected through questionnaire administration to the randomly selected participants of the project. They found that during the dry season, people migrated in search of jobs because the people largely practiced unsustainable rain-fed agriculture. Although

93.8 percent of the respondents admitted that the LIPW project is beneficial, 70.8 percent still had the intention to migrate again despite the presence of the project and its benefits. Majority of the respondents recommended early payment of their wages while the rest wanted their wages increased and food provided respectively. The study recommended prompt payment of wages, devoid of any cumbersome procedures.

Kumari (2014) also conducted a study on how rural employment generation, through the National Rural Employment Generation Act (NREGA) affects rural-urban migration in India. He used a quantitative approach. Secondary State-wise data on rural-urban wage difference was obtained from Rural-Labour Enquiry; Reports on Wages and Earnings of Rural Households; and Employment provided to households' person days under NREGA were collected. Multiple regression model from SPSS version 16 was used to analyse the data. The researcher found that 63 percent of variations in rural-urban migration were explained by the combined influence of number of rural literates, number of rural people living below poverty line, rural population, NREGA employment provided to households, and rural urban wage difference. He elaborated that NREGA's limited impact partly stems from a misconception of labour migration as a poverty 'problem' and as merely a product of 'push-and-pull' economic factors. He indicated that the planners failed to address labour mobility, which is driven by social factors and evolving perceptions of modernity, and this informed the major recommendation made.





## 2.19 Lessons Learnt from Empirical Review

The following lessons are drawn from the empirical studies to inform the current study. All the studies are centred on improving or diversifying rural livelihoods for improved income and/or reduce rural-urban drift. For example, Yongo (2010) studied the problems and prospects in developing aquaculture for livelihood enhancement in Kenya, Amoah and Eshun (2013) researched into tackling rural-urban drift through labour intensive public work (LIPW) in the Wa East District in Ghana, and Kumari (2014) also conducted a study on how rural employment generation, through the National Rural Employment Generation Act (NREGA) affects rural-urban migration.

The empirical review showed that, it was possible to use purely quantitative (Kumari, 2014), purely qualitative approaches (Agyemang & Abu-Salia, 2013), or a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Miheretu, 2011) to study issues on rural-urban migration and livelihood enhancement programmes. The research designs ranged among case studies (Agyemang & Abu-Salia, 2013), cross-sectional (Agyemang & Abu-Salia, 2013), descriptive (Miheretu, 2011), and panel studies (Kumari, 2014), which were suitable based on the objectives of the studies. While some studies resorted to the use of only primary data (Miheretu, 2011) or only secondary data (Kumari, 2014), others engaged in analysing both primary and secondary data (Agyemang & Abu-Salia, 2013). Two major types of sampling were employed in the studies, namely simple random sampling and purposive sampling.





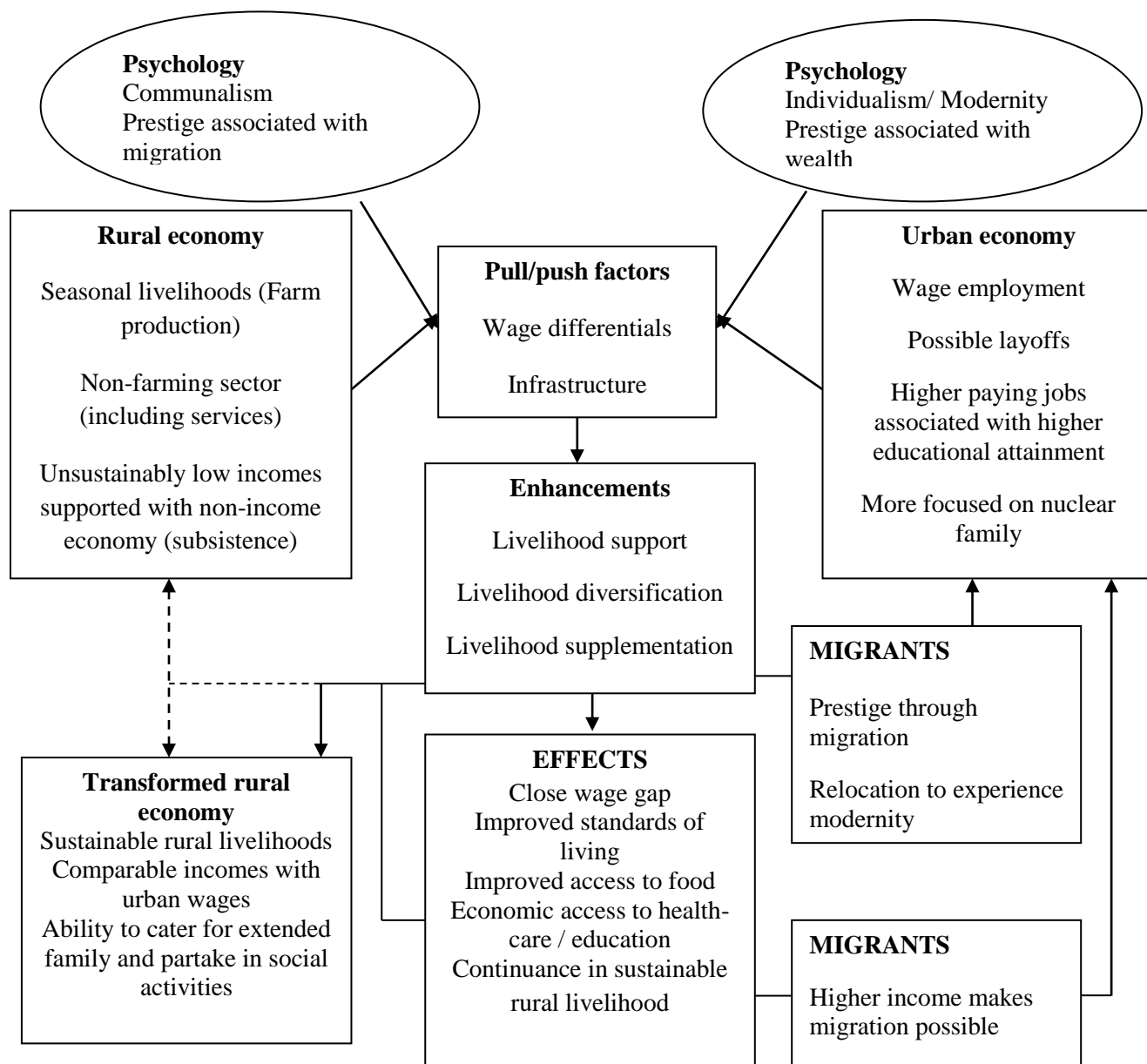
In some studies, both methods were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data, whereas others employed only purposive sampling to support a purely qualitative study. The methods of data collection were also within the realms of either quantitative or qualitative research approaches. On the quantitative side, Agyemang and Abu-Salia (2013) used questionnaires, whereas interview guides, focus group discussions, and observation were used in the qualitative studies (Miheretu, 2011). The data analyses software in most of the studies was the SPSS, although different versions were used.

Migrants were found to be within active age groups, and usually more educated and married. In respect of the causes of migration, most of the studies cited economic reasons. In Ghana, Amoah and Eshun (2013) found that while livelihood enhancement strategies were beneficial most people still wanted to leave. In India, the factors significantly explained rural-urban drift included population growth in rural areas, education of rural populations, and wage differences in urban and rural employments (Miheretu, 2011). The studies recommended taking into consideration the social elements of migration while planning livelihood enhancement programmes.

## **2.20 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework links together the migration models, the conceptual issues, and empirical analysis. In theory, migration is a consequence of the modernity divide between rural and urban areas, which results in either higher real incomes in the urban areas, or higher expected wages in urban areas. Migration is also seen as a result of family decision and a coping mechanism to

support the economic lives of a family system. The theories therefore established that the primary factor of migration is economic, namely to gain a higher income or wage in order to improve upon the living standards of one's family.



**Figure 2.1: The Influence of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes on Rural-Urban Migration**

Source: Author's Construct, 2016



In the context of this study, bridging the wage gap between urban and rural employment is proposed through enhancement of rural livelihoods, which amounts to either improving the technology, methodology, and efficiency of the current occupations of residents or a total livelihood diversification of rural livelihoods. In lean seasons, some studies pointed out that some rural workers migrate to find jobs in the cities as a coping mechanism. Several demographic factors however account for the decision to permanently migrate to cities. These include marital status, sex, age, and educational attainment. Putting these together, the migration decision will be individually and collectively made in a family setting considering all the demographic variables involved, as well as the social and economic implications of the decision to migrate

The livelihood enhancement programme, in the best scenario, is expected to generate employment and wages that are at par with urban wages in order to make it rather not encouraging for rural-urban migration. In the theoretical sense, given that economic reasons are the sole reasons for migration and wage rural-urban differentials is the underlying pull-factor, competitive wages and earnings resulting from rural sustainable livelihood enhancement would curtail permanent migration, because rural residents would be able to cater for their families with their earnings. However, some empirical studies show that people might still migrate irrespective of the benefits gained from rural livelihood enhancement programmes, because there are issues of social prestige, psychological underpinnings, and the wish to experience city-life or modern social and public infrastructure attached to returnees, who migrated to cities. Therefore, such

people would still migrate, hoping that their toil will eventually lead to a better life, through securing a higher paying job in the cities.

Beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement may migrate to experience modern life away from the rural environment and rural psychology, whereas beneficiaries whose incomes improve may also finally be able to afford the cost of migration. Livelihood enhancement can therefore promote migration among a sect of the population as has been found by some studies that migration is more prominent among the wealthier populations. The conceptual framework therefore presents two possible outcomes of livelihood enhancement, namely reducing migration through its benefits, or making migration affordable through its enhanced benefits.

### **2.21 Point of Departure**

This chapter discusses the factors that drive migration from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. The theoretical framework established that people migrate in anticipation of higher incomes in urban areas or because of real higher urban wages. The debate between the theories, however, borders on whether the poor migrate more or the rich who can afford to travel do most of the migration. While some studies have been done in Ghana on migration, this debate has not been empirically tested, especially in the context of the East-Gonja District. Generally, there has not been any study conducted in the East-Gonja District on the influence of livelihood enhancement programme outmigration especially in the four selected communities. This study seeks to fill that gap.





Furthermore, while the limited studies on the influence of livelihood enhancement and diversification on migration established that majority of the beneficiaries of such programmes still migrated besides their acknowledgement that the livelihood programmes were helpful, the reasons why they still migrated were not established. In this respect, this study aimed to establish the migration intentions of participants of livelihood enhancement programmes and the reasons behind those intentions. This was further analysed in the context of the migration intentions of non-beneficiaries in order to identify the significant factors that drive outmigration.

Most of the studies were descriptive, purely cross-sectional or pre-test-post-test in their designs. This study adopts a different methodology, in using a static group comparison design to establish the effects of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration by drawing on the contrasts and similarities between beneficiaries of the programmes and those that have never been on any such programmes.

Some of the relevant discoveries made by earlier studies on livelihood enhancement and rural-urban migration were that rural push-factors were stronger than the urban pull-factors (Yongo, 2010), participants who were benefiting from livelihood enhancement programmes still had the intention to migrate (Amoah & Eshun, 2013), and that the limited impact of livelihood enhancement programmes partly stems from a misconception of labour migration as a poverty ‘problem’ and as merely a product of ‘push-and-pull’ economic factors (Kumari, 2014). The pertinent question which remains unanswered in literature is that: do these

findings reflect the situation in the East-Gonja District? This forms a fundamental gap in knowledge that this study aims to fill.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Study Area

The Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2014) provided a comprehensive description of the location, climatic conditions, demographic, and migration patterns among the population. The East Gonja District is the largest district in Ghana in terms of land area. It was created in 2007 by a legislative instrument (LI 1938). It is located at the South-eastern section of the Northern Region of Ghana and lies within Latitude 8°N and 9.29°N and, Longitude 0.29°E and 1.26°W. The district covers a land area of 8340.10 square kilometres and borders the Mion District and the Tamale Metropolitan Assembly to the North, Central Gonja District to the West, Nanumba North, Nanumba-South and Kpandai Districts to the East, and also borders the Pru, Sene- West, Sene-East, Kintampo North, and the Krachie Nchumuru districts in Brong-Ahafo Region to the South.

