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**INSTITUTE OF STATISTICAL SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC
RESEARCH (ISSER)**

***The Dynamics of Urban Poverty in Ashiedu Keteke
Sub-Metropolitan Area: Youth Unemployment and
Coping Strategies***

BY

Charles Oduro

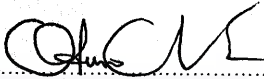
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DECLARATION

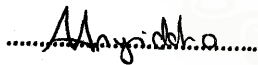
I here by declare that, except for references to other people's work, which has been duly acknowledged, this work is the result of my own original research, and that it has neither in whole, nor in part, been presented for a degree elsewhere.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to God and also to my lovely family whose prayer support and encouragement enabled me to complete this work.



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I owe it a duty to express my heat-felt gratitude to all who in diverse ways assisted me to complete this study.

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Abstract

This study examines three main issues concerning the youth in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan Area. These include their poverty profiles, unemployment problems and coping strategies. Central to the increase in urban poverty is the rise in unemployment especially among the youth. This provides the point of departure for this dissertation. The first section shows how Ashiedu and its environs, although constituting the commercial heartland of Accra, have not reached its potential in economic development. The Sub-metro houses all the important commercial facilities like markets, restaurants and lorry parks in Accra, as well as all the major financial institutions. But it is the most deprived Sub-metro in the Greater Accra Region. It also accommodates almost all the poor communities in Accra like Old Fadama (Sodom and Gomorrah), Salaha, and Jamestown among others. Being the commercial center of the Metropolis, it has become densely populated and also attracts migrants from all parts of the country. The commercial activities in the area, 'low cost areas' (slums) as well as fishing activities have made the place a haven for the youth who did not go to school or have dropped out of school and do not have regular employment.

The study identifies rural-urban migration as one of the main causes of urban unemployment especially among the youth. Low level of education as a result of high drop out rate was also seen as one of the major problems that lead to poverty and unemployment in the Sub-metro.

The survey sampled three deprived communities in Ashiedu Keteke (one from each Electoral Area) for the study. Having outlined the causes and dimensions of this sluggish economic position of the Sub-metro, the study considers how the unemployed youth survive through both economic and non-economic strategies. Most of the youth living in these areas are living in extreme poverty. Their living standard is low and most of them face accommodation problem. They have low level of education; they do not have regular jobs and are involved in so many activities to survive. Some also use immoral and illegal means to survive. Family support and support from network groups as well as involvement in non-formal sector money making activities were also seen as some of the survival means for the youth.

With this in mind it is argued that addressing the current situation of urban youth unemployment, growing poverty and inequality (as well as redressing the legacy of past inequities) requires broad municipal response to urban youth unemployment. Instead of the current tendency to view poverty simply as the product of income and consumption deprivation, a more widely defined response to urban poverty reduction, based on a livelihoods framework, is proposed.

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Background of the Study

Urban poverty has recently become one of the major development issues in many developing countries. Until recently, almost all the literature on poverty had largely focused on rural poverty because it was believed that poverty was a rural phenomenon.

At the World Summit for Social Development held in Copenhagen in 1995, one of the issues that the participating countries committed themselves to do was to eradicate or eliminate poverty within the first decade of the 21st Century (Stamoulis, 2001). The Habitat Agenda, adopted by the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlement in 1996, also addresses eradication of poverty as one of the ten overriding goals and principles to guide actions, policies and programmes of human settlements. In the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the first goal is the eradication of extreme poverty. And the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS), which aspires to achieve the broad development objectives, has reduction of extreme poverty as its main theme. It articulates the nation's policies and programmes to reduce poverty over the medium term (Ministry of Finance, 2000). The afore-mentioned efforts at the national and international levels therefore reinforce the fact that poverty reduction or eradication has become a very important aspect of all development programmes and agenda.

While the issue of poverty has been the direct or indirect focus of development agenda or initiative in Asia, Pacific and Africa since the end of the colonial era (1940 to 1950), the issue of urban poverty has gained prominence only in the last two to three decades in Africa. In spite of its prominence in recent years, Mitlin (2004) believes that its

magnitude has been downplayed by many development specialists. Satterthwaite (2004) has also observed that in many countries, the scale of urban poverty has been underestimated in official statistics because of inappropriate definition and assumptions, often reinforced by inadequate data. According to him, getting appropriate criteria for defining and measuring poverty is very important because it helps to identify who is in need and also helps to establish actions that are required to address their needs. However, there is no agreement on how best to define and measure poverty.

The literature categorizes the definitions and measurements of poverty into money-metric and non-money metric (Mitlin, 2004). The money metric definition (or income definition) is based on static quantification of poverty using the minimum income approach of the early classical economists. According to Fong (1984), early attempts to measure the minimum income were both crude and limited in definition and scope. Booth and Rowntree (1902) linked poverty with living space per capita by correlating, with limited success, crowding and income. Rowntree's studies (1901) defined poverty in a more refined way. According to him, poverty is defined as an income level below what is sufficient to obtain the 'minimum necessary for the maintenance of merely physical efficiency'. Successive attempts have also been directed at defining minimum income to include not only medical and nutritional requirements but even economic, social and cultural necessities (Fong, 1984).

The non-money metric measurement, backed by the insights of sociologists and anthropologists, is based on other indicators including housing characteristics, labour force participation, occupational participation, family and interpersonal relations,

community characteristics, relationship to larger society, value orientation, diseases among others (Rossi and Blum, 1968).

According to Fong (1984), whereas absolute standards of poverty underscore insufficiency, or deprivation, the relative concept of poverty stresses economic inequality as its fundamental manifestation. But Sen (1973) cautions that the strengths and weaknesses of the various measurements of income inequality need to be considered carefully. According to him, viewing poverty purely as an inequality would miss a number of valuable aspects of poverty problems. For example, a sharp fall in general prosperity causing starvation, or a manifestation of rising intensity of poverty would not be reflected in relative poverty measures if the relative measurements of inequality are unchanged.

This reinforces the fact that, even though there are a lot of confusion and problems associated with the use of income minimum for the definition and measurement of poverty, for all theoretical and practical purposes, it still remains the most widely accepted way of defining and measuring poverty. And this study adopts minimum income for its definition, measurement and analysis even though it also uses non-economic (or non-money metric) characteristics in the analysis.

Official data on poverty have been inconsistent both at national and international levels. The World Bank's report (2002b) estimates that out of the 6.7 million people living in the urban areas, around 1.9 million (approximately 28%) are poor. The GPRS also states that

17.3% of Ghana's urban population is poor, although many people believe that this figure may be lower than reality.

There have also been contradictory reports at the country level on the extent of urban poverty. In Zimbabwe, for example, Alwang, Mills and Taruvinga (2002) argue that in 1990, there was virtually no poverty existing in the urban areas in that country. In the same country, and referring to the same period, Kanji (1995) reports that the number of urban household who could afford only one or two meals a day increased from 29 percent in 1991 to 37 percent just one year later. For Kenya, Sahn and Stifel (2002) suggest that only 1.2 percent of Kenya's urban population could be considered poor in 1998, yet the Kenyan Bureau of Statistics suggests that 49 percent the country's urban population were in absolute poverty in 1997. Finally, De Hann (1997) draws attention to a similar discrepancy in the case of Indonesia, with national government statistics suggesting that urban poverty levels exceeded rural poverty levels, while World Bank figures shows the reverse situation.

It is assumed that poverty data are needed for national decision-making, not local decision-making. Data on poverty are still drawn primarily from expenditure surveys based on 'representative sample of national populations' (Satterthwaite, 2004). According to him, these are of little use to local government and other local institutions that are meant to help reduce poverty because they give no data on who within each locality is poor and what deprivation they suffer.

1.1.1 Poverty in Ghana

Ghana is a country where poverty is still evident, though there is significant variation in individual and household experiences of poverty (Oduro, 2001). The extent of poverty level of the country is evidenced by a variety of indicators of well-being. Gross national income per capita according to the Ghana Living Standard Survey 4 (GLSS4) is US\$412, and life expectancy, educational enrolment and access to health are all very low. Other indicators, which demonstrate that many households and communities live in extreme poverty, include malnutrition, illiteracy, and lack of access to safe water and sanitation facilities, and general insecurity.

The GLSS4 puts the upper poverty line at 900,000 cedis per adult per year (poor) and the lower poverty line of 700,000 cedis (extreme poor). On the basis of this, 40 percent of the entire population in Ghana is poor (GSS 2000). The incidence of extreme poverty is high with over one-quarter (26.8 percent) of Ghana's population being poor. These are people who are unable to meet their basic needs even if they devote their entire budget to food (GSS 2000).

The preliminary results of the GLSS4 for the period 1998/99 shows that the proportion of the population with expenditures below the poverty line has declined by approximately 12 percentage points compared to 1991/1992. But according to Oduro (2001), behind that impressive result lie some rather disquieting facts. This is because the proportion of the population who may be described as extremely poor has risen in the northern part of Ghana. Increase in income inequality has also eroded some of the gains that growth would have conferred on the poor.

Moreover, according to Ministry of Finance (2000), poverty levels in Ghana fell from 52% in 1991 - 1992 to just below 40% in 1998 – 1999. This improvement was attributed to a sustained GDP average growth rate of 4.3% during that period (GSS 2000). There were also broad improvements in social indicators such as life expectancy, primary school enrolment and infant mortality rates. However, the reduction in poverty has been geographically uneven and poverty even rose in some areas, notably in the Northern part of the country (Kellick and Abugre, 2002).

The sharp geographic variations in the pattern of poverty were even more marked with extreme poverty. According to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2003), more than half of those in the rural savannah were classified as extremely poor. The incidence of extreme poverty in this locality, according to the paper, actually increased slightly in 1991 – 1992 (in contrast to the observed decline in the incidence of poverty based on the higher poverty line).

The reason for such geographic variations given by researchers like Asenso (1993) is that spending on social programs for poverty reduction such as health and education was constrained at this period. For instance, the levels of spending on health and education at 2.0% each of GDP were much lower than African averages, with a disproportionate amount of the resources used for personal emoluments and administration (GPRS 2003 – 2005). Five out of ten regions in Ghana had more than 40% of their population living in poverty in 1999, which depicts growing and deepening experience of poverty, an evidence of intensification of vulnerability and exclusion from a fair share of national resources among some groups and in some areas of Ghana.

1.1.2. Urbanization, Unemployment and Poverty

Many studies on poverty in Ghana show that poverty is predominantly and disproportionately a rural phenomenon and remains a serious problem. The previous studies also show the spatial dimension of poverty, and the three northern regions have been identified as having the highest incidence of poverty (Oduro, 2001). The regional poverty profile according to the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003-2005) put Greater Accra as having the lowest incidence of poverty. However, the situations on the ground, especially in the urban slums, suggest that we are underestimating urban poverty.

Urbanization has been identified as one of the contributors to urban poverty in Ghana. The World Bank (2002a) highlights several key trends in illustrating Ghana's urbanization:

- ◆ The urban population has, since 1970, consistently grown at a higher rate than the overall national population.
- ◆ The proportion of the population living in urban areas rose from 26% in 1965 to 35% in 1993, and an estimated 37% in 1997 (approximately 6.7 million people).
- ◆ At the estimated current urban growth rate, the urban population will double in 17 years.
- ◆ Accra and Kumasi together contain 40% of the total urban population. 60% of the urban population is contained in the Greater Accra, Ashanti and Eastern Regions in Southern Ghana.

In a developing country like Ghana, people, especially the youth, come to the cities from the rural areas for many reasons, but always they come expecting a better life. They come

because they can no longer earn a living in their villages, or they have lost their homes, or worse, their families. Yet what these young people often find is a life of drudgery and extreme poverty, increased vulnerability to violent crime, and limited employment opportunities – a life devoid of hope for improvement. They end up doing menial jobs and living in slums and illegal settlements that expose them to so many dangers.

According to UN-HABITAT (2003), most of these young migrants end up living in urban slums, where they face extreme difficulties. The report further reveals that, in a rapidly urbanizing world, young people, especially girls, suffer most. They face the dangers of rape, violence, unwanted pregnancies, childbirth complications and HIV/AIDS. According to the report, each and every day in the developing world, about 24,000 people die from starvation and, weakened by widespread malnutrition, from a host of preventable diseases. Most of these people are poor and live in slums (UN-HABITAT, 2003).

