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**SOCIOECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION IN THE LAWRA
MUNICIPALITY OF THE UPPER WEST REGION**



FRANCIS BANGURA

2020

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MUNICIPALITY OF THE UPPER WEST REGION**

BY

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**THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN AND
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PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES.**

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MARCH, 2020

DECLARATION

Student

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

Student's signature:.....

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Supervisor's Declaration.

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

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Date:.....

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ABSTRACT

The study seeks to find out the causes of migration in the Lawra Municipality of the Upper West Region to rural and urban cities in the southern part of Ghana and the socio-economic consequences (negative and positive) on the study area. This research work employs the mixed research methodology. The study was done by drawing a sample from the population of the area for interviews. It employed questionnaires, interview guide and a focus group discussion guide to

collect data from participants. The sampling process involved probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The sample of the purposive sampling technique included return migrants, immigrants, agriculture, education officials, chiefs and elders, and opinion leaders. Probability sampling technique was used to select household heads for interrogation. The study found out that, the causes of migration was mainly due to the unfavorable rainfall pattern, coupled with the lack of employment opportunities in the area given that the major economic activity in the area is agriculture. Others are lack of social amenities and avoidance of certain cultural practices in that area. It was also established that even though migration has a negative influence on community development, its positive impact on the household livelihood status emanates through remittances.

It has been recommended for the creation of employment opportunities and the provision of facilities to facilitate irrigation farming in the area. This will help address the negative aspect of migration resulting from movement of the teeming youth of the Municipality.



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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my caring brother, James Bangura and all my siblings; Donald Bangura, Jennifer Bangura, Solomon Bangura and Sara Bangura who supported and encouraged me to pursue this course of study.

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ACRONYMS

ATE.....	Action Through Enterprise
CD.....	Community Development
CBE.....	Complementary Basic Education
FGD.....	Focus Group Discussion
GSS.....	Ghana Statistical Service
GDP.....	Gross National Product
GDP.....	Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS.....	Human Immune Virus/Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IOM.....	International Organization for Migration
.....	International Labour Organization
.....	Legislative Instrument
MA.....	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
NELM.....	New Economics of Labour Migration
NGO.....	Non-Governmental Organization
NRAG.....	Northern Region Archives Ghana
PNDCL.....	Provisional National Defense Council Law
SSA.....	Sub-Saharan Africa
SPSS.....	Statistical Package Social Sciences
UNDP.....	United Nations Development Programme
UWADEP.....	Upper West Agricultural Development Programme
WWII.....	WORLD WAR II



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction to the Chapter.

This chapter introduces us to the background of migration in the study area, the impact of migration, research questions, research objectives, research significance, organization of the chapters and other issues related to migration.

1 Background of the Study

One of the most important demographic issues confronting many third world countries worldwide is the shortage of skilled labor, and the high rate of population growth of urban centers, largely due to the prevalence of rural-urban migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001). Edwin (2016) put forward that recent literature point to the fact that, even though migration from rural areas to cities is prevalent in most developing countries, the situation is very prominent in the northern part of Ghana and is attracting the interest of policy makers. According to Dugbazah (2007), migration is a common phenomenon, and as such, any study conducted on an urban center in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)

which Ghana is part, will definitely, encounter a population that is alien to the place. Several factors according to Agyemang and Raqib (2013) force people to migrate out of the home communities to other places.

These factors are; socio-cultural issues which compel people to move so as to relieve themselves from the many social challenges at the home community (Ewusi, 1986), the feeling of being neglected by community people, where some people upon the realization that they are not accorded the respect and recognition they deserve, migrate from their communities to places they are confident of receiving the recognition they deserve (Nabila, 1986), and the existence of massive infrastructure in other places induce people to migrate from rural settings to other places (Chopra,



1997; Ewusi, 1986). The ease with which people can access transportation and Communication systems also enhances migration from one place to another (Gimba & Kumshe, 2001). According to Shearlaw, (2013) climate change, food security and job prospects constitute some of the factors that induce people to move. Bahns (2005) contends that nearly half of the global population are urban inhabitants but the number of global urban dwellers is projected to reach approximately around 1 billion yearly. However, majority of these urban dwellers moved from other areas in their countries mainly rural communities. There have been a great multiplicity in migratory movements in recent times, resulting from improvement in transport infrastructure, telecommunications, and increase in informal jobs in urban centers in many SSA countries (Chant Radcliff, 1992).

Additionally, Afshar (2003) asserts that, poor social and economic conditions such as the low incomes, unavailable employment opportunities, including economic hardships in the rural areas, are among the major push factors that drive people out of the hinterlands in search for better sources of livelihoods in urban areas. Moreover, as captured in Ghana's constitution of 1992 (chapter 21), every person is entitled to the right of freedom of movement, implying that every citizen is not



restricted in any way from moving within and across the borders of Ghana. Meanwhile Bryceson et al. (2000), contended that, most of the internal migrants from villages are not even qualified to take up formal jobs in urban settings.

Though migration may come with benefits, it is also bedeviled with some limitations especially to migrants sending communities. Taylor (1999) indicates that the past five decades is associated with heated debates on the development impact of migration on communities and countries that send out migrants among contradictory opinions of the optimists and pessimists of migration. To this end the government of Ghana saw the need to formulate policy to regulate or govern migration in

the country in order to reap maximum benefit from it. The main goal of the national migration policy (NMP) of 2016 is to balance the impact of migration (NMP, 2016).

Migration studies in Ghana and for that matter, northern Ghana is very essential, owing to the fact that this area has a long tradition of population mobility characterized by high rates of rural urban migration. According to Gariba and Abdul-Korah, (2008) several research works have been done to study migration of labor since time immemorial, though the greater proportion of these studies are development oriented (including, Hilton 1966; Hunter 1967; Dickson 1968; Thomas 1973; Ang 1979, Songsore 1983, Brukum 1998). Caldwell (1969) contends that one important livelihood strategy for most farming households is migrating from the rural area to urban centers. He found that majority of Ghanaians see city life as another avenue to find job, where one can work indoors, where there is modernity and duties to the extended family is less, which differ from rural life and farm work, which come with several family responsibilities.

Northern Ghana has long been characterized by outmigration. GSS (2010), reported that, the Upper West Region recorded the greatest negative net-migration rate of 302.50 per 1,000, losing 209,414 people during the 2000-2010 inter-census period. Additionally, the seasonal nature of agriculture

in the study area coupled with the nonexistence of alternative employment opportunities as in the mining industry, do not motivate the people, particularly the youth to stay in their communities.

Meanwhile, according to MoFA (2014) notwithstanding the significance of irrigation in agricultural activities and strategies for poverty reduction in the north of Ghana, the irrigation infrastructure in the municipality is highly underdeveloped. As a result, there is rampant movement of members of rural households in these communities for prolonged periods, mostly to the bigger cities in the south (Wouterse, 2010). Recently a new trend of migration has emerged involving the independent movement of females from Ghana's northern regions to urban settings like Kumasi and Accra in the south of Ghana (Awumbila and ArdayfioSchandorf, 2008).



In Lawra Municipality, internal migration has robbed many communities off their energetic youth in the agricultural sectors leaving behind only the aged and children (UNDP, 2010). The issue of internal migration is gaining serious recognition among researchers, academics, development agent/agencies, and governments, many of whom blame rising joblessness and rural economic hardships in third world countries for the rural-urban drift (Anarfi et al., 2001; Chant, 2002; Zhao, 2003).

Another emerging phenomenon in the north-south migration discourse has been the issue of child migration. According to Kwankye et al (2005) children in recent times migrate independently from the north of Ghana to the south of Ghana and this has serious implications for Ghana's development. Hashim (2005) pointed out that the quest to make some money through employment is the reason why older children (aged 13 and above) move from poor rural communities in northern Ghana to areas with better socio-economic situations in the south. Hunt (2008) argues that, in most cases where rural-urban drift exist with the possibility for children to make money through work, many children drop out among school children who usually truncate their schooling so as to migrate and find work.



2 Statement of the Problem

Migration in Ghana has been ongoing since the colonial era due to demand for labor in the mines and agricultural plantations in the southern part of the country. According to Agyemang and Raqib (2013) the issue of migration in northern Ghana did not start today, but has been ongoing since the pre-colonial times up to today. Sa-Adu (2012) found that, uneven development of the country dating back to the precolonial era, between the north and the south still persists, despite several governmental and non-governmental initiatives to maximize the benefits of migration. According to the Constitution of Ghana, (1992), it is the State's responsibility to ensure a just and reasonable

access to public facilities and services by all citizens consistent with law. However, despite this provision in the constitution, most rural communities particularly in the north are in very deplorable state, thereby forcing many rural indigenes to migrate to urban centers where these facilities can be accessed. Migration from villages in the north to towns and cities in the south of Ghana still persist.

According to Mahama (2013), the main concern of migrants is the benefits they expect to get by migrating while neglecting the challenges that they will come across as a result of the process.

Over three decades from now, Beals and Menezes (1970) observed that northern Ghana has also been characterized by temporary migration of labor due to the period for cropping in the area. An important component of temporary migration is seasonal migration, which is often generated by different agricultural calendars between Northern and southern Ghana. According to Ananga (2013), “there is a double face effect of seasonal migration on regular school attendance.

On the one hand, children are taken along by parents even before schools go on vacation and on the other hand, there is this case of some children migrating seasonally and independently to look for work in other communities in other parts of the country. In both situations, a child’s education is disrupted if he or she withdraws from school to accompany parents on the seasonal migration or goes it independently.

Moreover, concern about the impact of migration on food security in the sending communities and households, welfare of children left-behind and the effect on the education of children who migrate either with parents or independently have not been given much attention. Migration may bring about some positive effects, however, the negative impacts on the migrant sending community or family are overwhelming. According to Mini (2000), an undesirable impact of rural-urban migration may be poor performance of the rural economy that perpetuate poverty and lead to shortage food. Existing studies have attempted to study the impact of migration on the development



of the Upper West region. For instance, whiles Gariba & Abdul-Korah (2008) studied migration of Dagara labour in the Upper West region, 1936– 1957, focusing on only the economic aspect, Agyemang and Raqib (2013) studied the development implications of migration in Kpongu community, a study conducted by Abedi-Lartey (2016) focused on the factors causing rural-urban migration in Sankana community in the Upper West region. A UNDP (2010) report indicated that the poor rainfall pattern in the Lawra Municipality results in youth migration, a factor associated with the underdevelopment of the human resource base of the municipality. A critical review of the national migration policy of 2016, revealed that, if migration is properly managed, it can offer several opportunities for community development. However, none of the existing studies on the topic sought to discover how local initiatives can help maximize the benefits of migration while minimizing the adverse impact of the situation.

Therefore, apart from the major gap of a non-existing study on the topic in the municipality, this research also fills the gap of limited studies on how migration can be effectively managed through local community initiatives. Even though Van der Geest (2011) undertook a study titled, Migration on agricultural development, his focus was in the Nandom area of the then Lawra district. This therefore informs the decision to investigate the topic in the Lawra municipality in its entirety.



1.3 Research Questions

1.4 General Research Question

The general research question is, what are the effects of migration on socio-economic development in the Lawra Municipality of the Upper West Region?

Specific Research Questions

The specific research questions are;

- 1 What factors trigger migration in Lawra Municipality?
- 2 What are the positive effects of migration on socio-economic development in the area?
- 3 What are the negative effects of migration on socio-economic development in the Municipality?
- 4 How can migration in the Municipality be properly managed?

Research Objectives

General Research Objectives

Based on the research questions posed above, below are the objectives of the research. The general objective of the study is to investigate the effects of migration on socio-economic development in Lawra Municipality of the Upper West Region.

Specific Research Objectives

The specific objectives of this study are to;

1. To ascertain the main factors causing migration in Lawra and its surrounding communities.
2. To examine the positive effects of migration on socio-economic development in the study area.
3. To assess the negative effects of migration on socio-economic development in the municipality.
4. To propose possible ways of managing migration in the study area.

1.6 Justification and Significance of the Study

It is undeniable fact that migration plays a substantial role in enhancing rural development through migrant remittances, and the improvement of household welfare in many third world countries. In



some cases, migrants acquire knowledge and skills which can enhance higher productivity. Similarly, migration exposes rural folks to new environment, culture, tradition and life in totality. However notwithstanding the contribution of migration to household livelihood status through remittances, one must not lose sight of its adverse impact on farming activities and the general agricultural performance of the municipality.

Therefore, given the significant role played by the energetic youth in productive sectors of rural economy as in agriculture, education and communal work, the need to hold back the youth in rural

areas is important. In this regard, it is imperative to devise measures to ensure that migration of rural youth does not result in acute shortage of agricultural labor force and a drain on school enrollments in the rural areas. The results of this study hereby seek to inform policymakers, other external development agents or agencies and community leaders and members, ways of tackling migration of youth from the area, particularly by ensuring an all year round farming and agricultural mechanization. The result of this is food security and poverty alleviation as surpluses will be sold to farmers and the monies used to cater for other needs such as education needs of their children. Besides the movement of energetic labor force from the study area to urban and forest areas in the youth, it is important to take note of the fact that school going children are sometimes taken along

with their parents. This retards efforts of government and stakeholders to eradicate the high out of school situation in the area, deal with adult illiteracy and consequently alleviate poverty in the municipality. According to the Lawra Municipal Education Directorate, over 60% of out-of-school children in the municipality are school dropouts.

This study also makes enormous contribution to the current debate on the north-south migration. Findings from empirical evidence present understanding to development agents on the appropriate option among strategies of development, which can make the rural areas attractive and make opportunities available to the youth in their localities. This would make rural folks especially



energetic youth stay in their rural communities thus reducing the incidence of north south (rural-urban) drift and its challenges that come with it, such as shortage of food, school dropout and rural poverty because of low yield resulting from agricultural labor shortage.

Finally, the study results also serves as a guide for further research in future.

1.7 Scope of the Study

In terms of context the study focuses on examining the social and economic effects of migration community and human development. It explores the various economic activities undertaken by people in the municipality and the factors that cause migration in the area. Geographically, it covers the entire municipality of Lawra in the Upper West Region. The Lawra Municipal administrative system comprises four sub-districts structures namely; “Lawra Town Council, Nabile, Zambo and Eremon Area Councils” (GSS, 2010).

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The fact that this study adopted the cross-sectional design means that it will only study events in a particular point in time but will not be able to examine changes that may occur over time. Therefore subsequent studies on the topic in the municipality would be necessary to unearth the changing trends with regards to migration in the study area.

1.9 Organization of Chapters

This work is presented in five chapters. Chapter one entails the introduction comprising of study background, statement of the problem, general and specific research questions, research objectives, significance of the study and scope of the study.



A number of variables and terminologies associated with migration and development are defined. Chapter two, which comprises the review of relevant literature, provides theoretical, empirical and conceptual frameworks on migration and development among people in Lawra area. This study reviewed literature on the effects of migration on development, the forms of migration, reason for migration, economic effects of migration and effects of migration on children's education. The research methodology which constitutes the third chapter, deals with the study area, research design, sampling procedure, instruments and data collection method. In this chapter, ethical considerations are also dealt with. Chapter four of this study captures analysis of data obtained from the field using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS, Version 21). Research findings and results are also discussed in this chapter. The last chapter, chapter five, deals with summary of the study, conclusion and recommendations in relation to migration and development among people in the study area.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter of the research reviews relevant literature related to the topic under investigation. The literature review is an account of topics that have been published by accredited scholars and researchers (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). This work in the field of research involves examining documents, such as books, magazines, journals and papers, articles, which have a certain influence on the ongoing research. The literature review of this study includes a discussion of related research work on causality (causes and effects) of migration. The theoretical, empirical and conceptual view of migration were considered. Reviews focus on the meaning of migration, forms of migration, factors that cause migration, positive and negative effects of migration on the municipality. Relevant literature was also reviewed to establish the meaning of community development and development in general. Finally, the study also reviewed literature on the migration measures for rural urban migration.



2.1 Meaning of Migration

Migration largely refers to a relocation of residence for a particular time and for certain reasons (Hossain, 2001). According to the National Geographic Society (2005) migration is the movement of people from one place to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence.

2.2 Types and Trends in Migration

According to a UNDP report (2009), a good number of people in the world are migrants, totaling over 1 billion people worldwide, or over 1 in 7 people globally. The figure as reported, is made up

of accumulation of cross border migrants (thus persons living in places where they were not given birth to) who in 2015, summed up to 244 million (UNDP 2009) and not excluding internal migrants, thus around 740 million, according to 2009 UNDP estimates, of whom over 150 million are rural-urban migrants in China (Chan, 2013). However, according to the International Organization for Migration (2015) the current proportion of global migrants' population has slightly risen above that recorded a decade ago, thus 3.3% compared to 2.8% in 2000, and 3.2% in 2013. In the African context, migration movement has been associated with the continent several decades back and is now among the notable demographic features (Anarfi 1982). The Trans-haran caravan route is one of the oldest proof of significant interactions among people of West Africa and North Africans, for the exchange of goods and exchange of scholars (Boahen, 1966). A dely traveled Muslim scholar, Ibn Batuta, wrote in the 15th century, while Leo Africanus wrote the late 16th century, referring to the peaceful movement across national borders (Batuta, 1929; ricanus, 1896). Individuals or entire families sometimes choose to settle in other African untries to achieve a better lifestyle, or people can migrate to Europe, America or Asia in the short long term (Boahen, 1966).

According to Riccio (2003) crossborder trade is common in Africa and may or may not be considered immigration depending on length of stay. He added that cross-border trade trips also take place between Africa and Europe, making reference to Senegalese trading in Italy who regularly returned to Senegal to restock their commodities. Inter-national migration in West Africa, as well as inter-regional migration in Africa, begun in ancient times (Arhin 1978).

However, contacts between Africa's and Europeans brought about new movement patterns, beginning with trade in slaves and subsequently colonization, in the west African sub-region and with the rest of the world (Boahen 1966). He adds that, Europeans arrival on the coast of West Africa disturbed interaction between the north and the south. The new pattern of movement that

erupted persisted till date. But Shaw (2007) found that, Most African migrants in other African countries are victims of forced migration. He notes that, nearly 60 percent of immigrants in Ethiopia's are from Eritrea after the war separating the two countries, and another 30 percent are from Somalia. He added that, a substantial proportion of identified immigrants to Senegal come from neighboring Guinea, Mali, and Mauritania. Shaw (2007) also found that, about 80 percent of immigrants in Uganda come from countries suffering from continuing violence nearby, including Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda and Sudan. He concluded that despite Gambia's severe economic woes, it continues to attract migrants from other West African countries. Ghana, almost all ethnic groups assert that they came to their current location from elsewhere (Abohen 1975).

The current international delineation of boundaries has made it very hard to identify international migrants, particularly along borders. In many instances, one ethnic group is found on the opposite sides of an international boundary and, therefore, interact with both countries. Therefore, the borders are porous, and some people may not consider themselves international migrants, even if they cross the international border to visit the relationship (Anarfi, et al. 2000). Agblorti (2011) however observes that, unlike the Great Lakes region of Africa, where large refugee flows have occurred since the end of colonialism, the West African sub region became only one region in the 1990s that produced and accepted large numbers of refugees. He noted that, since then, a large proportion of refugees on the African continent have been affected by intractable conflicts in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Côte D'ivoire and Togo. He added that the massive influx of refugees over the past two decades was characteristic of the sub region and therefore unprecedented. Agblorti (2011) was also quick to add that it should not be misconstrued that refugees did not exist prior to the 1990s. Ghana, for example, has accommodated refugees since independence on 6 March 1957 (Essuman, 2003). The country had hosted over 48,034 refugees by 2004, mainly living in three

camps—the Krisan camp in the Eastern District of Nzema near the Ghana–Côte d'Ivoire border; the Kelikeor in the Southern District of Ketu in the Volta area near Aflao in the eastern border town of Ghana; and the Buduburam in the Eastern District of Gomoe in the central region (UNHCR, 2004).

The diversity of countries where refugees are fleeing is striking: the Krisan refugee camp alone hosts refugees from eleven African countries (Sudan, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Togo, Eritrea, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda, the Congo Brazzaville, Cote d'Ivoire, Chad and Somalia) totaling about 1,321 in 2005 (Agblorti, 2006 cited in Agblorti, 2011). According to

Agblorti (2011) the negative impact of the influx of these migrants is enormous. He states that, with the arrival of refugees and migrants, the previously rural settlement of Buduburam with a rich and abundant supply of land, transformed into an urban community in which land has become a very scarce commodity for both refugees and host population. He added that, access to land has thus become one of the main sources of tension and conflict between refugee and camp authorities and the host population.

3 Internal Migration and External Migration.

Internal migration has to do with movement of people in the domestic economy from one region to another, whereas external migration refers to the movement of individuals across national borders (Enu, 2014). A survey by GSS (2010) revealed a rise in internal movement over the decade in Ghana. The study showed that in 2010 close to 66.0 percent of Ghanaians (65.9%) were non-migrants, as compared to about 70.0 percent (69.8%) in 2000. That indicates that a little more Ghanaians were internal migrants in 2010 (34.1%) than in 2000 (30.1%). However, both censuses revealed that, greater proportion of people moved between regions (Interregional) than within regions (intra-regional). That implies that internal movements in Ghana are characterized more by long distance movements than short distance movements. Enu (2014) categorizes external

migration into two distinct forms; immigration and emigration. He further explains that, immigration has to do with the coming of individuals into a host country or community from another community or country for settlement where emigration is when people move out the home country to a foreign country or community for settlement (Enu, 2014). According to Jahan (2012) migration includes various movements of people from one place to another. It may occur within a country's specific geographic boundaries and then beyond its boundaries. However since the focus of this study dwells on internal movement of people, not much time would be spent in the discourse external migration.

Types of Internal Migration.

Studies available reveal that four major types of internal migration exist, these include; rural-urban, urban-urban, rural-rural, and urban-rural migration. Skeldon (2017) defined internal migration as the movement of migrants within the national territory. Thus movement of people within the boundaries of Ghana by Ghanaians. The type of internal migration which is very dominant in the migration literature is rural-urban migration (IOM, 2003; Sander, 2003). However, in recent times more and more recognition is being given to the other types migration flows (Dao, 2002; Anh, 2003). As a rule, all four types of migration patterns exist in one country and can sometimes be observed in the same area. Almost all of these types of migration patterns are largely borne by men. However, there is also an increasing number of women involved in migration (IOM, 2005).