##### 3.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Population

The total population of East was 135,450, according to the 2010 population census. Data from the 2010 Population and Housing Census show that the overall proportion of males is higher than that of females in the district. The number of males was 69,729, whereas the females were 65,729, giving a sex ratio of 106.1. Therefore, sex ratio for the district can thus be interpreted as 106 males for every 100 females. The Ghana Statistical Service (2014) found that the district's sex ratio changes from one age group to the other. For example, the sex







ratio in age group 0 to 4 is 106.1, but 122.9 (approximately 1:7) in age group 15 to 19, and 94.1 in age group 20 to 24. The GSS (2014) analysis showed that this trend continued to age group 40-44, after which a ratio of more than 100, is recorded, implying a male dominance in those age groups.

In terms of educational level of the population, the GSS (2014) reported that 59.2 percent of persons in the district had never attended school. It was also found that 62.5 percent of the females as compared with 56.2 percent males had never attended school.

### **3.1.2 Occupational Characteristics**

The East Gonja District lies in the Tropical Continental climatic zone, with a single rainy season (May to October) and a long dry season (November to March/April). This supports a single planting season in the district, which is mainly agrarian, cultivating mostly yam, maize, millet, rice, cassava, groundnuts, and shea nuts.

The GSS (2014) estimated that 70.1 percent of the total population were employed, 2.3 percent are unemployed and 27.6 percent are economically not active. Moreover, 76.9 percent of the males in the East Gonja district were economically active as against 67.9 percent of the females. Of the economically active population, 96.8 percent is employed and 3.2 percent unemployed. Less than one percent of the population did voluntary work without pay. A greater proportion of the economically not active population in the district did household chores (36.2%) while those in full time education constituted 36.4 percent.



The age group with the highest proportion of the employed population is 35-39 constituting 86.5 percent. The age group 60-64 are in the majority of those unemployed 4.4 percent and the least 0.2 percent is age 65 and older. Majority of persons who were not economically active in the district were within the age group of 15-19 which accounted for 49.8 percent. Unemployment among females was highest in the age group of 15-19 age group (52.7%), whereas 23.1 percent of the males in the same age category were unemployed. The dependency ratio calculated after the 2010 population census was 92.22. This implied that every 100 people in the working age group had approximately 92 dependants. In the urban locality the dependency ratio was 75.89 whereas that of the rural locality was 96.41.

### **3.1.3 Transport Network and Migration in the East-Gonja District**

The main mode of transport in the district is road and the most common means is motor vehicles and bicycles. The road network in the district spans a total of 612.2km linking the district capital to other communities as well as other neighbouring districts. A total of 435.6km or 72 percent of the road network is engineered and 135.10km partly engineered. The non-engineered roads total 45.50km. Others are farm tracks, which are accessible only during the dry season.

A total of 19,706 migrants were found in the district of which about 50.0 percent are migrants born elsewhere in the northern region. The region with the least migrants in the district was the Eastern Region, whereas the highest proportion of migrants staying less than one year in the district were from the



Ashanti Region while migrants from Upper East formed the greatest proportion who have stayed in the district for more than one year but less than four years. For migrants who have stayed in the district for more than five years but less than nine years, the Upper West Region has the greatest proportion of 27.9 percent

The target communities in this study included Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung, and Libi. These communities are typically agrarian engaged in the cultivation of the common crops grown in the East-Gonja District. The population of Dagbambia and Kijew, according to the East-Gonja District Census (2014), were respectively 1,431 and 2,544. On other hand, the population of Libi and Gbung, per the results of the 2010 population census, were respectively, 514 and 924.

### **3.2 Study Design**

Research methodology according to Babbie (2007), refers to a logical and systematic technique used for obtaining new and useful information on a particular topic. Others conceive of research methodology as logical technique for obtaining empirical data to answer and draw conclusions of a research question (Sarantakos, 2005). Traditionally, the research methodologies in any study were categorised as either quantitative or qualitative. However, increasing concern about inflexibility of methods by these strict categories gave rise to triangulation methods, leading to some researchers mixing quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study (Creswell, 2003).

Quantitative research is founded in the assumptions of positivism and follows a strict logical sequence of methods, which ensure objectivity, validity,



reliability and generalisability of results (Nightingale, 2012). It involves a systematic and empirical manipulation of social phenomena via statistical, mathematical data or computational techniques (Given, 2008). Given (2008) also indicates that quantitative research aims to develop theories or hypotheses and use mathematical models to test for their veracity, by establishing some form of connection between mathematical expressions and empirical observation.

In the social sciences, quantitative research is widely used in psychology, economics, sociology, marketing, community health, health and human development, gender and political science, and less frequently in anthropology and history (Sarantakos, 2005). The underlying reason is that the applicable areas of quantitative research can fit into the major quantitative designs including experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational and descriptive (Poon, 2004).

Qualitative research follows the tenets of phenomenology and thus, aims at attaining in-depth understanding of social phenomena, within a particular geographical, cultural, historical or epistemological context (Patton, 2002). It entails non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships (Babbie, 2007). Qualitative methods, therefore, investigate the why and how of social events, not just what, where and when. Hanson (2008) maintains that, with the aim to understand phenomena, qualitative studies often involves large quantity of interview notes, tape recordings, jottings or other records, which help in deeper understanding of issues.



However, large volumes of data has the tendency to make the analysis disorderly, as the data do not fall into neat categories, while there are numerous options regarding the linking of the observations and discussions. Hence, smaller but focused samples are more often used than large samples in qualitative studies (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The mainstream qualitative studies focus on case studies or chosen samples, which renders results incapable of being generalised for the entire population of a group (Hamel, Dufour & Fortin, 1993). Thus, a census is often required if results from qualitative studies are to be applicable to the entire population.

Although both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their strengths and weaknesses, the choice between them has attracted considerable scholastic debate (Patton, 2002). It has been suggested that the most effective method for research is a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study (Babbie, 2005, 2007; Patton, 2002; Creswell, 2003). However, this study adopted the quantitative approach for the study. This was due to the large volume of data involved and the predictive nature of the approach.

### **3.3 Research Approach**

Quantitative approach is from the positivist perspective, which is a process directed towards the development of testable hypothesis and theories which are generalisable across settings. A quantitative approach is based on information that can be measured. Techniques used under this approach include survey questionnaires and standardised research instruments (Tewksbury, 2009).

The study used quantitative research approach. Quantitative approach is adopted because of its correct outstanding prediction characteristics (Tewksbury, 2009).

It allowed for the targeting of specific informants who fit pre-defined criteria to provide data on the migration issues within the East-Gonja District. Thus, it was necessary to select respondents that could provide the needed information and data for the study as used by Miheretu (2011) as well as Agyemang and Abu-Salia (2013).

In line with this research approach, a cross-sectional design was adopted. According to Saint-Germain (2010), a cross-sectional design is used for research that collects data on relevant variables one time only from a variety of people subjects, or phenomena. The data were collected all at the same time. Levin (2006) also indicated that cross-sectional studies are sometimes carried out to investigate associations between risk factors and the outcome of interest. They are limited, however, by the fact that they are carried out at one time point and give no indication of the sequence of events. The type of cross-sectional design adopted in this study falls within the confines of a quasi-experimental design, namely the static group comparison design. According to Heffner (2014), two groups are chosen, one of which receives the treatment and the other does not. A post-test score is then determined to measure the difference, after treatment, between the two groups.



### 3.4 Target Population

The target population of this study included the population of the four selected communities, namely, Libi (514), Gbung (924), Dagbambia (1,431), and Kijew (2,544), which totalled 5,413. In each community, the target population is categorised into beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes and non-beneficiaries. Based on the records of the East-Gonja District Assembly, the four selected livelihood enhancement programmes included:

- i. the Resiliency in Northern Ghana (RING) ruminants rearing programme specifically for sheep rearing with 450 beneficiaries;
- ii. the fertilizer subsidisation programme in Kijew with 620 beneficiaries;
- iii. the Ghana social opportunity project (GSOP) in Gbung with 250 beneficiaries; and
- iv. the Sheanut processing project in Libi with 150 beneficiaries.

The total number of beneficiaries of the four programmes was 1,470. This was to enable the sampling and comparison of beneficiaries' and non-beneficiaries' intention to migrate and their opinions of the migration factors pertaining to their peculiar livelihood statuses. Table 3.1 presents the details of target population summary.



**Table 3.1: Target Population Details**

Community	Livelihood enhancement projects	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total population
Libi	Sheanut processing	150	364	514
Gbung	GSOP	250	674	924
Dagbambia	RING ruminants rearing	450	981	1,431
Kijew	Fertilizer subsidisation	620	1,924	2,544
Total		1,470	3,943	5,413

Note: GSOP represents the Ghana Social Opportunity Project RING: Resiliency in Northern Ghana.

### 3.5 Sample Size

One of the fundamental requirements in determining the sample size is to calculate the population size of the target population. The sample size was calculated based on the Cochran (1977) sample size estimation formula:

Cochran's (1977) formula sample estimation formula:

$$n = \frac{(n_0)}{1 + \left(\frac{n_0}{P}\right)}$$

Where,  $n$  is the required sample size,

$$n_0 = \left(\frac{t^2 \times pq}{d^2}\right)$$

$t$  is the t-value for the selected margin of error (1.96)

$p$  is the proportion of the beneficiaries of the selected programmes to the total population in the selected communities (0.272)

$q$  is  $1 - p$  (0.728)





$d$  is the acceptable margin of error for the sample size being estimated (0.05)

$P$  is the population size (1,470)

From the formula the estimated sample size is 251 beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes. This was proportionately divided among the separate groups of beneficiaries as shown in Table 3.2. The sample size of the non-beneficiaries was determined based on the number of sampled beneficiaries in each community, as shown in Table 3.2. The total sample was therefore 502, comprising 251 beneficiaries and 251 non-beneficiaries from the four selected communities.

**Table 3.2: Sample Size Details**

Community	Livelihood enhancement projects	Beneficiaries		Non-beneficiaries	Total
		Target population	Sample		
Libi	Sheanut processing	150	26	26	52
Gbung	GSOP	250	43	43	86
Dagbambia	RING Project	450	77	77	154
Kijew	Fertilizer subsidisation	620	105	105	210
Total		1,470	251	251	502

### 3.6 Sampling Procedure

The study adopted the simple random sampling technique to select the beneficiaries and the non-beneficiaries. In each community, the sample of beneficiaries was taken from the participants of the project. For example, 26



sheanut processors who were involved in the Sheanut Processing Project were sampled from the total of 150 participants. This was done by the lottery method, where each participant was assigned a unique number which were written on pieces of paper, then folded and mixed in a bowl for random selection. The participants with the corresponding numbers that were selected were included in the study. The same method was repeated for the selection of all the beneficiaries in the three other communities.

Given that the non-beneficiaries of the selected programmes could be on other livelihood enhancement programmes or may have been past beneficiaries of other programmes, the non-beneficiaries included in this study were those who had never been part of any livelihood enhancement programmes. This was done by asking the prospective participant if he/she had participated in any of such programmes before. Those who never took part in such programmes were sampled.

### **3.7 Sources of Data**

Both primary and secondary data were sought for the study. The study solicited primary data from the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes. Primary data that were solicited from the beneficiaries covered the impact of the programmes on their living standards and on their intention to migrate. The challenges they encounter in the programmes were also sought from the beneficiaries. Data on the living standards of the non-beneficiaries and their intention to migrate were also obtained from the sampled

non-beneficiaries. Secondary data was sought from internet search, library, documents, diaries and project profiles to add more meaning to the primary data.