Apart from the fact that majority of unemployed youth are mostly school drop out who do not have employable skills; some are relatively well educated (Bairook, 1973). And this is partly due to government employment policy, which does not guarantee ready employment opportunities for graduates or school leavers. Government has for a very long time stopped guaranteeing employment for graduates of higher institutions of learning. Every year, thousands of graduates from public and private universities, polytechnics and other technical and commercial institutions enter the job market without any assurance of getting jobs immediately. The consequence of this problem is a country with enormous human resources allowed to be wasted. This also has the tendency of

perpetuating the poverty cycle and creating huge dependency population on a few who are working, which can affect the country's socio-economic advancement.

1.2 The Statement of the Problem

It is widely believed that urban residents in Ghana have much higher incomes than their rural counterparts because they have better access to formal and informal employment opportunities in the cities. Besides, urban residents benefit from numerous social infrastructural facilities such as access to health and educational facilities, potable water, electricity and sanitation facilities. It is further believed that they enjoy public goods and services such as sports facilities, paved roads and communication facilities. Generally, the economic policies pursued throughout 1970s and 1980s are said to have largely favoured the urban residents (Essamuah and Tonah 2004). According to Potts (1997), there was a general belief in the existence of "a privileged urban population created and sustained by unwarranted and inefficient urban bias in African government policies" (p. 448). The above assertion is not entirely the case because there is evidence to show that urban poverty has become a major problem in some settlements in Ghana.

Ashiedu Keteke Sub-Metropolitan Area is one of the 13 sub-districts in the Greater Accra Region with population of about 88,717, and an estimated floating population of about 200,000 people. The area is located in the heart of Accra, covering most part of the central business areas of Accra, which include Ga Mashie, James Town and Agbogbloshie areas. It is inhabited primarily by the people of Ga descent. Because the area falls within the central business hub of Accra, that is the place that many young migrants and unemployed youth live. It also falls within the slum areas of Accra where

there is extreme poverty. This area is one of the under-developed sub-districts in the Greater Accra Region. Many residents especially the youth in the area face problems of extreme poverty and unemployment.

This study is not seeking to compare the scale and depth of urban poverty relative to rural poverty. It rather seeks to examine the poverty profiles of the urban youth in some selected poor communities in the Ashiedu Keteke sub-metropolitan area in the Greater Accra Region where it is generally known that a lot of very poor communities are located in the Accra Metropolis. The study also seeks to examine the relationship between the backgrounds of the youth and their poverty profiles, as well as their unemployment status and the socio-economic conditions facing them. The question is how the youth are able to live in this situation, and what coping strategies or mechanisms they have adopted to survive under this situation.

1.3 Research Questions

This study poses the following research questions:

- a. How are the youth living in the urban poor communities in the Ashiedu Keteke affected by the poverty situation in the area?
- b. What is the extent of youth unemployment in the poor urban communities in Ghana?
- c. What are the livelihood coping strategies or mechanisms that the unemployed youth have adopted to survive under this situation?
- d. What are the appropriate policy interventions and programmes that need to be put in place to solve the problem of youth unemployment?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to analyze the current poverty profiles of the youth in the poor communities in Accra metropolitan area, and to draw attention to programmes that can uplift the living standards of residents, especially young people in these poor urban areas.

The specific objectives include the following:

1. To examine the poverty profile of Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro and the youth in the area.
2. To examine youth unemployment and under employment situation in Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro.
3. To examine livelihood strategies of the urban poor in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro, especially the youth.
4. To make policy recommendations for effective targeting and implementation of appropriate programmes to improve the living standards of youth in the urban poor communities in Ghana.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Because of the under-estimation of the problem of urban poverty vis-à-vis the youth unemployment in the urban areas, official policies to deal with these problems have been ad-hoc and inconsistent. The youth employment programme, which has just been started by the government, may just be one of those policies that may not be based on any empirical studies, and may lack appropriate strategies to deal with different situations regarding rural and urban poverty and unemployment. Any programme based on

empirical study is likely to be more effective and sustainable. It can also lead to effective targeting and development of appropriate options that will reduce poverty and unemployment among young people in deprived urban communities. In the absence of that, there is a tendency to create further problems like economic deprivation, increase in crime, hopelessness and suicide among the youth.

As mentioned earlier, a lot of studies have been done on poverty in Ghana. However, greater parts of the studies have focused on rural poverty, giving a clear indication that urban poverty has been underestimated. Little has also been done about youth unemployment and the strategies that they adopt to live under such poor urban conditions. This study was carried out to assess the seriousness or the extent of urban poverty, youth unemployment and what strategies the unemployed youth have employed to cope with the situation. Based on the findings of the research, the government as well as policy makers can use the recommendations to formulate policy interventions to tackle the problem of urban poverty and youth unemployment. Future researchers can also rely on the work as a source of information for conducting further research.

1.6. Operational. Definitions

First, for the purposes of this study, poverty is defined in absolute and relative terms. Absolute poverty refers to a minimum income/expenditure that is necessary for subsistence. The study adopted the World Bank figure of 1US \$ per day (in 1985 purchasing power parity) for absolute poverty. In this case, any expenditure that fell short of an internationally agreed subsistence level of \$1 a day was denoted poor. The alternative has been to define poverty as relative deprivation, for example as half mean

income, or as exclusion from participation in society. Thus the study adopted the European Union decision that ‘the poor shall be taken to mean persons, families and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural, social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the member state in which they live.’ In this case, a person is denoted as relatively poor if he or she falls too far behind the average income in the economy.

Secondly, the study adopts the International Labour Organization (ILO) standard definition of unemployment, which is based on three criteria: “without work”, “currently available for work” and “seeking work”. Accordingly, the unemployed comprise all persons above the age specified for measuring the economically active population who during the reference period were:

- a) “Without work”, i.e., were not in paid employment or self-employment as specified by international definition of employment.
- b) “Currently available for work”, i.e. were available for paid employment or self employment during the reference period; and
- c) “Seeking work”, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

The “without work” criterion draws the distinction between employment and non-employment. “Without work” can be interpreted as total lack of work or more precisely, as not having been employed during the reference period. Thus, a person is to be considered as “without work” if he or she did not work at all during the reference period

(not even for one hour) nor was temporarily absent from work as determined by the definition of employment.

Paid employment covers persons who during the reference period performed some work for wages or salaries, in cash or in kind, as well as person with formal attachment to their jobs. Self-employment also covers persons who during the reference period performed some work for profit or family gain in cash or in kind and persons with enterprise.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study was limited to one Sub-metropolitan area; that is, Ashiedu Keteke in the Greater Accra Region for the sake accessibility as well as cost and time constraints. Even though the study covered all the 3 Electoral Areas in the Sub-Metropolitan Area, only one community was selected from each of the Electoral Areas for the study. However, the study has general implication for the poor urban communities in the country on the basis of their similarities.

1.8 Outline of the Study

The entire study has been divided into six chapters: Chapter one basically deals with the background of the study, problem statement, and scope and limitation of the study, purpose, objective and significance. Chapter two is used to review the literature of the study area, and develop theoretical as well as conceptual framework for the study. Chapter three focused on the profile and the characteristics of the study area. Chapter four deals with research methodology. Chapter five is also used to analyze the data that

was gathered from the field survey. Chapter six contains discussions, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The increase in poverty in the urban areas of many parts of sub-Saharan Africa and other low and middle-income countries has revived interest in the subject matter in both academic and policy-making circles. There is therefore growing interest in the urban poverty literature. Many analysts believe that the focus of poverty and malnutrition is gradually shifting from rural to urban areas (Haddad et al 1999). Satterthwaite (2004) also believes that the scale of urban poverty is systematically under-estimated in the official statistics produced and used by government and international agencies.

2.1 Theories of Poverty

Poverty is a relative concept and its definition changes from place to place and across time. It conveys different meaning to different people and its effect largely depends on socio-economic status as well as a host of other social and personal factors. To governing bodies, poverty may mean lack of funds for welfare or affordable health care. To people in the countryside, it may mean lack of access to basic services and to the urban dwellers, it may simply mean inability to meet challenges associated with urban life.

Citing people's observations of what poverty is, Oduro quoted these from some of her respondents:

"Poverty is like heat; you cannot see it, you can only feel it; so to know poverty you have to go through it"

'A rich man's sleep is blissful; a poor man tosses and turns all night long...haunted by his own ghost'

"For a poor person everything is terrible-illness, humiliation, shame. We are cripples; we are afraid of everything; we depend on everyone. No one needs us. We are like garbage that everyone wants to get rid of". (Oduro 2001: 1)

According to Oduro, these observations reveal that being poor is definitely much more than not having an annual income that exceeds 900,000 cedis. It means deprivation, helplessness, frustration, alienation and marginalization (Oduro, 2001)

According to Essamuah and Tonah (2004), poverty is generally defined in terms of what is considered to be 'unacceptable physiological and social deprivation that an individual or community experiences'. Satterthwaite (2004) suggests that poverty lines are the main means by which poverty is defined and measured. Dinye (1995) also views the 'poor' as individual or group of persons who are deficient in terms of the basic necessities of life. Their condition represents a state of inability to afford the basic necessities of life or lack them because they are just not available to them. According to him, once poverty sets in a person's life, it becomes endemic and a self-perpetuating phenomenon. An individual, a household, a community or a nation that is poor is one with a limited supply of human, fiscal and physical capital. Under such circumstances productivity and income become low, the scope of market operation is small and consumption is restricted. Standard of living and quality of life are impaired, a vicious circle is then created, and poverty is sustained and perpetuated (Dinye, 1995). The most acceptable explanation of poverty is provided by social scientists who attempt to combine both material and non-material dimension of poverty (Chambers, 1989; 1992; Sen, 1987; 1997). According to Hossain (2005), this suggests that poverty is a product not just of material condition, but also of a set of interlocking factors including physical weakness, social isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness.

Most of the general literatures on poverty do not focus on discussion of urban poverty. This means that key characteristics of urban areas or some urban areas are not taken into account in the definition of poverty or in its measurement.

Theoretically, two basic levels or types of poverty are identified in the development literature, and these are absolute and relative poverty. The World Bank currently regards people earning less than US\$ 1 a day (in 1993 purchasing power parity) to be absolutely poor. The European Union defines the relative poor as persons, families and groups of persons whose resources including materials and social are so limited that they are excluded from the minimum acceptable way of life in the state in which they live (UNESCAP, 2000).

2.2 Dimensions of Poverty

Poverty is a multi-dimensional and dynamic construct. The dimensions of poverty can be categorized into three main facets. This include income or consumption dimension (poverty of money), access to social service dimension (poverty of access) and participatory dimension of poverty or poverty of power (UNESCAP, 2000)

2.2.1 Poverty of Money

The income dimension of poverty implies low levels of income or consumption that are socially unacceptable. This can be adequately captured by the use of a money metric measure (Oduro, 2001). Measures such as poverty lines and Gini-coefficient are used to measure absolute and relative poverty in terms of incomes and affordability (UNESCAP, 2000). These measures are widely used because they are relatively easy to make and

quantify. However, the lack of money is more a symptom of poverty rather than its cause. In most cases, the poor are not without an income, what they lack is the ability to accumulate assets, which is a key ingredient to the creation of wealth and breaking the cycle of poverty.

2.2.2 Poverty of Access

The social services access dimension of poverty includes lack of access to health care, education, good drinking water, decent housing, and healthy sanitation (GPRS, 2003-2005). Poverty of access explains how the urban poor lack the basic necessities of life. Many urban poor live in overcrowded and unsanitary slums and squatter settlements and often do not have access to basic infrastructure and services. They are forced to live in illegal and informal settlement because they cannot enter formal land and housing markets. According to the UNESCAP report, one of the reasons for the formation of slums and squatter settlements is the way formal markets are regulated and structured. The report argues that the poor are unable to afford the choices offered to them in these markets, and therefore the informal and illegal housing markets of slums and squatter settlements are specifically geared to meet their shelter needs (UNESCAP, 2000). The report indicates that the informal settlements are often located on marginal lands (along riverbanks, railway lines, and steep slopes and near garbage dumps) and are prone to natural and man-made disasters. Thus they are also often illegal and those living there do not have security of tenure. It is further argued in the report that because of the illegal status of the settlers, they are often not provided with basic infrastructure and services such as piped-borne water, electricity, wastewater disposal and solid waste collection by government agencies and organizations. They have to purchase these services from

informal markets, often paying much more than higher-income groups. According to UNESCAP report (2000), studies in several cities have shown that the poor end up paying two to five times as much for informal access to public goods and services than higher-income groups.