2.5 Patterns of Migration in Ghana.

Historically, movement of people across and within national borders begun since time immemorial. According to Bofo (2011) before the colonial era, the movement of people was the way of life in Ghana and Africa as a whole. She found that people moving within the region were mainly traders,

fishermen and nomadic farmers. Trans-Saharan trade routes connect the region with the rest of Africa and allow interregional mobility for traders, scholars and religious clerics. Ghana's National Population Policy, revised in 1994, recognizes that by the end of the 1970s Ghana had moved from a country of immigrants to a country of emigrants. During the relative boom of the early 1960s, Ghana was a significant destination for migrants from neighboring West African countries, but the migrants were caught up in the economic crisis after 1965 and fell further in the 1980s, due to short of basic consumer goods (Anarfi et al., 2003). This shows how economic conditions prevailing in given region can change the patterns of migration, whether from the receiving destination of migrants to the place of origin of migrants or vice versa, depending on whether prevailing economic conditions are improving or deteriorating.

2.6 Rural-Urban Migration.

The movement of persons from the countryside to towns or urban centers is what is termed as rural-urban migration. According to Jahan, (2012) the nature of migration may be permanent or temporary. Individuals may choose to embark on migratory movements based on their own volition or they may be compelled to do so. The impact of migration on population, economy, society, culture and the environment is diverse and profound, both in urban destinations and in rural areas where migrants usually originate from.

2.7 North-South Migration: Historical Perspective

North-south migration has been ongoing since the colonial era when people from the northern part of Ghana move to the south as agricultural laborers and also, laborers in the mines (Abdul-Korah, 2008). The impact of migration on population, economy, society, culture and the environment is diverse and profound, both in urban destinations and in rural areas. The study found out that, the

colonial government recruited laborers for the mines and for railway and road construction in southern Ghana. Voluntary migration begins after first forced migrants return from southern Ghana. Early voluntary migrants were mostly attracted by good labour opportunities in the booming cocoa sector (ibid.). Van der Geest (2011) studied the role of environmental factors in north-south migration in Ghana. The study found that, migration propensities increase in times of greater environmental stress. He identified rainfall conditions and fertile lands as the main environmental factors that cause people to migrate from the north to the south of Ghana.

According to him, increasing depletion in soil fertility in the then Lawra District is manifest in the decline in yield for all crops in the study area between 1993 and 2007, even though farm sizes have increased, especially for groundnuts. According to Abdul-Korah (2008), People from the North continued to migrate to southern Ghana during the post-colonial period, but this time, on a voluntary base. The Upper West Region of Ghana in which the Lawra Municipality is located, is an exception when it comes to the north-south movement. The region has recorded unprecedented migration from Origin to destination (ibid.). People in this part of northern Ghana moved to other parts of the country for two main reasons: first, to see the world, to gain experience, and second, to satisfy their taste for the Southern way of life. A popular statement in northern Ghana attests to the fact that if a child does not travel, it does not gain experience (Abdul-Korah 2008).



2.8 Causes of Rural-Urban Migration

As noted by Hicks (1932), the decision of whether to migrate or not depends on the costs and benefits of migration. According to Harris & Todaro, (1970) as long as the expected urban real wage is higher than the rural real wage, there is rural migration to the urban. Ranenstein (1885) in his laws of migration, revealed in the second law that migrants who move longer distances tend to leave rural areas for urban areas. Similarly, Todaro (1980) noted that the overwhelming conclusion

of almost all migration studies is that people migrate primarily for economic reasons. He noted that the greater the difference in economic opportunities between urban and rural areas, the greater the flow of migrants from rural to urban areas. While distance is often an important barrier to intervention, its negative effects can be offset by considerable income disparity, especially for immigrants with higher education (Barnum and sabotage n.d). In addition to the primary economic motive, Todaro (1980) continued to enumerate other reasons why people migrate; First, raise their level of education or skills (ultimately an economic motive); second, escape social and cultural imprisonment in homogeneous rural areas; Third, escape rural violence and political instability; and fourth, join family and friends who have previously migrated to urban areas.

McKay and Quartey (2008) found that the Ashanti area, for example, attracts migrants from the north of the country because of its cocoa plantations, while the West is the main attraction because of cocoa production and the mines there. They argue that in African countries, public services are not provided on an average basis, and that different biases favour cities thereby exacerbating spatial inequalities. They added that investment was concentrated in space, which encouraged people to move from areas they did not invest in to places with more public facilities. A study by Awumbila

et al. (2008) found that rural-urban drift is usually in response to the deterioration of the living conditions in the villages and the associated severe poverty. According to a study conducted by

Enu (2014) in the Okaishie community, many people migrate from rural areas to urban areas, mainly due to the lack of employment in rural areas and limited basic facilities such as schools, hospitals etc. They added that, this wage gap may be the result of a rural-urban push. This suggests, therefore, that rural urban migration is usually triggered by certain push-and-pull factors in rural and urban areas.

In addition, Ewusi (1986) noted that infrastructure development and urban expansion is another area that has prompted the transfer of people from their origin to their final destination. In addition,

the facilitation of transport and communication is also considered to be an incentive for people to migrate from their places of origin to their final destination (Gimba and Kumshe, 2001). Abdulai (1999) explained that the expansion of the road network from major towns to rural areas has led to a decline in transport costs, which has resulted in improved communication systems in favour of migrants. In addition, McKay and Quartey (2008) reported that while Ghana has experienced a decrease in spatial inequality in the infrastructure sector in recent years, this reflects a variety of factors, including possible investment in road construction, the Upper West Side is an exception to the decline in spatial inequality in Ghana, which could be explained by the region's lowest service terms of infrastructure in Ghana and its neighbors. Dercon et al. (2006) data from Ethiopia shows that four benefits come from being located on closed roads. Road access reduces input costs, raises output prices, allows families to mitigate the impact of shocks, and allows access to new and more profitable activities (Dercon et al., 2006).

In the Upper West Side's Kpongungu neighborhood, a study by Agyemang & Raqib (2013) showed that some of the reasons for rural-urban migration included lack of economic opportunity, inadequate social benefits, among others. According to GSS (2014) migration decisions are often a combined response to a variety of factors, including environmental, physical, economic and social factors. While many emphasize that economic factors are the main cause of migration, the causal and perpetuating factors in migration are both economic and non-economic. (Kog et al, 2003). GSS (2014) added that the main reason behind the flow of people from rural to urban areas can be explained by economic, social and cultural forces (finding social and cultural facilities and the freedom of traditional family elders). Industrial growth in urban centres such as Accra, Kumasi and Sekondi-Takoradi has created jobs in these areas, which has led to people moving to urban centres (GSS, 2014). According to them, the level of income in rural areas is very low compared to urban areas, so the welfare gap between rural residents and urban residents is large. For example,

Abdulai (1999) found that the average wage in the urban areas of Ghana in 1999 was twice or three times the average agricultural income, which is the main source of income in rural areas.

Many young people in rural areas are reluctant to stay in rural communities engaged in agriculture, perhaps because of the large wage gap between urban and agricultural income (GSS, 2014). They added that these young people would rather migrate to urban areas in search of non-existent white-collar jobs. In addition, they observed that some young men and women were also attracted by the wealth of friends and relatives who returned from the urban areas during the celebrations and also wanted to transfer to the urban areas. According to the GSS (2014) survey, the desire to obtain high wealth attracts them to urban areas. In addition, they found that many people are lured by social and cultural amenities such as good drinking water, electricity, medical facilities and recreation, which are not available in rural areas, transferred to urban centers. People migrated not only for economic and social reasons, but also to urban areas in order to escape from the traditional family system and the constraints of the elderly in rural areas.

Yarfi and Kwankye (2009) affirmed that, in many studies on migration of young girls from the north to the south, there has been a problem of migration to avoid the traditional family system.

Other factors that led to the transfer of people from the countryside to the cities are related to the demographic dynamics of the country (GSS, 2014). Thus a study by Abdulai (1999) indicated that, the high population growth rate in Ghana within the last three decades generally increased the domestic supply of labour, and in areas like the Upper East Region, put pressure on the available cultivable land, thereby encouraging migration. He further stated that, the steady decline in the general fertility of the country led to the growth of a large number of young adults who are ready to work. As a result, a study by Abdulai (1999) showed that Ghana's population growth over the last three decades has been high, which has generally increased the supply of the domestic labour force and, in areas such as the Upper East region, put pressure on arable land to encourage

migration. He further stated that a steady decline in the general fertility rate in the country has led to the growth of a large number of young adults who are willing to work. As more and more young people are educated, they become misfits in rural areas and naturally move to urban areas to earn a living (Abdulai, 1999).

In addition, GSS (2014) mentions that the government's macroeconomic policies directly or indirectly affect rural-urban migration in the country. For example, through urban biased policies, the terms of trade have consistently opposed agriculture and rural areas, contributing to wide disparities in urban and rural incomes. They went on to add that urban biased policies, including over-valued exchange rates, industrial protection and cheap food policies, discriminate in particular agriculture and rural areas, encouraging a shift of labour out of agricultural production and subsequent increase in rural-urban migration. However, they found that macroeconomic and sector-specific policy reforms initiated in 1983 have helped to improve the terms of domestic trade in favour of the rural sector, thereby encouraging some rural and urban migration flows. Rural-urban migration in the country is mainly due to higher expected wages in the destination areas and in full compliance with the principle of comparative advantage.



Some scholars, including Ewusi (1986), have found that social conditions in places of origin decline, and the motivation for Migration in rural areas is more persuasive than economic factors. Nabila (1986) emphasizes that due to frustration and lack of recognition, people tend to turn to other areas they believe will gain social recognition. A study by GSS (2014) showed that once people decide to migrate, the choice of destination is based primarily on the economic opportunities available at the end. In this regard, social conditions of origin act as the main driving factor, while economic opportunities of specific towns/destinations act as a driving factor for attracting immigrants to the area (Johnson, 1974). The survey on migration and urbanization in Ghana showed that more than 80% of the respondents provided economic reasons for migration from a

previous position, indicating that income differences contributed significantly to the migration in the country. The pattern of internal migration in the country is also affected by the marked differences in levels of poverty between the North and the south and their respective capacities to respond to new economic opportunities.

A study by Alhassan (2017) on rural-urban migration and urban employment in Ghana presents a vivid revelation of the causes of rural-urban migration. In general, poor living conditions in rural areas, poverty, extremely low incomes and limited job opportunities are the root causes of this phenomenon, he said. The study also found that environmental changes and their consequences, such as severe droughts and floods, led to a decline in agriculture and animal husbandry, which were the main livelihood activities of rural folks in the North, which worsened household poverty, leading to migration. Other social issues highlighted in the study were the reasons migrants were fleeing conflict and insecurity, witchcraft and old-age control in rural areas and preparing themselves for marriage. He found that although migrants have different migration reasons, they end up working at their destination.



2.9 Effects of Rural-Urban Migration

Anarfi et al. (2003), Mahama et al. (2012) and Agyemang & Raqib (2013), agree that rural-urban migration has various implications for development. According to the GSS (2010) migration does not only influence population size and rate of increase, it also greatly affects population structure and distribution. Migration also significantly affects the scope of labour force and the spatial distribution according to skills, education, industry and occupation, as well as the social and psychological impact on the communities of origin and destination (GSS 2010). Rural to urban migration is either beneficial or detrimental to the social advancement of migrants in their

origin and destination. The literature review shows that migration is a double-edged sword that can affect individuals, families, communities, and regions of origin and destination in both positive and negative fashion.

2.10 Positive Effects of Rural-Urban Migration

According to Twumasi-Ankra, (1995) the contributions of migrants to rural development are numerous. He elaborated on the economic and material benefits of urban employment for some migrants. He revealed that through ethnic/tribal associations formed at the destinations of migrants they are able to plan and execute various activities or projects including provision of certain important social amenities for their hometowns or villages.

2.11 Remittance

On the inter-national front, Lindley (2006) found that migrants in Hargeisa, Somalia, tend to send more money from abroad when the family's wealth declines, thus concluding that those receiving regular remittances are better protected from exchange rate fluctuations and better able to help their relatives in rural areas in times of crisis. This revelation is in line with De Haas (2007) assertion that remittances are used as income insurance to protect people from the income shocks caused by economic downturns, political conflicts or the vagaries of climate. He added that in addition to preventing income shocks, a series of empirical studies have shown that international remittances often contribute positively to the well-being, nutrition, food, health and living conditions of families in places of origin and regions. Webster (1913) defines remittances as sending money to distant places, for purposes such as meeting needs or fulfilling obligations.



According to Awusabo-Asare et al. (2000) remittances lessen the impact of economic challenges on families left behind. As a result, migration has been seen as a strategy to improve the living conditions of people in deprived communities. They added that the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) data on remittances from 1983 to 1990 showed that the total remittances sent home by Ghanaian migrant workers was US \$ 24.6 million. According to Anarfi and Kwankye (2009), despite the difficulties faced by migrants in southern Ghana, many prefer to stay in the south to work in their areas of origin in the north of Ghana because they are able to earn enough money to cater for themselves and their immediate family members.

According to a study conducted by Bofo (2011), remittances are a large part of the total foreign exchange flows into the country, most of which are sent to individual households, who either use it for maintenance of houses, pay for education or business or future projects. According to Adams (2006) the square poverty gap measure indicates that internal remittances, lessens the gravity of poverty by 4.1percent among households while international remittances do same by 34.8 percent. The following findings of Adams (2006) also reveal the extent to which remittances (either internally or internationally) have an impact on family welfare. He found that, first, in the excluding remittances situation, there appears to be an income hierarchy among

households. On average, households receiving internal remittances are the poorest, households receiving no remittances are in the middle, and households receiving international remittances are the richest (Ibid). This suggests that the poorest families usually send out internal migrants, while in average-income families and wealthy families, members either embark on external migration or do not migrate at all (Adam, 2006). Internal remittances and international remittances, greatly increase the purchasing power of migrant sending households or families. Also, Deshingkar (2006) contends that internal remittances play a much more significant role in addressing rural poverty issues than remittances from migrants abroad because internal migration is much more likely to include people in very poor families. Finally, although



available literature suggest that international remittances are more effective in reducing poverty than domestic remittances, it is worth noting that domestic remittances contribute significantly to the living conditions of families and households in Ghana. Thus, the inclusion of domestic or international remittances in household spending can reduce the extent, depth and severity of poverty among households in Ghana (Adams, 2006).

A study by Agyemang & Raqib (2013) showed that for the majority of respondents, migration is a positive phenomenon and brings about an improvement in living standards. Enu (2014) reported that 78% of migrant respondents indicated that their income levels have improved through migration to their current destination. The study shows that the majority of people migrating from rural to urban areas earn more than they did before. On health care issues, 58% of those surveyed, representing the majority, thought their health care had improved since the migration. This, according to the study, shows that medical services in urban centers are better than in rural areas and that most rural areas have no hospitals which means that rural folks have to travel all the way to urban areas when they or their families are in need.

3.12 Adverse Effects of Migration



Economists no longer see rapid migration as a clear and beneficial process necessary to address the growth of urban labor demand (Todaro, 1980). On the contrary, today's migration is increasingly considered as a main reason for surplus labour in urban centers and persist to worsen the existing challenge of lack of jobs in cities, resulting from the growing economic and structural imbalance between urban and rural areas (Ibid). These urban-rural structural imbalances are exacerbated by migration in two major direct ways.

First, on the supply side, internal migration has disproportionately increased the growth rate of urban jobseekers relative to urban population growth, which in itself has historically been

unprecedented, given the high proportion of well-educated young people in the dominant migrant flow. Their presence tends to exacerbate the growth of the urban labour supply while consuming the valuable human capital of the countryside. Second, in terms of demand, job creation in most cities is more difficult and expensive than in rural areas, because of the need to provide substantial supplementary resources for industrial employment in most modern industrial sectors. For example, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimate of the investment cost per worker in Egypt in 1969 indicated that the cost of industrial jobs was \$ 1,070, while the cost of agricultural jobs was \$ 616 (ILO, 1969).

Yenu (2014) revealed that internal migration exerts too much stress on facilities in cities as too many people move to live in urban centres. In addition, it was found that most immigrants had to sleep outside because they had no place to sleep or were discharged from their houses, where more people lived in slums, causing overcrowding, difficulty in drainage, flooding and filth. There are also studies that say that there are not many places of convenience, so many people have to take their bath and relieve themselves in public places, gutters, in garbage dumps and coastal beaches causing environmental and health problems.

In addition, the majority (52%) of respondents in the study reported that their education did not improve after their migration. On the issue of housing, the study says that a majority (60%) of respondents said that their socio-economic life in terms of housing has not improved. Most migrants had to sleep outside, in front of shops, in cars for only a few years before they could get a better place to stay. Most of them raised structures created anywhere that led to flooding, filth, drainage problems, etc. In this regard, individuals, families and communities should take note of these dire consequences of migration. In conclusion, Dercon et al. (2006) noted that even though migration has some benefits it sometime presents inconveniences to origins of migrants.

2.13 Migration Policy of Ghana

Globally, millions of people are looking for jobs, from menial labor, to human security, and sometimes to the pursuit of higher education (Asare, 2012). The population of cross border migrants hit 258 million in 2017, an increase of 85 million, or 49 percent, from 2000 (UN, 2017). In order to guarantee the well-being of migrants, especially migrant workers, the International Labour Organization (ILO) adopted a framework on migration of workers in 2004. The objective of this policy is to ensure that the benefits of migration are maximized while minimizing the adverse consequences of migration on the origin and destination of migrants. At the national level, some countries have migration policies seeking to expand the level of migration, while others have policies for reducing the current level of migration. Ghana did not have a comprehensive migration policy until 2016.

But according to Asare (2012), while Ghana did not have an explicit framework (policy) on migration, the country had launched related initiatives to address specific migration issues. For example, Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper II (GPRS II) identified the Ghanaian diaspora as a potential source of funding. Ghana's task abroad is to develop strategies to mobilize Ghanaian diaspora and their resources for national development.

However, all of these initiatives as put forward by Asare (2012) focused on Ghanaian migrants living abroad, to the neglect of internal migrants. The National Migration Policy (NMP) of 2016 has a goal to maximize benefits and minimize the adverse effects of internal and inter-national migration through legitimate means by respecting the migrants' rights and ensuring their security so as to promote development of Ghana (Ministry of Interior, 2016). An aspect of the objectives of the NMP which is to counter discrimination, ethnocentrism, vulnerability, and gender inequality should be clearly communicated to all Ghanaian citizens to ensure that all



internal migrants are treated with dignity and equally wherever they find themselves within the country (Ibid).

Policy Objectives on Internal Migration.

The objectives that border on internal movement of Ghanaians are stated as follows;

1. To promote equitable human settlement planning
2. To respond to the causes and consequences of migration flow.

Guiding Principles of NMP.

Principles that guide the development of NMP include;

Signing and ratifying treaties and protocols aimed at protecting the rights of migrants from their flight. For example, the UN convention on the protection of the rights of all migrant workers and their families (General Assembly Resolution 1 of 1990).

In conformity with the Ghana Constitution of 1992, Chapter 5 guarantees the right of

Ghanaians to emigrate and the right of all persons to circulate freely within the territory of

Ghana. Article 21 of the Constitution provides that all persons shall have freedom of movement,

that is, the right to freedom of movement in Ghana, the right to leave and to enter Ghana and the immunity from deportation from Ghana.

4. Promote equality of immigrants by respecting the personal security, dignity, religious and cultural beliefs of immigrants, the free movement of persons and the promotion of human development (NMP, 2016).



2.14 Concept of Development

Allen & Anzalone (1981) defined development as an almost entirely relevant goal of the pursuit of modernization, economic growth and social progress. They added that the means for these purposes are the mechanization of agriculture, industrialization and the construction of mature social infrastructure (ibid.). Early development approaches and strategies focus primarily on economic growth. According to Streetens (1981), Sir Arthur Lewis and other development economists were involved in driving this development policy agenda in the 1950s, and they emphasized that underdevelopment was the result of a very low per capita income. In their view, sustained growth in per capita income will address in a timely manner other issues related to underdevelopment, such as poverty and inequity in income distribution (Allen & Anzalone, 1981). Streetens (1981) provides three reasons for this position; first, the assumption is that in pursuit of economic growth, there will be an expansion in agriculture, industry and other sectors of the national economy, leading to a rise in the demand for labour, higher productivity, higher wages, lower prices and hence the trickling down of the outcomes of growth to the entire population.

The second reason is that democratic governments are concerned about the fate of the poor and will therefore initiate and implement progressive taxation, Social Services and other government actions to spread the benefits of economic growth downward. This assumption is that "while poverty reduction is not automatic, the government will take action to correct the situation of concentration of market forces.

A third reason states that in the initial phase of development, the fate of the poor should not be a problem. On the contrary, the state must concentrate on accumulating economic capital, social infrastructure in order to increase productive capacity of the national economic and in the long run, the condition of the poor will improve (Streetens, 1981). The growth story according to

Samater (1984) seems to mean, sacrifice everything before the growth idol and prosperity will be your reward.

The above literature review on the concept of development seems to suggest that the pursuit of growth policies is essential if developing countries are to seek development. Among the proponents of this view is Simon Kuznets, who argues that average income levels are much correlated with the equality index (Streetens, 1981). Simon Kuznets' theory on the subject argues that the initial phase of growth is accompanied by growing inequality until per capita income hits \$ 1000 (Bowler, 1983). The theory added that beyond these income levels, further growth is linked to reducing inequality (ibid.). Bowler (1983) concluded that long-term economic growth, as proposed by development economists, is the best way for developing countries as they to seek close the development gap between them and the Western developed world.

However, Bowler (1983) found that the situation in developing world after the Second World War (WWII) turned out not to be a reflection of the above view, theorized by development economists including Simon Kuznets. For example, Streetens (1981) found that the development process since the Second World War has been an astonishing, unprecedented and unexpected success, as countries ' per capita income has increased by more than a third in the first development decade, from 1960 to 1970. He realized that while the initial evidence is positive, the more important poverty reduction goal has not been achieved. Streetens (1981) asserts that despite rapid growth in industrial production and sustained general economic growth, not enough employment has been created for the rapidly growing workforce. Nor were the benefits of growth spread widely to low-income groups. After the development economists realized that economic growth did not achieve the desired success, they began to question the viability of the development method (Bowler, 1983).



According to Dudley Seers in his 1969 speech to the International Development Association on what development stands for, he alluded to the failure of economic growth theory to address poverty (provision of food), unemployment, and inequality (Seers, 1969). His pronouncement on the failure of growth theories to deliver the intended prosperity led to a shift in the worldview of development. For example, the World Bank began to shift its focus from economic growth to the broader idea of poverty eradication and growth redistribution, and the International Labour Organization (ILO) tried to promote employment (Bowler, 1983).