### **3.7 Instrument Design**

The study used semi-structured questionnaire to collect primary data from the respondents on the livelihood enhancement programmes. The semi-structured questionnaire was adopted because the respondents could not be assumed to be literate or have adequate education and understanding to answer the research instrument without assistance. See Appendix.

The instruments for the beneficiaries was divided into four sections, labelled A to C. Section A collected data on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, such as their sex, age, marital status, family size, as well as number of dependents. Section B covered data on the occupational and income characteristics of their livelihoods as well as data on their opinions of the effects of the programmes on their living standards. Section C solicited data on their migration intent for themselves and members of their households as well as the factors that influence those intentions. The last section elicited data on the challenges of the programmes and their opinions on overcoming them.

The instruments for the non-beneficiaries was divided into three sections, labelled A to C. Section A collected data on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, such as their sex, age, marital status, family size, as well as number of dependents. Section B covered data on the occupational and income characteristics of their livelihoods. Section C solicited data on their migration



intent for themselves and members of their households as well as the factors that influence those intentions.

### **3.8 Validation of Instrument**

The instruments were pretested to ensure its reliability and where necessary, effect early modification as suggested by Cooper and Schindler (2001). According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), an instrument is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it was designed. They added that validity should involve the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of inferences made by the researcher on the basis of the data collected.

The instruments were first given to my supervisor for comments and suggestions to ascertain validity and reliability of the instruments based on the research objectives. After the supervisor's comments and constructive criticisms, some refinements were made where necessary. Sarantakos (2007) also found that pre-test are small tests of single elements of the research instruments, which are predominantly used to check eventual mechanical problems of the instruments.

### **3.9 Pre-testing of Instruments**

Pre-testing of instruments on a sample of respondents drawn from the target population is useful in fine tuning aspects of the questions that could otherwise make it difficult for respondents to interpret questions as intended



(Foddy, 1995). Borg and Gall (1996) have stressed the need for pre-testing of survey instruments before administering the instruments to the respondents.

The pre-test of the instruments was conducted in Kalande community where they have the soya bean programme. A total of 15 beneficiaries and 15 non-beneficiaries were used for the pre-test. Similarly, the programme's director was included in the pre-test to test for the reliability of responses of the instruments.

The pre-test was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument. The test-retest method of reliability was adopted to analyse the reliability of the research instrument. According to Williams (2015), this conforms to the variation in measurements taken by a single person or instrument on the same item, under the same conditions, and in a short period of time. The responses were noted at this time ( $T_1$ ) and after one week ( $T_2$ ), the same instruments were administered to the same respondents and the responses noted. The intra-class correlation between test at  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  represented the measure of reliability. According to Williams (2015), the following guidelines can be used to interpret the co-efficient of test-rested reliability:

0.9 and greater: excellent reliability

Between 0.9 and 0.8: good reliability

Between 0.8 and 0.7: acceptable reliability

Between 0.7 and 0.6: questionable reliability

Between 0.6 and 0.5: poor reliability

Less than 0.5: unacceptable reliability



It was found that all the infraclass correlations were greater than 0.8 indicating that at least all the items tested had good internal reliability, based on the classifications, given by Williams (2015) (see Table 3.3).

**Table 3.3: Reliability Tests of Instrument Items**

Items		Intra class Corr.	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Question 11. Changes in livelihood	Single Measures	.855	.719	.928	12.759	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.922	.837	.963	12.759	29	30	.000
Question 28. Attributes associated with returned migrants	Single Measures	.776	.584	.886	7.920	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.874	.737	.940	7.920	29	30	.000
Question 29. Desired attribute in the studio	Single Measures	.846	.704	.923	12.000	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.917	.826	.960	12.000	29	30	.000
Question 30. Would gain more financial benefits through migration	Single Measures	.861	.731	.931	13.379	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.925	.844	.964	13.379	29	30	.000
Question 31. Intention to migrate for financial gains	Single Measures	.934	.867	.968	29.138	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.966	.929	.984	29.138	29	30	.000
Question 33. Intention to migrate for social status	Single Measures	.868	.744	.935	14.207	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.930	.853	.966	14.207	29	30	.000
Question 35. Intention to migrate for social exposure	Single Measures	.870	.748	.936	14.414	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.931	.856	.967	14.414	29	30	.000
Question 37. Intention to migrate for exposure	Single Measures	.865	.739	.933	13.862	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.928	.850	.966	13.862	29	30	.000
Question 38. Income sufficiency	Single Measures	.929	.858	.965	27.207	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.963	.923	.982	27.207	29	30	.000
Question 39. Intention to migrate for irrespective of income sufficiency	Single Measures	.925	.851	.964	25.828	29	30	.000
	Average Measures	.961	.919	.981	25.828	29	30	.000



### **3.10 Field Work**

The fieldwork was completed within six weeks. The administration of the instrument preceded by a letter of introduction intended to introduce the researcher to the respondents and the East-Gonja District Assembly and the offices running the selected livelihood enhancement programmes in the four communities. The respondents were assured of confidentiality, anonymity of information given and guaranteed that information provided would only be used for academic purpose. The researcher also met one on one with the respondents to agree on convenient time for administration of the instrument.

After obtaining the necessary approvals, the community entry were initiated where the chiefs and community leaders were reached and the purpose of the research explained to them and to ask for assistance with encouraging the community members to participate in the research. The purpose of the study was explained to all participants who give their consent to respond to the instruments. Data was collected by the researcher with the help of trained enumerators. The Researcher trained enumerators on how to use the instrument. Research assistants were trained by the researcher to assist in the administration of the instrument and data collection.

### **3.11 Data Management and Analysis**

Data from the semi-structured questionnaire were properly scrutinized for validity and reliability through data coding, editing and entering to minimise errors and discrepancies that can affect the results of the study. Thus, Data



cleaning, a method of fine-tuning the data entered was adopted to fine-tune the data entered. All these provided valid and reliable information for analysis of the topic and decision-making.

The completed data were cleaned, coded and subsequently entered into the statistical analysis software called the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) Version 21 for the analysis to be done. The descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data including means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. According to Glass and Hopkins (1996), descriptive statistics involves tabulating, depicting and describing collections of data. They state that descriptive statistics provide very simple summaries about the sample of study and the measures. The data were statistically analysed using descriptive statistics, such as frequencies and percentages. Inferential statistical tools like ANOVA, paired sample t-test, and independent sample t-test were used in relevant comparisons in the data. Data presentation formats used included frequency tables, percentages and graphs.

### **3.11 Limitations of the Study**

The study is limited by time and scope. Only four communities were sampled to represent the entire East-Gonja District. This could affect the validity of generalising the results for the entire East-Gonja District. However, the study was specific to livelihood enhancement programmes and thus, these programmes were seen as typical cases. Using a random sampling method, the results can be generalised for those within the livelihood enhancement programmes.





### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

The procedures for collecting data were conducted with regards to ethical issues governing research in social sciences. First, the purpose of the research was explained to all participants and only those who willingly accepted to participate in the research were interviewed. This was to ensure that the principle of voluntary participation is observed. The identities of the participants were kept anonymous in order to heighten their sense of security and to further encourage participation. All responses were treated as confidential and thus, none of the responses will directly be reported along with the personal identity of the respondent. It was also ensured that any other data used apart from did not contain sensitive information. Thus, any information that can compromise the success or organisational goals of the programmes was not published in this study.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

From Table 4.1, the study found that out of the total sample of 502 respondents, 34.3 percent were males and 65.7 percent were females. In further elaboration, female respondents formed 76.1 percent of beneficiaries and 55.4 percent of non-beneficiaries. The results therefore showed that females were represented in the sample, and an attempt to obtain corroborating sample for the non-beneficiaries was made although the number of males and females in the purposively sampled non-beneficiaries were closer.

**Table 4.1: Sex Distribution of Respondents**

Sex	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Male	60(23.9%)	112(44.6%)	172(34.4%)
Female	191(76.1%)	139(55.4%)	330(65.7%)
Total	251(100%)	251(100%)	502(100.0%)

Source: Field survey, 2016

The age of the respondents were also examined for two reasons. First, to establish the contextual frame of the analysis and second, because some studies have established age as a defining factor influencing migration (Kunfa, 1999; Nelson, 2015; Stark, 1991; Todaro, 1976). The summary statistics show that youngest respondent was 18 years, whereas the oldest was 64 years. The skewness of the age distribution was 0.830, which showed a positively skewed distribution. Thus, the representative measure of central tendency was the median



which was 30 years. The average age of the respondents was 30 years, and the skewness also showed that most of the respondents were older than 30 years. The average age for the beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes was 33 years, whereas that of the non-beneficiaries was 30 years. Generally, the sampled beneficiaries were older than the non-beneficiaries.

**Table 4.2: Age Distribution of Respondents**

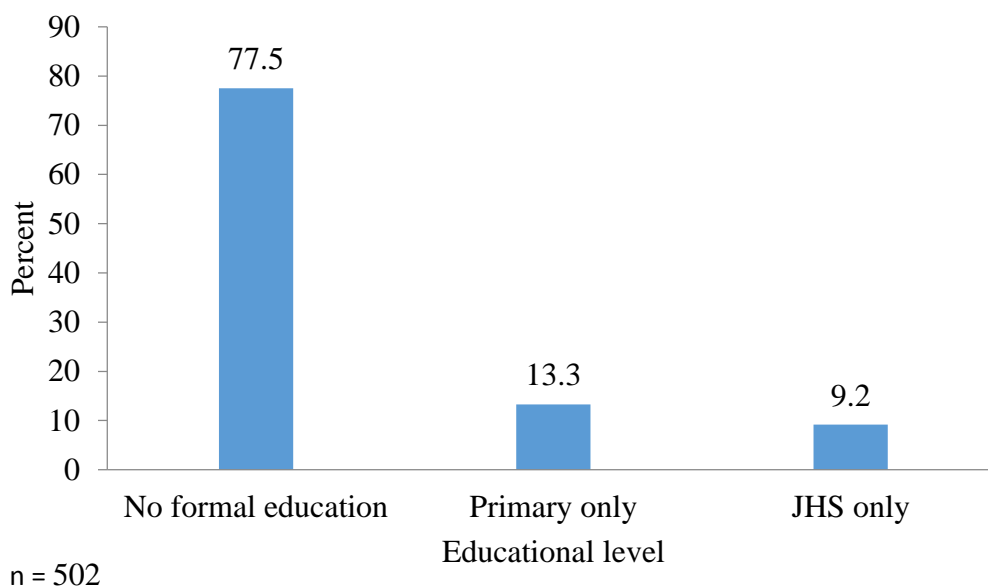
Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Beneficiaries	251	36.41	11.403	0.719
Non-Beneficiaries	251	32.32	9.434	0.595
Total	502	34.45	10.637	0.475

Field Survey, 2016

Some studies have linked educational attainment to migration and migration intent (Adams, 1993; De Haan et al., 2000; De Haan et al., 2002), thus, this study examined the educational background of the respondents to give a deeper understanding of the type of respondents that were included in the survey. The study found that 77.5 of the respondents had no formal education, whereas 13.3 percent had only primary level education and the remaining 9.2 percent had only attained junior high school certificates as their highest educational qualification. The results therefore revealed that the respondents of this study were mostly uneducated. In the national statistics, the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) reported that literacy in the East-Gonja District is generally low. Thus, the respondents in this study fit the profile of low educational achievers. Furthermore,



the results give an indication that most of the people involved in the livelihood enhancement programmes have low levels of education.