Because there is often no security of tenure in illegal settlements and the fear of imminent eviction, the poor do not invest in improving either their housing or their settlements. Lack of basic environmental infrastructure and locations on marginal lands often translate into higher rates of disease and lower life spans. The consequent are higher medical bills, lost working days and early demise of income earners, which further expropriate their marginal income and further perpetuate the cycle of poverty (UNESCAP, 2000).

Similarly, children of the poor are unable to access good education. Often the standards and facilities of the educational institutes they can afford are lower than those available to children of higher-income groups. Moreover, poor children often drop out of school earlier to support their families. Poor education also contributes to entrenchment of the cycle of poverty.

2.2.3 Poverty of Power

The UNESCAP report (2000) further emphasizes that in many developing countries, both the formal structures of government and the culture of governance tend to exclude the poor from decision-making and tend to concentrate decision-making among a small number of formal and informal elite. According to the report, the poor suffer from both traditional and modern environmental health risks in urban areas. They suffer from

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diseases associated with poor sanitation, lack of clean water, overcrowded and poorly ventilated living and working environments, as well as from modern risks caused by air and industrial pollution. While the poor suffer the most from dysfunctions in cities, they are the least able, as individuals, to influence how cities are governed. Most often, they do not even get opportunity to take part in the discussion of issues that affect them. The poor have a greater possibility to influence decision-making under conditions of good governance, i.e., a system of government and a culture of governance that is participatory, inclusive, consensus-oriented, based on the rule of law, responsive to the needs of the population, efficient, transparent and accountable to the people (UNESCAP, 2000).

Another important aspect of power is access to information, the report indicates that the poor often lack access to information that they can use to advance their case when dealing with other actors. Even when information is available, it is often in media and the forms that are either not accessible to or easily understandable by the poor. Even decisions that are taken with the aim of helping them are most often done without their involvement or consultation.

2.3. Influence of Different Definitions on the Scale of Urban Poverty

There has been a historical development and debate about the appropriate definition and measurement of poverty from the early 1960s, but the concepts have developed rapidly over the last three decades. There has been debate, for example on the importance of monetary variables, on objective or subjective measures, and on the link between material income and wider functioning in society. Most writers agree that income (or

consumption) on its own is an imperfect measure of welfare, and also recognize the need to take account of variability over time. The idea of relative deprivation is widely accepted – at least in theory (Diana, 1999). There are different views, however, about the relative importance of non-monetary variables, like self-esteem, and about the weight that should be given to the views expressed by poor people themselves.

For policy purposes, many countries have quantified socially acceptable minimum income levels for measuring poverty. And to allow for household, ethnic and sectoral peculiarities, the poverty profile technique has also been extensively used (Orshanki, 1955). However, the main confusion associated with the use of income level for definition and measurement of poverty is the poverty level considered or accepted as an appropriate cut-off point. Satterthwaite (2004) for instance has indicated that during the late 1990s, there were at least four figures for the proportion of Kenya's urban population who were poor, ranging from 1 to 49 percent. Also in Philippines, in 2000, the proportion of the national or urban population with below poverty line incomes was 12 percent, 25 percent 40 percent or 45-46 percent, depending on which poverty line chosen (World Bank 2002a). These very large differences in the proportions of the national or urban population considered poor are the result of different definitions of poverty. These differences usually lie in how to define the income that individuals or households need to avoid being poor, especially with regard to non-food essentials.

According to Satterthwaite (2004), another source of confusion in the definition and measurement of poverty is the way increasing number of governments and international agencies are now committed to meeting their Millennium Development Goals, and are

incorporating in their plans and programmes specific goals and targets related to poverty. Satterthwaite, however, points out that the way these low-income and middle-income nations define poverty remains rooted in questionable assumptions, and is often locked in the 19th century attitudes concerning the needs and rights of the poor. According to Satterthwaite (2004), in most nations, poverty is still defined and measured through consumption-based poverty lines despite how inadequate these capture many aspects of deprivation. He further argues that in many countries poverty lines are still based entirely or mostly on the cost of a 'minimum food basket', giving little or no consideration to non-food needs, yet urban poverty is often related to the inability of individual or households to afford non-food items.

2.4 Urban Poverty: Theoretical Perspectives

There has been an overwhelming argument in the urban poverty literature that the problem of urban poverty has been underestimated. Satterthwaite (2004) has indicated that if the term poverty is taken to mean human needs that are not met, then most of the estimates for the scale of urban poverty in low and middle-income countries appear too low. Statistics produced by international agencies consistently suggest that three-quarters or more of the urban population in low and middle-income countries do not live in poverty. For instance, a publication by the Overseas Development Council in the USA in 1989 indicated that only 130 million of the 'poorest poor' within low and middle-income nations lived in urban areas (Leonard, 1989). This meant that about nine out of ten of their urban population was not among the poorest. World Bank estimate for 1988 suggests that there were 330 million poor people living in urban areas in low and middle-income countries (World Bank, 1991), which meant that more than three-quarters of their

population were not poor on that date. The 1999/2000 World Development Report (World Bank, 1999b) also suggests that there were 495 million 'urban poor' by the year 2000, which meant that three-quarters of urban population were not poor. But many national and city studies show that 40 – 65 percent of a nation's urban population or a major city's populations have incomes too low to allow them to meet their needs. This has been confirmed by Mitlin who also argues that national studies in many of the poorest African, Asian and Latin American countries suggest that more than half of their urban populations are below the poverty line (Mitlin, 2004).

It has been argued that the urban poor face a lot more challenges and difficulties than their rural counterparts. According to Satterthwaite (2004), the proportion of urban dwellers who live in poverty face extreme difficulties including poor quality of life, overcrowding, often insecure housing lacking adequate provision of water, sanitation, drainage, and are exposed to very high level of environmental and health risks. He further contends that if the estimate for the number of poor urban dwellers was based on the number living in poor quality housing (like shacks) with a lack of basic facilities and services, then at east 600 million urban population were poor in 1990, with the numbers likely to have increased significantly during the 1990s.

Mitlin (2004) further argues that there appear to be several reasons that suggest that urban dwellers spend more on necessities. First some goods are more expensive in urban areas, and there is extensive evidence to suggest that, in general, prices are higher in urban areas. Second, some goods are essential that everyone has to purchase or spend money on in urban areas but may not be so in rural areas, and this include fuels, transport, water

and shelter. Many empirical studies have also shown that high costs are paid by particular urban group (or those living in particular settlements) for non-food essential such as housing, water and electricity.

There have also been questions about whether the samples used in national surveys are really representative for urban areas, especially for those sections of the urban poor who are most difficult to be included in surveys. According to Satterthwaite (2004), it is always difficult to get a good sample frame of urban dwellers especially those who are homeless (sleeping in public and open places, those who live in slums and in illegal settlements as well as those who sleep in work places), and are involved in informal activities that often take them out from their dwelling places. In many instances, it is also difficult to get data from tenants and to identify families or individuals who live in backrooms of residences that look as though they only hold one household (Weru, 2004). This reinforces the point that the problem of urban poverty may have been underestimated. It also shows a very low priority given by most international agencies to urban poverty reduction.

2.5. Urbanization and Unemployment

The ILO defines unemployment based on three criteria to be satisfied simultaneously. That is those “without work”, “currently available for work” and “seeking work”. According to the international standard, a person should be seeking work to be considered as unemployed. Seeking work is defined as having taken specific steps in a specific recent period to seek paid work or self-employment. The term “work” in the seeking criterion is to be interpreted in the sense of economic activity as defined in the international standards. The scope of economic activity as far as it applies to ILO labour

force framework is by conversion based on the concept of production of goods and services as defined by the UN system of national account. The concept includes all activities related to market production and certain types of activities related to non-market activities. The notion of seeking work is independence from the duration and type on employment sought. Seeking work covers seeking employment, part time employment, temporary, seasonal or casual work, and in general, any type of work considered as economic activity by the international standard (Prakash, 2001).

According to the international standards, persons should be available to or work during the reference period if they are to be considered as unemployed. In the present context, availability for work means that, given a work opportunity, a person should be able to and ready to work. When used in the context of the standard definition of unemployment, one purpose of the availability criterion is to exclude persons who are seeking work to begin at a later date, for example students who may be seeking work to be taken up after completion of their academic work

In reality, the level of unemployment and underemployment in the urban areas is very high. And central to the increase in urban poverty is the rise in unemployment especially among the youth (Bairock, 1973). Bairock points out that the low level of employment in the secondary sector, together with rapid increase in total population; particularly the active rural population who migrate to the urban areas is one of the important factors that explain urban unemployment. He further argues that the most important parameter conditioning the extent of urban unemployment is the extreme rapidity with which urbanization has been taking place in the developing countries over the last three decades.

Thus at what might, at a very rough approximation, be considered as similar stages of economic development, the total population in the developing countries is increasing five to six times more rapidly than was the case in the countries that are now industrialized (Bairock, 1973). This is a factor of outstanding importance in analyzing the economic problems of the Third World in general and urban unemployment in particular.

2.6 Youth Unemployment

The main focus for most discussions of youth employment issues has been the problem of youth unemployment. According to ILO report, the large and growing number of unemployed youth is one of the daunting problems faced by both developed and developing countries (ILO, 2000). In the background report for the 2002 Youth Employment Summit, part of the report read: 'the youth population is more vulnerable to being rendered unemployed compared to adult population' (Youth Employment Summit 2002:19). Launching his Youth Employment Network, the UN Secretary General, Mr. Kofi Annan also said 'youth make up more than 40 percent of the world's total unemployed. He pointed out that there were estimated 66 million unemployed young people, an increase of nearly 10 million since 1965' (ILO 2003). And one of the only two targets in the Millennium Development Goals is the employment of 15-25 olds.

Also delivering his speech at the launch of the National Youth Employment Programme at the Kao Kudi Park, Nima, Accra on the 3rd October 2006, H.E. President J. A. Kuffour indicated that, on assumption of office, in 2001, his government took census of the unemployed youth, and he was shocked to realize that they exceeded 10 million.

According to him, they include under-employed, casual labourers as well as young graduates of tertiary institutions.

Godfrey (2003) has observed that in several developing countries, the highest unemployment has been seen over the years among the more educated youth. He cites the case of Indonesia where in 1986, it was observed that the unemployment rate among the 15-20 year olds with primary education or less were negligible, while among those with secondary or tertiary education, the unemployment rate was about 30 percent. Also in Cambodia, Godfrey further argues that the highest rates of unemployment in 1997 were found among the youth. And in Pakistan, the highest urban unemployment rates for 20-42 olds are to be found among degree holders and postgraduates of both sexes (ILO, 2001).

Commenting on the Indonesian case, Clark (1988) has indicated that this kind of unemployment is transitional in nature. According to him, each year a number of school leavers leave school and embark on job search, and the number of young people in this category that are recorded as unemployed at any moment by a survey or census partly depends on the number of school leavers, and partly on the average length of time taken to find a job. He further argues that as a result of the rapid increase in the number of school leavers in Indonesia, particularly at the secondary and higher levels, the country's job seekers increased.

Ghose (1999) explains that the seemingly positive relationship between unemployment and higher level of education may be that young people with higher levels of education do not want to engage in low-productivity or low-income work in the informal sector.

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They rather want a non-manual work, preferably in the organized or formal sector. According to him, the fact that they have higher levels of education indicates that their families have the means to support them. The findings of his study also confirmed that the primary school leavers have compromised on their aspirations and expectations and have adjusted to the labour market by acceptance the available work. According Godfrey (2003), the youth with primary school level education, who constituted the bulk of Indonesia's unemployed in the early 1970s were no longer willing to prolong their search for salary and wage earning jobs, but were rather settling for what they could get as self-employed or casual wage earners.