In addition, the concept of the new international economic order has emerged with the concept of appropriate technology and the focus on basic needs of people. However, one recognizes that employment and redistribution and growth (the first two new ideas) faces a common problem, such as unfitting transfer of technology from Western society to a completely different developing society (Streetens, 1981). This led scholars into thinking deep about the way forward regarding the meaning of the term development. The idea therefore emerged out of this thinking that development should meet human needs, especially the minimum needs of the poorest of the poor (Allen and Anzalone, 1981).

Among the scholars whose works have distinctive features in the basic needs approach to development is Abraham Maslow with his study entitled motivation and personality, he outlined the famous hierarchy of needs that he published in 1954. Nearly two decades after Maslow's work, Denis Goulet published a work called the cruel choice in 1971. It was shortly after Seers' speech in 1969. Inspired by Maslow, Goulet's work brought the concept of basic human needs into sharp focus by dividing demand into three levels, starting with food, shelter and clothing; the second is to enhance demand; and the third is to demand for luxury (ibid.). Even back in 1938, the ILO published a study entitled "*The standard of living for workers*", which discussed



the norms of consumption and represented a combination of goods and services recommended by experts (Rimmer, 1981).

The process of economic development cannot be abstracted from the expansion of the supply of basic human needs and from changing the production structure of the economy and these important and critical changes are undoubtedly a matter of economic growth (Sen, 1988). According to Sen (1988), economic growth must actively reflect the living conditions of the people in order to be called development. He found that while some countries had higher GNP than others in 1984, the relative life expectancy at birth was the opposite. For example, a comparative study of the per capita gross national product (GNP) and life expectancy at birth in five different countries (China, Sri Lanka, Brazil, Mexico and South Africa) showed that South Africa's per capita gross national product (GNP) was way higher than that of countries like China and Sri Lanka but with a considerably lower life expectancy at birth. Similarly, Brazil and Mexico also have a large number of times the income of China and Sri Lanka but have achieved considerably less longevity than these two poorer countries (Sen, 1988). Sen's position in the development sense is that as long as it cares to achieve a better life, the focus of its analysis must include the nature of the life that people successfully live. This is sure to live with the 'length' and 'quality' of life.

In the view of this researcher, the length and quality of life of a particular person will be positively affected if development initiatives focus directly on improving and ultimately changing existing living conditions at the community level. Community (rural and urban) development initiatives should be a top priority for governments, such that development from the bottom defuses eventually to the national level in the long run, rather than the illusive trickling down effect of GDP growth and development missions. Thus community development can be viewed as a strategy to rural development.



2.15 Rural Development.

Several alternative definitions can be used to portray what rural areas mean, depending on what people are seeking to solve (Du Plessis et al., 2002). For example, the 1996 census dictionary refers to "rural areas" as scattered settlements (land that is sparsely populated) located outside cities with a population below 1000 (Statistics Canada, 1999). For the purpose of this study, a rural area was delimited at the level of socio-economic factors such as average household income, percentage of employment, availability of social infrastructure such as schools, health facilities and economic opportunities, etc. According to OECD studies, local administrations generally focus on "rural" issues at the local community level, while national administrations tend to design and implement "rural" initiatives at the regional level. However, in the view of the researcher, rural and urban development should not be the sole responsibility of national governments, neither should it be left to the fate of local rural and urban authorities. On the contrary, there is a need for cooperation between local people and national governments to ensure that development challenges at the local level are effectively identified. In order to achieve this, there is a need for localized community development initiatives.



2.16 Community Development.

Cavage (2015) refers to Community Development as a process carried out by members of a community. In his view, this is a process in which community people can create additional jobs, income and infrastructure, and also assist in the better management of change in their communities. Through the rural community development initiative, rural communities are able to build communities in five capitals-physical, financial, human, social and environmental. In addition, people participate in communities, rethink issues, expand connections and networks;

build social capital. New skills are left, thereby increasing human capital. New economic opportunities are developed and physical and financial capital built. They can also improve the environment (ibid.). Camfens (1997) sees Community Development (CD) as a way of mobilizing communities to partner government and other development agencies in the fight to alleviate poverty, address social issues, empower families, and promote democracy and achieving modernization and socio-economic development.

Furthermore, he believes that CD cannot be realized without active participation or participation, active mobilization of the community and taking into account their beliefs, norms and indigenous knowledge, strong family ties of concern to the people. That is, no CD can succeed without active community involvement, effective community mobilization, and cordial family relationships and community cohesion. In this context, if Community Development requires the collective efforts of specific community members, then the movement of vibrant youth outside the community can have serious consequences for mobilizing and participating in the development of migrant sending communities.

Abedi-Lartey (2016), in his study on rural-urban migration in Sankana, found that this phenomenon does have a negative impact on community mobilization in the study area, since most youth were not present during mobilization for community work.

2.17 Conceptual Framework.

In developing countries, migration has been considered a major strategy for improving the living condition of people. Key in the discussion of internal migration flow is the conventional push factors in the rural areas and pull factors in the urban center. Usually, push factors exist in the local area and force people to move out of the home community. They include; famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. while pull factors refer to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants (Miheretu, 2011). These pull factors are diverse



and may include the following; urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc. 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, piped water supply and public services make urban areas attractive (Ibid). Once a person is convinced by these factors and decides to migrate, he/she may embark on one of the following types of migration;

- Temporary/Seasonal Migration,
- Permanent Migration,
- North-South Migration,
- Urban-Urban,
- Rural-Urban Migration And
- Rural-Rural Migration.

The framework reveals that, embarking on any of the aforementioned types of migration results in certain consequences in both origin and destination of the migrant. In the short term, the phenomenon could bring about labor shortage, poor agricultural performance, and low standard of living among others in the local area. In the urban area, overcrowding, pressure on amenities

and social vices among others are effects emanating from the phenomenon. In the long term, the event may culminate into dire situations such as low agriculture yield, poverty, illiteracy, rural underdevelopment, diseases and death etc. The framework concludes by prescribing some possible remedies for addressing the causes and ensuing effects/impacts of the event. They include; provision of rural amenities, agricultural support, skills training for rural folks, job creation in rural areas, education of rural youth on the risk in migrating, provision of infrastructure in rural settings, abolish bad traditional and cultural practices, rural development



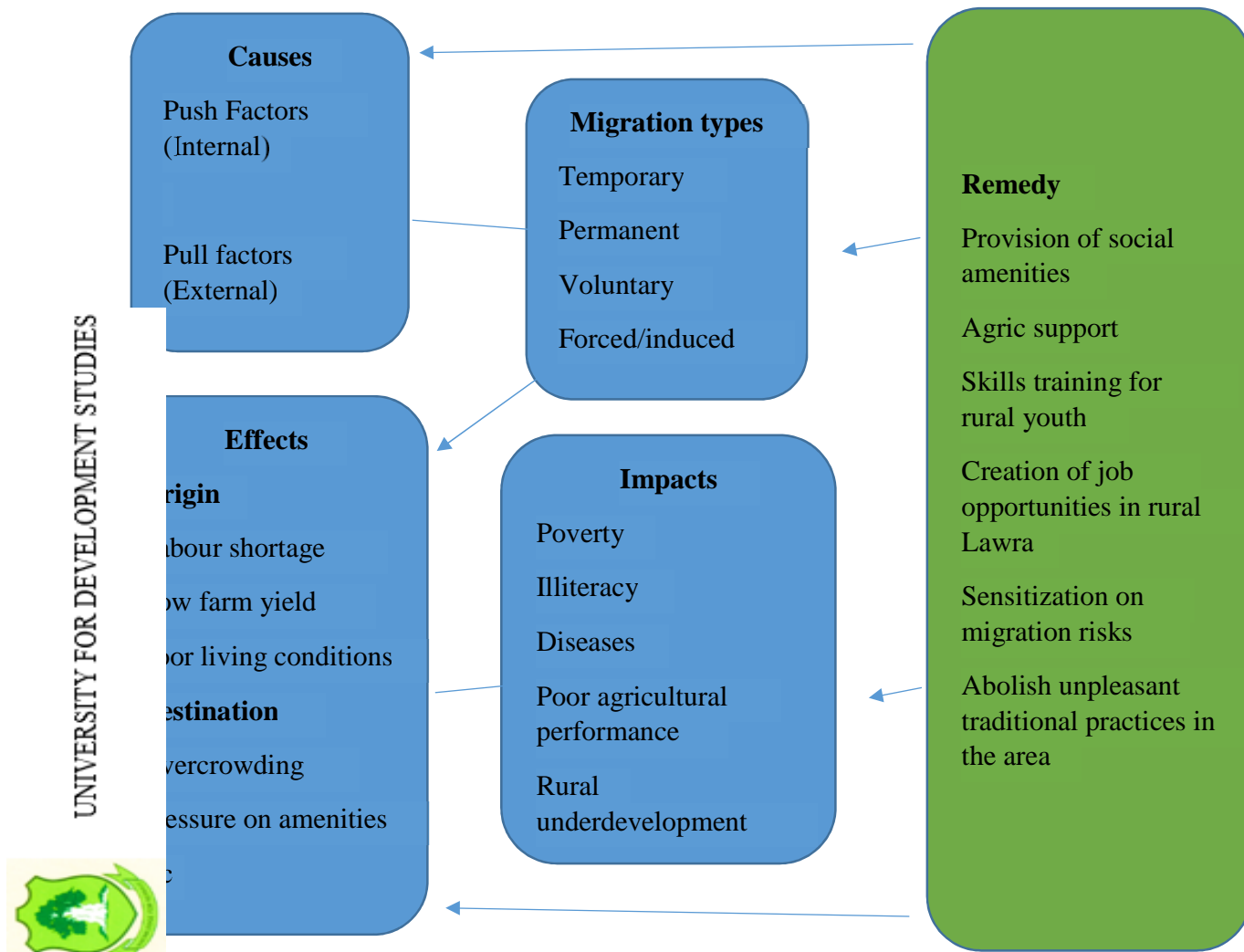


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Modified From Miheretu B. A. (2011)

2.18 Theoretical Framework.

In attempts to ascertain the reasons why people migrate, various theories of migration come to play. According to De Haas (2007), the academic debate on migration and development often swings back and forth like a pendulum, from the development optimism of the 1950s and 1960s, to the pessimism and skepticism of the structuralism and neo-Marxism of the 1970s and 1980s, to the more nuanced view that was influenced by the new economics of labour migration. Olejerova (2007) divided the migration theoretical contributions into 'macro level', 'meso level' and 'micro level theories'. Micro level theories focus on individual migration decisions, while macro-level theories focus on overall migration trends and use macro-level explanations to explain these trends, explained. The meso level according to him is in-between the micro and the macro level, and can be applied at the family or community level, and explain the reasons for Migration and the situation.

Among the existing macro migration theories are; neoclassical macro theory, world system theory and so on." Micro theories about migration include; Human capital approach, value expectation level and New Economics Theory of Migration (NETM). Prominent in the meso theory is the "network theory" (Olejerova, 2007). For the purpose of this study, "new economics of labour

migration"(NETM) and the network theory were considered. NETM was chosen because it is one of the most current and well-developed immigration theories that best explains the role of family or family and individual immigration in immigration decision making (Stark & Bloom, 1985). In addition, a study by Mahama (2013) showed that the NETM theory provides a more appropriate view of migration and development by more clearly linking the causes and consequences of migration. In addition, network theory was used to explain the factors that help to sustain migration from rural settings to urban settlements in Ghana.



New Economics Theory of Migration

This model, advocated by Stark (1991), argues that migration decisions are not made by isolated individual actors, but are usually made collectively by the families or households. In addition, the decision to migrate is influenced by a combination of factors, which are determined by the conditions prevalent at the origin of the migrant (ibid.). Thus, migration decisions are not based purely on individual utility maximization calculations, but rather on households' response to income risks and failures in various markets—the labor market, the credit market or the insurance

ket (Massey et al. 1993). Thus, there is no irrationality where there is migration in the absence of wage differentials or the absence of migration in the presence of wage differentials, but rather it requires us to consider a range of other variables related to relative deprivation (a relatively poor performance of a family against other families, would make it easier to send a member to the city) and risk aversion and risk minimization of family income (Stark 1991; Stark 2003).

According to the Northern Region Archives of Ghana NRG (1952) the reasons why men leave the Northern Region (where Lawra Municipality can be found) to work in the colonies and Ashanti are as follows: to make money to take home either as savings or goods, and also because there is not enough to support them in the area when the raining season is over. When introducing these concepts, Stark

primarily took into account the risk aversion of poor families in rural communities, where there are no institutional mechanisms such as government programs and insurance markets are not available hence migration serving as a significant approach for coping with diverse market failures. Remittances play an important and indispensable role in the economics of migration studies, as they directly support the concept of family interconnection and risk diversification, while at the same time analytically linking the causes of migration with its consequences empirically (Taylor 1999).



Perpetuation of Migration

As Massey (1990) argued, the factors that trigger the commencement of migration may be very different from the conditions under which migration continues. After the initial phase of the migration vanguards, migration became more and more common in the community, with more and more people imitating current migrants and getting their help until the migration becomes self-sustaining. There are different aspects of the perpetuation of migration, including Social Capital, social networks, migration institutions and circular migration. The sociologist Thomas Faist emphasizes "the meso level of migration" (Faist, 2000). By studying the meso-level, Faist established a relationship between rational individual migration decision model and the structural neo migration model.

social relations and social capital of families, communities, and more formally organized groups contribute to the migration decision-making and adaptation processes of migrants, so that they are both a resource and an integrating tool (ibid.). Different social relationships mean different social capital and obligations and outcomes, such as exchange relationships (e.g. between migrants and migration brokers) are based on weak social relationships and usually do not mean solidarity or reciprocity between the parties involved. Social capital can be seen as a resource acquired by different kinds of relationships (Bourdieu & Wacquant 1992), and can be converted to other types of capital (such as borrowing money from your neighbors).

By using concepts such as social relations or social capital, the mechanisms by which macro-factors shape micro-decision making become clearer. An example of social relations and social capital in practice is the network theory, discussed below. The role of social linkages, particularly in the micro or meso-level of migration networks, is crucial to understanding patterns and volumes of migration once it occurs. After the Pioneer period, during which migrants face many difficulties,



their followers enter the destination town or city more easily, because they know better through the pioneer migrants. New channels of communication are established and migrant communities have been established in the receiving city (Goss & Lindquist 1995). New immigrants will get help from pioneer immigrants like arranging the travel to finding jobs, thus making the costs and risks of migration less. The empirical application of the network can be found all over the world, perhaps one of the most obvious aspects of the theory of migration.

According to Guilomoto & Sandron (2001), the migration network has long existed due to institutionalization, path dependence, etc., but also affected by external factors, such as changes in labor market. The institutional part of the network refers to the rules and regulations governing network which reduce transaction and migration costs (for example, remittances from children parents), while the organizational aspect refers to the practical help of the pioneers within the work. As mentioned above, the network relies on the path dependency and is not necessarily most efficient solution; an incidental event confronted by the pioneer can shape the entire work.

working can be both a potential migration opportunity and a threat to prospecting migrants. migrant networks are built by these institutionalized norms (also known as social capital), but they approved by migrant agencies (Goss & Lindquist, 1995). This argument is intended to show

that migration networks reduce the costs and risks of migration, making migration more likely and more widespread in communities with greater number of migrants. As a result, migrants from the Lawra area, living in southern Ghana become the social capital for other members of the municipality who wish to migrate to the same destination.



2.19 Literature Gap

Though there exist few studies on the topic (including, Amalia & Sanna, 2015; Uwanteege & Mbabazi, 2015; Davorka et al., 2016) none of these studies is explicitly concentrated on the Lawra Municipality. Also, studies available sought to investigate the causes and effect of migration but very little is done about the ways to manage migration (particularly at the local level) to ensure that both rural areas (origin) and cities (destinations) get the maximum benefits from it as proposed by the national migration policy of Ghana.

only, even though (GSS, 2010 and UNDP, 2010) in their Population and Housing Census and Human Development Report respectively mentioned how certain environmental and economic conditions in the Lawra area influence migration of the youth, their contribution to this discourse very limited.

ditionally, these institutions did not portray a vivid picture of internal migration in the municipality. The GSS (2010) for instance only reported the existence of immigrants in the municipality but failed to capture the proportion of the population that have migrated out of the municipality. For the UNDP (2010), it only made references to how certain environmental,

conomic and social conditions trigger migration among the youth from the municipality, but also failed to report the rate of immigration and emigration in the municipality. The nonexistence of

studies on the causes and socio-economic consequences of migration in the municipality therefore prompted the researcher to explore the topic in the Lawra Municipality in the Upper West Region of Ghana. Consequently, a key question that needs to be addressed is, *to what extent does migration affect the social and economic wellbeing of people in the Lawra Municipality?* This investigation therefore provides empirical evidence on the causes and consequences of migration in the Lawra



Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana, and in which propositions for the effective management of migration in the municipality are outlined.

2.20 Data Gaps.

During the process of gathering secondary data for the study, it was realized that the Ghana Immigration Service (GIS) lacks data on internal migration flows in the country. Information gathered at the GIS was centered on immigrants from other countries like Burkina Faso. According

Asare (2012) data from household studies or survey is an important supply or source of information on migration issues or studies. However, according to him, this has usually been erused.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth explanation of the research methods. It encompasses the following: definition of the research design used, sample size and sampling techniques, data sources, data collection instruments, reconnaissance visit and pre-test, methods of data analysis and presentation and study area profile.

Sources of Data

Sources of data for this research work are the primary and secondary sources. However, primary source was the major supply of data. Primary data was gathered through a one-on-one interviews heads of households or any adult household member of sound mind using a structured questionnaire. Secondary data was obtained from schools, the municipal education directorate and migration service.

Profile of Study Area.

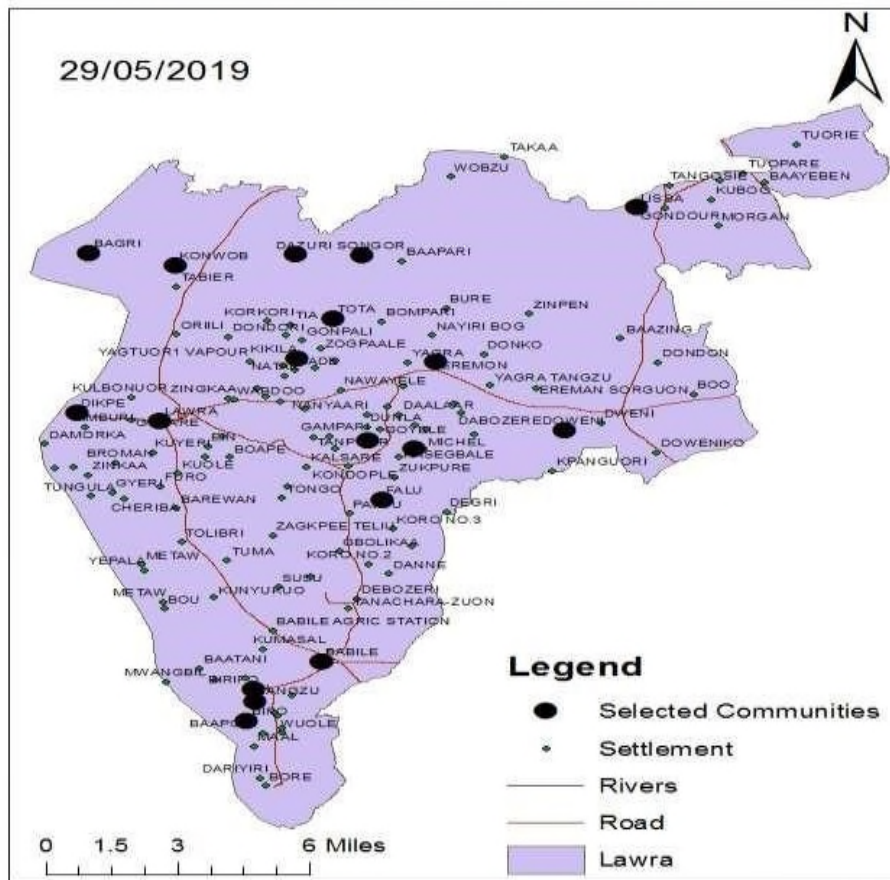
This research was conducted in the Lawra Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana. Among the 11 districts and municipalities that make up the Upper West Region is the Lawra Municipality which derives its legal existence from Legislative Instrument (L.I) 1434 of 1988 (PNDCL 207, Act 462) (UNDP, 2010). The municipality is bordered to the north by Nandom District, to the east by Lambusie District and Jirapa Municipality, and to the south-west and west by the Republic of Burkina Faso. It lies between Latitude $10^{\circ} 35^{\circ}$ - $10^{\circ} 40^{\circ}$ North and $2^{\circ} 5^{\circ}$ — $2^{\circ} 53^{\circ}$ West. The total area of the municipality is 527.37 square kilometers (UNDP, 2010). The



municipality's total spatial coverage is about 2.8 percent of the total land area in the region, estimated at 18,476 square kilometers. More than 80 percent of the municipality's residents live in rural areas. Figure 2 shows the map of Lawra Municipality showing various study communities.



A MAP OF LAWRA MUNICIPAL



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Figure 2; Map of Lawra Municipality

Lawra Municipal Assembly, 2019.

Climate and Vegetation

The municipality of Lawra is located in the region of the Guinean Savannah, which is characterized mainly by short grasses and only a few woody shrubs and trees. The vegetation is very suitable for livestock production, which contributes greatly to the household income in the area. The nature of

vegetation is determined by the long dry season that occurs every year. All the grasses dry up during the period and subsequently leading to bush burning, leaving the area patched and mostly bare of vegetation. According to the study, the adverse effects of this are soil erosion, reduced transpiration, and low average rainfall. The period between April and October gives the only rainy season of the year, and rainfall for agriculture is actually only four months in a year. Poor rainfall patterns coupled with depletion of soil fertility leads to migration of young people, a factor associated with the underdevelopment of the municipality's human resource base (UNDP, 2010)

eracy Rate

According to Human Development Report of UNDP (2010) educational attainment is a major determinant of economic activities of the labour force and for that matter, income distribution and poverty incidence which can go a long way to influence a person's decision on whether or not to migrate. The report found that, over 70% of people in the Lawra area could not read and write in either the English or the local language. Specifically, 71 percent could not read and write in English while 74 percent could not read and write in the local language. The high rate of illiteracy in the municipality implies that many of the people are engaged in the informal sector (subsistent culture), therefore would be forced to migrate during the long dry season in the area.