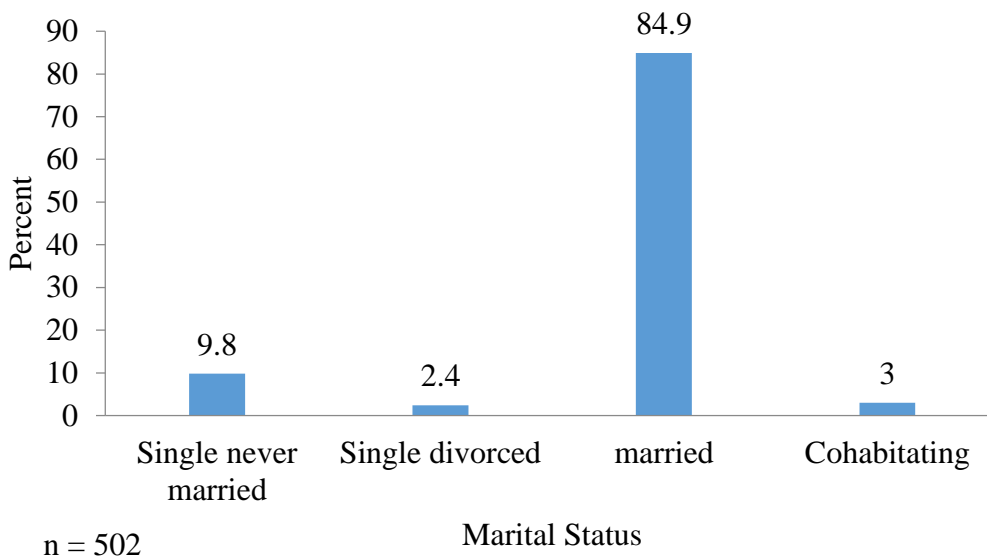
**Figure 4.1: Educational Attainment of Respondents**

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Having family ties, for example, through marriage can be a restraining factor to migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001; Konseiga, 2005). The general context of the respondents was therefore described in terms of their marital characteristics. From the results, it was found that most (84.9%) the respondents were married, as against the percentage of the respondents that were single because they had never married (9.8%) or they were widowed (2.4%). There were other respondents (3%) who were cohabitating with their partners. The Ghana Statistical Service (2012) reported that 45.3 percent of adults in the East-Gonja District had never married, 43.5 percent were married, 0.8 percent were in an informal union, and 8.4 percent



were widowed. In this study, the distribution of respondents among the various marital statuses was markedly different from the regional statistics.



**Figure 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents**

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The household characteristics of the respondents were also analysed. This included the household size and composition, as well as the number of people directly dependent of the respondent. This was to further put the study into its unique context, and also to provide a basis for analysing the effects of household characteristics on migration intent as some studies link household characteristics and composition to migration behaviour (Root, 1987; Agesa & Kim, 2001). In Table 4.3, it is shown that the skewness statistics of the distribution of the respondents' own children, number of dependents, household size, number of adults per household, and number of per household were all positively skewed. Given the skewness statistics, none of the stated variables was normally distributed. Therefore, the representative measure of central tendency was the



median, according to Pallant (2005). The results indicated that on the average, the respondents had three children, six dependents, and nine household members, which comprised four adults and five children. This meant that the average household size of the respondents was larger than the national average, which according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) stood at 4.4.

Moreover, the average household size in the Region was reported as 5.8, comprising of an average household size of 4.4 for urban areas and 5.5 for rural areas (GSS, 2012). This also indicated that the average household size of the respondents was also greater than the regional average household size and also greater than the urban and rural average household sizes.

**Table 4.3: Household Size Characteristics of the Respondents**

Parameters	Number of own children	Number of dependents	Household size	Number of adults	number of children in household
N	502	502	502	502	502
Mean	3.4582	7.0657	9.5697	4.4562	5.2271
Median	3.0000	6.0000	9.0000	4.0000	5.0000
Mode	3.00	4.00	9.00	3.00	3.00
Skewness	.702	.943	1.243	1.322	1.416
Std. Error of Skewness	.109	.109	.109	.109	.109
Minimum	.00	.00	2.00	2.00	1.00
Maximum	10.00	20.00	25.00	12.00	15.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016



## **4.2 The Impact of the Livelihood Enhancement Programmes on the Living Standards of Beneficiaries**

Some studies suggest that the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on migration is indirectly through the impact of the programmes on the living standards of the beneficiaries (United Nations, 2007; Mehta, 2009; Joshi et al., 2007). In this section, this study examined whether livelihood enhancement programmes actually have a significant effect on the livelihoods and economic lives of the beneficiaries.

### **4.2.1 Impact on Livelihoods**

The average length of exposure to the programmes was analysed as shown in Table 7. The results showed that the skewness of the distribution of the respondents' enrolment period was not normally distributed with respect to the Sheanut Processing Programme, the GSOP, and the fertilizer subsidisation programme, but the distribution for the RING was statistically normal. Thus, for the skewed data the representative averages used were the medians, while the mean was used to represent the normally distributed distribution.

On the average, beneficiaries of the Sheanut Processing project had been enrolled for two years, but the enrolment period was three years and four years for the beneficiaries of the GSOP and the Fertiliser subsidisation Programme, respectively. The average enrolment period for the beneficiaries of the RING was 3.75 years.



**Table 4.4: Enrolment on Livelihood Programmes**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness	
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error
Sheanut processing	3.9615	.69167	2.00	2.00	1.605	.456
GSOP	3.5349	.29456	3.00	2.00	2.741	.361
RING	3.7532	.12961	4.00	4.00	-.322	.274
Fertilizer subsidisation	4.0381	.21650	4.00	4.00	1.896	.236
Total	3.8566	.13161	4.0000	2.00	2.085	0.154

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The beneficiaries were asked to express from their opinions, the influence of the programmes on their livelihoods. Given the types of livelihood enhancement beneficiaries involved in the study, they were mostly either crop farmers or engaged in one form of animal husbandry. The study found that 49.4 percent of the beneficiaries indicated that the programmes had not made any changes or improvements in their livelihoods. Their specific response was that after signing on to the programme, they still retained their livelihoods, but had not seen any improvements.

On the other hand, 48.2 percent of the beneficiaries had added on new forms of livelihoods to their initial livelihoods through the programmes. In the disaggregated responses, it was noted that 51.9 percent of the beneficiaries of the RING Ruminants Rearing Programme and 65.1 percent of the beneficiaries of the GSOP indicated that they had added on a new livelihood through the programmes. However, the majority of the beneficiaries of the Fertilizer





subsidisation Programme (55.2%) and sheanut processing programme (57.7%) noted that they had not experienced any improvement in their livelihood after joining the programmes.

**Table 4.5: Impact of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes on Changes in Livelihood**

Changes in livelihood	Programme				Total
	RING	GSOP	Fertiliser subsidisation	Sheanut processing	
Retained but improved	0	1(2.3%)	0	5(19.2%)	6 (2.4%)
Added on new livelihoods	40(51.9%)	28(65.1%)	47(58.3%)	12(50.0%)	121(48.2%)
Retained with no improvement	37(48.1%)	14(32.6%)	58(55.2%)	15(57.7%)	124(49.4%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>77(100%)</b>	<b>43(100%)</b>	<b>105(100.0%)</b>	<b>26(100.0%)</b>	<b>251(100.0%)</b>

Pearson Chi-Square = 45.219; df = 6; p-value = 0.000; 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5.

The minimum expected count is .62.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Overall, it was found that a greater percentage of the beneficiaries had not made improvements in their livelihoods that they could attribute to the programmes. The Pearson Chi-square of 45.219 with 6 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000 suggested that the responses given were significantly associated with the type of programme at an alpha of 0.05. However, 33.3 percent of the cells have expected count less than 5, out of which 2 cells had count less than the expected minimum count of 0.62. The results suggested that the effectiveness of



the programmes to impact the livelihoods of the respondents was significantly different.

The fact that the livelihood enhancement programmes had not made any substantial improvements in the livelihoods of a large number of the beneficiaries was contrary to findings by Amoah and Eshun (2013) who found that livelihood enhancement strategies were beneficial to most people in the Wa East District. However, when the results are disaggregated Amoah and Eshun's (2013) conclusion holds true for participants of the GSOP and the RING project. The conceptual framework stressed livelihood diversification as one of the areas of impact made by livelihood enhancement programmes. In this study, this was the case for most of the participants of the GSOP and the RING project, who stressed that the programmes had added on new livelihoods to their former livelihoods.

#### **4.2.2 Impact of Farm Size**

Table 4.6 analyses the impact of the livelihood programmes on the farm size or business of the respondents. With respect of the farm size, reference is being made to both the size of field planted and the expansion of animal rearing sites. In view of this, 46.6 percent of the beneficiaries noted that the programmes had contributed to the expansion of their farms. All the respondents from the sheanut processing programme indicated that their processing businesses had expanded after joining the programme. In the same way, 49.4 percent of the beneficiaries of the RING project noted that their stock of animals had increased because they joined the programme, whereas 36.2 percent of the beneficiaries



Fertilizer Subsidisation Programme and 34.9 percent of the beneficiaries of GSOP had also seen improvements in their livelihoods, which they attributed to joining the respective programmes.

More than half (50.6%) of the beneficiaries of the RING project indicated that their farm size had remained the same after joining the programme. Thus, from their perspective, there had been no increase in the stock of their animals after joining the project, which on the average was about four years. A greater proportion (47.6%) of the beneficiaries Fertilizer Subsidisation Programme also responded that their farm size had remained the same after joining the programme, which according to the earlier analysis, was about four years.

**Table 4.6: Impact of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes on Farm Size**

Changes in farm size	Programme				Total
	RING	GSOP	Fertiliser subsidisation	Sheanut processing	
Bigger	38(49.4%)	15(34.9%)	38(36.2%)	26(100%)	117(46.6%)
Same	39(50.6%)	15(34.9%)	50(47.6%)	0	104(41.4%)
Reduced	0(0%)	13(30.2%)	17(16.2%)	0	30(12.0%)
Total	77(100%)	43(100%)	105(100.0%)	26(100.0%)	251(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 59.414; df = 6; p-value = 0.000; 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.11.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic of 59.414 at 6 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000 suggested a statistically significant relationship between the



respondents' perception about the effects of their respective programmes and the type of programmes they were benefiting from. Therefore, the study established that the effects of the programmes on the respondents' livelihood were markedly different and dependent on the type of programme which they joined. The programmes had made some significant impact of the farm sizes of the participants. This was in support of the positive impacts of livelihood enhancement programmes that were found in the Wa East district by Amoah and Eshun (2013). In the conceptual framework this impact is captured under the caption "continuance in sustainable rural livelihoods". Thus, the ideas of the conceptual framework are corroborated by the analysis of the empirical data.

#### **4.2.3 Livelihood Diversification Impact**

Table 4.7 presents the results regarding the effects of the livelihood programmes on the diversification of livelihoods of the beneficiaries. According to the study, 90 percent of the respondents established that they were growing the same crops, rearing the same animals, and engaged in the same livelihoods prior to and after joining their respective programmes. This was expressed by 88.3 percent of the RING programme beneficiaries, 86 percent of the GSOP beneficiaries, 95.2 percent of the Fertilizer Subsidisation programme beneficiaries, and 80.8 percent of the beneficiaries of the Sheanut Processing Project.

**Table 4.7: Livelihood Diversification Effect of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes**

Changes in farm size	Programme				Total
	RING	GSOP	Fertiliser subsidisation	Sheanut processing	
Growing additional crops/ rearing additional animals/added employment	9(11.7%)	6(14.0%)	5(4.8%)	5(19.2%)	25(10.0%)
Growing same crops/ same breed of animals/same livelihood	68(88.3%)	37(85.0%)	100(95.2%)	21(80.8%)	226(90.0%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>77(100%)</b>	<b>43(100%)</b>	<b>105(100.0%)</b>	<b>26(100.0%)</b>	<b>251(100.0%)</b>

Pearson Chi-Square = 6.676; df = 3; p-value = 0.000; 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5.