In Sri Lanka where unemployment is concentrated among the youth, Rama (1999) estimated a series of regression linking unemployment to individual characteristics from individual records based on 1985 labour force survey. He observed that the probability of being out of job is highest for the young and for those with O' and A' levels of education. He also tested various hypotheses about the causes of unemployment among the youth, and the results revealed that most of the unemployed were waiting for 'good' job opportunities but not interested in readily available 'bad' jobs. This was found to be consistent with the survey and time series data. It was also consistent with the fact that young people in Sri Lanka were not interested in job opportunities in agricultural estates and export processing zones where there were thousands of unfilled vacancies. Meanwhile, more than 10,000 candidates applied for 300 positions advertised in the government Post and Telecommunication Agency. His conclusion is that unemployment in Sri Lanka is to a large extent voluntary because the bulk of the unemployed youth are

relatively educated who live with their parents and benefit from family support, which enable them to engage in extended job search.

2.7 Relationship between Poverty and Unemployment

There has been strong evidence that suggest that unemployment increases the risk of poverty and also gives rise to series of negative social effects on the unemployed themselves, their dependants and the communities in which they live (Saunders, 2002). Writing in the mid 1970s at the very time when the prospects of full employment were about to disappear, Gregory and Sheehan (1998) identified unemployment as a major cause of poverty. They also point out that poverty increased sharply with unemployment duration rising from around 13 percent of those unemployed for less than 8 weeks to 80 percent for those unemployed for more than a year. According to them, by 1996, many people were out of job in Australia for a long period, and so what had previously often been seen as a short disruption of earnings for many turned out into a situation of 'semi-permanent' entrenched joblessness and poverty.

It must however be noted that it is possible to be poor but not unemployed and vice versa depending upon the nature of social welfare system that exist in a particular country (Uusitalo, 2000). Gregory and Sheehan (1998) further point out that when the level of unemployment benefit is generally below the poverty line, all the unemployed should by definition be described as poor. To understand the relationship between these two concepts in a little detail, fig 2.2 illustrates the possible combinations of employment and poverty status.

Fig 2.1: Relationship between Employment Status and Poverty Status

		Employment Status	
		Unemployed	Employed
Poverty Status	Poor	(1)	(2)
	Not Poor	(3)	(4)

Source: Culled from Peter Saunders' SPRC Discussion Paper No. 118

Fig 2.2 above shows all the four possible combinations of employment and poverty status. Cell (1) shows a person who is unemployed and poor and cell (4) shows a person who is employed and as such not poor, which look quite normal. Cell (2) however indicates that it is possible for a person to be employed but still poor (the working poor), whereas cell (3) indicates a situation where a person is not employed yet not poor. This situation arises when other forms of income including income from family members, social security or assistance from network groups help to alleviate poverty of the unemployed.

Certain factors, however, complicate the relationship between the unemployment and poverty. One of these factors, according to Saunders (2003), is the timing discrepancy between the period of reported labour force status and the period to which income variable applies. Illustrating this complication, he cites the case in Australia where, in the 1999-2000 Survey of Income and Housing Cost (SIHC), the labour force status referred to that period (1999-2000), whereas the annual income referred to the previous financial year, i.e. 1998-1999. This means that anyone who was involved in the survey reported his labour force status in (say) June 2000, whereas his reported income referred to the

year beginning in July 1998 – two years earlier. This can present confusing and unreliable results.

Another factor is the different units of analysis that are used to determine labour force status and income status. The unit of analysis that is used to determine the labour force status is the individual, whereas poverty studies focus on incomes of the units (or the family members), who are assumed to share resources (including income) for the benefit of all. Therefore, an individual may have a low income and still not be classified as poor as long as other members of the family unit have incomes, which when shared, is sufficient to raise the whole family above the poverty line (Saunders, 2002).

One important issue that emerges from the discussion of unemployment and poverty is that there are a number of reasons why the two variables move independently of each other. One should not therefore, expect a close relationship between them when comparing the experience of different countries or a given country in different periods. Saunders' study for example shows a weak relationship between the two variables among OECD countries but positive among many European countries (perhaps due to their welfare programmes). He also observes that US, UK and Australia have higher poverty than one might expect given their unemployment rates. In contrast, Spain has low poverty rate given its level of unemployment (Saunders, 2002).

In terms of changes in unemployment and poverty rates, Saunders' study again shows that there was no decline in poverty in UK, the Netherlands and Belgium despite a

significant fall in their unemployment rates. In contrast, countries like Canada, Denmark, Norway and Spain experienced rising unemployment but declining poverty.

In the case of African countries, many studies have shown that unemployment and poverty move in the same direction in many countries due to absence of or low social welfare system and unemployment compensation. For instance, in South Africa, the South African Living Standard Survey in 1993 finds that only about 2.5 percent of households containing unemployed people were receiving unemployment support (Saldru, 1993). ILO (1996) also suggests that only about 600,000 (or 12 percent) of the unemployed received some unemployment support over the course of the year 1992. Even though the two reports present different figures, when they are reconciled, it can be said that unlike many European countries, the social welfare system in South Africa like many African countries is very low.

In Namibia however, Oduro (2001) observes that the country has a very good social assistance programmes which do not necessarily depend on whether the person has worked before or not, and this comprises of pension scheme to all individuals above the age of 60 years, disability grant, and free school meals among others. There is also a set of transfers with work requirements including regular labour-based programmes, shelter and housing assistance as well as social security contribution. Oduro further argues that in 1996, Namibia's social assistance programme was estimated at being equivalent of 4.5 percent of total government expenditure and approximately 2 percent of the country's GDP.

One of the major challenges facing young people in Ghana is unemployment. The situation applies to uneducated and educated alike. According to Ghana Country Report on Unemployment (2002), the unemployment rate of young people between 15 and 24 years of age is 15.9% with estimated number of 1.2% new entrants to the labour market annually. For 25-44 age group the unemployment rate is 8%, and for 45-60 age group, the unemployment rate is 5%. These make the unemployment in the age group 15-24 almost twice of that of 25-44 and three times that of 45-60 (Ghana Country Report on Unemployment, 2002)). However, there is no social assistance programme that provides unemployment compensation to those who are unemployed, especially the youth. According to Oduro (2001), Ghana has a very limited social assistance programme that is operated on ad hoc basis. The government pension scheme for instance does not cover those who have not contributed to it. So far, only two social assistant programmes are working well, and they include the school feeding programme and the free medical care for people above the age of 70 years.

From the above discussion, it can be realized that there are many countries where unemployment and poverty move in opposite directions, and there are others where the two variables move together. This makes it difficult to conclude that there is a simple relationship between the two. It can therefore be said that the relationship between unemployment and poverty depends very much on the welfare system as well as other structural factors, including the overall inequality profile existing in a particular country.

2.8 The Coping Strategies of the Urban Poor

Research work on the analysis of urban poverty and coping strategies has been undertaken by writers like Jeffries (1992), Essamuah and Tonah (2004), Owusu (2001), Hossain (2005) among others, and they all indicate that poverty levels in the urban areas has increased due to the economy's inability to support the kind of population explosion found in the urban areas. Jeffries (1990) for instance indicates that the minimum wage of an urban resident in Ghana in 1990 was just enough to feed him. According to him the average wage could neither cater for other expenses of the worker nor could it cater for the rest of the household. Hossain (2005) has also observed that poverty is characterised not only by lack of assets and inability to accumulate them but also the lack of choices with respect to alternative coping strategies. According to him, the poorest and the most vulnerable households are forced to adopt strategies, which enable them to survive but not to improve their welfare.

In line with that many urban residents adopt certain survival strategies to cope with urban life and counteract the deteriorating wage levels. Pellow and Chazan (1986) have identified several of such survival strategies: The first is what they refer to as the "*suffer-manage strategy*", which involves survival within conventionally approved codes of conduct. The second, according to him is also referred to as the "*beat-the-system strategy*", which involves employing various illegal and immoral methods of earning additional income. The third is the "*escape-migrate strategy*", which also involves the urban residents leaving the country in search of greener pastures. The last strategy they identified is the "*return-to-farm strategy*". This also refers to urban dwellers who took

to urban agriculture as a way of providing their subsistence food requirement and for earning additional income.

According to Essamuah and Tonah (2004), the survival strategy approaches has, however, been criticized for focussing exclusively on the urban wage earner in the analysis of urban poverty. Doubts have also been raised about the contribution of urban wage earners to household income. Yeboah and Waters (1997) also confirm the criticism of the survival strategies approach. They draw attention to the increasing number of women and young adults who have to work in the informal sector to supplement household incomes. They therefore refer to this arrangement as a “*strategy of participation*”.

The survival strategy has also been criticized for concentrating exclusively on economic activities undertaken primarily for the purpose of coping with economic difficulties in the urban centres (Essamuah and Tonah (2004). Owusu (2001) has also said that the urban poor do not only think in terms of meeting their present needs but do also plan for future needs.

In response to the above limitations levelled against the survival strategies approach, several authors have used the concept of livelihood approach in the analysis of urban poverty. The ‘livelihoods’ concept recognizes the multiple activities in which households engage to ensure survival and improve their well-being (Ellis, 1998). It also recognizes the fact that those who are poor may not have cash or other savings, but they have other materials or non-material assets, which include their health, their labour, their knowledge

and skills, their friends and families and the natural resources around them (Hossain, 2005). According to Hossain, in urban areas, households seek to mobilise resources and opportunities and they combine these into livelihood strategy, which is a mixture of labour market involvement, savings, borrowing and investment; productive and reproductive activities; income, labour and asset pooling; as well as social networking. Households and individuals adjust the mix according to their own circumstances and the changing context in which they live.

There are various versions of the livelihood approach but they share common characteristics of taking into account all activities engaged in by all members of the urban household that contribute to providing a livelihood for its members. Owusu (2001) uses Multiple Modes of Earning a Livelihood Approach (MML). This approach recognizes the existence of multiple means of raising extra income through acquisition of additional jobs. According to him, it makes no assumption concerning the reasons for participating in multiple economic activities, but instead focuses on all activities that provides livelihood. He argues that while some people may participate in multiple livelihood strategies for survival purposes, to many others it is primarily an accumulation strategy.

CHAPTER THREE

CHARACTERISTIC OF THE STUDY AREA

3.1 The District Profile

Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan Assembly was established in 1985 and it is the first of such sub-metros, and the smallest in terms of the geographical boundaries, among the 13 existing sub-metropolitan areas in the Greater Accra Region. The area falls within three electoral areas, which include Kinka, Ngleshie and Korle Wonko.

The sub-metro spans an area bordered in the south by the Gulf of Guinea, in the west by the Korle lagoon, moving northwards to the Graphic Road and then turning to the right to the Ghana Cocoa Board Area, eastwards along the road in front of the Motor Traffic and Transport Unit (MTTU) of Ghana Police, to Kimbu school and then turning right again to the Kinbu traffic light, southwards along the road in front of the Rex Cinema through the Kwame Nkrumah Mausoleum to the Gulf of Guinea (see map).

According to the 2000 population and housing census, the area has an estimated population of about 88,717, with an additional floating population of 200,000 people coming in on a daily basis from other parts of the metropolis and the country. It has only one town council, which is the Ga Mashie Town Council. The Sub-metro is located in the heart of Accra, covering most part of the Central Business District of Accra. Each electoral area has two communities as follows:

- ◆ Ngleshie (James Town and Adedenkpo)
- ◆ Kinka (Accra Central and Usher Town)

◆ **Korle Wonko (Agbogbloshie and Korle Dudor)**

The Sub-metro has important historical landmarks including Usher Fort, James Fort, the old harbour, the Lighthouse, the Sea View Hotel and the Polo Ground, which now houses the Kwame Nkrumah Mausoleum. The Sub-metro also has important markets such as the famous Makola and Agbogbloshie markets, as well as six other markets and lorry parks. Important financial institutions such as the Bank of Ghana and head offices of Standard Chartered and Barclays Banks are also sited in the sub-metro.