Housing Stock

According to the Ghana statistical service (2010), the stock of houses in the municipality is 6,115, comprising of 823 urban houses and 5,292 rural housing stock. In terms of households, the municipality has a total of 9,200 households, with a total of 1,453 urban and 7,747 rural households (Ibid).

3.3 Economy of the Municipality.

Agriculture

The GSS (2010) survey found that, agriculture is the major economic activity in the municipality, with a substantial proportion (about 78 percent) of the working population being farmers. A study by UNDP (2014) confirms the finding of Ghana statistical service, even though the UNDP figure of 80% is slightly higher than that of the GSS (2010) figure of 78%. The GSS (2010) study also revealed that 80% of farmers are subsistent farmers, mainly producing maize, millet, flower-pping large upper, soybean and cowpea. Animal production is a major agricultural activity to plement the income of the crop farming industry, but it is also not carried out on a large scale d.).

ed on locality, the survey found that, agricultural households constitute 90% in rural settings. ile in the urban settings, agricultural households constitute 46.9%. Overall, the survey revealed , agriculture households constitute 83.5% of the study area. At the same time, the study found the local agricultural sector was plagued by depletion of soil fertility, unreliable rainfall erns, limited investment funds and skills, pests and diseases, lack of access to extension rices and market access, making the sector highly unrewarding and unattractive in the municipality hence triggering migration of the youth.

Industry and commerce

Industrial activities in the municipality are closely linked to the local agricultural sector, as industrial activities are mainly related to the processing of agricultural products, such as cut butter extraction and Pito brewing (GSS2010).



3.4. Availability to Social Amenities.

Electricity Coverage.

A GSS (2010) survey showed that only 29.6% of Lawra municipality's households have access to electricity. In terms of access based on locality, only 19.5% of rural households are connected to the national grid, while only 83.3% of urban households are connected to the national grid. As a result of the lack of access to electricity by majority of the population, they have resorted to other means of lighting. According to GSS (2010) flashlights (42.5%) are the main source of rural lighting, followed by the use of kerosene lamps (33.9%). Given the low electricity coverage in the area, it become extremely difficult for indigenes to establish small businesses that will in the long-run, create employment for others causing migration of the youth from the area.

Cooking Fuel.

A 2010 survey of the GSS also found that the vast majority of households (95.5%) use plant-based materials as cooking fuel, which will lead to accelerated desertification, apart from to the health impact of this practice. This, according to the study, will lead to widespread land degradation, thereby undermining the livelihoods of the population. The degradation of agricultural lands and its effects on people's livelihoods is a contributory factor to migration in the municipality since majority of the people are employed in the agricultural sector.

Employment and Unemployment Situation

A UNDP (2010) survey revealed that over 80% of the working population in the municipality are engaged in subsistence agriculture, and the remaining 17% are distributed in business, services, rural industry and employment in the public sector/government employment. The poor soil fertility



and unfavorable weather condition as reported result in low production of food in the municipality (Ibid). The survey found that most young people after harvesting low yield from their farms every year, or as soon as they write their junior or senior high school certificate exams, they migrate to the south of the country. The aim of migration is to gather resources for families during the lean season and to take care of their education in the case of those who can progress to the next level on the education ladder.

verty

incidence of poverty in the municipality is very high UNDP (2010). Out of 35 assets that the sehold members have responded to, it is only four assets (bicycle, house, land and chickens) more than 50 per cent of the household members own. The survey showed a per capita income : 0.87, which indicates a 100 percent incidence of poverty in the municipality, compared with percent for the national poverty incidence in 2005/06 and 88 per cent for the Upper West Region 005/06"(NDI, 2008). A 2016/17 survey by the Ghana statistical service reveals national poverty dence of 23.4 percent, whiles that of the upper west region is 70.7 percent. Apparently, it can leduced from the above that the city government lacks various essential social amenities, poor ility of soil, unfavorable weather conditions and lack of economic opportunities necessary to offer better living conditions for the indigenes. This therefore explains why most people, particularly the youth prefer to move to other parts of the country in search for these amenities and opportunities besides avoidance unfriendly traditional cultural practices and pressures from family and relations in the hometown.

3.5 The Study Design

A study design is critical in forming the structure of every research piece, hence needs to be cautiously outlined. Kerlinger (1986) defines research design as a plan, structure, and survey strategy adopted in order to collect data and get answers to research questions or problem. It is important mentioning that Bryman (2012) identified several research designs which could be employed to anchor a specific research study and these include;

- Case Study Design,
Cross Sectional Design
Experimental Design,
Longitudinal Design
Comparative design.
Descriptive design

to achieve the goal set for this study, a descriptive research design was used. According to Burns Grove (2003), descriptive research aims to provide a picture of what happens naturally. Data obtained from descriptive studies can be expressed qualitatively in verbal terms and quantitatively in mathematical terms. A mixed research method was adopted, in which attempts were made to establish the relationship between the variables used in the study whiles views expressed by respondents were analyzed to establish causes and effects of migration in the municipality. In order to complete the study within the given time frame, a cross-sectional design was adopted. A cross-sectional design according to Creswell (2003) helps a researcher to collect data at one point and time. In this type of research, whether it is to select the entire population or its subset, data are collected from these individuals to help answer the research questions of interest (a sample is extracted here). It is called the cross section because the information collected about the subjects



is indicated at a point in time (Chris and George, 2004). This study uses the term cross-sectional study to refer to this particular study design and the term questionnaire refers to the form of data collection that will be used to ask questions of study participants. The choice of such an approach is necessary in part because of its ability to meet research objectives and because of time and financial constraints.

3.6 Population

The population of Lawra Municipality during the 2010 PHC was 54,889 (GSS, 2010). In terms of gender distribution, women make up 52.0% of the population and men 48.0%. From the 54,889 population, 48,397 of them are rural dwellers (88.2%) and the remaining 6,492 live in urban areas (11.8%) (GSS, 2012). The spatial distribution of the population of the municipality indicates that it is mainly rural (88.2%). This is slightly higher than the regional proportion of 83.7 percent living in rural areas. The population density of the municipality is 104.1 per square kilometer (GSS, 2010). The proximity of Lawra Municipality to several communities in neighboring Burkina Faso across the Black Volta River coupled with the existence of numerous unapproved entry points, presents the likelihood of high emigration and immigration between the municipality and these communities. Additionally, a major international highway linking Ghana and Burkina Faso in the north passes through the municipality, thereby facilitating easy movement either into Burkina Faso or to the southern part of Ghana.

3.7 Sampling Technique and Sample Size

The study requires a focus on a targeted sample of adults from the area. According to Kumekpor (2002), two major sampling procedures exist; probability and non-probability sampling. Taking



into account the mixed approach adopted for this study, probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling methods/procedures were used in the selection of interviewees for interview. Using the multistage sampling technique, the municipality was divided into four clusters. According to Ghana Statistical Service (2010), Lawra Municipal administrative system comprises four sub districts structures namely; Lawra Town Council, Babile, Zambo and Eremon Area Councils. Out of each area council, five (5) communities were selected for the study using the simple random sampling technique. In all, twenty (20) communities were selected for the study. Using the

ball sampling technique, households with migrants were visited and their household heads interviewed. In every selected household, the household head is strictly/purposively selected for interview. The reason for selecting only household heads was informed by the fact that migration decisions are largely taken in consultation with the head of the particular household from which migrant comes from as posited in the new economic theory of migration.

ditionally, it helped to differentiate between female headed households and male headed households in terms of migration issues. Finally, it will help to establish the migration dynamics between households headed by literates and those headed by illiterate. A Multistage sampling

procedure was adopted, by reason that, a single sampling technique could not be used in all the stages. Ma et al (2006) referred to multistage sampling method as the most appropriate technique to employ when it is expensive or impossible to form a list of all the units in the target group/population. Also, this sampling method offers the communities in the municipality, an equal chance of being selected for the study since all the communities constitute a sampling unit in the first stage.



Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size calculator was used to determine the sample size for the study. Obtaining a sample size which is representative of the target population is very crucial, especially, in quantitative research where generalizability is an issue. Vaus (2001) noted that the selection of research samples is important for the effectiveness of the study results. Sampling basically refers to the selection of a part of the target population for research, as it saves time, manpower and money (Gay & Diehl, 1992). For this study, a sample size of 264 respondents was obtained using statistical computation. Krejcie and Morgan's sample size calculator generates the

sample size by making use of chi-square at one degree of freedom, the size of the population and a confidence level at 0.05. In order to calculate the sample size, Krejcie and Morgan came out with a formula as shown; $S = \frac{X^2NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)}$; where S = the required sample size, X^2 = table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841), N = total population, P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.80 since this will provide the maximum sample size) and d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (0.05). With a total of 9,200 respondents, the sample size was calculated as follows; $S = \frac{X^2NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)}$

Where;

$$X^2 = 3.841,$$

$$N = 9200, d$$

$$= 0.05$$

$$P = 0.80$$

$$S = \frac{3.841 * 9,200 * 0.80(1-0.80)}{(0.05)^2(9,200-1) + 3.841 * 0.50(1-0.80)}$$

$$S = 5653.952/23.3816$$

$$S = 241.812 = 242$$



In order to deal with the problem of non-responses, 10% of the calculated sample was added to the final sample size for the study. Therefore, with a total of 9,200 households, a sample size of **264** (10% of 242 added) households was arrived at. As stated earlier, the municipality, according to GSS (2010) is divided into four (4) sub-districts structures. Therefore dividing 264 households among these 4 area councils (cluster), 66 households were allocated to each cluster for interviews. However considering that, urban and rural localities have varied populations, the communities were further categorized into high, moderate, low and very low population depending on the number of inhabitants and with different number of respondents allocated based on the level of population of the area as shown in Table 1. Five (5) communities from each cluster were sampled for the activity using simple random sampling technique. Overall, 20 communities were sampled with an average of 13 households covered in each community. Moreover, using the snowballing technique, households with migrants were purposively visited and their household heads interviewed, provided she/he has been in the community for the past years and is of sound mind. The 5 years stay in the study area was chosen as a criteria because the researcher was convinced that such length of stay was enough for the respondent to become abreast with migration issues in the area. Similarly, the snowball technique was used to identify and locate homes of immigrants in the study communities after a sample of 32 immigrants was drawn from a total of 3777 immigrants (GSS, 2010) in the municipality using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size calculator. Other respondents interviewed included 40 return migrants identified through snowball sampling, 1 GES official, 1 Agric officer and 1 head teacher purposively for interviews.

Table 1: Sampled Communities

Community	Population	Number of Respondents
1. Lawra 2. Babile	High	26*2=56
Donwine Eremon-Tangzu Lissa	Moderate	20*3=60
Tampie Eremon-Dazuuri rifoh-Gombile	Low	13*4=52
igri kpe nwob mbo-Kikila mbo-Baagangn emon-Toto emon-Naburinye alu inyagri rifoh-Biro rifoh-Cha rifoh-Malbaa	Very low	10*12=101
Total		264

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Lawra Municipal Assembly, 2019.

3.8 Instruments/ Tools for Data Collection

It is very important for researchers to ensure the effectiveness and reliability of data collection instruments. According to Annum (2014), the effectiveness and reliability of any research work depend largely on the appropriateness of the tools developed and used. The questionnaire is the primary tool for collecting data from households for this study. The preparation and design of the questionnaire was informed by the research objectives. To ensure that sufficient data were

collected, both open and close ended questions were raised in the questionnaire. The decision to use the questionnaire in this study is based on the fact that the questionnaire collects structured and consistent data, suitable for quantitative data analysis of the respondents, the results of which are generalizable and, therefore, were extrapolated to the entire study population. Secondly, interview guide was used for the interview of key informants including heads of various departments with information relevant to the study and/or whose activities affect or are affected by migration. These departmental officials include, the Municipal Education Director, the Municipal Agric Officer, and d of the Planning Department of The Municipal Assembly.

thermore, focus group discussion guide was a tool for conducting group discussion with focus ups like immigrants and return migrants. Finally, through the use of field observation guide, researcher observed some facilities in the municipality including dry season irrigation farms ng the Black Volta River in some communities, dams, and some modern houses built by rants for their families in some communities in the municipality. Pictorial evidence of some onal observation by the researcher are shown in chapter four of the study.

.9 Data Collection Procedure/Method

lepth interviews were conducted to gather primary data from the field. In-depth interview is a qualitative research strategy involving intensive personal interviews with a small number of interviewees to explore their views on a particular idea, program, or situation (Boyce & Neale, 2006). The in-depth interview is appropriate because it allows for face-to-face contact with the interviewee and provides opportunities for in-depth exploration of the subject. As a result, in-depth interviews provide detailed information about the impact of migration particularly of the youth on development of communities in the Lawra Municipality. By means of triangulation, several other

methods were used to collect data for this research. These include; Focus Group Discussions (FGD), personal observation, and document analysis. A combination of several data collecting methods ('Data Triangulation') makes a research piece more credible (Choo et.al, 2005).

Key Informant Interview

In order to gather vital information on issues under investigation, people who are knowledgeable and or experience on the said issues were directly targeted for interviews. Among such people included; return migrants, in-migrants, head teachers of basic schools, Municipal Agric Director the director in charge of Supervision at the Lawra Municipal Education Directorate.

Focus Group Discussion

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was conducted among purposively selected individuals who have considerable experiences on the issues under investigation and whose activities are affected by migration or are involved in the act. These individuals selected for the focus group discussion included, a community chief, 2 return migrants, 2 immigrants, a head teacher, a circuit supervisor, an education official, and an official from the municipal assembly. A total of 8 participants were invited

to participate in the discussion in Lawra at the Teachers Resource Centre (TRC). The Focus Group Discussion was necessary to help gather more information on issues from key informant interviews. Key issues discussed in the discussions were the causes of migration, the effects of migration and the ways by which migration can be properly managed in the municipality.

These discussions generated data and insights that could not be obtained in one-on-one interviews. Participants for the discussions were return migrants and in-migrants. In this regard, participants were invited to participate and share their knowledge and experience on the subject under

discussion and their opinions/views on how migration can be managed were solicited. With the aid of a FGD guide the conversation was directed towards topics and issues the study sought to unearth. A group meeting was also held with dry season farmers in communities along the Black Volta River to ascertain the effect of migration on their activities. The researcher took detail notes on the responses from participants during the discussions.

3.10 Training of Field Assistants

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order to ensure consistency during data collection, collect data on a timely manner and minimize errors, four field data collection assistants were trained on how to administer questions on the questionnaire. They were also trained on translation of questions from English into the Dagaare language. Besides, data collection assistants were briefed on the purpose of the study as well as the basic ethical principles such as confidentiality, informed consent and privacy of respondents. Additionally, they were educated on fundamental community entry procedures and skills including self-introduction and respect for hierarchy of authorities in the study communities. Training of field data collection assistants on ethics and community entry skills was meant to ensure maximum participation and high response rates among respondents in all study communities.



3.11 Pre-Testing of Instruments

A pre-test fieldwork was organized at Birifoh-Guri community to ascertain the strength and validity of the questionnaire. Birifoh-Guri community was selected because of the distance from the district capital. It is one of the communities with the longest distance from the capital, coupled with the fact that it lacks almost all the social amenities a community should have. Example school, clinic, road, electricity etc. The researcher therefore presumed that given the prevailing unpleasant

conditions in the community, migration could be high. The pre-test was done to find out whether questions on the questionnaire were clear and unambiguous so that any possible elements of inconsistency, ambiguity and difficulty in understanding the questions were corrected before the actual fieldwork. Questionnaires were administered to fifteen household heads in the community and the outcome assessed. According to data from the Birifoh-Biro health center (elephantiasis data, 2015), the community has a population of about 520 people with about 35 houses.

! Analysis of Data

Deriving meaning out of field data depends on a rigorous data analysis using the appropriate statistical software and tools. This aspect of the study took into consideration the scales of measurement based on the study objectives. The data obtained was coded and summarized in order to give clear meaning to the problem to be investigated. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 21) was used to analyze the data into meaningful information and presented in frequency tables, graphs in the case of quantitative data while qualitative data was analyzed by means of content analysis and presented in the form of quotations and narratives.



3.1.3 Ethical Considerations

Beauchamp & Bowie (2004) note that there are various ethical codes of conduct that regulate the behavior of researchers and discuss many issues that may arise in the study, as well as other issues related to professional practice. The following measures were taken to ensure maximum protection of the respondents. Prior permission was sought from the community leaders before the study in their villages commenced. The purpose of the study was explained to respondents to enable them

understand what the study is all about and household heads were informed that participation in the study is completely voluntary. Anonymity and Confidentiality were ensured by not using respondents' names or any other identifiable characteristics rather, numbers were used in identifying household heads on the questionnaire as well as the analysis, discussion and presentation of the study results. Respondents were assured that all the information to be collected from them would not be disclosed or shared with anyone but would be used only for the purpose of the study.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

Chapter four of this research study takes care of analysis of data collected from the field. Data analysis in this chapter involved the ways by which the researcher make meaning out of the field data and secondary data that was gathered. The chapter is comprised of two major segments. The first segment covers the demographic characteristics of respondents which gives a clear picture of how certain demographic variable can influence migration decisions in households, families or communities in the study area. The second section presents a comprehensive analysis of responses gathered on the various concepts based on the study objectives.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

Considerable focus have been laid on the background characteristics of respondents in this study because of the crucial role some of them are likely play in achieving the research objectives, as in causes of migration in the area. It is also imperative to identify the background information of respondents in order to provide in-depth understanding of the people who participated in the study.

In his theory of intervening opportunities, Stouffer (1940) hypothesized that it is not enough to consider only conditions present in the person's hometown (push factors) and those at the place of destination (pull factors) in the determination of the direction and volume of migration. But to him, there are some personal factors that are important to consider, regarding migrants' decision to make a move. The personal features of individuals that either influence or restrain migration are outlined as follows; age, sex, occupation, education, income, marital status, employment, number of



children, previous occupation, and the intended departure period in a year. The background information collected for this study were limited to sex, age, level of education, marital status number of people in respondents household, number of household migrants and the number of years respondents have been staying in the study area.

Sex Analysis

As indicated in Table 3, 50 percent of the respondents interviewed were males while the other 50 percent were females. The study purposively allocated equal numbers for both male and female headed households so as to be able to establish the migration dynamics between these two types of households. For the female household heads captured in the sample, their men have either migrated in the area or are diseased, making wives, widows and mothers, heads of these households.

Table 3: Sex Analysis

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	123	50
Male	123	50
Total	246	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Ages of Respondents

With respect to age for the household heads, an age interval of 10 years was chosen starting from respondents aged 20years and ending with respondents aged 60years and older. From Table 4, only 5 respondents, representing 2 percent of were between 20 and 29 years old, 25 respondents,



representing 10.2 percent were aged between 30-39 years, 58 representing 23.6 percent were aged between 40-49 years old, 98 representing 39.8 percent were between 50-59 years old, and 60 respondents representing 24.4 percent were 60 years or older. The researcher purged the starting age at 20 years because the study sought to interview adults, and two years after the attainment of early adulthood (beginning at age 18 years) is enough for a person to acquire some life experiences. For other groups of respondents, including return migrants and immigrants, majority of them were between 12 and 45 years old. An interval of 10 was also chosen for return migrants starting from minimum age of 10 to 60 years or older. From table 5, about 29 return migrants representing 72.5 percent have ages below 40 years (thus between 10 and 39 years old), confirming the UNDP (2010) finding that the energetic youth in the lawra area usually migrate during the dry season leaving behind aged and very little children.

Table 4: Age Distribution of household heads.

Age	Frequency	Percent
10-29	5	2.0
30-39	25	10.2
40-49	58	23.6
50-59	98	39.8
60 and older	60	24.4
Total	246	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2019



Table 5: Age Distribution of Return Migrants

Age	Frequency	Percent
10-19	10	25
20-29	8	20
30-39	11	27.5
40-49	7	17.5
50-59	2	5
60 and older	2	5
Total	40	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Education Status Analysis

Along with age and sex, information about respondents' level of education was also collected. Evidence from Table 6 shows that, almost half (47.2%) of the respondents have no formal School education, 16.2 percent have Primary education, 16.6 percent have Junior High education, while 13.3 percent have Senior High School education. Finally, only 20 respondents representing 8.2

percent have tertiary education. Showing a very low literacy rate in the municipality. The UNDP's Human Development Report (2010) found that, more than 70 per cent of people in the Lawra Municipality are unable to read or write in English or the local language. This confirms the high numbers of illiterates and semi-literates recorded among respondents captured in this study.



Table 6: Educational status of respondents

Education status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No formal education	116	47.2
Primary level	40	16.2
Junior high	41	16.6
Senior high	29	11.8
Tertiary	20	8.2
Total	246	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 7: Cross-tabulation of Educational Status and Number of Migrants.

Recognizing that some demographic characteristics of respondents may present different degrees of migration among households, the educational status of respondents was cross-tabulated with the number of household migrants, using chi square to establish the relationship between the two variables. It was established in Table 7 that out of the 246 respondents interviewed, over 47.2 percent have no formal education, 18.7 percent have only primary education, 16.7 percent have junior high education, 11.8 percent have senior high education while only 8.1 percent have tertiary education.



Table 7: Educational Status of Household Heads - No. of Household Migrants Crosstab


	No. of household migrants	Percent
Educational status		
No formal education	116	47.2
Primary education	46	18.7
Junior high	41	16.7
Senior high	23	9.3
Tertiary	20	8.1
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019

Occupation of Respondents

Table 8 shows the main occupation of households in the municipality. From the Table, over 80 percent of households are mainly engaged in farming, while the remaining 19.5 percent is shared among government employment (11.8%), petty trading (5.5%), craftwork or local industry activities (1.2%), corporate or commercial driving (0.8 %) and fishing (0.4%). This finding confirms that of UNDP (2010) that over 80% of the municipality's working population are farmers.

Table 8: Occupation of Respondents



Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Farming	198	80
Trading	13	5.3
Fishing	1	0.4
Driving	2	0.8
Government employment	29	11.8
Craftwork	3	1.2
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019.

Sex Household Head - Number of Household Migrants' Crosstab

A cross tabulation of sex of household head and the number of household migrants showed that there are more migrants from households headed by females than households headed by males. This is an indication that female headed households tend to send out more migrants than their male counterparts partly due to the fact that ownership, access and use of lands by women in the study area is very minimal due to cultural barriers. From Table 9, for households with only 1 migrant, male headed households are the majority with 31 households while their female counterparts are 5, for households with 2 migrants, male headed households are 24 while the female headed households are 14 and for those with 3 migrants, male headed households are 23 while female headed households are 16. However, for higher numbers like 4, 5, and 6 migrants, female headed households have the majority. For household with 4 migrants, female headed households are 19 while their male counterparts are 17. For households with 5 migrants, female headed households are 23, while the male headed households are 17. Finally, for households with 6 or more migrants, female headed household are 46 while the male headed households are only 11.