The minimum expected count is 2.59. Source: Field Survey, 2016

The overall results showed a low level of livelihood diversification involved in the programmes. The Pearson Chi-square of 6.676 at 3 degrees of freedom and with a p-value of 0.083, the study also established that there was no association between the respondents' perception of the impact of the programmes on the diversification of their livelihoods and the types of programmes they were



benefiting from. This further confirmed that overall the livelihood enhancement programmes did not adequately inculcate livelihood diversification motives.

The beneficiaries' perception of the impact of the programmes on their livelihood earnings was also analysed in Table 4.8. According to the study, 47.8 percent of the beneficiaries attributed higher earnings from their livelihoods to the effects of the programmes and 28.3 percent of the beneficiaries indicated that their earnings had not changed. On the other hand, 23.9 percent of the sampled beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes noted that their earnings had reduced after joining the programme. In the disaggregated results, it was found that 50.6 percent of the RING project established that their livelihood earnings before and after joining the programme was the same.

On the other hand, a greater percentage of the GSOP beneficiaries noted that their earnings had reduced after joining the programme, whereas most of the beneficiaries of the Fertilizer subsidisation programme (60%) and the sheanut processing project (61.5%) expressed that their livelihood earnings had increased after joining the programmes. Given a Pearson Chi-square of 44.409 at 6 degrees of freedom and p-value of 0.000, the study showed a significant association between the respondents' perception of the impact of the programmes on their livelihood earnings and the types of programmes on which they had signed. Generally, therefore, beneficiaries of the Fertilizer subsidisation programme and the Sheanut processing project were more likely to experience an increase in their earnings.



**Table 4.8: Impact of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes on Participants' Earnings**

Changes in earnings	Programme				Total
	RING	GSOP	Fertiliser subsidisation	Sheanut processing	
Higher earnings	28(36.4%)	13(30.2%)	63(60.0%)	16(61.5%)	120(47.8%)
Same earnings	39(50.6%)	14(32.6%)	18(17.1%)	0	71(28.3%)
Lower earnings	10(13.0%)	16(37.2%)	24(22.9%)	10(38.5%)	60(23.9%)
Total	77(100%)	43(100%)	105(100.0%)	26(100.0%)	251(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 44.409; df = 6; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.22.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The actual earnings of the beneficiaries were compared for the periods before and after they joined their respective programmes. In Table 4.9, the study revealed that the data was normally distributed, for the Sheanut processors, the beneficiaries of the fertiliser subsidisation project and the RING project beneficiaries.

On the other hand, the data on the earnings before joining the GSOP was not normally distributed. The median was adopted as the representative average for the data not normally distributed, but the mean was used as the representative average for the data with normal distribution (Pallant, 2005). Overall, the skewness was within the +0.50 range for normally distributed data, thus subsequent analysis of the data employed parametric methods.



**Table 4.9: Comparison of Earnings before Joining the Programmes**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness	
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error
Sheanut processing	145.00	20.98534	120.00	120.00	.176	.456
GSOP	98.13	14.24456	100.00	100.00	.569	.361
RING	114.28	10.43718	120.00	120.00	.125	.274
Fertilizer subsidisation	119.33	8.83639	150.00	160.00	.207	.236
Total	116.81	5.89368	120.00	160.00	.257	.154

Total sum of squares = 2179650.199; df = 250; F = 1.414; p-value = 0.239

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Given the parameters of the data distribution, it was found that the sheanut processors estimated that before they joined the programme, they made an average of GH¢145 each month from sheanut processing. The average earnings estimated by the beneficiaries of the GSOP prior to joining the programme was GH¢100, but GH¢114.29 for the RING project beneficiaries and GH¢119.33 for the beneficiaries of the Fertilizer subsidisation project.

Using a One-Way ANOVA, it was found that the differences in the respondents' estimated average earnings before they joined the programme were not statistically significant. In general, therefore, sheanut processors made the highest average earnings from their livelihood before they joined the programme, whereas the GSOP beneficiaries earned the least.

The study also explored the earnings the beneficiaries made after joining the programmes. It was found that none of the data distributions was normal in







statistical terms. Therefore, the representative averages employed for each set of data was the median. The sheanut processors estimated that after they joined the programme, they made an average of GH¢150 each month from sheanut processing. The average earnings estimated by the beneficiaries of the GSOP after joining the programme was GH¢80, but GH¢180 for the RING project beneficiaries and GH¢180 for the beneficiaries of the Fertilizer subsidisation project.

Using a One-Way ANOVA, it was found that the differences in the respondents' estimated average earnings before they joined the programme were not statistically significant. In general, therefore, sheanut processors made the highest average earnings from their livelihood before they joined the programme, whereas the GSOP beneficiaries earned the least.

A Kruskal Wallis test revealed that the differences among the earnings of the respondents after they joined their respective programmes was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 2.934; df = 3; p-value = 0.402). Thus, in general, beneficiaries of the RING project and the Fertiliser subsidisation Programme made the highest average returns from their livelihoods after joining their respective programmes.

**Table 4.10: Comparison of Earnings after Joining the Programmes**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness	
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error
Sheanut processing	166.34	17.810	150.00	150.00	-.514	.456
GSOP	225.46	41.663	80.00	80.00	1.101	.361
RING	257.66	30.146	180.00	180.00	.949	.274
Fertilizer subsidisation	208.19	18.939	180.00	180.00	1.697	.236
Total	216.88	51.518	180.00	180.00	1.238	.054

Chi-Square = 2.934; df = 3; p-value = .402

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The study also investigated the differences in the profits obtained by the programmes' beneficiaries. In Table 4.11, none of profit margin distribution for beneficiaries was normally distributed, and thus, the median, per Sarantakos (2005), was adopted as the representative average. The Sheanut processors obtained a median profit margin of 20 percent (mean = 17.11), beneficiaries of GSOP had a mean profit median of 20 percent (mean = 19.18), and the RING (mean = 29.28) and fertiliser subsidisation (mean = 30.52) beneficiaries also had a median of 20 percent margin of discretionary earnings.



**Table 4.11: Comparison of Profit Margins of Beneficiaries**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness		Mean rank
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error	
Sheanut processing	17.11	.792	20.00	20.00	-.960	.456	100.94
GSOP	19.18	1.696	20.00	20.00	1.834	.361	99.12
RING	29.28	2.049	20.00	20.00	29.28	2.049	134.28
Fertilizer subsidisation	30.52	1.951	20.00	20.00	.540	.236	137.14
Total	26.81	1.119	20.00	20.00	.906	.154	

Chi-Square = 13.254; df = 3; p-value = 0.004

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The differences in the profit margins or discretionary income of the beneficiaries of the programmes were analysed using Kruskal Wallis H test, because the data were not normally distributed. The analysis revealed that the differences in the distribution of the mean profits/discretionary incomes of the beneficiaries were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 13.254; df = 3; p-value = 0.004). This indicated that the beneficiaries of the fertiliser subsidisation project had the highest average margin of returns, whereas the Sheanut processors had the lowest among the groups.

Table 4.12 compares the discretionary income of the beneficiaries to that of the non-beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes. The test for normality of data distribution indicated that both sets of distribution for the beneficiaries and the non-beneficiaries were not normally distributed. Thus, the



medians were adopted as the representative averages, according to Sarantakos (2005). The results, therefore, showed that the average discretionary income of the beneficiaries of the livelihood programmes formed 20 percent of their yield, whereas that of the non-beneficiaries was 40 percent of their incomes. This revealed that the non-beneficiaries acquired a higher margin of average returns, as compared to the beneficiaries. The differences in the average margin of returns was compared between the non-beneficiaries and beneficiaries using the Mann-Whitney U-test, given that the data distributions were not statistically normal. The results were that the difference was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Mann-Whitney U = 17940.000; Z-score = -8425; p-value = 0.000).

**Table 4.12: Comparison of Margin of Returns for the Beneficiaries and Non-Beneficiaries**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness		Mean rank	Sum of rank
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error		
Beneficiaries	26.81	1.119	20.00	20.00	.906	.154	197.47	49566.00
Non-beneficiaries	78.98	5.840	40.00	20.00	1.872	.154	305.53	76687.00
Total	52.89	3.190	25.00	20.00	2.909	.109		

Mann-Whitney U = 17940.000; Z-score = -8425; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The actual discretionary earnings in terms of the monetary value of the margins estimated were also compared. This was calculated by multiplying the estimated margins by the estimated incomes earned. In order to determine the representative average of the distributions, the skewness statistics were referred to. The results showed that the data for the beneficiaries was normally distributed



(skewness = 0.201; error = 0.154), whereas that of the non-beneficiaries was not normally distributed (skewness = 1.141; error = 0.154). The mean was used as the representative average of the normally distributed data whereas the median was adopted as the representative average of the data without normal distribution, according to the guidelines given by Sarantakos (2005).

Table 4.13, the beneficiaries' discretionary earnings were estimated at an average of GH¢50.7, whereas the discretionary earnings of the non-beneficiaries were estimated at GH¢40.00. The test for statistical significance of the difference in discretionary earnings was associated with a Mann-Whitney U of 23769; z-score of -4.768 and a p-value of 0.000. The results therefore indicated that the beneficiaries of the livelihood programmes made a higher average discretionary income than non-beneficiaries.

Fischer et al. (2007) stressed that livelihood enhancement is expected to reduce rural poverty, strengthen rural occupation, and also increase efficiency and earnings. In this study, this expectation is emphasised by a greater proportion of the beneficiaries. However, their incomes or discretionary incomes are still marginally below those who are not participating in the programmes. The average margin of returns are about half of that of the non-beneficiaries and that translates to significant difference between their income and that of those not participating in the programmes. This might be an incentive to leave the programme and pursue other avenues for income, which might include migration.



**Table 4.13: Comparison of Discretionary Income of the Beneficiaries and Non-Beneficiaries**

Programme	Mean		Median	Mode	Skewness		Mean rank	Sum of rank
	Stat	Error			Stat	Error		
Beneficiaries	50.70	2.618	37.50	20.00	.201	.154	220.70	55395.00
Non-beneficiaries	280.45	23.53	40.00	20.00	1.141	.154	282.30	70858.00
Total	52.89	3.190	25.00	20.00	2.909	.109		

Mann-Whitney U = 23769.000; Z-score = -4.768; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field Survey, 2016

### **4.3 Effectiveness of Livelihood Enhancement Programmes to Reduce High Rural-Urban Migration**

The study investigated the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration. Table 4.14 revealed that 47.8 percent of the respondents associated migration with higher social status and 36.7 percent associated migration with wealth. In the disaggregated results, the results showed that 44.6 percent of the beneficiaries and 51 percent of the non-beneficiaries associated returned migrants with higher social status.



**Table 4.14: Attributes given to Returned Migrants**

Attribute	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Social status	112(44.6%)	128(51.0%)	240(47.8%)
Wealth	89(35.5%)	95(37.8%)	184(36.7%)
Hustle	50(19.9%)	0	50(10.0%)
Respect	0	28(11.2%)	28(5.6)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 79.262; df = 3; p-value = 0.000;

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Wealth came in second as noted by 35.5 percent of the beneficiaries and 37.8 percent of the non-beneficiaries. In most cases therefore, social status and wealth were the major motivators for out-migration. The Pearson Chi-Square of 79.262 (df = 3; p-value = 0.000) showed that there was a statistically significant association between the labels that beneficiaries associate migration with and the labels that non-beneficiaries also give to returned migrants.

Table 18 provides details of the attributes that the respondents want to be associated with within their resident communities. According to the results, the greatest proportion of the respondents (44.4%) noted that they would like to be associated with wealth. This was followed by those (35.7%) who would like to be accorded respect in their resident communities. This presupposed that wealth could be the single most important pull/push factor for migration among the respondents. The disaggregated results further revealed that whereas the greatest



portion of beneficiaries would want to be associated with wealth, 60.6 percent of the non-beneficiaries were more concerned about the respect they had in the communities. The distribution of the responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 190.093 at 3 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000, which suggested a statistically significant association between the attributes that beneficiaries would like to be associated with and the labels that non-beneficiaries would also like to be associated with. Inferring from the congruence between the attributes that the respondents accord returned migrants and the attributes that they would like to be associated with within their respective communities, it could be established that wealth was a major influence of out-migration from the communities being studied.