3.2 The Main Economic Activities

Trading, fishing and fish mongering are the main economic activities in the Sub-metropolitan Area. Kenkey-making is another important occupation that is undertaken by many indigenous women. Many young people are also engaged in petty trading and street hawking. This is because the Sub-metro falls within the main business district of the metropolis.

3.3 The Main Development Problems

According to the Sub-metro Director, the area has lot of development problems. It is one of the least developed sub-metros in the Greater Accra Region. It has an urban character in terms of population and location, but in terms of infrastructure development and provision of social amenities, the area lacks so many things. One problem identified in the Sub-metro is the fact that it does not have a full status of a district and, because of that; it does not have a development plan of its own. Also all the internally generated revenues are sent to Accra Metropolitan Assembly and according to the Sub-metro

Director, the Sub-metro does not receive its share for its development activities regularly. The Sub-metro also faces a very serious problem of waste management. During one of the researcher's interaction with the Sub-metro Director, he mentioned sanitation as one of the serious problems facing the sub-metro. According to him, all the human and solid waste from the Odoe River and Korle Lagoon are emptied in the portion of the sea at the Sub-metro. And this requires substantial amount of money to manage it. A lot of the waste materials are generated by illegal settlers in Old Fadama (popularly called 'Sodom and Gomorra') who live along the lagoon, as well as by traders in Agbobgloshie, Salaga, Timber, London and Makola markets. The waste also comes with very bad odour that pollutes the air and causes serious health risks to the inhabitants.

Another serious problem that was identified in the sub-metro during the researcher's study tour is low child enrolment. And the few children, who are enrolled, according to the Sub-metro Director, perform poorly in the BECE exams, and most of them end their education at that level. These children are made to take part in all sorts of economic activities including selling of ice water, kenkey, fishing, and smoking of fish.

The Sub-metro also faces high rate unemployment as well as underemployment. This is partly due to the seasonal nature of fishing, which is the main occupation for many young men and women in the Sub-metro. During one of the researcher's preliminary survey for instance, he visited a female headed household, and all the four men he met, who were between the ages of 20 to 30 years were unemployed, and living in the same house with their grandmother.

Distribution of the types of premises in the Ashiedu Keteke sub metropolitan assembly is shown in Tables 4.1 while Table 4.2 shows the breakdown of the various types of premises by electoral areas.

Table 3.1: Types of Premises in the Ashiedu Keteke SMA

Types of Premises	Number
1. Residential mixed (Res + Business)	3680
2. Industrial	17
3. Hospitality	357
4. Health care	77
5. Schools	66
6. Market	8
7. Lorry Terminals/Car parks	10
8. Sanitary sites	88 (25 refuse sites and 63 toilet sites)

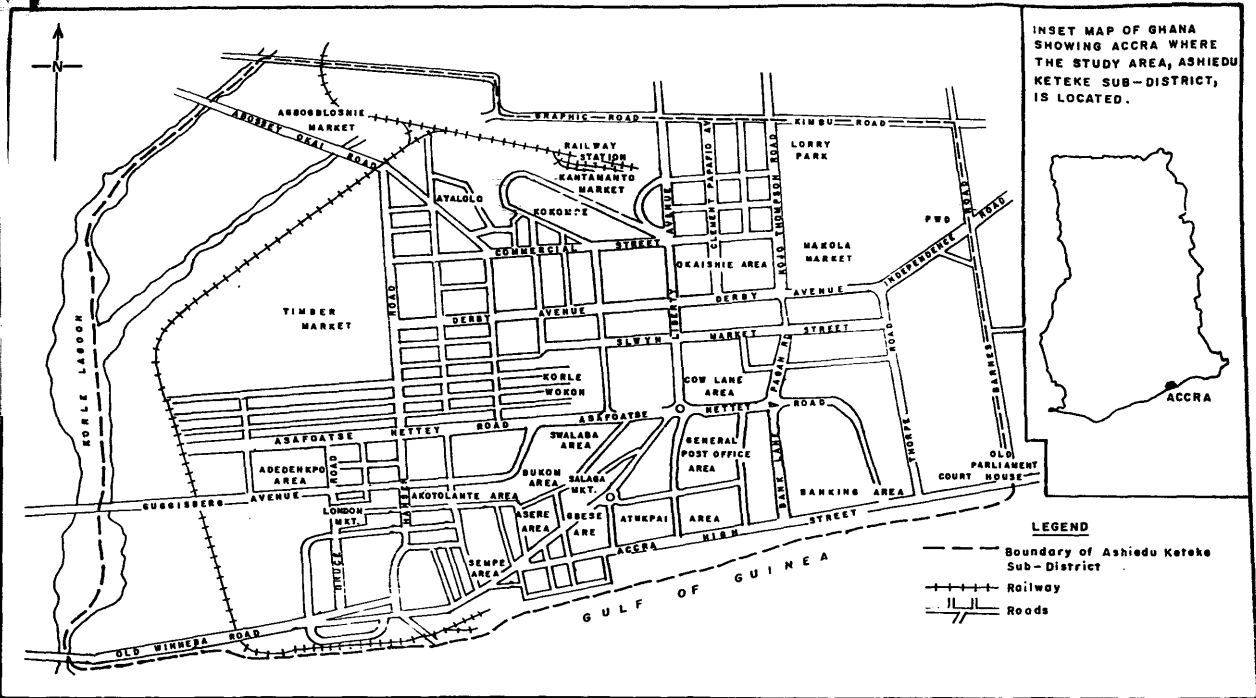
Source: 2004 annual Report, Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan Assembly

Table 3.2: Types of Premises by Electoral Areas

Electoral Area	Resident	Indus	Hosp	Health Care	Sch.	Markets	Lorry Parks	Sanitary Infrastructure
Ngleshie	654	13	62	10	30	1	-	Public toilet -6 Refuse sites -5
Kinka	1,345	-	86	52	12	2	6	Public toilet-22 Refuse site - 9
Korle Wonko	1,681	4	179	15	24	5	5	Public toilet-35 Refuse site- 11

Source: 2004 annual Report, Ashiedu Keteke sub-metropolitan Assembly

119. MAP OF THE STUDY AREA, ASHIEDU KETEKE SUB-DISTRICT, IN ACCRA METROPOLIS.



SOURCE : ASHIEDU KETEKE SUB - DISTRICT OFFICE, ACCRA .

3.4 Poverty Profile of Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro: Historical and Empirical Review

Documentary materials on Accra in general and Ashiedu Keteke in particular are scanty and difficult to obtain. However, according to the oral tradition as well as historical research, the present site of Accra was first settled by several Ga clans who were believed to have migrated from what is now Nigeria around the 14th century (Henry and Fayorsey, 2002). Oral tradition also says that the people came by land and by sea, first to Benin and further eastwards before they finally settled in Accra (Buah, 1980).

Parker (2000) argues that one of the common features of 20th century Africa has been the growth of cities and its accompanying transformation to urban life, and the Ga state has long history of urbanism. Its strategic location along the coast and the arrival of the Europeans in the 16th and 17th century turned the area into a commercial centre. According to Parker (2000), by 17th century, Accra had emerged as one of the entry points on the Gold Coast and West Africa, and served as a link between the expanding Atlantic economy and the African interior trading in fish, salt, gold guns and other local and imported goods. Parker (2000) further argues that for nearly two hundred years, the local leaders had to compete with other powerful African neighbours, with European traders and with each other for the jurisdiction over the town and for its share of the mercantile wealth. The competition intensified when the British consolidated their position as the dominant coastal power. In 1877, Accra became the headquarters of the Gold Coast when the colonial capital was transfer from Cape Coast. As a new political and economic headquarters Accra begun to attract a lot of people from other parts of the colony. Parker (2000) further points out that by 1875, Accra had population of about 20,000. Despite the competition from both expatriate and migrants, many Ga men and

women were well placed to benefit from the colonial economy that was flourishing. In 1957, when the country gained its independent, Accra emerged as the capital town of the first independent tropical African country. The commercial prosperity of Accra became more promising and the influx of migrants from all over the country continued (Parker, 2000).

The Ga Mashie area (which forms greater part Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro) had its share of the growing prosperity of Accra. Due to its location along the coast, it became a trading center because of the presence of the harbour and expatriate companies like PZ, CFAO among others as well as the fishing industry. The brisk commercial activities transformed the economy of the area and created job opportunities for the people. It therefore became the Central business District (CBD) of Accra. However, the prosperity of the area experienced a decline after the harbour was relocated to Tema in 1962, and later followed by the relocation of all the multinational companies. Maxwell's study, for instance, finds increase in poverty and malnutrition in the indigenous neighborhoods in Accra (Maxwell, 1998), which symbolizes growing poverty in the area of late.

The decline of economic fortune and increasing poverty in Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro (old Accra) is argued on many grounds. One argument blames the ecology of the Accra coastal hinterland, which according to Parker (2000) is characterized by aridity, open grasslands and thickets. Accra records an average of between 20 and 30 inches of rainfall, one the lowest in the country. Therefore, fishing has become the only agricultural activity for many people who are neither in formal or commercial activities. Since fishing, especially canoe fishing, is a declining industry as a result of depletion as well as

its seasonal nature, many fishermen become unemployed during some periods of the year. This makes it difficult for many people to raise enough income to look after their families and pay their children's school fees.

Others also believe that the high population density has also contributed to the poverty and unemployment in the area. Because of its location as the Commercial Business Centre, a lot of people are attracted to the sub-metro. CENCOSAD's study estimates population density of 625 persons per hectare (CENCOSAD, 2000) According to Henry and Fayorsey (2002), the Ga Mashie area is very densely populated with compound houses that accommodate 6 to 20 people.

Others argue the neglect of the area by the government, which has also contributed to poverty and unemployment of the area. Kotey (2002) observes that well educated and well-to-do inhabitants normally move out of the area. This is because, the area is not well developed, and many parts have constantly been under the threat of demolition and rehabilitation. This makes the place unattractive to potential developers and middle class indigenous people.

Another argument is that the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) adopted by many African countries during the 1980s and 90s have seriously worsened the plight of urban poor (Essamuah and Tonah, 2004). And Ashiedu Keteke being one of the urban poor communities in Ghana has had its share of the effect of the SAP on the urban poor.

Some also believe that poverty in the area is self-inflicted, an argument which was strongly put across by the Sub-metro Director during the researcher's interview with him. He believes that the area is endowed with so many economic potentials, but most of youth are not enterprising enough to exploit them. According to him, most of them enjoy idleness and over-dependence on their friends and relatives.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Study Methods

The study was conducted in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan Area. Purposive sampling method was used to select this part of Accra for the study for three reasons. First, it is an urban setting, which is densely populated, and the focus of the study is on urban poverty. Secondly, the area accommodates some of the most deprived communities in Accra with most of the inhabitants in the lower socio-economic class (Henry and Fayorsey, 2002). The population of sub-metro comprises of both the Ga people who are mainly found along the beach and extends inland and highly heterogeneous migrant population from other parts of the country. The study sample requires the inclusion of both indigenous and migrant youth hence the selection of this study area.

4.2 Sample Design and Sample Procedures

The study population includes all the young people living in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro who fall within the ages of 18 and 35 years. Youth, according to United Nations' definition are those persons who fall between the ages of 15 and 24 years. The Ghana National Youth Policy (1999) also defines the youth to include young women and men within the age bracket of 15-35 years. This study, however, uses age bracket of 18-35 because at the 18 years, a person is considered matured and qualified to work. The upper limit of 35 years also conforms to the National Youth Policy definition as well as the limit set for the implementation of the National Youth Employment Programme.

The study area was divided into three clusters based on the three electoral areas in the sub-metro, which include Kinka, Ngleshie and Korle Wonko. From the three electoral areas, one community was selected by means of simple random sampling. The researcher did the selection with the assistance of three Research Assistants. The names of the communities in each electoral area were written on pieces of paper and folded. Each Research Assistant randomly selected one of them. The communities that were selected were Agboghloshie (from Korle Wonko), Usher Town (from Kinka) and James Town (from Ngleshie). This was to enable the researcher to obtain representative sample from the three electoral areas.