During a focus group discussion with traditional leaders and elders, it was revealed that, women communities within the municipality have virtually no access to or ownership right over major

productive resources including agricultural lands, livestock and farm implements. This is causing severe hardship among members of households headed by females as a result of the demise of the husband. Widows who continue to stay in the house (family house) of their dead husbands are those most affected by this practice as stated by one of the participants. Another reason for the high number of migrants emanating from female headed households was polygamous marriage. Most men with more than one wife usually migrate with the youngest and energetic wife together with some children to the south of Ghana for farming, leaving behind the eldest wife to take care of the



younger children at the home community. This is referred to as separation by this study. Thus, a household head/respondent whose spouse has migrated elsewhere leaving him/her.

Table 9: Sex-Number of Migrants Crosstab.

	Number of migrants from the household						Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more	
Sex							
Male	31	24	23	17	17	11	123
female	5	14	16	19	23	46	123
Total	36	38	39	36	40	57	246

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Marital Status of Respondents

While 41.9 percent of the respondents are married, 30.1 percent separated from their spouses, 9.8 percent widowed, 5.3 percent divorced 13 percent had never married as shown in Table 10. The

marital status of household heads was necessary to ascertain whether or not it has a bearing on the migration decisions in the family or household.



Table 10: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	32	13
Married	103	41.9
Divorced	13	5.3
Separated	74	30.1
Widow/widower	24	9.8
Total	246	100

d Survey, 2019

Length of Stay in the Study Area

In regards to length of stay in the study area, Table 11 shows that, over half of the respondents representing 55.7 percent have been staying in the area for between 16-19 years. 23.4%, 13.4% and 6.1% have been in the area for 11-15 years, 5-10 years, and 20 years and above respectively.

The researcher took into consideration the length of stay of a respondent in the area because he realizes that, the number of years spent in the area by a respondent has a positive impact on his/her

knowledge and experience on issues of migration in the area. He therefore chose 5 years as the starting point for eligibility for the interview/participation.



Table 11: Length of Stay

Number of Year	Frequency	Percentage
5-10	33	13.4
11-15	61	24.8
16-19	137	55.7
20 and above	15	6.1
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019

Household size

GSS (2010) referred to a household as comprising an individual or group of individuals occupying one house or compound. Blood relation is not the only criteria for household membership, since nonblood relations may be members of a household (Ibid). In the Lawra municipality, GSS (2010) found that the total number of households is 9,200 households, and the average household size in rural and urban areas is 6.2 and 4.5, respectively. This confirms the present data as presented in Table 12. The Table presents in a ranked order, 94 households representing 38.2 percent, with between 4-6 members, 82 households representing 33.3 percent between 7-10 members, 36 households, representing 14.6 percent with more than 10 members and finally, 34 households representing 13.8 percent with between 1-3 members. Addo (1974) believes that with the increase in the size of the family, the tendency to migrate steadily increases.

Table 12: Number of Household Members

No. of household members	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-3	34	13.8
4-6	94	38.2
7-10	82	33.3
More than 10	36	14.6
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

Number of Migrants from Households

In Table 13, out of 246 households visited, 36 households representing 14.6 percent have 1 migrant each, 38 households representing 15.4 percent have 2 migrants each, 39 households representing 15.9 percent have 3 migrants, and another 36 households also representing 14.6 percent have 4 migrants. For 5 migrants each 40 households representing 16.3 of the total sample were recorded while 57 households representing 23.2 percent have more 6 or more migrants.

Table 13: Number of Household Migrants

Number of Migrants	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	36	14.6
2	38	15.4
3	39	15.9
4	36	14.6
5	40	16.3
6 or more	57	23.2
Total	246	100.0



Field Survey, 2019

Crosstab of Household Size and Number of Household Migrants

A cross tabulation of number of household members and number of household migrants as shown in Table 14 indicates that, the number of people in a household is positively related to the number of people who migrate from that household. From the Table, out of 34 households with between 1-3 members, 30 of them have only 1 migrant, while 4 households with the same household size have 2 migrants. However, out of 36 households with more than 10 members, 28 of them have migrants ranging from 4 to more than 6 of their members being migrants.

These results therefore mean that the number of household members has an influence on the number of people likely to migrate from households in the Lawra Municipality. It could be established from Table 14 that, the greater the household size, the higher the number of household migrants, which does not deviate from Yelsang (2013) assertion that there is pressure to push and pull as families grow larger, forcing people to make migration decisions.

Table 14: Household Size – Numbers of Household Migrants Crosstab.

Household size	Number of household migrants						Total	Percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more		
1-3	30	4	0	0	0	0	34	13.8
4-6	3	30	26	0	22	3	84	38.2
7-9	2	3	7	30	8	42	92	33.3
10 or more	1	1	6	6	10	12	36	15.7
Total	36	38	36	39	40	57	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019



Recent Migration Experience of Respondents

From Figure 3, a total of 139 respondents representing 56.5 percent have not migrated in the past 5 years while 107 of them representing 43% have migrated in the past 5 years. The data presented in Figure 3 also show that heads of households who under normal circumstances should stay and take care of the day to day running of the home, are also compelled by the unpleasant social and economic conditions in the area to migrate. Almost half (119 out of 264) of the respondents representing 43.5% have migrated in the past five years. For the 145 respondents (56.5%) who have not migrated over the period, majority of them (123) are old people with ages between 50 years and more than 60 years. Reasons for not migrating within the period were given as follows; 68 of them (55.2%) mentioned the lack of migration resources as the cause of their inability to leave out of their communities in the past 5 years or beyond. 47 representing (32.4%) said there is no elderly person to take care of the house so they are home to take care of the children left behind. Only 18 of them (12.4%) mentioned old age and/or sickness as the reasons why they have not migrated over the period. This shows that given the opportunity, majority of the people are willing to migrate from the municipality.



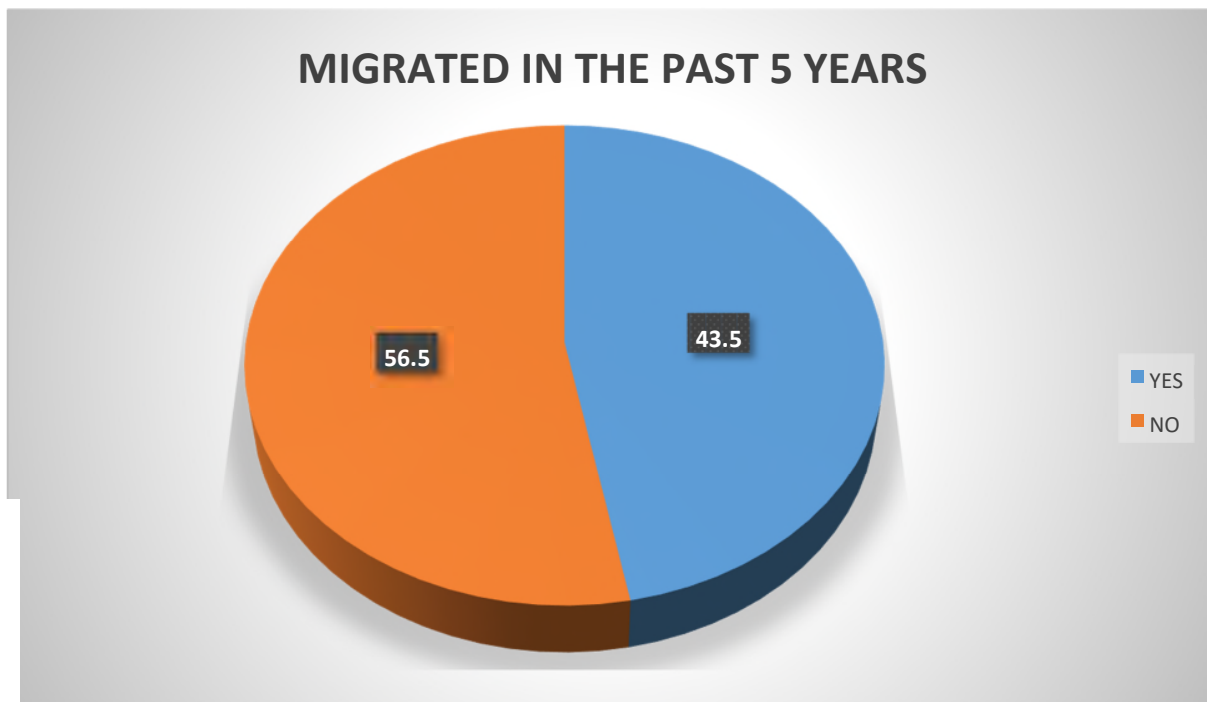


Figure 3: Recent Migration Experience

Field Survey, 2019

Cross-tab of Age and Recent Migration Experience

Table 15 depicts a cross tabulation of age of respondents and their migration experience over the past 5 years. The data presented in the Table show that, all 5 (100%) respondents aged between 18-29 years responded “yes” to the question of whether they have migrated in the past five years or not. Secondly, 26 out of 27 respondents (96%) within the ages of 30-39 years answered “yes”. For those between the ages ranging from 40-49 years, 50 out of 58 respondents (86%) interviewed answered “yes”. However, for those between the ages of 50-59 years, 19 out of 98 respondents representing (19.4%) answered “yes”, while only 9 out of 60 respondents (15%) between the ages ranging from 60 years and older said they have migrated in the past years. This means that, as people grow older, their desire to migrate elsewhere diminishes as seen in Table 15. From Table

15, those within the age group 60 and older recorded the lowest percentage (15%) of the “YES” responses. This is in line with Nabila (1974) which stated that, a common phenomenon in Ghana is that, it is the youth who migrate, while the aged and children are left behind. Recent studies including that of GSS (2010) survey reveal that, more and more children are migrating independently besides those usually taken along by parents.

The population pyramid for both intra-regional and inter-regional migration show that, young adults and children constitute the largest proportion, while the aged or old people constitute just a small proportion (GSS, 2014). The results presented in Table 15 however show that the mass of people in Lawra municipality are willing to migrate if given the chance and the resources required to move out of the area. The fact that some respondents with ages, above 60 years were reported to have migrated over past 5 years indicates that, there is very high desire to migrate from study area. This confirms the high incidence of poverty in the area as reported by the UNDP (2010). It reported a per capita daily income of approximately \$ 0.87 for the municipality. For this reason, people migrate in search for job even at their retirement ages.

Table 15: Recent Migration Experience

	Recent Migration Experience		Total	Percentage (%) of “YES” responses.
	Yes	No		
Age				
20-29	5	0	5	100
30-39	24	1	25	96
40-49	50	8	58	86.2
50-59	19	78	98	19.4
60 and above	9	53	60	15
Total	107	139	246	43.5

Field Survey, 2019



The background characteristics of respondents were of great interest to the study in ascertaining whether these variables have diverse relationships with a person's tendency and or decision to migrate and or his or her view on the impact of migration.

4.3. Major Causes of Migration

One of the objectives of this study was to investigate the underlying causes of out-migration of youth in the Lawra Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana. By way of gathering

information on these migrants, heads of migrants' households were used as a proxy to answer

questions regarding the motivations to migrate among household members in the study areas.

While the emphasis is on economic factors as the main causes of migration, the factors that

mediate migration have both economic and non-economic attributes (Kok et al, 2003).

Sometimes it is necessary to distinguish between the driving forces operating in the area of origin

(push factors) and the attracting forces operating in the destination (the pull factors), which

ultimately force people to move. Ewusi (1986) found that the tragic social conditions in places of

origin were more convincing than economic factors to stimulate rural migration. However, once

the decision to migrate arrives, the choice of destination depends primarily on the economic

opportunities that are finally available (Ewusi, 1986). According to Johnson, (1974) social

conditions in their places of origin act as a major driver, while economic opportunities in specific

towns act as a pull factor for attracting migrants to the area (destination).

Push Factors.

GSS (2010) found that decisions to migrate are often a culminated reaction to a variety of issues such as environmental, physical, economic and social factors. Primary data from the field revealed



that, the main economic activity done by majority of the people (over 78%) is subsistence which is seasonal in nature.

All 246 respondents interviewed stated that crop farming in the study area is done only in the raining season which lasts for just few months. Therefore, majority of the study respondents (55.3%) mentioned unfavorable rainfall pattern as the main cause of migration from the Lawra Municipality.

Plate 1 depicts the nature of dry season vegetation in the municipality.



Plate 1: Dry Season Vegetation of Lawra

Field Survey, 2019



is confirms Van der Geest's (2004) finding that farmers in the Upper West region often complain of increased unreliability of rainfall. It also supports Yelsang (2013) finding that the unfavorable rainfall pattern which offers only one cropping season coupled with other environmental challenges is the driving force behind the movement of people in Lawra municipality to the southern part of Ghana. In an interaction with some dry season farmers, it was revealed that, most people in the area migrate due to the nonexistence of irrigation facilities to facilitate crop farming

during the dry season. Plate 2 shows some of the irrigation equipment used for dry season farming along the Black Volta River.



Plate 2: Irrigation Equipment

Field Survey, 2019

ey informant lamented about the number of existing dams in the municipality. According to 1 indigenes/respondents and the informant, the few existing dams have not been designed in a manner to enhance large scale irrigation purposes since there are no well-established canals to

res farmlands with water for cropping. The appeal therefore is for more dams to be constructed

and fashioned in a manner that can serve irrigation purposes in the Municipality. While the Municipal Assembly gives priority to the provision of irrigation facilities to promote dry-season horticulture in the region, only one dam was built in Eremon under the Upper West Agricultural Development

Programme (UNDP, 2010). A participant in a focus group discussion stated that;

We were very happy when we heard government is going to construct dams in all communities in the north. I am hoping that the government fulfils this very



important promise so that if my community benefits from this program, my family and I will not travel far away to Techiman but stay in our community and farm during the dry season. (A focus group discussion Participant- Lawra, 2019)

Another key informant confirmed that, food production in the Municipality during the dry season is usually very minimal. He stated that;

Food production in the area during the dry season, is limited to vegetable farming, which takes place along the Black Volta River in communities like Bagri, Tabier, Orbili, Dikpe and around the Naburinye dam in Eremon. (Key Informant, Lawra, 2019)

Table 16 shows that one significant factor forcing people out of the Municipality is the unfavorable rainfall pattern in the area. 136 respondents representing 55.3 percent believe that many people in the area migrate due to bad environmental conditions.

Second, lack of employment opportunities in the area is another factor causing migration in the area. 69 respondents representing 28 percent of the total sample support this. A research by Edwin (2016) in the Northern Region showed that, more than half of young immigrant respondents (about

60%) said they were attracted to the city of Tamale because of the opportunity to study a career or

to earn money that can help them sustain themselves, their parents and other siblings. This finding is also consistent with UNDP (2010) findings, which reports that only 17% of the active population of the municipality of Lawra have paid employment in business, services, rural industries and government employment. And that, a significant part of the active population is engaged in subsistence agriculture (UNDP, 2010). Given the level of engagement of many of the people in the area, the report found that, 70 percent of the people in the municipality are underemployed because, though they are engaged in some form of economic activities like farming, they are willing to take



extra job but cannot find such a job. Edwin (2016) found that climate/weather conditions make it impossible for most people in active employment, who are engaged in agricultural activities, to support themselves throughout the year. The result of this is that young people migrate to the south of the country soon after harvesting their crops and when the rains are over in the area in order to gather some resources for the family and to avoid being idle because there is no alternative work in the area to do when farming is over.

Also, unavailability of certain social amenities in some communities account for the phenomenon in the municipality. About 12 percent of the respondents interviewed mentioned lack of electricity (12%), lack of good drinking water (3.3%), and lack of good schools and health facilities (2.8%) as the main causes of migration in the area. In a Focus Group Discussion with return migrants, it was revealed that, majority of migrants who move to urban south usually do so because their rural communities lack either some or all of these amenities outlined. This confirms the discovery of the UNDP (2010) that majority of rural folks are influenced by socio-cultural amenities including potable water, access electricity, quality medical delivery and recreation, that are lacking in the villages, hence their movement to urban centers.

With regards to why children migrate instead of attending school, participants of the Focus Group Discussions revealed that, children in remote communities like theirs do not have access to good schools as most of their schools are bedeviled with very poor pupil-teacher ratio coupled with inadequate education logistics. For instance the UNDP (2014) reported a very high pupil-teacher ratio in the Lawra Municipality. The Donwine area in particular has a pupil-teacher ratio of 74:1 for both primary and upper primary levels, which is far above the standard 30:1 and 35:1 for the two levels respectively. The researcher, upon visits to several communities in the Municipality, observed that, some communities in the area are several kilometers away from the nearest public



basic school. The result of long distances between communities and the nearest public basic school is regular absenteeism, high incidence of drop outs and eventually, poor academic performance of pupils. Plate 4 shows a group of school drop outs in a community called Zambo-Toto, including school age children who have never been to school. They are gathered under trees for learning, under the Complementary Basic Education (CBE) programme implemented by Plan International Ghana (An International NGO) in some communities within the Lawra Municipality.



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Plate 4: A CBE Class at Toto Community

Field Survey, 2019



According to proponents of unavailable social amenities, specifically, educational facilities and logistics as the cause of migration in the area, some people move their children to towns to enroll them in better schools. This confirms the observation of Bey (2003) that schools in most rural areas are mostly poor in resources and teaching quality, which may lead to the migration of young people to better schools in urban areas. Ansell (2004) and Punch (2004) also realized that for many young

people in villages, access to education is limited to primary education and they have to migrate to larger towns or cities in order to access higher education (secondary and tertiary education)

Additionally, Table 16 depicts 13 respondents representing 5.3 percent stating that bad cultural or traditional practices is one of the factors causing out migration in the area. On the issue of unpleasant cultural practices, participants mentioned practices such as Bagr rituals, and widowhood rite as the major ones driving people particularly the youth out of rural communities in the Lawra Municipality.

According to a key informant, faiths/religions like Christianity and Islam are the reasons for the disapproval of the local traditional practices by the youth leading to their departure from these rural communities (where traditional practices are prevalent) when forced to partake in these traditional activities. In a similar light, Anarfi and Kwankye (2009) argued that people also moved to urban areas in order to get rid of the traditional family system and the restrictions on the elderly in rural areas. Migration of young females from northern Ghana to the South of Ghana, cemented this trend, on the grounds that it was necessary to get rid of the traditional restrictions at the local communities (Anarfi and Kwankye, 2009).



Many of our youth refuse to take part in the Bagr rituals because their new faith (Christianity) frowns upon it. They have been brain-washed by these new religious teachings to believe that everything traditional is not good. Therefore, to avoid these practices some of them migrate from the community to urban centres in the south. (A Community Chief-Birifoh, 2019)

All in all, Abedi-Lartey (2016) also found unreliable rainfall patterns, lack of social facilities, lack of employment opportunities, lack of quality education and poverty as the main factors contributing to the outflow of people from rural settings in his study titled, “*The Causes of Rural-Urban Migration in Sankana Community*”

Table 16: Push Factors

Push Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Unfavorable rainfall pattern	136	55.3
Lack of employment opportunities	69	28
Lack of electricity	13	5.3
Lack good drinking water	8	3.3
Lack of good schools	7	2.8
Old traditional practices	13	5.3
Total	246	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Pull Factors

When asked what factors attracted them to move to their current destinations, some (40) return migrants interviewed mentioned availability of job opportunities, better education services, favorable rainfall pattern in the south, urban facilities and way of life, and fertile lands for agriculture. Table 17 shows that 18 respondents constituting 45.9% of the total sample, mentioned more job opportunities in the south of Ghana as what attracted them from the study area to the south. Children of school going ages who were interviewed as part of return migrants who mentioned job opportunities as reason for migrating stated that, they had information about the availability of menial jobs in towns and cities like Wenchi, Techiman, Kumasi and Accra, hence



their decision to move there since their parents could not provide their basic needs due to poverty. Child migrants amongst return migrants interviewed said they usually engage in washing of dishes for food vendors which is termed as (paawopaa) or head-load carrying (Kayayei) in order to earn some income when they migrate to these places in the south. This confirms Van Der Geest's (2011) findings that, even in colonial times, most early people who migrated voluntarily to the south were influenced by the opportunity to work particularly, in the flourishing cocoa sector. This finding is also in line with GSS (2010) survey which revealed that many young female migrants from northern Ghana get involved in menial jobs like head load carrying or “kayayei” as an adaptive response to poverty. Also, environmental factors like favorable rainfall pattern and fertile lands were mentioned by 13 of the respondents representing 32.4 percent and 5 respondents representing 13 percent respectively. Additionally, 2 respondents representing 5.4 percent and another 2 respondents also representing 5.4 percent of return migrants interviewed said they were attracted by better education services and urban facilities and way of life, hence their resolve to migrate. As is well known by Abedi-Lartey (2016), some people from the Nadowli-Kaleo District where the study was conducted, migrated to the south due to attractions by fertile land and favorable rainfall pattern in the south. An FGD participant had this to say;



Many of the youth (literate or illiterate) aged between 18 and 30 years old usually migrate down south on temporary basis to do “by-day” when the rains are over in this area because at that time, there is no farming here so it becomes difficult for them to get money because there are no alternative work here for them to do. (An FGD Participant-Lawra, 2019)

However according to him,

With time, majority of them begin to establish permanent settlements in rural south, particularly the illiterate ones who could not take up any formal employment back in their hometowns or elsewhere. They begin to acquire farmland and make their own farms in rural south where the rainfall pattern is reliable. (An FGD Participant Lawra, 2019)

This finding is in line with NMP (2016) assertion that in Ghana, internal migration is a result of socio-economic gap caused by inequalities between rural and urban areas of the country.

Table 17: Pull Factors of Migration

Pull Factors	Frequency	Percent (%)
More job opportunities	18	45.9
Favourable rainfall pattern	13	32.4
Arable lands for farming	5	10.8
Better education services	2	5.4
Urban facilities and way of life	2	5.4
Total	40	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019



ages of Return Migrants - Attraction Crosstab

Table 18 is a cross tabulation of **ages of return migrants** and the **factors that attracted** them to their destinations. Data presented in the Table show that migrants below the ages of 39 years constituting 50 percent of the sample, either migrated seasonally in search of menial jobs or for education. While the other 50 percent aged between 30 to 50 years or older are permanent migrants who have either been employed in the formal sector or have established their own farms at the destination. This is in line with the findings of Van der Geest (2011), which stated that rural farmers

from Northwestern Ghana are mainly attracted to their southern destination, especially the Brong Ahafo Region, due to availability of fertile land for farming.