**Table 4.15: Attributes that Respondents Intent to Obtain through Migration**

Attribute	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Social status	61(24.3%)	0(0.0%)	61(12.2%)
Wealth	124(49.4%)	99(39.4%)	223(44.4%)
Hustle	39(15.5%)	0	39(7.8%)
Respect	27(10.8%)	152(60.6%)	179(35.7)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 190.093; df = 3; p-value = 0.000;

Source: Field Survey, 2016





The respondents expressed their perception regarding migrating out of their communities in expectation of higher financial benefits, as compared to their current occupations. The study revealed that 78.9 percent of the respondents noted that they do not believe better financial gains exist elsewhere for them, other than their current occupations or participation in the livelihood enhancement programmes. This was expressed by most of the beneficiaries (78.9%) and non-beneficiaries (62.2%) of the livelihood enhancement programmes.

**Table 4.16: Respondents' Beliefs about Better Economic Gains Outside their Resident Communities**

Response	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Better opportunities out there	53(21.1%)	95(37.8%)	148(29.5%)
Same opportunities everywhere	198(78.9%)	156(62.2%)	354(70.4%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 16.902; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 74.00

Source: Field survey, 2016

The study indicated that 71.6 percent of the respondents who believed in higher financial opportunities elsewhere also indicated that they intend to migrate in the future in expectation of higher earnings. This was expressed by 66 percent of the beneficiaries and 74.7 percent of the non-beneficiaries. The distribution of the responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 1.267 at 1 degree of freedom and a p-value of 0.260. Therefore, it was noted that the expectations of



higher earnings is a major pull factor of migration, irrespective of whether the respondent benefited from livelihood enhancement programmes or not.

The results confirmed the theoretical approach that migration is a factor of the differences in the financial benefits at the destinations and the migrants' reference communities. In this study, financial gains remained an important factor which was being seen a motivation to migrate by most of the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries who believed they could earn higher elsewhere. The results also alluded to Stark's (1991) assertion that migrants search to maximise the expected income of the household.

#### **4.4 The Likelihood of Migration between the Beneficiaries and Non-beneficiaries of the Livelihood Enhancement Programmes**

The study went further to explore the likelihood of migration between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes. It is believed that people have different intentions for which they migrate. The study was interested in finding out the likelihood of migration between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes.



**Table 4.17: Relationship between Migration Intend and the Belief in Better Opportunities Outside Respondents' Resident Community**

Attribute	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	35(66.0%)	71(74.7%)	106(71.6%)
Not migrate	18(34.0%)	24(25.3%)	42(28.4%)
Total	53(100.0%)	95(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 1.267; df = 1; p-value = .260; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.04

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Higher social status been established as one of the major push factors for migration (Stark, 2003). This study explored the possibility that the effect positive societal perception about returned migrants on migration would be lessened due to people's involvement in livelihood enhancement programmes. Table 4.18 showed that the majority (63%) of the respondents associated returned migrants with high social status. This was a common opinion among 66.9 percent of the non-beneficiaries and 58.7 percent of the beneficiaries. The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was not statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 3.493; df = 1; p-value = 0.062). The results therefore revealed that social status was an attribute that most of community members accorded returned migrants irrespective their participation in the livelihood enhancement programmes.



**Table 4.18: Relationship Between Migration Intend and the Desire for Higher Social Status**

Attribute	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	135(58.7%)	168(66.9%)	303(63.0%)
Not migrate	95(41.3%)	83(33.1%)	178(37.0%)
Total	230(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	481(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 3.493; df = 1; p-value = .062; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 85.11

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Gubert (2000) and Stark (2003) indicated that migration can also be motivated if it is a means to achieve a better social status. In this study, this assertion holds true for most of the respondents and particularly the participants of the livelihood enhancement programmes. This also confirms the theoretical convictions that is not only a factor of income or economic reasons but also impacted by social factors (Bromideh, 2011; Scoones, 1998).

Some studies have found that people migrate in order to gain exposure to the world (Kunfa, 1999; Mensah-Bonsu, 2003). This study investigated whether participation in livelihood enhancement programmes could curtail high rural-urban migration, and thus, the extent influence of other external factors on migration, such as the desire for exposure and experience, were analysed. Table 4.19 showed that the majority (63%) of the respondents associated returned migrants with exposure. This was a common opinion among 66.9 percent of the non-beneficiaries and 58.7 percent of the beneficiaries.



**Table 4.19: Attribute to Returned Migrants as Exposed People**

Attribute	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
As exposed	155(61.8%)	188(74.9%)	343(68.3%)
As the same as all	96(38.2%)	63(25.3%)	159(31.7%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 10.024; df = 1; p-value = .062; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 79.50.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was not statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 3.493; df = 1; p-value = 0.062). The results therefore revealed that gaining exposure and experience of the world were attributes that most of community members accorded returned migrants irrespective their participation in the livelihood enhancement programmes.

The study further explored the possibility that the community members would migrate in expectation of gaining more exposure to the world. It was found that 81.4 percent of those who associated returned migrants with higher levels of exposure also affirmed that they intended to migrate in order to receive such experience the world. This group of respondents comprised 91.4 percent of beneficiaries and 73.5 percent of non-beneficiaries who attributed returned migrants with higher levels of exposure. The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 20.952; df = 1; p-



value = 0.000). The results therefore revealed that expectation of exposure was a major motivator for migration for most of community members.

**Table 4.20: Migration Intention and Desire to Experience the World**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	155(91.7%)	164(73.5%)	319(81.4%)
Not migrate	14(8.3%)	59(26.5%)	73(18.6%)
Total	169(100.0%)	223(100.0%)	392(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 20.952; df = 1; p-value = 0.000;

Source: Field Survey, 2016

A significantly higher proportion of beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes intended to migrate in order to receive such experience the world. Some studies have noted that the north-south migration, as well as the rural-urban migration is fuelled by is a considerable development gap between the northern and southern Ghana (Kunfa, 1999; Mensah-Bonsu, 2003). Thus, people migrate to experience and get exposed to such developments. In this study, this was a major factor influencing the migration intentions of many respondents.

In both theory and practices, a major factor for migrating is to obtain economic sufficiency for self and family (Agesa & Kim, 2001; Lewis, 1954; McCatty, 2004; Todaro, 1976). The purpose of this study is to investigate whether participation in livelihood enhancement programmes could curtail high rural-urban migration, by increasing the economic gains of participants and thus remove the economic motivation for migration. From Table 4.21, 32.1 percent of the respondents reported that their incomes were sufficient for themselves and



their families. This comprised 57.8 percent of the beneficiaries and only 6.4 percent of the non-beneficiaries. Most of the non-beneficiaries reported income insufficiency with reference to their economic needs and that of their families.

**Table 4.21: Self-Assessment of Income Sufficiency**

Assessment	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Income sufficient	145(57.8%)	16(6.4%)	161(32.1%)
Income deficient	106(42.2%)	59(93.6%)	341(67.9%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 152.161; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 80.50;

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 152.161; df = 1; p-value = 0.000). The results therefore revealed that a significant majority of the non-beneficiaries were income insufficient according to their own self-assessment most of the beneficiaries were income sufficient.

The study further explored whether income sufficiency of the respondents would curtail rural-urban migration. It was found that 56.5 percent of the income sufficient said they do not intend migrate in search of economic gains. This was expressed by all the non-beneficiaries who saw themselves as income sufficient. Similarly, 51.7 percent of the beneficiaries who reported that they were income sufficient also reported that they did not intend to migrate for economic reasons.





The responses supported the debate that higher incomes curtail migration to some extent (Deshingkar & Start, 2003; Nelson, 2015). This was in contrast to studies that have found that higher incomes provide the economic means to finance further migration (Institute for Security Studies, 2015; Dzingirai, Egger, Landau, Litchfield, Mutopo & Nyikahadzoi, 2015).

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 13.666; df = 1; p-value = 0.000). The results therefore revealed that higher incomes can significantly reduce migration. Moreover, a significantly higher proportion of non-beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes would be curtailed to migrate if their income conditions improved.

**Table 4.22: Income Sufficiency and Migration Intent**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	70(48.3%)	0	70(43.5%)
Not migrate	75(51.7%)	16(100%)	91(56.5%)
Total	145(100.0%)	16(100.0%)	161(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 13.666; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.96.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Several contingent factors have been provided, which explain migration, other than economic reasons. This study explored how some of these factors are related to people's participation in livelihood enhancement programmes. The





hypothetical statement “I have secure a job in the city, it pays more than my current occupation, but I don’t have a place to stay in the big city” was tested between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. It was found that 75.3 percent of all the respondents noted that they would not migrate, given this hypothetical situation. This was indicated by all the non-beneficiaries and 50.6 percent of the beneficiaries. Thus, it was also found that, in comparison to the non-beneficiaries, a higher proportion of the beneficiaries would migrate given the hypothetical situation stated. The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-Square of 164.677 at 1 degree of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This meant that the classification of respondents as beneficiaries or non-beneficiaries was significantly associated with their propensity to migrate or not-migrate, given the tentative scenario described to them.

**Table 4.23: Migration Intention Hypothesis 1**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	124(49.4%)	0	124(24.7%)
Not migrate	127(50.6%)	16(100%)	378(75.3%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 164.677; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 62.00.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The hypothetical statement “I have a friend in the big city who has agreed to house me but I have not yet found a job in the city” was tested between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. It was found that 82.7 percent of all the

respondents noted that they would not migrate, given this hypothetical situation. This was indicated by 92.4 percent of the non-beneficiaries and 72.9 percent of the beneficiaries. Thus, it was also found that, in comparison to the non-beneficiaries, a higher proportion of the beneficiaries would migrate given the hypothetical situation stated. The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-Square of 33.383 at 1 degree of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This meant that the classification of respondents as beneficiaries or non-beneficiaries was significantly associated with their propensity to migrate or not-migrate, given the tentative scenario described to them.

**Table 4.24: Migration Intention Hypothesis 2**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	68(27.1%)	19(7.6%)	87(17.3%)
Not migrate	183(72.9%)	232(92.4%)	415(82.7%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 33.383; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 43.50

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The hypothetical statement “I have secured a job in the city but it doesn’t pay more than my current occupation and I don’t have a place to stay there” was tested between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. It was found that 91.8 percent of all the respondents noted that they would not migrate, given this hypothetical situation. This was indicated by all the non-beneficiaries and 83.7 percent of the beneficiaries. Thus, it was also found that, in comparison to the



non-beneficiaries, a higher proportion of the beneficiaries would migrate given the hypothetical situation stated. The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-Square of 44.646 at 1 degree of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This meant that the classification of respondents as beneficiaries or non-beneficiaries was significantly associated with their propensity to migrate or not-migrate, given the tentative scenario described to them. It was therefore found that some of the beneficiaries would leave the programme and migrate even if they secured a low paying job in the city, and they had no place to stay.

**Table 4.25: Migration Intention Hypothesis 3**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	41(16.3%)	0	41(8.2%)
Not migrate	210(83.7%)	251(100.0%)	461(91.8%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 44.646; df = 1; p-value = 0.000; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.50

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The hypothetical statement “My friend in the big city said although I don’t have a place to stay and a job, it won’t be long before I find a good job and a place to live” was tested between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. It was found that 84.7 percent of all the respondents noted that they would not migrate, given this hypothetical situation. This was indicated by 85.7 percent of the non-beneficiaries and 83.7 percent of the beneficiaries. Thus, it was also found that, in comparison to the non-beneficiaries, a higher proportion of the beneficiaries



would migrate given the hypothetical situation stated. The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-Square of 0.383 at 1 degree of freedom and a p-value of 0.536. This meant that the classification of respondents as beneficiaries or non-beneficiaries was not significantly associated with their propensity to migrate or not-migrate, given the tentative scenario described to them. In this sense, both groups reacted similarly to the statement, whereby most would not migrate based on word of that things will get better once they migrate to the city.