Further stratification was done by interviewing 49 males and 67 females as well as 30 indigenous youth and 86 migrant youth from different parts of the country (see table 5.1 and 5.6). The sample size for the study was made up of 116 youth selected by means of accidental sampling method whereby the youth were selected and interviewed on the basis of availability and willingness to take part in the survey. The sample size was limited to 116 respondents due to cost and time. Quota sampling technique was used to divide the sample size of 116 as follows:

Fig 4.1: Sample Distribution

Electoral Area	Study community selected	No of respondents
Ngleshie	James Town	40
Kinka	Usher Fort (Salaga)	40
Korle Wonko	Agboghloshie	36
Total		116

4.3 Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. Primary data was obtained through field survey based on closed and open-ended questionnaire. The closed-ended questions sought direct answers to specific questions. The open-ended questions enabled respondents to provide variety of answers that were relevant for the study in unrestricted manner (see Appendix A).

Another source of primary data was gathered from face-to-face structured and semi-structured interview with key informants including the Sub-metro Director of Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan Area, Regional Director of the Department of Rural Housing and Secretary of the Jamestown Canoe Fishermen Association. The interview sought to find out their views or perception on the seriousness of poverty and unemployment, especially among the youth in Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro, as well as the coping strategies (see Appendix B)

Secondary data sources were extracted from various documentary sources including textbooks, journals, newsletters and current publications from Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro, Ministry of Employment and Manpower Development, GPRS document, relevant ISSER publications, World Bank publications, magazines, newspapers, relevant as well as other relevant unpublished works on the topic and web sites.

Before the data entry, quality control checks were performed to assess the completeness and consistency of the completed questionnaire. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 10) was used for data processing. Basically, cross-tabulation was used to

analyze the relationship between some of the variables, especially education and employment as well the intention of respondents to leave the communities. Chi-Square test was also used to test the significance of some of the main claims in the study. The chi-square test was deemed appropriate due to its non-parametric nature, which applies to discrete data rather than measured values. The study also employed simple statistical tools to analyze the data. Among these tools were measures of central tendency such as percentage, proportion, mean and ratio. Graphical tools such as bar charts and pie charts were also used to illustrate certain trends and patterns that were observed from the data.

In this regard, the first aspect of the analysis was based on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, which sought to determine the relationship between their background such as family background, household composition, and level of education or skills acquired and their poverty profile as well as its implication on their current employment status or opportunities.

The second aspect sought to examine the poverty profiles and the socio-economic conditions of the respondents, and the variables that were used to measure and analyze included their migratory history, neighborhood and housing characteristics, income status, profile of asset ownership, and health status of the family as well as access to essential social services.

The third aspect also sought to examine the employment and livelihood problems of the respondents, the extent of their vulnerability as well as their social and economic coping strategies. An assessment was made to find out their current source of livelihood or job

opportunities, assistance from family members, and their participation in the informal sector activities as well as membership in social network groups.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of the data collected during the course of the study. The variables that reflect the socio-economic conditions of the poor urban youth are defined. These are divided into three parts: their poverty profiles, unemployment and coping strategies. The analyses of these provide a better understanding of the manner in which they can be improved by way of policy and programmatic interventions.

The broad areas of analysis in the study include the following:

1. Poverty in Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro

2. Demographic characteristics of respondents
 - ◆ *Sex of respondents*
 - ◆ *Ages of respondents*
 - ◆ *Marital statuses of respondents*

3. Poverty Profiles of Respondents
 - ◆ *Educational backgrounds of respondents*
 - ◆ *Places of origin of respondents*
 - ◆ *Household compositions of respondents*
 - ◆ *Expenditure patterns of respondents*
 - ◆ *Respondents' access to public services*

4. Employments Opportunity of respondents

- ◆ *Skills acquired by respondents*
- ◆ *Perception about job opportunities*
- ◆ *Type of jobs of respondents*

5. Livelihood Coping Strategies of Respondents

- ◆ *Participation in informal sector activities*
- ◆ *Assistance from relations*
- ◆ *Membership in social network groups*

5.1 Data Analysis

The data analysis covers the demographic characteristics of respondents, their poverty profiles as well as unemployment and coping strategies. In all, 116 youth between the ages of 18 and 35 in three poor communities in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metropolitan area were targeted, namely Agbogbloshie, Usher Town and Jamestown.

5.1.1 Poverty in Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro: Views from Key Informants

The views of key informants who have lived or worked in the sub-metro were seen as important in examining the poverty and unemployment situations in the sub-metro. As a result, the researcher interviewed some key informants in the sub-metro who included the Sub-metro Director, the Regional Director of the Department of Rural Housing and Cottage Industry and the Secretary of James Town Canoe Fishermen Association. The interviews were conducted separately and each lasted for about one and half hours. They offered their views based on structured interview questions, (see Appendix B). The

average age of the three key informants was 48 years, which means that they know the history on the study area.

Giving their general perceptions on the poverty situation in the Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro, they all confirmed that poverty situation in the sub-metro is very serious because according to them, a lot of people are living in poverty and lack basic things that make life meaningful. They mentioned lack of job opportunities, lack of government support, lack of credit and seasonal nature of fishing as some of the factors that have greatly contributed to poverty among the majority of the young people in the sub-metro.

On how migration and urbanization have contributed to poverty and unemployment in the sub-metro, the Secretary of Fishermen Association on his part indicated that he is not the only person who believes that, but a lot of indigenous people, especially the poor households in the sub-metro think that urbanization and migration have deprived them of their livelihood. He put it this way: “the government has taken all our lands and left us only the sea to live on”. In his view, the influx of a lot of young people into the sub-metro has created competition in the activities that the youth can be engaged in, and the government has not increased facilities or created enough job opportunities to accommodate the growing population in the sub-metro. According to him, what he was saying did not imply that Accra should have been reserved for only the Ga people, or should not have been made the capital of Ghana. He referred to a common Ga adage: *'ablekuma abakumo wo'*, which literally means the Ga people welcome everybody irrespective of tribal background. But in his view, the Ga people especially those living in deprived communities like James Town, Agbobbloshie, Chorkor among others should

have been rewarded for their hospitality in a form of jobs, good schools, housing and other facilities that befit urban setting.

On wealth and employment situation before the place became urbanized, they all agreed that the harbour was a major sources of employment for the people, and its relocation has greatly affected them. They also indicated that the fishing industry was quite lucrative, but the introduction of what they termed 'light fishing', and the use of big trawlers have brought nothing but depletion, which makes it difficult for canoe fishermen to have enough catch to cater for themselves and their families

The other factors they mentioned included:

- Relocation of other multi-national companies like PZ and CFAO.
- Low educational levels of the most of the youth who are described as 'factory hands'
- Lack of employable skills among the youth; and
- The seasonal nature of the fishing industry, which employs majority of people.

The Sub-metro Director however disagreed with the argument that increased in population in the sub-metro as a result of migration and urbanization has contributed to or worsened the poverty and unemployment situations of the indigenous people. According to him, urbanization has its good side in respect of social amenities such as electricity, piped borne water and employment opportunities, which are lacking in many rural areas and which attract a lot of people to the cities. He viewed the serious poverty and unemployment situations in the sub-metro, especially among the youth as 'self inflicted'.

He argued that even though government has taken over the ownership of certain portions of land for development purposes like schools, hospitals, markets, lorry parks and government buildings, greater portions of lands, which belonged to the indigenous people were either sold or given out in long leases to immigrants like the Kwawus and the Ashantis. He also indicated that the sub-metro forms part of central Accra and abound in economic potential but disagreement over ownership of landed properties is a major contributing factor of poverty and unemployment. According to him, if families could for instance enter into agreements with estate developers to rebuild or renovate most the old and dilapidated buildings, they can make a lot of money out of such ventures and increase the commercial potentials of the area. In his view, most of the youth are not adventurous and lack business acumen that has made others succeed. He further argued that even in the commercial business district (CBD) of the sub-metro, out of thousands of youth engaged in street hawking, the indigenous youth are very few.

On how the youth have been affected by poverty and unemployment in the sub-metro, they all indicated that because many parents are not able to send their children to school coupled with high dropout rate, many of the youth do not have qualifications to compete for limited job opportunities. After they have dropped out, some of them according to them get involved in money-making activities such as street hawking, petty trading, fishing among others while others solely depend on their parents, relatives and friends. Those who get involve in such economic activities do it in anticipation of getting money to start big businesses, but most of them remain in it almost throughout their active lives. Therefore in their view, it is like poor beginning due to lack of parental support – lack of education or high dropout rate, no or low qualification or lack of self-employable skills,

teenage pregnancies, among others, and these perpetuate poverty, which affect the quality of live of the youth as well as their employment potential and chances. According to them, this situation applies to both the indigenous youth as well as migrant youth who are living in the sub-metro.

5.1.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The views of young people who are affected by the poverty and unemployment situations in the sub-metro were also sought for analysis of the study. Greater part of this chapter was therefore devoted for the analysis of the data collected from the 116 young people sampled for the study.

i. Sex of Respondents

The sex distribution of respondents is presented in Table 5.1 Out of the total number of respondents, 42.2 percent were males while 57.8 percent were female.

Table 5.1: Sex of respondent

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	49	42.2
Female	67	57.8
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

ii. **Age Distribution**

The age distribution of the respondents indicates that 37.9 percent fall within 18 and 20 years, 18.1 are between 21 and 25 years and 21.6 percent are between 30 and 35. The age distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 3.2.

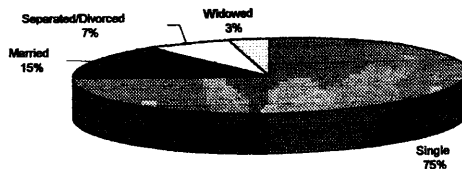
Table 3.2: Age of Respondent

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
15 -20	44	37.9
21 – 25	21	18.1
26 – 30	26	22.4
31– 35	25	21.6
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

iii. **Marital Status**

The marital status of the respondents is presented in figure 4.1. The distribution reveals that most of them are not married. Out of the total sample, 87 of them constituting 75 percent are not married, 14.7 percent are married while 7 percent are separated or divorced and 3 percent are widowed. Considering the fact that majority of the respondents in the sample fall within the marriage age of 18 years and above, it was surprising that the most of them are not yet married. This may be due to the socio-economic difficulties like unemployment and lack of shelter, which confront the respondents and make it difficult for them to marry

Fig. 5.1: Marital Status of Respondents

5.1.3 Poverty Profile of Respondents

i. Educational Background of Respondents

Educational background of respondents was seen in this study as one of the important variables that reflects the poverty profile and employment opportunities of the respondents. The level of education attained according to the GLSS 4 (2000) is a signal of the income earning potential of individuals and households and therefore a predictor of the population segment likely to be vulnerable to income shocks especially with aging.

Table 5.3 presents the educational background of respondents, and it reveals that 37.9 percent have not been to school at all, while 22.4 percent have only had primary school education. Only 2.6 percent of the respondents indicated having some tertiary education. This situation, if it can predict the income earning potentials of the respondents shows that most of them may not be able to get a high-paid job, and they are likely to experience income shocks as a result of non-permanent nature of the jobs they are likely to get.

Table 5.3 Educational Levels of Respondents

Educational level	Frequency	Percent
No schooling	44	37.9
Primary	26	22.4
Middle School	4	3.4
JSS	19	16.4
SSS/Secondary/Tech/Voc/Commercial	19	16.4
Tertiary	3	2.6
Non-response	1	0.9
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Table 5.4 shows the relationship between the level of education of the respondents and the type of activities they are involved in. The result revealed that most of the respondents who were found to be involved in petty trading, street hawking, "kayayee" and truck pushing were those who did not have education at all or dropped out of school after primary or Junior Secondary School (JSS) level. A total of 24 respondents with no education were involved in the activities mentioned above. Eight (8) of them were, however engaged in apprenticeship or self-employed in various trades (mason, carpentry metal work, fitting, seamstress, head dressing etc.). This is followed by 13 respondents who had primary education and 12 respondents who had education up to JSS. The figure drops to 6 of those who have up to secondary, commercial or vocational education. There was not a single graduate from the tertiary institution involved in activities like truck pushing, shoeshine, street or "kayayee". Ten (10) people who had tertiary level education, according to the survey results indicated that they were looking for jobs. Another 10 respondents, 9 respondents and 6 respondents with middle school, J.S.S. and

primary school levels respectively also indicated that they were not employed or looking for jobs. This indicates that there is a relationship between the level of education of respondents and the type of economic activities they were engaged in. The survey results in Table 5.4 also revealed that respondents with low level of education easily find activities in the informal sector to do as against those who have relatively higher education. This result conforms to the studies by Godfrey (2003), Clark (1988), Ghose (1999) and Rama (1999) who all confirm that highest unemployment rate has been seen among more educated youth as compared to youth with little or no education.