Table 18: Reason for Migrating

	Reason for Migrating					Total	percent
	To farm during the dry season in the north	For fertile lands to farm permanently	For education	In search for job	Government transfer		
Age below							
8-18-29	0	0	2	5	0	8	20
30-49	7	0	0	6	0	12	30
50 or older	0	10	0	0	6	16	40
Total	0	4	0	0	0	4	10
	7	14	2	11	6	40	100

Field Survey, 201

Occupation at Destination.

Table 19 presents the various occupation of household migrants given by household heads as reasons for which members of their households moved to their current destinations. Out of a total

of 46 respondents interviewed, 160 of them representing 65 percent have migrants engaged in menial jobs like; washing of dishes for food vendors (25%), galamsey (25%), and “By-Day”

(16%). In an interview with some return migrants in the Lawra Municipality, one of them attributed her decision to migrate from the area to the existence of menial jobs in cities in southern Ghana.


To get employment/work such as ‘paawopaa or kaayaye’ in Lawra here is not easy, because there are no such opportunities. The existing businesses here are small in scale so the owners are not willing to employ people to work for them because their family members alone can help to run them. But if you travel to



places like Kumasi and Accra, you can find many big businesses looking for people to employ, so when my friends returned with the information that there are several small and big businesses looking for girls to hire, I borrowed some money to go to Kumasi and work. (Return Migrant Lawra, 2019)

Out of the remaining 35 percent, only 4 percent happened to be employees of mining companies or employed in a formal sector. Also, 5 percent are reported to be school children taken along by relatives to be enrolled in a better school in the city. Lastly, the remaining 25 percent have established their own farms in rural south. Another dimension to the causes of migration in the study area was identified as social networks. During a Focus Group Discussion with return migrants, it was revealed that, once a household happens to have a member(s) resident in a particular destination, he or she communicates the existing opportunities within and around the area to his or her kinsmen, thereby attracting them to the place. This corresponds with the network theory of migration in which Massey (1989) believes that migration self-perpetuates once the number of network connections in the region of origin reaches a critical level, because it creates a social structure to sustain the process.

Table 19: Migrant Occupation at Destinations



Migrant Occupation	Frequency	Percentage %
Doing “kaayaye” in the city	62	25.0
By-day on farms	37	16.0
Work for mining companies	11	4.0
Galamsey	62	25.0
To establish a farm	62	25.0
To school	12	5.0
Total	246	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The Presence of Immigrants in the Study Area.

According to GSS (2010) in its population and housing census, a total of 3,777 immigrants live in the Lawra Municipality. But Figure 4 depicts whether or not indigenes are aware of the existence of immigrants in their communities. Out of the total sample of household heads (246 household heads) interviewed, 169 representing 68.7 percent reported the existence of immigrants in their communities. About 77 respondents representing 30.9 percent said they do not have immigrants in their communities (thus, 4 out of the 20 communities sampled, reported the absence of immigrants).

The absence of immigrants in some communities in the study area is related to the absence of major pull factors like fertile lands, good rainfall pattern, social amenities, and job opportunities in the area, as listed during a Focus Group Discussion. Majority of the few immigrants in the area are located in urban communities like Lawra Township, Babile, and Donwine and few rural communities with schools and or health posts. There are however some communities with schools and health facilities but the officials do not reside there due to the absence of certain important amenities like electricity and decent accommodation. Rather, they report to work from other communities or from the municipal capital where social amenities and decent accommodation can be accessed.

A few of the immigrants can be found in communities along the Black Volta due to the economic potential of the river as in dry season irrigation farming and fishing. As reported by UNDP (2010), the Black Volta River and its many tributaries in Lawra Municipality provide irrigation opportunities to support the cultivation of crops throughout the year. Respondents in communities along the Black Volta also disclosed that the area attracts immigrants like Fulani herdsmen due to



the uninterrupted existence of green pastures along the river banks which serve as grazing fields for their livestock during the dry season. This confirms Soeters et al (2017) study on farmer-Fulani pastoralist conflict in the Mamprugu-Moagduri district where they found that, Fulani pastoralists either semi-nomadic or nomadic, drive cattle to rivers for drinking and grazing.

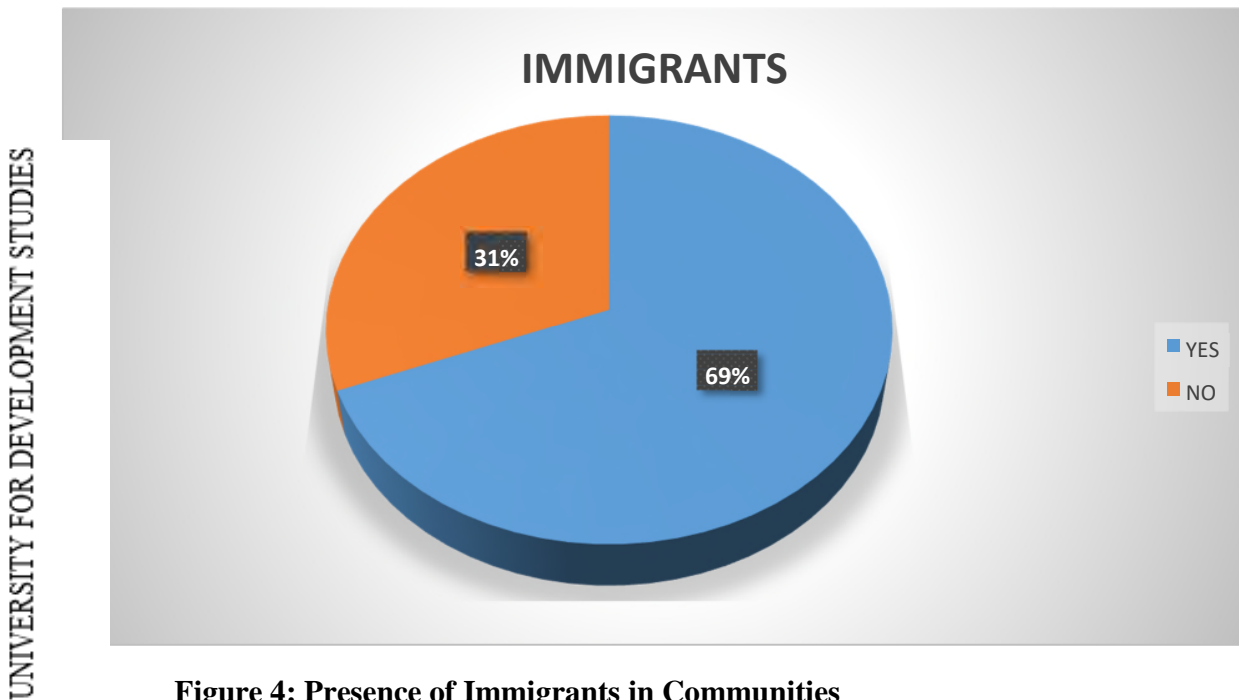


Figure 4: Presence of Immigrants in Communities

eld Survey, 2019



Attraction of Immigrants to the Area.

With regards to the factors that attracted or brought immigrants into the municipality, Table 20 shows that half (50%) of immigrants in the area came because of government postings. 12.5 percent are herdsmen who were attracted by the Black Volta River which is a source of drinking water for their animals and also serves as grazing area during the dry season. 25 percent are traders/businessmen who have come to trade in commodities like groundnut, millet and or have

established other businesses like drinking spot, and provision shops. Finally the remaining 12.5 are also attracted by the Black Volta River as they are fishermen.

Table 20: Factors Attracting Immigrants to lawra municipality

Attraction	Frequency	Percent
Government employment	16	50
Trade	8	25
Black Volta for fishing	4	12.5
Black Volta for grazing	4	12.5
Total	32	100.0

Field survey, 2019

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Occupation of Immigrants

interview of 32 immigrants in the study area revealed that majority of them are government officials (mainly teachers and nurses). Table 21 shows the occupation of immigrants interviewed during the field data collection. From the Table, out of 32 respondents identified as immigrants, 16 of them representing 50.0 percent are government employees whose stay in the Municipality is as a result of government postings rather than by one's volition or desire. Additionally, 8 immigrants representing 25.0 percent are traders while 4 of them, representing 12.5 percent and another 4, also representing 12.5 percent are herdsmen and fishermen respectively. When asked if they will like to spend more years in the municipality, the responses were negative for all respondents who identified themselves as government officials, claiming that economic opportunities that should motivate them to stay, are nonexistent in the Municipality, coupled with harsh environmental conditions like severe and prolonged hamattan, and very hot sun rays during the day. In sum, they cited deterring factors like;

- Harsh weather (Severe Hammattan)
- Unattractive agricultural performance due to unfavorable rainfall pattern and infertile lands.
- Lack of decent houses in rural communities to rent.
- Difficulties in commuting from municipal capital or bigger towns to rural communities for work due to bad roads. etc

A female teacher interviewed as one of the immigrants lamented;

The degree of heat from the sun in this community during the day is very serious and it is even affecting the color of my skin. If we stay here for a long period, all skins will be damaged. (An Immigrant Lawra, 2019)

Another male teacher had this to say;

The lengthy dry season in the area has made farming very unattractive here. Elsewhere, our colleagues are farming to generate some income to support their meagre salaries. (An Immigrant-Lawra, 2019)

Although most immigration policies seeking to raise or maintain current levels of immigration for highly skilled workers are of a national scope, as disclosed by the United Nations (2017), these

policies can be fashioned and replicated at the local level (District and Community level) by putting in place local initiatives aimed at safeguarding the wellbeing of immigrants with high skills in local/rural communities in the municipality. For instance, local communities together with municipal authorities should make efforts to provide decent accommodation for officials who accept postings to work in rural areas. Additionally, conscious government policies aimed at facilitating both economic and social development in rural areas can help salvage the situation.



Out of 16 government employees interviewed, only 3 stated that they are into farming as a secondary employment. But they added that the yield from their farms is usually very low and discouraging particularly when fertilizer is not applied to the crops. In a similar vein, 8 respondents who identified themselves as traders complained of low patronage of commodities traded in the area due to poverty, but are willing to stay and transact business for a while because according to them, they have their peace of mind to go about their businesses in the municipality.

During a Focus Group Discussion with immigrants, the researcher asked why traders in agricultural commodities seems not to exist in the study area as permanent immigrants. The response was that, cultural commodity traders usually come during market days and return at the close of the same hence could not be capture and classified as in-migrants. This confirms what UNDP (2010) and that the Babile and Lawra markets receive traders from within and outside the region each week. These traders come to the Babile market weekly to several livestock and foodstuffs to transport to the south (Ibid). However, for the 4 fishermen and 4 herdsman, as long as they can have access to the Black Volta River and the grasslands along its banks, they will continue to stay in the area.



Even in the dry season I don't have to go too far to get grasses and water for my cattle because I can find both at the river side in this community. (An Immigrant-Lawra, 2019)

Also, a fisherman who happens to be native of a community in neighboring Burkina Faso, a few kilometers across the Black Volta River recounted how rewarding the fishing business (harvesting and sale) has been in the municipality compared to his small community across the river. Interestingly, respondents were divided in their responses to whether or not they are willing to stay

longer in the Municipality. Whiles half of them (50%) were positive in their responses, the other 50 percent responded in the negative, with each group expressing genuine reasons for their stance.

Table 21: Occupations of Immigrants

Occupations of Immigrants	Frequency	Percent (%)
Trading	8	25.0
Fishing	4	12.5
Herding	4	12.5
Government employee	16	50.0
Total	32	100

Field Survey, 2019

Positive Effects (Benefits)

Figure 22 depicts the benefits derived by households or families in the study area from out-migrants/emigrants. For 32.9 percent of the respondents, cash remittances have been a major benefit derived from household migrants within the year. In line with this finding, Rozelle (2003) found that migrant remittances sent home partially pay off the lost labour effects and directly and

indirectly contribute to household income by stimulating crop production in the communities of origin. From the Table, about 24 percent received foodstuffs from migrants, 22.8 percent received clothes, while 12.2 percent received means of transport (bicycle, motorbike etc) and 8.1 percent received roofing sheets and other building materials.

Out-migration has become an important livelihood strategy for majority of households in this municipality through material and financial remittances from migrants. During the lean season, it is usually the foodstuffs and monies remitted



by our relatives who have migrated to Techiman that sustains our families back here. (A Key Informant-Lawra, 2019)

This is in line with Ellis (2000) that migration is one of the main elements for diversifying or spreading the sources of income for rural households, which is often combined with other strategies, such as agricultural intensification and local non-farm activities. It does not also deviate from the migration optimist view of de-Haas (2006) and corroborated by van der Geest (2010) and Boasiako et al. (2014) that in some cases, migration has served as a catalyst for economic

elopment through investment and remittances from migrants.

ing a Focus Group Discussion with opinion leaders, participants added other dimensions of efits derived by a household, family or community for sending out migrants. It was established , when people migrate, it makes available enough land for those left behind to farm and earn e income, supporting Fasoranti (2009) findings in which more than 80% of respondents agreed migration of family members freed more land space for agriculture. Secondly the discussion aled that emigration gives family members, as well as the entire community members the irance that, if one happens to travel down south in future, they have relations to reside with.

s is also in line with network theory on the creation of social capital through pioneer migrants.

o, migrants sometimes return with new farming techniques acquired elsewhere, and many more.

Additionally, out of 40 return migrants interviewed, over 40 percent indicated that, they were either able to build houses with modern materials or renovated dilapidated or wretched houses with proceeds of migration. Also, 25 percent of return migrants interviewed, revealed that they earned some income with which they satisfied their basic needs and needs of their close relations (dependents) like aged parents and or children. Another 25 percent indicated that, they acquired bicycles and or motorbikes for their families using proceeds of jobs they did after migrating from



their communities. Finally only 10 percent and 5 percent of return migrants interviewed were said to have benefited from migration by indicating that they satisfied their curiosity and accessed better schools respectively.

Table 22: Benefits of Migration to the Household

Benefits	Frequency	Percent (%)
Cash	81	32.9
Foodstuff	59	24.0
Clothes	56	22.8
Transport equipment	30	12.2
Covering sheet	20	8.1
Total	246	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Frequency of Migrant Remittances to Family/Household.

the regularity or rate at which migrants send items or cash to family/household, it is shown in Figure 5 that majority of the migrants send items on yearly basis. 153 out of 246 respondents representing over 62 percent of the respondents, stated that they receive items from migrants on yearly basis. 72 representing 29.2 percent, said items are sent to them on quarterly basis, thus every 3 months. While 21 representing 8.6 percent receive items on monthly basis.



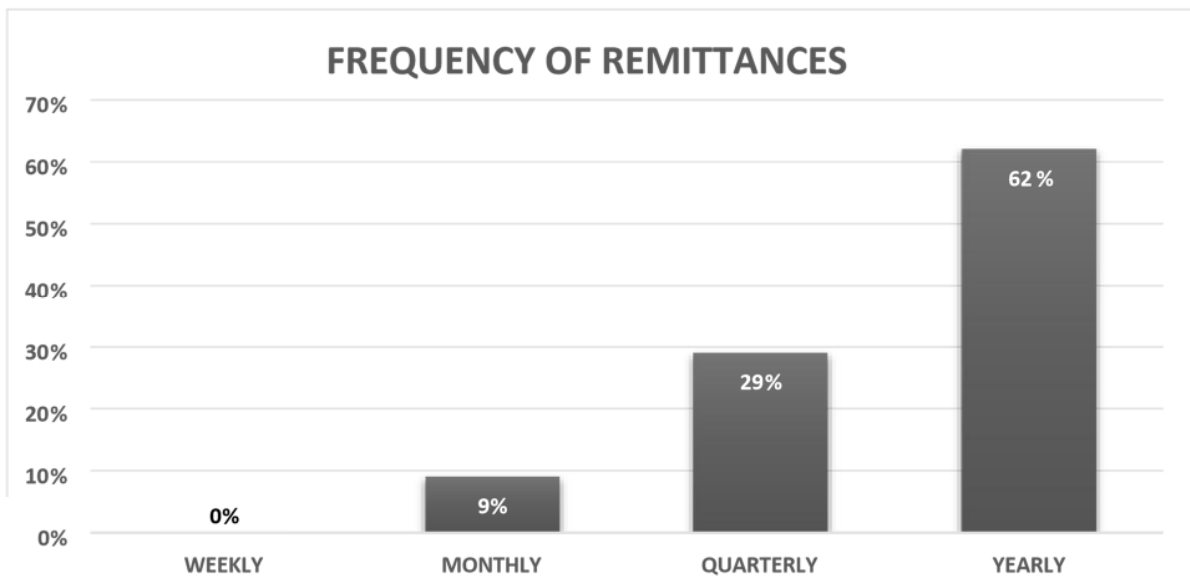


Figure 5: Frequency of Remittances to Households

Source: Field Survey, 2019

itive Effects on the Migrant.

urt from the tangible items migrant households/families and communities receive from rants, Table 23 depicts benefits derived by the migrants (self) from migration as reported by eturn migrants who were interviewed. From the Table, over 62 percent are able to satisfy their y cash requirements through monies acquired from working at their destinations. 32.1 percent secured jobs during their migration missions. According to those who reported having secured jobs for themselves or their relatives, majority of them were engaged in menial jobs like working in ‘chop bars’ (paawopaa), residential security guard (watchman), head porting (Kayayei) etc. Only few of them were engaged by formal institutions like mining companies in Obusai and Tarkwa in the 1990s but are now on retirement. Others secured employment in cocoa and rubber plantation farms in the then Western, Brong Ahafo and Ashanti Regions. Also, 3.3 percent reported having

attained education for themselves and or their relations by migrating from their communities where schools are nonexistent or where schools lack teachers and the logistics required for teaching and learning to effectively take place, to their current destinations. The investigation reported of a school girl explaining how she migrated to stay with her uncle in the city in order to acquire quality education. Finally, only 2.4 percent were reported to have migrated in order to satisfy their curiosity. They migrated to urban centers or cities like Accra and Kumasi where they were able to see things like, the ocean, airport, railways, interchange, tall buildings, and many more.

Table 23: Benefits of migration to the Migrants

Benefits to Migrant	Frequency	Percent (%)
Attained education	2	3.3
Daily cash requirement	25	62.2
Secured job	12	32.1
Satisfied curiosity	1	2.4
Total	40	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 24 highlights the actual percentages of migrants engaged in various income generating activities at their destinations apart from those schooling. Even though majority of them are



engaged in the informal sector thus, farming (46%), menial job (31%) and self-employment (11.7%) with only 5.1% being formally employed, they are able to send some remittances to their families back home.

Table 24: Migrant Occupation at Current Destination

Occupation at Current Destination	Frequency	Percent (%)
Farming	96	46.3
Menial Jobs	65	31.3
Company Work	8	3.7
Government Employment	11	5.1
Self Employed	24	11.7
Schooling	4	1.9
Total	202	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

tribution of Migrants to Community Development

m Table 25, majority of the respondents constituting 76.4 percent refer to the building of better
 ses in the community by migrants as a major contribution to the development of the area.
 litionally, 13.4 percent claim that, individual migrants in their communities sometimes sponsor
 munity projects like repair of boreholes, donation of educational and health logistics etc.
 icularly migrants overseas and those occupying bigger positions in formal institutions in the

. Finally, the remaining 10 percent said migrants contribute monies for development projects
 heir communities. Common example cited was monies contributed to repair community
 borehole.



Table 25: Migrants Contribution to Community Development

Migrants contribution	Frequency	Percent (%)
Build better houses in the community.	188	76.4
Contribute money for community development projects.	25	10.2
Individual migrants sponsor towards community projects.	33	13.4
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019.

Benefits Derived from Immigrants.

Table 26 shows the benefits derived by indigenes from immigrants in the area. Out of a total of 167 respondents who acknowledged the existence of immigrants in their communities, 78 of them representing 46.2 percent stated that, immigrants (skilled) increase the number of staff needed for formal institutions. Secondly, 39 of them representing 23.1 percent stated that, immigrants facilitate trade in agricultural and nonagricultural commodities. Additionally, 30 of them representing 17.9 percent said immigrants contribute to increase in food production. Finally, 22 of them representing 12.8 percent indicated that, immigrants (Fulani herdsmen) help community members with herding of their livestock. Furthermore, interviews with some immigrants identified in some of the 20 selected communities revealed that, 8 out of the total 32 respondents (immigrants) own small businesses in the Municipality, employing between 1 to 5 people from the area. Some of these businesses owned by immigrants are printing press, drinking spots, and small restaurants (chop bar). Additionally, 16 of the respondents, representing 50 percent are government officials providing essential services in areas like agriculture, health, security and education. Also, some of the respondents (immigrants) particularly businessmen indicated that they have built houses in the communities in which they reside, thereby increasing the housing stock in these communities. Plate

5 depicts a modern house built by a return migrant who was living in a very deplorable house depicted by plate 6.



Plate 5: Modern House Built by Return Migrant

Field Observation, 2019.



Plate 6: A Typical Local House in the Municipality

Field Observation, 2019.



Table 26: Benefits Derived from Immigrants

Benefits derived from Immigrants	Frequency	Percent (%)
Increase in staff of formal institutions	78	46.2
Increase in commodity trade	39	23.1
Contribute to increase in food production	30	17.9
Assist in herding of livestock	22	12.8
Total	169	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

Acceptance of Immigrants by Indigenes

the issue of whether respondents (indigenes) will like to have more immigrants coming into their communities, Table 27 shows that 197 of the total sample representing 80.1 percent answered “YES”. While the remaining 49 representing 19.9 percent answered “NO”. For those in favour of immigrants, they believe that their presence in these communities will increase the population and lead to community development because government and development agencies usually take account population in the distribution of development projects. They believe that immigrants



take part in communal labour, contribute money for community development activities and many others.

My community is currently benefiting from several projects including school building, boreholes, and a structure for community gathering because of a rise in the community’s population”. He added that, “government and or politicians like to make friends with communities with large population for purposes of election gains. (Key Informant- Lawra, 2019).

To him and other population proponents, immigrants help to increase population of an area, thereby attracting development from government and other development partners. This assertion is in line with Care International Ghana (2003) report which found that small populations limits formal education opportunities in communities.

However, for the 20 percent of respondents with negative perceptions about immigrants they asserted that immigrants sometimes compete with indigenes for scarce cultivable lands and other insufficient natural resources and amenities in their communities. They also believe that immigrants may come with some diseases and infest members of the community.