**Table 4.26: Migration Intention Hypothesis 4**

Intent	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries	Total
Migrate	41(16.3%)	36(14.3%)	77(15.3%)
Not migrate	210(83.7%)	215(85.7%)	425(84.7%)
Total	251(100.0%)	251(100.0%)	502(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 0.383; df = 1; p-value = 0.536; 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 38.50

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Stark (1991) argued that migration is not only a consequence of income gap but responds as well to other individual or familial incentives. Gubert (2000) argued that even more important, family ties and cultural differences between source and receiving countries raise the cost of immigration. In the analysis it was found that most of the respondents would not migrate until they are assured of a job and a place to stay in the city. This rather confirms the idea that the employment gap between rural and urban areas is central to migration decisions.



In the tentative statements given, the respondents declined to migrate because the statements did not confirm securing higher paying jobs than the current occupations of the respondents.

#### 4.5 Factors Constraining the Effectiveness of Livelihood Enhancement

##### Programmes to Reduce High Rural-Urban Migration

This section analyses the challenges that constrain the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes in achieving their economic and social motives, and by extension help reduce high rural-urban migration. Table 4.27 showed that 45 percent of the beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes responded that they had very little challenge with understanding the new techniques introduced through the programmes, whereas a total of 51 percent found the techniques moderately (28.3%) and very challenging to understand (22.7%).

**Table 4.27: Challenges with Understanding New Methods**

Level of challenge	Programme				Total
	Sheanut processing	GSOP	RING	Fertiliser subsidisation	
Not challenging	5(19.2%)	0	0	5(4.8%)	10(4.0%)
Least Challenging	16(61.5%)	12(27.9%)	20(26.0%)	65(61.9%)	113(45.0%)
Moderately	5(19.2%)	17(39.5%)	24(31.2%)	25(23.8%)	71(28.3%)
Very challenging		14(32.6%)	33(42.9%)	10(9.5%)	57(22.7%)
Total	26(100%)	43(100%)	77(100.0%)	105(100.0%)	251(100.0%)

Pearson Chi-Square = 70.528; df = 9; p-value = 0.000; 4 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.04.

Source: Field Survey, 2016





In the disaggregated results, it was found that most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (70.7%) and the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (65.7%) had either no challenge or very little challenge in understanding the new techniques, whereas, most of the participants of the GSOP (72.1%) and RING (74.1%) project had moderate and very high challenge in understanding the new techniques being taught. The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 70.538 at 9 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This indicated that the association between the level of challenge in understanding the new concepts of the programmes and the types of programmes that respondents participated in was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Therefore, the ease or difficulty of understanding the new techniques was based on the types of programmes that the respondents joined.

Nair (2014) established that low literacy among rural populations generally make them slower in adopting new practices, which are essential to livelihood enhancement. This may be true for this population as their education levels were generally low, as confirmed by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012). Their low education may explain their lower adaptive capacity to new technology and skills development. Other studies have indicated that education among women in many traditional areas is lower as compared to men (LaFlamme, 2010; Tsegai, 2005). In this study most of the beneficiaries were women and thus, if LaFlamme's (2010) assertion holds true, then this might also explain why most of the respondents in some of the groups have difficulty understanding the new techniques of the programme.

Table 4.28 presents the level of challenge with obtaining capital to invest in new techniques and infrastructure introduced through the livelihood enhancement programmes. The results indicated that 45.4 percent of the beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes responded that they had very little challenge, and 39 percent noted that they had no challenge with accumulating capital to invest in the new techniques introduced through the programmes. In the disaggregated results, it was found that most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (70.7%), the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (65.7%), GSOP (87.4%), and RING (76.6%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge with accumulating capital to invest in the new techniques.

The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 18.543 at 9 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.029. This indicated that the association between the level of challenge with accumulating capital to invest in the new techniques of the programmes and the types of programmes that respondents participated in was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Therefore, the ease or difficulty with accumulating capital to invest in the new techniques of the programmes was based on the types of programmes that the respondents joined. This may be explained by the different requirements of the programme and also by the fact that many pro-poor rural development techniques adopt low capital intensive methods.



**Table 4.28: Challenges with Capital Investment**

Level of challenge	Programme				Total
	Sheanut processing	GSOP	RING	Fertiliser subsidisation	
Least challenging	16(61.5%)	18(41.9%)	25(32.5%)	39(37.1%)	98(39.0%)
Moderate	5(19.2%)	20(46.5%)	37(48.1%)	52(49.5%)	114(45.4%)
Very challenging	5(19.2%)	4(9.3%)	7(9.1%)	11(10.5%)	27(10.8%)
Challenging beyond manageable limits	0	1(2.3%)	8(10.4%)	3(2.9%)	12(4.8%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>26(100%)</b>	<b>43(100%)</b>	<b>77(100.0%)</b>	<b>105(100.0%)</b>	<b>251(100.0%)</b>

Pearson Chi-Square = 18.543; df = 9; p-value = 0.029; 5 cells (31.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.24.

Source: Field Survey, 2016

According to Sally and Abernethy (2011), the sustainability of livelihood enhancement programmes is also challenged by low financial capital of the rural populations. The acquisition of new and improved technology for occupational progress or for diversification is often a dire challenge for rural folk. Nair (2003) indicated that the major challenge with livelihood enhancement can be related to lower levels of capitals among rural population. In this study, Sally and Abernethy's (2011) findings were not corroborated. On the other hand, respondents from all the programmes in this study noted that they could meet level of capital requirements with ease.







Table 4.29 presents the level of challenge participants of the programmes face with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes. The results indicated that a total of 52.2 percent of the beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes had either very little challenge (28.3%) or no challenge (23.9%) with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes. In the disaggregated results, it was found that most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (80.8%), GSOP (51.2%), and RING (50.7%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes. However, majority of the respondents in the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (53.4%) had moderate to very high challenge with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes.

The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 82.640 at 9 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This indicated that the association between the level of challenge with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes and the types of programmes that respondents participated in was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Therefore, the ease or difficulty with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes was based on the types of programmes that the respondents joined. This may be explained by the different requirements of the programme and also indicative a low adaptive capacity of some of the participants, particularly in the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme. LaFlamme (2010) pointed out that low adaptive capacity, resulting from low level of

education can cause problems with livelihood enhancement programmes. This seems to be the case in this study, with respects to some of the participants, particularly in the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme.

**Table 4.29: Challenges with Transitioning to New Methods**

Level of challenge	Programme				Total
	Sheanut processing	GSOP	RING	Fertiliser subsidisation	
No challenge	0(0%)	12(27.9%)	33(42.9%)	15(14.3%)	60(23.9%)
Least challenging	21(80.8%)	10(23.3%)	6(7.8%)	34(32.4%)	71(28.3%)
Moderate	0(0%)	19(44.2%)	30(39.0%)	53(50.5%)	102(40.5%)
Challenging beyond manageable limits	5(19.2%)	2(4.7%)	8(10.4%)	3(2.9%)	18(7.2%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>26(100%)</b>	<b>43(100%)</b>	<b>77(100.0%)</b>	<b>105(100.0%)</b>	<b>251(100.0%)</b>

Pearson Chi-Square = 82.640; df = 9; p-value = 0.029; 2 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than

5. The minimum expected count is 1.86; Source: Field Survey, 2016

The study further delved into analysing how the adaptability of the livelihood enhancement programmes affects their earnings. This was to provide a bit on insight into the effects of this kind of challenge affects the effectiveness of the programmes. Based on earlier calculations on the discretionary profits of the respondents, Table 33 shows that the participants who had no problem with transitioning from their old methods to the new techniques made an average of GH¢73.73 per yield, followed by those with moderate (GH¢65.88) and minimal challenge (GH¢21.18) in technique transition. The least of GH¢4.33 made was by



those with very high challenge beyond their capacity to manage. Thus, they represented the respondents who could not adapt at all.

**Table 4.30: Effects of Coping Ability on Earnings**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
No challenging	60	73.73	18.42885	2.37915	68.9727	78.4940	56.00	105.00
Least challenging	71	21.18	13.31279	1.57994	18.0320	24.3342	2.00	37.50
Moderately Challenging	102	65.88	48.92413	4.84421	56.2727	75.4920	2.00	108.00
beyond manageable	18	4.33	.97014	.22866	3.8509	4.8158	3.00	5.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>50.70</b>	<b>41.47819</b>	<b>2.61808</b>	<b>45.5449</b>	<b>55.8575</b>	<b>2.00</b>	<b>108.00</b>

Total Sum of squares = 430110.090; df = 250; F = 46.810; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Although, there was no straight linear relationship between the levels of challenge with adapting to new techniques and the earnings made by the participants, there was a clear distinction between the earnings of those who adapted with no challenge and those who could not adapt at all. The ANOVA results showed that the mean differences were statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (F-stat = 46.810; df = 3; p-value = 0.000). The results supported the assertion that an inverse relationship exists between adaptive capacity and income generation (LaFlamme, 2010).





Table 4.31 presents the level of challenge participants of the programmes face regarding the time-span for the programmes. The results indicated that a total of 60.5 percent of the beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes had either very little challenge (44.2%) or no challenge (16.3%) regarding the time-span for the programmes. In the disaggregated results, it was found that most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (80.8%), GSOP (58.2%), RING (59.8%), and the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (57.1%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge regarding the time-span for the programmes.

The distribution of responses was associated with a Pearson Chi-square of 48.467 at 12 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.000. This indicated that the association between the level of challenge regarding the time-span for the programmes and the types of programmes that respondents participated in was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Therefore, the ease or difficulty with regarding the time-span for the programmes was based on the types of programmes that the respondents joined. The problem of short time-span for the programme implementation also factors in (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). Prabhakarb (2011) observed that donors or governments offering grants often set target and time-bound programmes for NGOs implementation plans. In cases of this study, short time-span allocated for project completion, was not a problem encountered by the participants.

**Table 4.31: Challenges with Time-Span of the Programmes**

Level of challenge	Programme				Total
	Sheanut processing	GSOP	RING	Fertiliser subsidisation	
No challenge	0(0%)	10(23.3%)	19(24.7%)	12(11.4%)	41(16.3%)
Least challenging	21(80.8%)	15(34.9%)	27(35.1%)	48(45.7%)	111(44.2%)
Moderate	5(19.2%)	9(20.9%)	23(29.0%)	35(33.3%)	72(28.7%)
Very challenging	0	8(18.6%)	0	7(6.7%)	15(6.0)
Challenging beyond manageable limits	0	1(2.3%)	8(10.4%)	3(2.9%)	12(4.8%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>26(100%)</b>	<b>43(100%)</b>	<b>77(100.0%)</b>	<b>105(100.0%)</b>	<b>251(100.0%)</b>

Pearson Chi-Square = 48.467; df = 12; p-value = 0.000; . 7 cells (35.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.24

Source: Field Survey, 2016

#### 4.5 Summary

This chapter analysed the data obtained from the field and confirmed some of the theoretical basis. For example, the income gap between the rural areas and cities motivate migration. Furthermore, the results found that economic reasons are not the only factors driving migration and that people who see themselves as economically sufficient may also migrate for social reasons. Overall, the results indicated that the livelihood enhancement programmes were not making significant effects in curtailing the intention to migrate.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary of Key Findings

This study set out to assess the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration in the Kijew, Dagbambia, Gbung, and Libi communities in the East Gona District. The specific objectives were to analyse the economic impact of the livelihood enhancement programmes on beneficiaries; evaluate the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration in the District; Compare the likelihood of migration between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes; and examine the factors that constrain the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration in the East-Gonja District.