Table 5.4: Level of education and Economic Activities of Respondents

		Educational Level of Respondent					Total
		No schooling	Primary	JSS	Middle School	SSS/Secondary/ Tech Voc/ Com.	
Type of activities Respondents are involved in	Retail/Petty trade	4	3	7	3	-	17
	Street hawking	2	3	1	-	2	8
	Head porter ("Kayayee")	9	3	-	-	-	12
	Truck Pushing	5	1	1	1	-	8
	Shoe shine	4	3	3	2	-	12
	Sub-total	24	13	12	6	2	57
	No work/looking for job	-	6	9	10	10	35
	Self Employed/ Apprenticeship	8	2	4	8	2	24
Total	32	21	25	24	14	116	

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

In Ghana like most developing countries, it is believed that lack of financial support due to family financial limitations has been one of the reasons why many children drop out of school (Henry and Fayorsey, 2002). This was confirmed by the survey results when the respondents were asked to indicate the reason why they could not achieve the highest level of education that they wanted. More than half of the total number of the respondents (55.8%) reported that they dropped out of school due to a lack of financial support. This is followed by 24.4 percent who dropped out in order to get involved in money-making activities. And 9.5 percent dropped out of school due to low academic performance (see Table 5.5). Other reasons cited included lack of books, poor teaching, lack of teachers, overcrowding, distance, sickness, pregnancy and early marriage. Nearly one-third of children according to Ghana Statistical Service report of 1998 indicated the need to work to support their families or earn incomes for themselves as the reason for not attending school. Another third cited cost of education as the reason.

Table 5.5: Reasons why respondents could not achieve the level of education they desired

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Low academic performance	9	9.5
Lack of financial Support	53	55.8
Lost interest in education	2	2.1
To work and take care of myself/siblings	44	24.4
To learn a trade	1	1.1
Others	5	5.3
Non response	2	2.1
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Responding to the reason why many parents are not able to pay for their children's school fees, the Sub-metro Director said that there is misplaced priority in the attitude of majority of parents as well as the youth. According to him, in spite of the problems of poverty and unemployment and the fact some parents are not able to pay their children school fees, some of them get money to organize big social functions such as funerals, wedding, parties etc.

ii. Place of Origin of Respondents

The study sought to find out the region of origin or the migratory history of the respondents. The responses show that 43.9 percent of the respondents migrated from the three Northern regions, which are identified as the poorest regions in the country. Those from the Ashanti region constituted 10.3 percent while those from Central and Volta constituted 5.2 percent and 8.6 percent respectively (see Table 5.6). The region with the highest respondents in the sample was Greater Accra Region with 25.9 percent. Thus, it is evident that most of the urban youth found in Ashiedu Keteke are migrants from other parts of the country.

Table 5.6: Distribution of Respondents by Region of Origin

Region of Origin	Frequency	Percent
Upper East	20	17.2
Northern	22	18.9
Greater Accra	30	25.9
Ashanti	12	10.3
Volta	10	8.6
Upper West	9	7.8
Western	7	6.0
Central	6	5.2
Brong Ahafo	4	3.4
Eastern	2	1.7
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The responses obtained for reasons for migrating are depicted in figure 5.2. The figure shows that 39 of the respondents migrated with the reason of going to look for job while 16 said they migrated with the aim of acquiring skills. Nineteen (19) of them also said they migrated to start or to further their education. (See Figure 5.2)

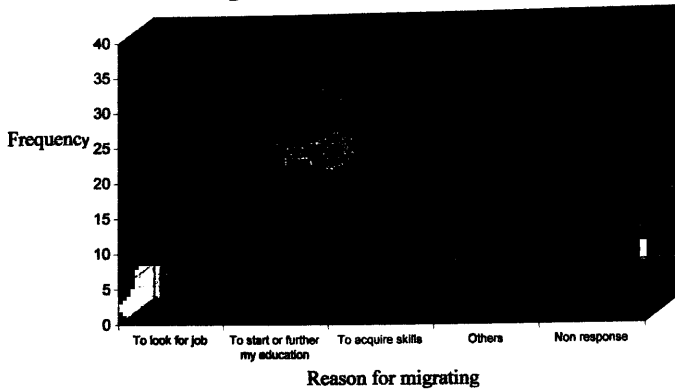
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Fig. 5.2: Reasons why respondents migrated



The study sought to find out from the respondents about their intentions to leave the place they were living in the future. It was realised that about 49 percent of them have intentions of leaving the place in the future, 9.5 percent have no intentions of leaving the place and 30.2 percent are undecided about the issue. Those who said they would want to leave the place indicated that they would leave in search of better job opportunities or to go and learn a trade. Others said they would leave to join their families, while nineteen said they would like to go and further their education.

Asked further about how happy they were that they had moved to the present place, 50.9 percent of the respondents said they were happy or very happy. Eighteen respondents (15.5 percent) indicated that they were unhappy while 3.4 percent said they are very unhappy, and 9.5 percent said they were indifferent. This result shows that despite all the challenges the youth are faced with at their current places, more than half of them are still happier than they were before migrating to the communities in which they live.

The satisfaction of the respondents about their current settlement places was cross-tabulated with their intention to leave those places and the result is shown in Table 5.7. It generally revealed that those who were happy at their places were more unlikely to leave as compared to those who were unhappy about their places.

Table 5.7: Cross tabulation of how happy respondents are at the current place and their intention to leave the place in the future

		Are you happy about the fact that you have moved to the present place?					Total
		Very happy	Happy	Indifferent	Unhappy	Very unhappy	
Is it likely that you will leave this place in future?	Very likely	1	3	3	10	2	19
	Likely	1	8	6	5	-	20
	Unlikely	2		-	1	-	3
	Very unlikely	6	10	-	1	-	17
	Not sure	8	18	-	1	1	28
Total		18	39	9	18	3	87

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

A total of 87 people out of the sample responded to these questions and 18 of them (20.7%) indicated that they very happy about the places that they were staying. Out of that, only 1 said it is very likely that he/she would leave the place in future, 2 of them said it was unlikely while 6 indicated that it was very unlikely. Another 18 respondents indicated that they were unhappy about their current places of settlement. Out of that, 10 indicated that is it very likely that they will leave their places, 5 said it was likely and 1 person indicated that it was unlikely or very unlikely.

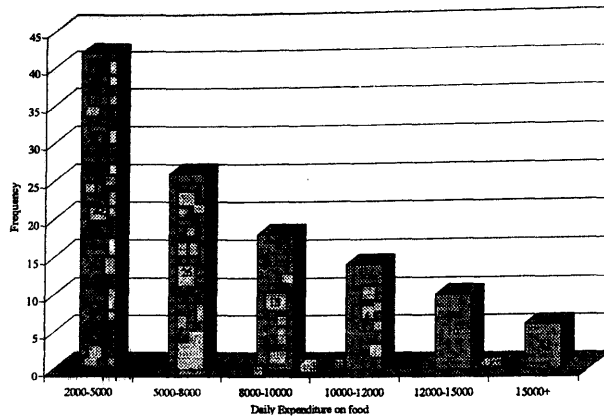
Respondents' satisfaction or happiness about their places of residence and their future intention to move out from those places was tested. The chi-square test of independence between the two variables gave a chi-square value of 51.022 with 16 degrees of freedom and an associated p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.01$). Hence, it can be concluded at 1 percent level of significance that the two variables are not independent. From the table, it is quite clear that a greater proportion of those who are very happy at the present place indicated that it is very unlikely that they will leave the place in the future.

It was also observed that the happiness of respondents in respect of their stay in the community depends on their levels of education. Those with higher levels of education are unhappy and expressed willingness to leave the communities. The two variables were cross-tabulated and statistically tested by means of chi-square.

Table 5.8: Relationship between the Level of Education and willingness to Leave

		Level of Education					Total
		No Schooling	Primary	Middle/JSS	Secondary/ Tech./Voc	Tertiary	
Is it likely that you will leave this place in future	Very likely	2	4	6	4	3	19
	Likely	3	2	3	8		16
	Unlikely	15	10	7	3		35
	Very Unlikely	15	4	4	2		25
	Not sure	3	3	3	1		10
Total		38	23	23	18	3	105

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Fig 5.3: Respondents' Daily Expenditure

The Researcher also sought to find out the assets ownership situation as well as expenditure patterns of respondents as further investigation into their poverty levels. The results indicated that very few of them have valuable assets like motorbike. Majority of the however own items like bed, mattresses, furniture and kitchen utensils. Even though these results do not indicate that they are rich, it shows that in spite of the fact that many of them are living under such a poor conditions, they are able to afford household durables like television, refrigerator, camera, etc. (See Table 5.9).

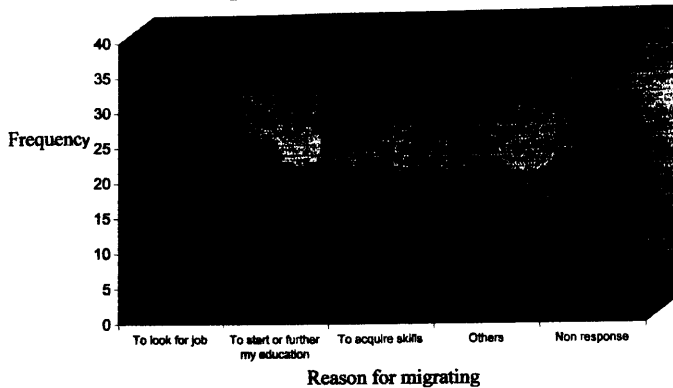
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		Very happy	Happy	Indifferent	Unhappy	Very unhappy	
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Total		18	39	9	18	3	87

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

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Respondents' satisfaction or happiness about their places of residence and their intention to move out from those places was tested. The chi-square test of independence between the two variables gave a chi-square value of 51.022 with 16 degrees of freedom and an associated p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.01$). Hence, it can be concluded at 1 percent level of significance that the two variables are not independent. From the table, it is quite clear that a greater proportion of those who are very happy at the present place indicated that it is very unlikely that they will leave the place in the future.

It was also observed that the happiness of respondents in respect of their stay in the community depends on their levels of education. Those with higher levels of education are unhappy and expressed willingness to leave the communities. The two variables were cross-tabulated and statistically tested by means of chi-square.