Table 27: Attitude towards Immigrants

Acceptance of immigrants	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	197	80.1
No	49	19.9
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019



Negative Effects of Out-migration

On the adverse effects of migration, Table 28 shows that, 52 percent of the respondents stated that active labour force in the area is **lost** to out-migration of the youth. In line with this finding is Yajalin (2015) which found that, migrants sending communities lose the services of the energetic people to migration. Secondly, 14.6 percent of the respondents stated that migration causes school dropout among school children who migrate on their own or those taken along by parents or other relatives.

Hashim (2005) notes that older children (13 years and older) from poor rural communities in northern Ghana migrate to more affluent areas in the south to seek employment. But according to Hunt (2008) the situation affects school decisions and school dropout patterns. The findings further corroborate Hunt (2008) assertion that school-age children often end their schooling in order to migrate and find work when there is an opportunity for children to work and earn money in rural to urban migration. An interview of 10 heads of basic schools in the Municipality revealed that, the negative impact of out-migration on education of children is great. About 80 percent of head

teachers interviewed, reported high incidences of drop-outs among pupils in their schools, with over 60 percent of these drop out cases emanating from migration of children or their parents.

Furthermore, 13 percent said migrants live in very deplorable state due to lack of proper accommodation for them when they get to their destinations. Also, 12 percent revealed that cultural values of their communities are derailed by return migrants, especially those who stay away from their communities of origin for very long period of time. This supports Yajalin (2015) who revealed that one major negative implication of out-migration is the loss of moral values on the part of the returned migrants. Finally, it was reported by 8.1 percent that some migrants contract diseases like

HIV/AIDS and sometimes return to infest others in their place of origin. This corroborates Bosiako

Adom (2014) who observed that “migrants often return home with HIV/AIDS from the place to which they migrate”. In a Focus Group Discussion involving return-migrants, it was revealed that sometimes girls who migrate, return with pregnancies for which the men responsible cannot be traced. On the impact of migration on agriculture, an interview of a key informant revealed that,

Due to out-migration of the youth, output or yield from agricultural production in the municipality has been decreasing over the years until 2017 when the subsidized fertilizer for the planting for food and jobs program was

implemented. He added that “immigration of nomadic herdsmen in some communities has however made it difficult for some farmers to cultivate on certain agric lands due to destruction by cattle, thereby reducing output (Key Informant, 2019)

Table 28: Negative Effects of Migration

Negative effects	Frequency	Percent (%)
Loss of cultural values among migrants	30	12.0
Loss of agricultural labor force	128	52.0
Lack of accommodation for migrants.	32	13.0
School dropout	36	14.6
Contraction of diseases (HIV/AIDS)	20	8.1
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

In relation to the negative effect of migration, Table 29 shows the effect of migration on school attendance in the municipality. From the Table, 80 percent of heads of basic school reported high incidence of school dropout due to migration. The remaining 20 percent reported that, migration results in regular absenteeism among children whose parents are away because many of these

children left behind usually struggle to meet their basic educational needs like stationery, food, and air or purchase of uniform since their parents are not with them.

Table 29: Effect of out migration on School Attendance

Effect	Frequency	Percent (%)
School drop-out	8	80
Absenteeism	2	20
Total	10	100

Field Survey, 2019



Negative Effect of Migration on Participation in Social Events

On the negative impact of out-migration on participation in social events like funerals, naming ceremonies etc in the study area, 159 representing 65 percent of the respondents interviewed stated that there is an adverse impact. The remaining 87 respondents representing 35 percent migration has no negative impact on participation in social activities as shown in Figure 6. For those who agreed that migration has a negative impact on participation, they explained that some family members fail to turn out for family gatherings and funerals due to cost of transportation back to their hometowns. According to those who said there is no impact, they explained that migrants in these communities usually return to participate during funerals, and festivities. For instance, respondents provided evidence to this by stating that the massive crowd usually recorded during 'Kobine' festival is an indication of the return of migrants to participate in community activities. According to them, the impact is rather positive since these return migrants do not only participate by only being present, but participate financially by spending in the local economy. However, in sum, the results show that majority of respondents believe migration adversely affect participation in social activities, confirming Abeedi-Lartey (2016), whose finding showed 75% of respondents stating that migration negatively affect community participation.

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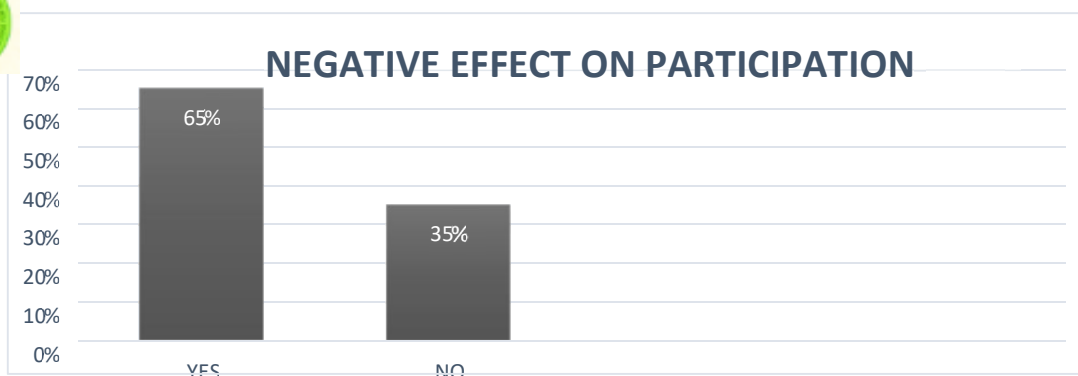


Figure 6: Negative Effect on Community Participation

Field Survey, 2019

Negative Effect of Migration on Community Mobilization

Figure 7 Shows that 216 respondents, representing 87.8 percent believe migration has an impact on mobilizing community people for development work. According to them it becomes difficult to raise reasonable number of energetic youth for community development work during the dry season in the area given that it is the period when majority of the youth migrate down south to work for money since there is no rain in the area at this period of the year. This confirms Abedi-Tortey (2016) findings in Sankana in the Nadowli-Kaleo district that rural-urban migration has a negative effect on mobilization of community for development work. Thus, when members of the community are mobilized for community activities like construction of school, repairing damaged bridge, etc, the turnout is usually low and as a result, they are not able to achieve any meaningful result because the youth have migrated to the urban centres. Only 12.3 percent said mobilization for community work is not affected by out-migration.

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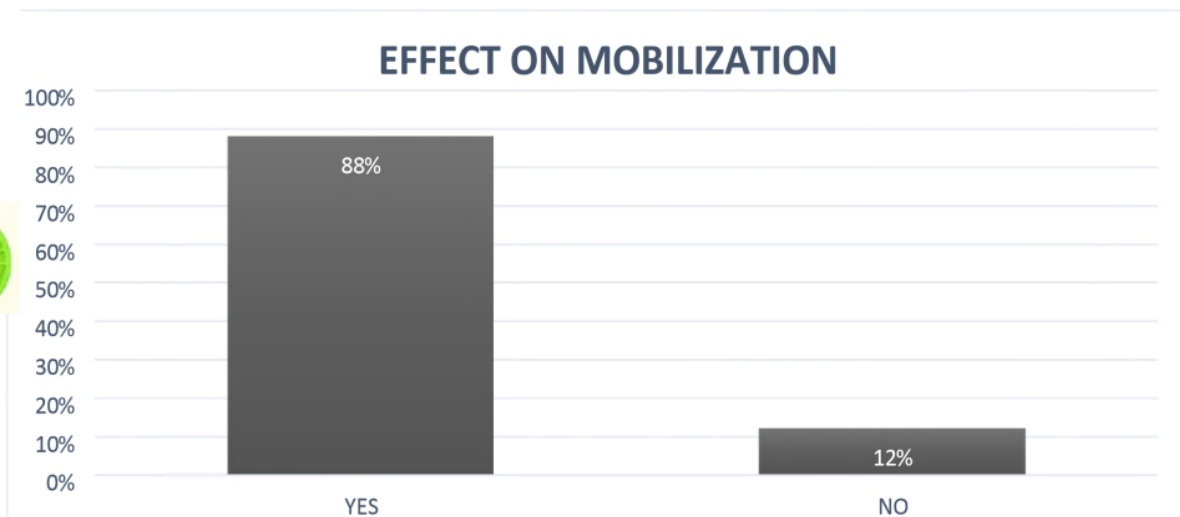


Figure 7: Effects of Migration on Community Mobilization

Field Survey, 2019

Attitude of Return Migrants towards Community Work.

Table 30 depicts the extent to which respondent agree or disagree that when migrants return after several years of stay at their destinations, they participant in one way or the other during community development work. The Table shows that majority of the respondents interviewed do not agree that return migrants contribute significantly to development of their communities. About 60 percent of respondents expressed disagreement with the assertion, thus 12.2 percent strongly disagree while 47.2 percent disagree. Many of these respondents who expressed disagreement with assertion stated that majority of these return migrants particularly, the youth refuse to partake communal work. According to a participant in a Focus Group Discussion involving opinion lers,

The boys and girls who return to the community after migrating to Kumasi, prefer to bath and wear nice dresses and roam about in the community, rather than taking part in communal labour. Because some of them return with a few items like TV, bicycle, and sometimes motorbikes, they feel them better people than other community members. (Focus Group Participant-Lawra, 2019)



However, about 40 percent of the respondents expressed agreement with the assertion that return migrants contribute significantly to community development. According to this group, return migrants educate their peers or prospective migrants on the dangers and opportunities associated with migration and this leads them to taking informed decision on migration.

Table 30: Perception about Return Migrants

Agree/Disagree	Frequency	Percent (%)
Strongly disagree	30	12.2
Disagree	116	47.2
Agree	90	36.6
Strongly agree	10	4.1
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

ceptions or Views about Migration in Lawra Municipality.

le 31 shows the perceptions of people in the municipality about migration. About 61 percent he respondents interviewed perceive migration (both out-migration and in-migration) as Good

11 percent perceive the phenomenon as Very Good. However, 26.8 percent perceive the nomenon as Bad. The remaining 1.2 percent perceive migration as Very Bad. For those who

ceive migration as good and very good, some stated that, in-migration increases population of abitants, thereby attracting economic activities including projects by government and non-

ernmental agencies. It turned out in a Focus Group Discussion involving opinion leaders in the ly area that, the influx of immigrants in the area has brought several benefits to the indigenes

onomically. A participant in the FGD testified;



To me, immigrants are very important for community growth, because teachers posted to a school in my community, buy my pito every day, making the pito business a very rewarding one. The indigenes alone previously are usually not able to buy all the pito when I send it out to the daily market. But now the situation has changed. I wish more of these strangers come to settle here with us. (Focus Group Participant Lawra, 2019)

Another participant of the FGD cited the example of the attainment of a municipal status by the then Lawra District in 2018 as a product of population increase partly due to the influx of immigrants. On the issue of out-migration, they perceive the phenomenon as an opportunity to make cultivable lands available for those left behind to farm on. Also according to some respondents, when a household has its member working elsewhere, that household is sure of getting some support in times of financial difficulty or need. They see migration as an insurance against income risk, confirming Asante (1995) who noted that migrants in urban areas remit their relations

ural areas and contribute significantly to the well-being of family members resulting in the reduction of the well-being gap between rural and urban communities. Adaawen and Owusu (2013) support this view and found that, migrants bear strong anticipation of earning income to be able to send home as remittances to cushion and better the living conditions of relations at the home community. Boakye-Yiadom (2008) confirmed this in a similar study, which concluded that the process of rural-urban migrants not only affects migrants but also affects the well-being of their families and families through remittances.

Conversely, those against the phenomenon stated that, in-migration of foreigners, particularly herdsmen bring conflicts, adding that animals of these herdsmen sometimes destroy their crops

leading to conflicts between farm owners and masters of these herdsmen and sometime between farm owners and herdsmen themselves. Also, on out-migration, over 27 percent of the respondents against migration said they are usually faced with labour constraints in carrying out agricultural activities when the energetic youth migrate. In the view of the Municipal Director of Agric, migration has a negative impact on agric because it leads to shortage of labor.



Table 31: People’s Perception about Migration in General.

View	Frequency	Percent (%)
Very good	27	11.0
Good	150	61.0
Bad	66	26.8
Very bad	3	1.2
Total	246	100.0

Field Survey, 2019

Managing Migration in the Municipality

iving Maximum Benefits from Migration.

le 32 shows how communities can derive maximum benefits from migration and out-migration particular. In a ranked order the data presented in the Table show that, 81.7 percent of ondsnts believe that the creation of migrant fund to finance community projects could ifificantly benefit the communities and the municipality as a whole, 13. 8 percent believe that seholds should spend portion of cash remitted on capital goods. Additionally, 0.8 percent stated return migrants should serve as mentors to prospective migrants in the community. While the



aining 3.7 percent stated that maximum benefits could be derived from migrants if annual ts/festivals are organized in various communities so that migrants would return home and

spend in the local economy.

Table 32: Deriving Maximum Benefits from migration

Local Strategy	Frequency	Percent
Creation of migrants’ fund for development financing	201	81.7
Return migrants as mentors to prospective migrants	2	0.8
Annual feast to bring home migrants to spend in local economy	9	3.7
Household should spend portion of cash remitted on capital goods	34	13.8
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019

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Minimizing the Adverse Effects of Migration

The goal of the National migration policy of Ghana is to ensure that “the benefits of migration are maximized while minimizing the adverse impact of migration”. Therefore, this aspect of the study seeks to discover local strategies to ensuring that this goal is met. Respondents’ views on how to mitigate the adverse impact of migration are shown in Table 33 as follows; 43.1 percent of respondents think that, if migrants are encouraged to support education of children left behind, as well as those who remain in the home area, the problem of school dropout, absenteeism and poor academic performance of pupils associated with migration will be eradicated. 31.7 percent believe that encouraging migrants to invest in their local economy by establishing businesses in the local areas will serve as a source of income for family or household members left behind. 11.8 percent stated that encouraging migrant youth to learn and adopt good behaviors out there rather than the bad ones will solve the issue of negative behaviors usually portrayed by return migrants particularly the youth. Another 11.0 percent believe that proper education for migrant youth particularly girls could prevent them from the dangers of rape, unwanted pregnancies and diseases usually confronted with out there. Finally,

the remaining 2.4 percent stated that households should caution migrants to stay away from trouble (illegal activities) so that they do not fall into trouble.

Table 33: Minimizing Adverse Effects of Migration

Mitigating Measures	Frequency	Percent (%)
Encouraging migrants to support education of their children.	106	43.1
Encouraging migrants to invest in their local economy	78	31.7
Encouraging migrant youth to adopt good behaviors out there.	29	11.8
Educating the youth particularly girls on the dangers out there	27	11.0
Caution migrants to stay away from illegal activities.	6	2.4
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019

Interventions by Local Authorities to Minimize Migration in the Study Area

Table 34 presents measures that can be put in place by local authorities to minimize the rate at which energetic youth from the area migrate. In a ranked order, over 50 percent of the respondents felt that cultivable lands should be made assessable to the youth, 19 percent said practices that discriminate against vulnerable group in the area should be abolished (eg; tenure system), 16 thinks that potential migrants should be educated on the dangers associated with migration, 8.9 percent are of the view that certain traditional practices in the area should not be forced on the youth, and finally, 8.9 percent said some community leadership positions should be reserved for the youth and females.



Table 34: Local Interventions to Minimize Migration from the Municipality

Local Interventions	Frequency	Percent (%)
Make cultivable lands easily accessible by the youth	124	50.4
Abolish practices that discriminate against vulnerable people	47	19
Reserves some community leadership positions for the youth	40	16.3
Abolish unpleasant traditional practices in the area	22	8.9
Create awareness on the migration challenges at destinations	13	5.3
Total	246	100.0

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posed Interventions by Governmental and Non-Governmental Organizations.

en respondents were asked to state what in their opinions should be done by external bodies the government and non-governmental organizations to minimize the rate at which the youth rate, the following were responses given as shown in Table 35. In a ranked order, the Table ws 40.2 percent of the respondents were of the view that, the construction of irrigation dams in area will motivate the youth to stay and farm during the dry season. In an FGD, a discussant (a season gardener around a dam in the municipality) stated that dry season farming has been very



eficial to him and- his family since they are able make some income that sustains them financially throughout the period. Creation of employment opportunities (25.2%), agricultural support in the rural areas (12.6%), provision of social amenities (11.8%), skills training programs for the youth (6.1%), provision of credit facilities for rural farmers and businesses (4.1%). During a one on one encounter with a key informant, he outlined the following as interventions to minimize outmigration in the area;

- Provision of simple farm machinery to reduce drudgery in farming. He reported that the assembly has only one tractor for ploughing of farmland during the farming season. This is woefully inadequate given the population proportion (about 80%) engaged in crop farming.
- Better market for farm produce. During an FGD, his appeal was validated by a community chief and farmer who revealed that, sorghum production in the area has become profitable because of the ready market at Guinness Ghana because of price stability. However, others like millet, maize, groundnut etc. are bedeviled with uncertainties in terms of pricing making it impossible for farmer to adequately plan.

Provision of irrigation facilities/equipment for off-season farming. During a group meeting at Orbili community with dry season farmers along the Black Volta River, it was revealed that, though some youth in the area remain in these communities to farm during the dry season, majority of them still migrate due to the ordeal these farmers pass through to draw water from the river to their gardens or farms to water crops.

Provision of social amenities for rural folks. It was observed that, over 90 percent of communities in the area are not connected to the capital by tarred roads, over 20 percent lacks electricity and over 30 percent covers up to 5 kilometers or more to get to the nearest health post or basic school.



Table 35: External Initiatives

Proposed Interventions	Frequency	Percent (%)
Construction of irrigation dams	99	40.2
Creation of employment opportunities	62	25.2
Agricultural support	31	12.6
Provision of social amenities	29	11.8
Skills training programs for the youth	15	6.1
Credit facilities for farmer	10	4.1
Total	246	100

Field Survey, 2019.



CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction.

This chapter comprises summaries of relevant findings of the research work, conclusions drawn, and some significant recommendations made by the researcher. In a systematic way, findings were discussed bearing in mind the research questions of the study. The chapter draws conclusions from the findings and makes recommendations that could help salvage the situation in the Lawra municipality. Focusing the study on eliciting information on the causal factors associated with ration in the study area, a descriptive survey design was adopted. A sample size calculator developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was used to obtain a sample of 264 respondents from a population of 9,200 household heads who are 20 years old or older and have been staying in the municipality for at least 5 years using a multistage sampling technique. Researcher administered questionnaire and interview guide were principally used to gather primary data from respondents. Eventually, 246 out of 264 questionnaires administered were retrieved and analyzed, indicating a very high response rate of 95%. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 21) was used as the main data analysis software to analyze field data quantitatively and presented in tables, graphs and figures, frequencies and percentages while chi-square statistics was deployed to test research hypothesis stated. The major findings of the study revealed that; the issue of out-migration among the youth and children from the study area has a high tendency to affect behaviour and lifestyle, education, productivity in agriculture among others may in the long term, retard social and economic development of the study area.



5.1 Causes of Migration in Lawra Municipality

Findings in chapter four revealed several factors accounting for out-migration in the study area. The results put forward various push and pull factors facilitating the phenomenon in the area. The area is bedeviled with a variety of push factors as shown in Table 20. Based on responses gathered from 246 household heads in the study area, 55.3 percent mentioned unfavorable rainfall pattern as a major push factor fueling migration in the area. Out of the remaining respondents interrogated, 28 percent, 5.3 percent, another 5.3 percent, 3.3 percent, and 2.8 percent mentioned lack of employment opportunities, lack of electricity, bad cultural practices, and poor education services respectively as push factors in the study area.

Priority of the respondents perceive unfavorable rainfall pattern and lack of employment opportunities as the major driving forces facilitating people's movement from the area. In a Focus group Discussions involving opinion leaders, it was revealed that the consequences of these two or prevailing factors is poverty, hence the motivation to migrate to seek greener pastures where. This is why the UNDP (2010) reported that, in the Lawra Municipality, 70% of people are underemployed because, although they are engaged in some form of economic activity, such as farming, most of them are willing to take extra work, but cannot find such work. This also

confirms why there is high incidence of poverty in the municipality as reported by the UNDP (2010) survey in the area. The UNDP (2010) reported a 100 percent poverty incidence in the Lawra area with an estimated per capita income of GHC 0.87=USD 0.87, as was the prevailing exchange rate. With regards to social amenities, findings in this study revealed 5.3 percent of the respondents mentioned lack of electricity, Lack good drinking water (3.3%) and Lack of good schools (2.8%) as major push factors. The GSS (2010) survey showed that only about 26.9 percent of households in the city had access to electricity. In addition, according to UNDP (2010), more than 75% of



people in the region did not receive electricity as of 2010. Finally, bad traditional practices was mentioned by about 5.3 percent of the respondents as a push factor.

With regards to the pull factors, majority of the study respondents mentioned the existence of more job opportunities (33.3%), favorable rainfall pattern (28.0%) and fertile lands (26%) in the southern part of the country as the major attractions for the people in the study area. Other pull factors alluded to by the study are better education services (8.1%) and urban facilities and way of life (4.1%).

The evidences as shown in the primary data and those gathered from existing literature with regards environmental, economic, social and cultural factors, explain why the youth migrate from the study area.

On the other hand, the existence or presence of immigrants in the study area was found to be minimal particularly in rural communities within the municipality. Many of the communities where immigrants are hosted are semi urban towns like Lawra Township, Babile, Domwine and Eremon-gzu where majority of these immigrants are working in formal institutions like schools, health centres, agriculture, forestry, and security agencies. An interview of 32 immigrants revealed that majority of them are government employees (50.0%). The rest are traders (25.0%), fishermen (12.5%) and farmers (12.5%). The low incidence of in-migration in the area shows that, the prevailing environmental, economic and social conditions in the study area do not attract people to the area, rather, they force people out of the municipality.