The study adopted the quantitative research approach for data collection and analysis. In line with this approach, a cross-sectional design was adopted. The type of cross-sectional design adopted in the study falls within the confines of a quasi-experimental design, namely the static group comparison design. A total of 502 community members were sampled and grouped equally into beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes and non-beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes. Semi-structured questionnaire were used to collect data from the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes. Descriptive statistics, charts, cross-tabulations with chi-squares, independent sample t-test, paired-sample t-test, and One-Way ANOVA, were



used to analyse the data. The data were analysed based on the research objectives and the key findings discussed below.

The first objective analysed the economic impact of the livelihood enhancement programmes on beneficiaries and the major findings were: A total of 49.4 percent of the beneficiaries indicated that the programmes had not made any changes or improvements in their livelihoods. On the other hand, 48.2 percent of the beneficiaries had added on new forms of livelihoods to their initial livelihoods through the programmes.

About 46 percent of the beneficiaries noted that the programmes had contributed to the expansion of their farms. The programmes had made some significant impact of the farm sizes of the participants in all the programmes.

A total of 90 percent of the respondents established that they were growing the same crops, rearing the same animals, and engaged in the same livelihoods prior to and after joining their respective programmes.

More than 47 percent of the beneficiaries attributed higher earnings from their livelihoods to the effects of the programmes and 28.3 percent of the beneficiaries indicated that their earnings had not changed. However, a greater percentage of the GSOP beneficiaries noted that their earnings had reduced after joining the programme.

This revealed that the non-beneficiaries acquired a higher margin of average returns and also a higher average income than the beneficiaries. The key findings regarding the effectiveness of the programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration are discussed below.





Majority of the respondents associated migration with wealth and more than 71 percent of the respondents who believed in higher financial opportunities elsewhere also indicated that they intend to migrate in the future in expectation of higher earnings.

Majority of the respondents associated migration with higher social status and more 63 percent of those who associated returned migrants with higher social status also affirmed that they intended to migrate in order to receive such experience the world.

Majority of the respondents associated migration with exposure and more than 81 percent of those who associated returned migrants with higher levels of exposure also affirmed that they intended to migrate in order to receive such experience the world.

Most of the beneficiaries indicated that they were income sufficient, yet 48.3 percent indicated that they intended to migrate to the cities. In comparing the likelihood of migration between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of the livelihood enhancement programmes the following findings were revealed:

The majority (63%) of the respondents associated returned migrants with high social status. This was a common opinion among 66.9 percent of the non-beneficiaries and 58.7 percent of the beneficiaries.

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was not statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 3.493; df = 1; p-value = 0.062). The results therefore revealed that social status was an attribute that most of



community members accorded returned migrants irrespective their participation in the livelihood enhancement programmes.

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 152.161; df = 1; p-value = 0.000). The results therefore revealed that a significant majority of the non-beneficiaries were income insufficient according to their own self-assessment most of the beneficiaries were income sufficient.

The statistics further showed that the association between the beneficiaries' responses and that of the non-beneficiaries was statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05 (Chi-Square = 13.666; df = 1; p-value = 0.000). The results therefore revealed that higher incomes can significantly reduce migration. The final objective of the study examined the factors constraining the effectiveness of the programmes in reducing high rural-urban migration, and the major findings included the following:

Most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (70.7%) and the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (65.7%) had either no challenge or very little challenge in understanding the new techniques, whereas, most of the participants of the GSOP (72.1%) and RING (74.1%) project had moderate and very high challenge in understanding the new techniques being taught.

Most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (70.7%), the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (65.7%), GSOP (87.4%), and RING



(76.6%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge with accumulating capital to invest in the new techniques.

Most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (80.8%), GSOP (51.2%), and RING (50.7%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes. However, majority of the respondents in the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (53.4%) had moderate to very high challenge with transitioning from their old techniques to the new techniques of the programmes.

Most of the respondents in the Sheanut processing programme (80.8%), GSOP (58.2%), RING (59.8%), and the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme (57.1%) project had either no challenge or very little challenge regarding the time-span for the programmes.

## **5.2 Conclusions**

On the first objective the study, it is concluded that the livelihood enhancement programmes made some minimal impacts on the economic lives of the participants. A greater percentage of the beneficiaries had not made improvements in their livelihoods that they could attribute to the programmes. Overall, the livelihood enhancement programmes had increased the farm size of the participants but did not adequately inculcate livelihood diversification motives. The programmes had increased the earnings of the participants but not for most of the RING project and GSOP participants.

On the second objective, the study concludes that the programmes could not effectively reduce high-rural urban migration, given that, although most of the





beneficiaries thought that they were income sufficient, they still had the intention to migrating. Other factors, such as higher social status and exposure, also influence their migration intent other than just economic reasons.

Moreover, it is concluded that since a significantly proportion of non-beneficiaries of livelihood enhancement programmes migrate because of insufficient income, then poverty and insufficient income caused the people to migrate. Therefore, the non-beneficiaries would be curtailed to migrate if their income conditions improved.

The most significant challenge of the programmes was with transitioning from the old methods to the new methods introduced by the programmes. This was found to be related to different levels of economic gains from the livelihoods of the respondents. Indeed, the challenge of transitioning was very paramount among the members of the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme.

Overall, the study concludes that the livelihood enhancement programmes were not making the desired economic impact on the participants so they did not translate into intention to stay in the communities.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Based on the summary and conclusion of the study, the following recommendations were made:

A more in-depth internal assessment of the programmes should be made to bring to some conformance the beliefs about the Directors that the programmes were making significant impacts on the livelihoods of the respondents and that of

the beneficiaries that the programmes were making marginal improvements in their economic lives.

The programmes should involve a more diversified approach to livelihoods and livelihood supplementation alternatives. This may have the potential to increase the economic gains from the projects.

More sensitisation of the community members should be embarked on given that even most of the income sufficient had intentions to migrate for exposure and higher social status.

Members of the Fertiliser Subsidisation Programme should particularly be engaged in more rigorous or a different method of teaching them the new technique to help with their transitioning from old methods to new methods.

#### **5.4 Suggestions for Future Research**

The study recommends wider future studies into the practical ways of implementing livelihood enhancement programmes so as to curtail high-rural urban migration and their negative effects on the local economy. The study also recommends further studies into building the capacities of local people and the psychological tuning of the minds of the local people against high rural urban migration, since income sufficiency seems not to be a major deterrent to high rural-urban migration.



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**APPENDIX 1: SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE FOR  
RESPONDENTS OF LIVELIHOOD ENHANCEMENT PROGRAMMES**

Dear Respondent,

I am pursuing a master of philosophy in Development Education at the University of Development Studies in Ghana. This is a study to examine the influence of livelihood enhancement programmes on rural-urban migration. The quest for information is principally for academic purposes. Responses provided shall be treated confidentially and uniquely for the stated purpose. Please be candid in expressing your opinions closest to the way you feel about an issue.

Thank you.

**Section A: Demographic characteristics**

1. Sex
  - a. Male
  - b. Female
2. Age
3. Highest level of education
4. Marital status
  - a. Single never married
  - b. Single divorced/separated/widowed
  - c. Married
  - d. Co-habiting
  - e. Others, specify



5. Number of children
6. Number of dependents
7. Number of household members?
8. How many are adults?
9. How many are children?

### **Section B: Occupational impact**

#### **Impact of the livelihood enhancement programmes on the living standards of beneficiaries**

10. Current trade/occupation/livelihood
11. Which of the following best describes the changes in your livelihood before and after enrolling on the programme?
  - I) Occupational practices and knowledge (tick all that apply)
    - a. I have diversified from my livelihood entirely
    - b. I retained my livelihood but learned ways of improving it
    - c. I have added other livelihoods to my initial livelihood because of new knowledge learned from the programme
    - d. I retained my livelihood but there's no new knowledge from the programme
    - e. Others, please specify
  - II) Farm size
    - a. Your farm is bigger now after joining the programme
    - b. Your farm size is the same after joining the programme



c. Your farm size has reduced after joining the programme

III) Types of crops/animals:

- a. You are growing additional crops or rearing additional species of farm animals after joining the programme
- b. You are growing the same crops or rearing the same animals after joining the programme

12. How many acres of crops did you cultivate before the programme?

13. How many acres of crops do you grow now?

14. How much was your yield before you joined the programme?

15. How much is your current yield?

16. What percentage of your yield did you sell on the market before you joined the programme?

17. What percentage of your yield do you sell on the market now?

### **Section C: Impact on personal and household income**

18. How long has it been since you enrolled on this programme?

19. Do you have members of your household who also benefit from the programme?

20. If so who are they?

- a. Spouse
- b. Children
- c. Other relatives
- d. Non-relatives





21. Which of the following best describes the changes in your livelihood before and after enrolling on the programme?

- I) Personal earnings:
  - a. Your earnings from your occupation are significantly higher after joining the programme
  - b. Your earnings are the same after joining the programme
  - c. Your earnings are lower after joining the programme

22. How much money did you averagely realise from the sales of yield before joining the programme?

23. How much money do you averagely realise from the sales of yield, after joining the programme?

24. What percentage of your current yield sales would you say is your profits?

25. Are there other income earners in your household?

26. If yes, how many are they?

27. What percentage of your income forms part of the total household income?

**Section D: Effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes to reduce high rural-urban migration**

28. Which of the following would you associate with returned migrants from the city?

- a. Higher social status

- b. Wealth
- c. Adventure
- d. Hustle
- e. Respect
- f. Others, specify

29. Which of the following would you wish to be associated with in this community?

- a. Higher social status
- b. Wealth
- c. Adventure
- d. Hustle
- e. Respect
- f. Others, specify

30. Do you think you would gain more financial benefits from migrating as compared with participating in the livelihood enhancement programme?

- a. Yes
- b. No

31. If yes, do you intent to migrate in the future in expectation of higher earnings?

- a. Yes
- b. No

32. Do you think you would gain more social respect from migrating as compared with participating in the livelihood enhancement programme?





- a. Yes
- b. No

33. If yes, do you intent to migrate in the future in expectation of higher social respect after returning?

- a. Yes
- b. No

34. Do you think you would gain more exposure from migrating as compared with participating in the livelihood enhancement programme?

- a. Yes
- b. No

35. If yes, do you intent to migrate in the future for more exposure?

- a. Yes
- b. No

36. Do you think you would be recognised as adventurous from migrating as compared with participating in the livelihood enhancement programme?

- a. Yes
- b. No

37. If yes, do you intent to migrate in the future in expectation of being recognised as an adventurous person?

- a. Yes
- b. No

38. Do the earnings from your livelihood after joining the programme sustain your family to your satisfaction?



- a. Yes
- b. No

39. If yes, would you still migrate if you found a job in the city?

- a. Yes
- b. No

40. Did you or have you engaged in seasonal migration to find jobs in the city during lean farming season?

- a. Yes
- b. No

41. If yes, how often did/does that occur?

- a. Every lean season
- b. Rarely
- c. Others, specify

42. The concept of migration implied in this question is long-term not seasonal. Indicate if you would migrate (M) or not migrate (NM) to the city based on the following hypothetical conditions:

M    NM

I have a friend in the big city who has agreed to house me but I have not yet found a job in the city

I have secured a job in the city but it doesn't pay more than my current occupation and I don't have a place to stay there

My friend in the big city said although I don't have a place to stay and a job, it won't be long before I find a good job and a



place to live

I have secure a job in the city, it pays more than my current occupation, but I don't have a place to stay in the big city

**Section F: Factors constraining the effectiveness of livelihood enhancement programmes**

43. Which of the following is the most important factor you would consider in making a decision to migrate for a long period?
- a. The potential wealth to be gained
  - b. Loss of contact with family and friends
44. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is the least rating (representing no challenge) and 5 is the highest, rate how these factors constrain your ability to maximise the benefits of the livelihood programme

Constraints	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding new techniques introduced through the programme					
Capital to invest in required technology introduced through the project					
Difficulty in transitioning from using old methods to newer methods					
Small farm size which makes investment in technology not efficient					