5.2 Benefits of Migration

Benefits derived from migration as gathered in this study are grouped into personal benefits to the migrant, benefits to the family or household and benefits to the community or Municipality as a whole. The personal benefits as spelt out by 40 return-migrants included; ability to satisfy daily



cash requirements (60.3%), secured a job (33.2%), satisfied curiosity (10%) and accessed better schools (5%). On the household or family scale, majority of the respondents identified cash remittance (32.9%) as the major form of benefit derived from sending a member(s) out as a migrant(s) though the frequency of remittance to family is low as shown in Figure 5. For about 24%, their households benefit from migration through foodstuffs received from migrants. Also 12.2% receive means of transport from relations who have migrated elsewhere to work. Finally, 8.1% benefited from migration through the building and or renovation of houses with migrant

ittances or building materials sent by migrants.

he community level, 76.4 percent of respondents alluded to the building of better houses in the munity as a communal benefit since it beautifies the community. Also, 13.4 percent stated that, vidual migrants in their communities sometimes sponsor community projects like repair of holes, donation of educational and health logistics. Finally, the remaining 10 percent say rants contribute monies for development projects in their communities.

the benefits derived from immigrants in the study area, the study found that in-migration leads ncrease in staff of formal institutions (46.2%) example schools, clinics, etc, increase in omodity trade (23.1%), contribute to increase in food production (17.9), and assist in herding ivestock (12.8).



5.2.1 How People Perceive Migration in the Study Area

As to whether migration is good or bad, majority of the respondents perceive the phenomenon as desirable/good (72%) basing their opinion on the various benefits as spelt out in the main findings. Thus 61% said it is very good, and 11% said it is good. For the few who perceive the phenomenon

as bad/undesirable (28%) also relating their argument to the challenges that migrants usually are confronted at their destinations. Whiles 26% said it is bad, only 1.2% said it is very bad.

5.3 Negative Effects of Migration

The adverse consequences of migration as shown in Table 22 usually manifest on the individual migrant, on his/her household/family or on the community as a whole. On the issue of out-migration, the major findings revealed majority of the respondents (52.0%) pointing to the loss of

cultural labour force due to migration of the youth whiles 14.6 stated that, migration adversely affect the area through school dropout among children who migrate or those left behind by parents.

the impact of out-migration on social participation and mobilization for community development work, the findings showed that there both are adversely affected by the phenomenon.

majority of the respondents said there is a negative effect on participation in social events (65%) whiles a few of them answered in the opposite (35%). Similarly, regarding community

mobilization, majority of the respondents said it is significantly affected by out-migration, particularly of the youth as 77% held this view as against 23% who said there are no adverse

sequences on mobilization for community work.

With reference to in-migration, the adverse effects in the study area are minimal as discussed in a

focus group discussion involving opinion leaders. It was revealed during the FGD that immigrants

who come as farmers sometimes compete with locals for farmland. Also, it was revealed that

immigrant herdsmen sometimes intentionally or unintentionally allow their livestock to graze on

farms of indigenes thereby creating conflicts between farm owners and herdsmen or masters of these herdsmen.

5.4. Managing Migration for Maximum Benefits

Minimizing the Adverse Effects of Migration

To minimize the negative effects of migration, the study identifies the following as major mitigating measures as proposed by respondents;

1. Encouraging migrants to support education of children left behind, as well as those taken along
2. Encouraging migrants to invest in their local economy
3. During a focus group discussion, it was added that the youth, particularly girls should be educated on the dangers out there.

Maximizing Benefits in Migration

To maximize benefit in migration, the following were proposed;

1. Migrants account should be setup to finance basic community development activities (81.7%)
2. Household should spend portions of cash remitted on capital goods (13.8%)
3. Annual feast to attract migrants' home to spend in the local economy (8%)

Interventions to Minimize Migration in the Municipality

Local and external interventions put forward through interviews and FGDs conducted in the Municipality were as follows; locally, majority of the respondents suggested that, cultivable lands should be easily accessed by the youth (50.4%), practices that reinforce discrimination against vulnerable groups should be abolished in our communities (19%) and reserves some community leadership positions for the youth (16%).



Interventions by External Bodies

External bodies like national government and non-governmental organizations also have roles in ensuring that migration in the municipality is properly managed. Majority of the people (40.2%) believe that if irrigation dams are constructed for dry season farming many of the youth will stay and farm during the period. Others proposed creations of employment opportunities (25%) through building industries in the municipality, agricultural support for farmers (12.6%), provision of social amenities to retain professionals and minimize out migration of the youth (11.8%) and skills training programs for the youth to enable them set-up their own businesses and employ others (11.4%).

Conclusion

As seen in the conceptual framework for the study, presented in chapter two, migration is influenced by certain prevailing conditions at the place of origin (push factors) and condition at the destination that are nonexistent at the place of origin (pull factors). These conditions, usually regarded as push and pull factors should therefore be targeted in any attempt to address the issue of migration in a given area.

5.6 Recommendations

This study reveals some interesting findings/results upon which significant policies and recommendations can arise. Consistent with the major findings of this thesis, the policy recommendations prescribed include;

1. From the study it was revealed that, the people are willing to engage in all-year-round agricultural production, however, given the unreliable nature of rainfall in the area, farming is undertaken once



in a whole year. It is therefore recommended that irrigation dams be constructed at least 1 for each sub-district structure (area councils) under the government's One District One Factory programme. Also, those already into dry season gardening along the Black Volta River should be supported by the municipal assembly with water drawing machines to assist them draw more water from the river to irrigate their farms. This will help attract more youth in the area to dry season farming rather than migrating down south.

2. Secondly, given that the major positive effect of migration on migrant households is remittance in form of cash usually received from migrants, it is recommended that household earmark portions of the money for capital investments that can have long lasting impact on the household. instance portions of the money can be used to start small business and also pay school fees of dren left behind by the migrant.
- rdly, it is recommended that local authorities including chiefs and assembly members create a rant's fund as suggested by a section of the respondents to raise some money for developmental vities in the various communities.
- tly, the study recommends that in future a comparative study should be conducted to find out variation in livelihood status of migrants' and non-migrants households in the study areas.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLDS SURVEY.

Dear respondent, I am seeking information to contribute to understanding of the effects of migration on socio-economic development in the lawra municipality, as part of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Development Studies at the University for Development Studies. The benefits of this study may not be realized immediately, however the ly can contribute to enhancing knowledge on migration and development and suggest improved cies directions. I wish to assure you that all data/information given by you will be treated fidentially. Therefore, I shall be grateful if you can provide as much as possible, relevant rmation necessary for the study.

PART ONE: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Age of Respondent:

1. 20-24
2. 25-29
3. 30-34
4. 35-39
5. 40 and above.

Sex:

1. Male
2. Female

Marital status:

1. Single
2. Married
3. Divorced
4. Widowed

4. Educational Status

1. No formal education
2. Primary education
3. Secondary level
4. Post-secondary
5. Tertiary

5. Length of stage in the community.

1. 5-10
2. 11-19
3. 20 and above



6. Main Employment type:
7. Secondary Employment:
8. Number of children:
 1. 0- 5
 2. 6-10
 3. More than 10
9. How many are you in this household?
10. How many migrants come from this household?
11. Were the migrants employed before migrating?

1. Yes ()
2. No ()

If yes, what type of employment/occupation were they engaged in?

1. Main Employment:
2. Secondary Employment:

PART TWO: MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

What are the main the economic activities in this community?

Farming

Trading

Wood charring

Pottery

5. Firewood collection
6. Cloth weaving
7. Others specify.....

14. What other minor economic activities do people in this community also engage in?

1. Fishing



- 2. Petty trading
- 3. Shear butter making
- 4. Others specify.....

15. Which of the main economic activities mentioned in Q12 are mainly done by men in this community?

.....

Which of the economic activities mentioned in Q12 are mainly done by women?

.....

Which of the economic activities mentioned in Q12 are done by both men and women in this community

.....

How long do people in this community engage in the major economic activity mentioned in Q12?

- 1. All year-round
- 2. Seasonal
- 3. In one particular month or week.
- 4. Others specify.....



PART THREE: PERCEIVED CAUSES OF MIGRATION PARTICULARLY FROM RURAL AREAS.

19. Which of the following are lacking in this community?

- 1. Electricity
- 2. Good drinking water
- 3. School
- 4. Health post

Good roads

Fertile lands

Employment opportunities

Others specify.....

In your opinion, which of the following factors account for the out-migration of people in this area?

Check all that apply

Famine

Poor health services

Poor education services

4. poor quality of housing

5. Poor crop yield

6. Unemployment

7. Others specify.....

21. In your opinion, what factors in THIS AREA force people to move to other places?

1. Lack of employment opportunities



- 2. Lack of good roads
- 3. Unfavorable environmental conditions like rainfall pattern
- 4. Lack of electricity
- 5. Lack of portable water
- 6. Lack of proper health services
- 7. Lack of good schools
- 8. Lack of access to credit

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Bad traditional or cultural practices

Poor/lack of telecommunication and internet service.

Others specify

In your opinion, what factors attract the migrants of this area to the OTHER AREAS?

Check all that apply

More job opportunities

Better health services

Better education services

Urban facilities and way of life

5. Others (specify)

23. From your family's point of view, what benefits will the family derive from family members who migrate from here to other areas?

1. Increased sources of family income

2. Increased family income

3. Helps family to overcome economic and investments challenges in the rural areas.



4. Others: Specify

24. Have you ever migrated from this community to work elsewhere over the last five (5) years?

(If the answer is No, skip Q 23).

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

25. If yes to Q 23, why did you migrate?

- 1.
-
-
-

Do you consider migrating this year or in the near future?

- Yes
- 2. No.

If YES, give reason(s) why you want to move.

-
-

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PART FOUR: EFFECTS OF MIGRATION ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF LAWRA

28. What do migrants from your family send home?

- 1. Money
- 2. Foodstuffs
- 3. Clothes
- 4. Other.....

29. How often do they send items to the family at home?

- 1. Weekly

- 2. Monthly
- 3. Every three months (quarterly)
- 4. Yearly
- 5. Others specify.....

30. In which other way(s) has out-migration affected you positively?

- 1. Attained education
- 2. Daily cash requirement
- 3. Satisfied curiosity
- 4. Bought a bicycle
- 5. Brought some food home
- 6. Roofed house with zinc
- 7. Secured jobs
- 8. Other (specify).....

Are there immigrants in this community?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No
- 3. I don't know

NB; if "No" skip Q31 and Q32

If yes, what in your opinion attracted them to this community?

.....

In which ways has this community benefitted from immigrants/foreigners?

- 1. As staffs of formal institutions
- 2. Contribute to Increase in food production
- 3. Increase in commodity trade
- 4. Others specify.....

34. Will you be happy to have (more) immigrants/foreigners coming into your community? Please give reason(s) for your answer.

- 1. Yes

(.....)



2.No

(.....)

35. In which way(s) has out-migration affected you negatively?

- 1. Loss of cultural values
- 2. School dropout
- 3. Rape
- 4. Lack of accommodation
- 5. Poor family planning
- 6. Lack of meaningful jobs
- 7. Contracted diseases (HIV/AIDS)
- 8. Other (specify).....

To what extent do you **agree** or **disagree** that return migrants contribute significantly to community development?

- 1. Strongly disagree
- 2. Disagree
- 3. Not sure
- 4. Agree
- 5. Strongly agree

In which ways do migrants contribute to community development?

- Build better houses in the community
- Contribute money for community development projects
- Some individual migrants sponsor community projects

Others.....



Will you encourage out-migration among the people in your community?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

39. Give reason(s) for your answer in question for Q36 above

40. In your opinion has migration of people from your village into the cities had any impact on agricultural activities?

- 1. Yes ()
- 2. No ()

41. If yes, is the impact **positive** or **negative**?

- 1. Positive
- 2. Negative

NB. If negative, skip Q40, move to Q41

42. If positive, how does migration positively affect agriculture in the community?

- 1. Increase in land available for farming.
- 2. Migrants send home farm implements

Migrants send home money for purchase of farm implements

Migrants return with new farming techniques

Others.....

If negative, in which of the following ways does migration affect agriculture in the community?

Shortage of farm labour

Low farm yield

Decrease household income from farming

Other:

In your opinion, has migration had any impact on family farm incomes in the village?

- 1. Yes ()
- 2. No ()

45. If yes, please explain:

- 1. Increased farm incomes as a result of high productivity
- 2. Decreased farm incomes as a result of low productivity.....
- 3. Farm income remain unchanged
- 4. Others (specify).....



46. In your opinion does migration have any positive impact on **children’s schooling** in the community?

- 1. Yes 2. No

NB: If No skip Q45

47. If yes, in which **positive ways** does migration affect schooling of children?

- 1. Migrant parents **sent money to pay fees** of children left behind
2. Migrant parents send **foodstuff**

Parents move with their children to **enroll them in better schools.**

Others specify.....

Does migration have negative impact on Children’s School in the community?

- 1. Yes 2. No

NB: if no skip Q47

If yes, in what negative ways does migration affect childrens schooling?

Children are not given the parenting/care they deserve

High rate of school dropout due to improper parental care.

Frequent absenteeism by children of migrants

Some children migrate instead of being in school

- 5. Poor performance of children of migrant parents
6. Others specify.....

50. In your opinion has migration had any influence on the behaviour of the youth in your community?

- 1. Yes 2. No



51. If yes, in which ways?

- 1. Bad dressing habit
- 2. Premarital sex
- 3. Smoking and taking of hard drugs
- 4. They participate in communal labour
- 5. They do not participate in communal labour
- 6. They contribute money community development

They refuse to contribute money community development

Other specify.....

In your opinion, what should be done to ensure that the youth stay back and contribute to development in their localities?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



In your view, will you say migration is **good or bad** to your household/community?

- 6. 1. Very Good 2. Good 3. Bad 4. Very bad 5. Other specify.....

54. Please give reason(s) for your answer in Q50

.....

.....

55. In what ways can your community derives maximum benefits from migration?

- 1. Migrants fund/account should be setup to finance basic community development works.

2. Return migrants should serve as mentors to prospective migrants in the community.
 3. Annual feast to attract migrants back home to spend in the local economy.
 4. Household should spend a portion of cash remittances on capital goods.
 5. Others specify
56. What can be done to minimize the adverse effects of migration on both migrant and community?

1. Educating the youth particularly girls on the risks out there

Encouraging migrant youth to learn and adopt good behaviors out there rather than bad ones.

Households should caution migrants to stay away from trouble (illegal activities)

Encouraging migrants to support their children's education (those left behind and those taken along)

Encouraging migrants to invest in the local economy (capital support for agric and business locally)

Others specify.....

What in your view should be done by the government to reduce the rate at which people, particularly, the youth and children migrate from the Municipality?

Provide social amenities (electricity, hospitals, water, good roads etc)

2. Creation of employment opportunities
3. Provision of credit facilities
4. Agricultural support (making agriculture more attractive through the provision of incentives such as farm inputs, seeds and free extension services)
5. Assistance for rural businesses



6. Create avenues to build capacity of rural youth through skills training (establish vocational training centres)

7. Others specify.....

58. What can be done by local authorities to minimize migration in the municipality?

1. Abolish unpleasant/bad cultural/traditional practices

2. Make cultivable lands easily accessible by the youth

3. Abolish practices that discriminate against vulnerable groups (women & children)

Give community leadership positions to youth (particularly women)

Potential migrants should be told the dangers one could encounter at his/her destination.

Others specify

Thank you for your time and responses.



APPENDIX 2.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RETURN MIGRANTS

Dear respondent, I am seeking information to contribute to understanding of the effects of migration on socio-economic development in the Lawra Municipality, as part of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Development Studies at the University for Development Studies. The benefits of this study may not be realized immediately; however the study can contribute to enhancing knowledge on migration and development and suggest improved directions. I wish to assure you that all data/information given by you will be treated confidentially. Therefore, I shall be grateful if you can provide as much as possible, relevant information necessary for the study.

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PART I: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Age of Respondent:

- 1. Below 30yrs
- 2. 31yrs- 40yrs
- 3. Above 40yrs

Sex:

- 1. Male
- 2. Female

Educational Status



1. No formal education

- 2. Up to primary education
- 3. Secondary level
- 4. Post-secondary
- 5. Tertiary
- 4. Main Employment type:
- 5. Secondary Employment:

6. Marital status:

- 1. Single 2. Married

7. Number of children:

- 1. 0- 5 2. 6-10 3. More than 10

8. How many migrants come from this household?

9. Were all of you employed before migrating?

- 1. Yes () 2. No ()

If yes, what type of employment/occupation were they engaged in?

1. Main Employment:

2. Secondary Employment:.....

PART TWO

Where do you usually migrate to?

The district/regional capital

Rural south

Urban south

Others specify

Why do you migrate to this place instead of staying in your community?

- 1. To farm during the dry season in the north
- 2. In search of fertile land for farming.
- 3. For education
- 4. To access available social amenities in the cities
- 5. To satisfy my curiosity
- 6. In search of job



7. Others specify.....

13. Are you planning of migrating again in the near future?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

14. If YES for Q3, what do you think if done in this community, will keep you from moving out?

- 1. Irrigation dams
- 2. Good schools
- 3. Availability of social amenities (water, electricity)
- Availability of farm inputs and equipment (fertilizers, improved seed varieties, tractors etc)
- i. Access to credit
- i. Access to better health care
- l. Others specify

f NO to Q3, give reasons for that.....

How have you and your family benefitted from migrating to your destination?

increase income

Built a house in my community

satisfied my curiosity

- 4. Bought a motorbike
- 5. Accessed better education
- 6. Acquired some training
- 7. Others specify

18. How has migration affected you negatively?

- 1. I contracted a disease



2. I dropped out of school
3. My kids dropped out of school
4. Low income
5. Low output from my farm.

Others specify.....



APPENDIX 3.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR IMMIGRANTS IN THE LAWRA MUNICIPALITY

Dear respondent, I am seeking information to contribute to understanding of the effects of migration on socio-economic development in the Lawra Municipality, as part of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Development Studies at the University for Development Studies. The benefits of this study may not be realized immediately, however the study can contribute to enhancing knowledge on migration and development and suggest improved directions. I wish to assure you that all data/information given by you will be treated confidentially. Therefore, I shall be grateful if you can provide as much as possible, relevant information necessary for the study.

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

PART I: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Age of Respondent:

- 1. Below 30yrs 2. 31yrs- 40yrs 3. Above 40yrs

Sex:

- 1. Male 2. Female

Educational Status



- 1. No formal education 2. Up to primary education 3. Secondary level 4. Post-secondary 5. Tertiary

4. Main Employment type:

5. Secondary Employment:

6. Marital status:

- 1. Single 2. Married

7. Number of children:

1. No child 2. 1- 5 3. 6-10 4. More than 10

8. Where is your hometown?



PART II: MIGRATION ISSUES.

9. Why have you come to stay in this community/municipality?

- 1. Transferred by the government
- 2. for trade
- 3. to farm
- 4. To stay with my spouse
- 5. Others.....

Have you built a house this community/municipality?

- 1. Yes 2. No.

Do you own a business in the community/municipality?

- 1. Yes 2. No.

If yes to Q11, how many people in this area does it employ within a year?

- 1. 1-5 2. 6-10 3. 11-15 4. More than 15 people

For how long have you been staying in this community or municipality?

- 1. Less than 1 year
- 2. 1 to 5 years
- 3. 6 to 10 years
- 4. above 10 years.

14. Will you like to spend more years staying in this community/municipality? Please give reason(s) for you answer.

- 1. Yes 2. No

.....

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15. Will you encourage friends and relatives from your hometown to come and stay in this community/municipality? Give reason(s) for your answer.

1. Yes 2. No

.....

16. What in your opinion should be done to attract more business minded immigrants into the municipality?.....



APPENDIX 4.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS AND TEACHERS OF SELECTED BASIC SCHOOLS

Dear respondent, I am seeking information to contribute to understanding of the effects of migration on socio-economic development in the lawra municipality, as part of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Development Studies at the University for Development Studies. The benefits of this study may not be realized immediately, however the

ly can contribute to enhancing knowledge on migration and development and suggest improved
cies directions. I wish to assure you that all data/information given by you will be treated
fidentially. Therefore, I shall be grateful if you can provide as much as possible, relevant
rmation necessary for the study.

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Designation of respondent.....

What is the rate of drop out cases in this school?

What percentage of annual dropout recorded is caused by migration?

What percentage of child migrants from your school are girls?

Do children in your school migrate independently or with their relatives?

6. What account for migration of school children in your school?

.....
.....

7. What is the effect of migration on academic performance in your school?

.....
.....



8. Has this school ever benefitted from any support from returned migrants or migrant group from this community?

1. Yes 2. No

9. If yes, what kind of support has this school received from migrants in this community?

.....
.....

10. What should be done to curb/stop the issue of child migration in this community?

.....
.....



APPENDIX 5.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL EDUCATION DIRECTORATE

1. What percentage of non-attendance recorded annually in basic schools in the municipal is usually as a result of child migration?

.....

2. What percentage of annual dropout cases in the municipality is caused by migration of pupils?

.....

veragely how long do pupils usually stay out of their schools?

eeeks

onths

hole year.

hers.....

om information available, what percentage of total child migrants are girls?

.....

.....



hat are the factors causing child migration in the municipality?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

6. Apart from poor attendance of what other challenges does the municipality face, as a result of migration of school children?

.....
.....

7. What measures are being taken by the **Municipal Education Directorate** to ensure that **School Children** do not migrate either independently or taken along by parents?

.....
.....

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Thank you for your time and responses



APPENDIX 6.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL AGRIC DIRECTORATE

1. Designation/position.....
2. In what ways does migration affect agricultural output in the municipal?
.....
3. What is the impact of migration on access to agricultural lands in the municipality?
.....
How out-migration affect availability of farm labor in the municipality?
.....
In your opinion, will you say migration has a positive or negative impact on agriculture in the municipality?
.....
What should be done to ensure farmers stay and contribute to agricultural growth in the municipality?
.....

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APPENDIX 7

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE (RETURN MIGRANTS)

1. Where are some of the towns or villages people from here mostly migrate to?
2. Between rural and urban south where do people mostly migrate from here to? 3. What attract migrants from here to rural south?
4. What attract migrants from here to urban south?
4. What are the main economic activities usually undertaken here?

What are some of the things that force you to migrate from you community to other places?

What are some of the things that usually attract you to your destination?

A) to cities

B) Rural areas

or those who migrate **to cities/towns**, Can you mention some of the jobs/work you do whiles in city?

What work do those who migrate to rural areas do whiles in their destination?

What gains do you make when you migrate to the other places?

A) In the cities

(B) In the rural areas.

10. What are some of the challenges/problems you encounter whiles in your destinations?

(A) In the cities

(B) In rural areas

11. What are some of the negative impact that migration have in the local area?

12. How has migration affected academic work in the formal school in terms of attendance and performance of children/pupil?

13. What works do children usually do when taken along by parents when migrating?

14. Would you like to see more people from your hometown to migrate to other parts of the country?

Give reasons for your response

15. What do you think should be done to keep you and others from migrating from communities in Lawra Municipal?