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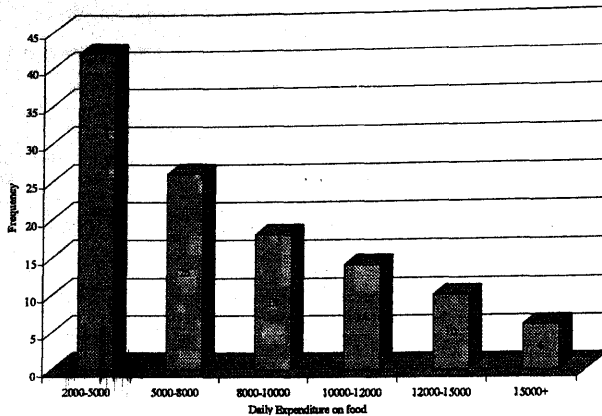
		Level of Education					Total
		No Schooling	Primary	Middle/JSS	Secondary/ Tech./Voc	Tertiary	
Is it likely that you will leave this place in future	Very likely	2	4	6	4	3	19
	Likely	3	2	3	8		16
	Unlikely	15	10	7	3		35
	Very Unlikely	15	4	4	2		25
	Not sure	3	3	3	1		10
Total		38	23	23	18	3	105

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The chi-square test of independence of the two variables here also gave a chi-square value of 39.795 with 16 degrees of freedom and an associated p-value of 0.001 ($p < 0.01$). Hence, it can be concluded at 1 percent level of significance that the level of education is significantly associated with the desire to leave the place in the future. It can also be seen clearly from Table 5.8 that those with little or no education are generally less ambitious to leave the place in the future as compared to their counterparts with secondary or tertiary education. This conforms to the observations made by Kotey (2002) Essamuah and Tonah (2004) that people who are well-to-do and highly educated often chose to move out of deprived communities.

iii. Expenditure Pattern of Respondents

The study examined the expenditure patterns of the respondents particularly, their daily expenditure on items such as food, transportation, communication and medical expenses. This was intended to be used as proxy for their income levels as a measure of respondents' poverty levels since it is always difficult to get answers about people's incomes. The results revealed that 42 percent spent between ₵2,000 and ₵5,000 on the items or services mentioned above, 26 percent spend between ₵5,000 and ₵8,000, and 18 percent spend ₵8,000 - ₵10,000. The study revealed that those who spend above ₵15,000 are only 6 percent (See fig 5.4). On the basis of the international poverty line of one dollar (expenditure per day per person) adopted for this study, (about ₵9,300 in Forex Bureau rate at the time of the survey), it can be said that majority of the respondents (68 of them or 58%) are poor since their daily expenditures are below 1 US\$.

Fig 5.3: Respondents' Daily Expenditure

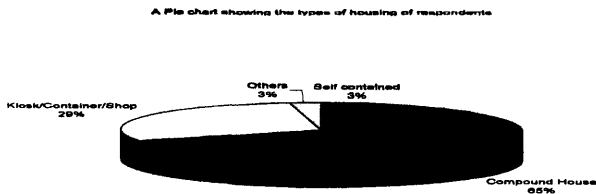
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5.9 Assets Ownership

Assets owned	Number of respondents	Percentage
Bed and Mattress	84	72.4
Furniture	95	81.9
Kitchen Utensils	62	53.4
Television and video deck	72	62.1
Electric fan	65	56.0
Electric iron	14	12.1
Camera	14	12.1
Refrigerator	6	5.2
Bicycle	6	5.2
Motorbike	7	6.0
Sewing machine	31	26.7
Sharks	4	3.4

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Fig 5.4 Type of Housing



Further enquiry was made into the poverty levels of respondents with respect to their housing situations. The results indicate that a majority of them (65%) are living in compound houses. Twenty nine (29) percent live in kiosks, container or shops while only

3 percent live in self-contained hoses (See Fig. 5.5). This also shows that youth in the poor urban communities face housing problems.

The Researcher during his investigation paid a visit to Old Fadama (Sodom and Gomorrah) to ascertain the housing and other problems that the settlers face. It was realized that the residents have been completely neglected and they are living in a very deplorable situations. During the interview, a community leader and Director of Homeless Association of the Urban Poor explained that the Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA) has declared the place an illegal settlement and they had even been issued an eviction notice. That is why they do not have access to so many public services like toilet and sanitation facilities.

iv. Access to Public Services

One way poverty is measured is the use of basic needs, which according to Mitlin (2004) is a composite index that includes access to basic services such as health, education, potable water among others. The basic needs-based measure uses distant to a facility to determine access because it is generally believed that proximity is equivalent to access (Mitlin, 2004). According to Mitlin, in Ghana, a distance of less than 30 minutes walk away is taken to mean access to services without considering the actual use of those services. It should however be noted that one major factor that deter many urban poor from the use of public services is cost, which is not affordable to many people. The study therefore examined the respondents' access to health, water, electricity and toilet facilities as well as their ability to afford them as a way of assessing their levels of poverty.

two kilometers, which indicate that most of them did not have problem in accessing health care according to the Ghana's standard of basic needs measure (See Table 5.11).

Table 5.11: Closeness of Respondents to Health Facilities

Distance to nearest hospital/clinic (Km)	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 km	32	27.6
About 1 km	33	28.4
More than 2 km	27	23.3
More than 5 km	21	18.1
No response	3	2.6
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

However, when further question was asked about the type of health care that they are able to afford and as such patronise, most of them said they do self medication by either buying drug from pharmaceutical shops, or unauthorized drug sellers or use herbal treatment. And the reason many of them gave was that it is cheaper and affordable. Others also indicated that they resort to self-medication and herbal treatment because even though the health facilities are not far from their residential places, one could waste a whole day in a hospital because the health facilities are not enough given the growing population in the Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro.

❖ Sources of Water

Respondents' access to potable water was also investigated, and the result is presented in Table 5.12 revealed that majority of them constituting 51.7 percent have access to

portable water. 48.3 percent however, indicated that they do not have access to portable water.

Table 5.12 Respondents' Access to Pipe-Borne Water

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	60	51.7
No	56	48.3
Total	116	100

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

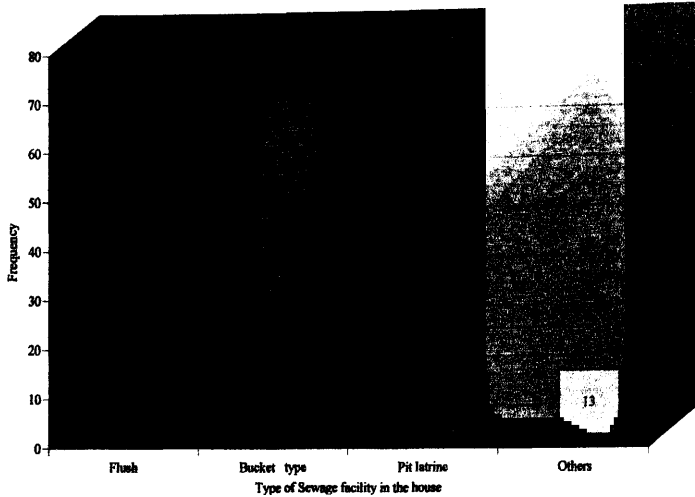
❖ **Electricity**

Respondents' access to electricity was also investigated, and this is summarized in Table 5.13. The results show that a majority of respondents (92.2%) have access to electricity while 7.9 percent said they did not have access to it.

Table 5.13: Respondents' Access to Electricity

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	107	92.2
No	9	7.8
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Fig 5.5 Respondents' Access to Sewerage Facility

The survey also sought to find out about respondents' access to sewerage facilities, and this is presented by Fig 5.6. The results revealed that greater number of them (73%) use the bucket type. Twenty one (21) percent have access to the flush type while 9 percent use pit latrine. The rest (13%) percent indicated that they use other types. It could be assumed that they constitute the people who use what is popularly known as "free range" because of their inability to pay. In his visit to the community, the Researcher was amazed to see how people openly ease themselves into the Korle Lagoon and along the sea in broad daylight. This poses a serious health hazard for the residents.

Table 5.14 Perception about Adequacy of Facilities for the Urban Poor

Facility	Not Satisfied	Satisfied
Shelter/Housing	54	62
Educational facilities	69	47
Health Services	71	45
Water	106	10
Electricity supply	100	16
Sewerage facilities	20	96

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The survey also sought to find out from the respondents whether in their opinion, the facilities they had in their communities were adequate and the result is presented in Table 5.14. The results indicated that majority of the respondents were not satisfied with facilities like housing (62 as against 54), and Sewerage (96 as against 20). Respondents were however satisfied with other facilities such as education (69 as against 47), health (71 as against 45), water (106 as against 10) and electricity (100 as against 16 respondents).

5.1.4 Employment Opportunities of the Respondents

The survey sought to find out the employment opportunities of respondents, and whether respondents had acquired any additional training or skills apart from formal education. The results revealed that majority of them constituting 55.2 percent have not acquired any additional skills after they were unable to continue their education. 39.7 however indicated that they had acquired additional skill (See Table 5.15).

Table 5.15: Additional Employable skills Acquired by Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	46	39.7
No	64	55.2
No responses	6	5.1
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Table 5.16 also shows the type of skills that have been acquired by respondents. The results revealed that majority of them have acquired skills in carpentry, masonry and hair-dressing (17.4 percent in each category). This is followed by seamstress (13%), painting and fitting (6.5%) and steel work (2.2%). 19.6 percent also indicated that they had acquired additional skills in other areas such as electrical works, shoe making and leather work, soap making, watch repair among others.

Table 5.16 Types of Additional Skills Acquired by respondents

Type of Skills Acquired	Frequency	Percent
Carpentry	8	17.4
Masonry	8	17.4
Painting	3	6.5
Steel Bending	1	2.2
Fitting	3	6.5
Seamstress	6	13.0
Hair dressing	8	17.4
Others	9	19.6
Total	46	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Table 5.17: Why Respondents are not Using the Skills Acquired

Lack of working capital	20	43.4
No prospects in the skills that I have acquired	7	15.2
Lack of credit facility	10	21.8
Mobilizing funds to set up a business	4	8.8
Interest in buying and selling	3	6.5
Others	2	4.3
Total	46	100

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Data on why respondents are not utilizing the skills acquired is summarized in Table 5.17. The results show that out of the total number of 46 respondents who indicated that they had acquired additional skills after school, 20 of them (43.4 percent) are not using the skills because they lacked capital to set up a business. Some of them (15.2%) believed that there was no prospects in the skills they had acquired, and 21.8 percent cited lack of credit facility as the reason why they could not utilize their skills. Others (8.8%) were with the intention of mobilizing funds to set up their businesses later while 4.3 percent expressed more interest in buying and selling.

5.18 Respondents' Perception about Job Opportunities

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Very good	2	1.7
Good	6	5.2
Bad	58	50.0
Very bad	24	20.7
Don't know	26	22.4
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Respondents' opinions were also sought about how they perceive the job market in relation to themselves, and this is summarized in Table 5.18. Majority of them (50%) indicated that the job market was bad, while 20.7 percent said it was very bad. Others (22.4%) said they did not know.

Some people hold a strong view that the relocation of the old harbour has greatly contributed to the low employment opportunities in the sub-metro. This was confirmed the key informants who indicated that the relocation of the harbour to Tema is one major reason that has deprived young people of job opportunities. In their view, there may be good reasons why the harbour was relocated, but if it had been left there, at least some of them could have got jobs in many of the activities that could take place in and around harbour. It could also have created brisk commercial activities for a lot young boys and girls to get something to do.

Table 5.19: Respondents' Employment History in the Formal Sector

Response	Frequency	Percent
No	102	88.0
Yes	14	12.0
Total	116	100.0

Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The opportunities respondents' have had to work in the formal sector are also summarized in Table 5.19 above. Majority of them constituting 88 percent have not got any chance of working in the formal sector before. Few of them (12 %) indicated that they have had few years' work experience in the formal sector.

The views of the key informants were also sought on the efforts and policies that the sub-metro, Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA) or government have put in place to tackle unemployment among the youth. The Secretary of the Jamestown Canoe Fishermen Association said that they have heard of the government youth employment programme but no one has met either the community leaders or the youth to discuss or educate them on it. He was not also sure whether the youth were involved in the planning of the programme. This confirmed the view that the urban poor are in most cases not allowed to participate in policies and programs that affect them (Hossain, 2005). He suggested following as measures to reduce poverty and unemployment in the sub-metro:

- Provision of housing and improvement of deteriorating facilities.
- Provision and employable skills and provision of jobs to the youth.
- Award of scholarship to needy students to enable them to go school.
- Provision of credit facilities to parents to enable them earn enough incomes to look after their children in school.

On his part, the Sub-metro Director said that the Sub-metro is embarking on programme to reduce unemployment in the area. He indicated that Government Youth Employment Programme targets the youth and it is intended to offer jobs to them. The modules according to him include:

- Youth in Sanitation
- Youth in agro-business
- Youth in ICT (Not started yet)
- Youth in Auxiliary Health Services
- Youth in Community Policing

The Regional Director of the Department of Cottage Industries (Rural Housing) also emphasized that the Department has selected the Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro to benefit from its skills training programme in the areas of carpentry, masonry, painting and entrepreneurial skills development including production of concrete tiles, roofing tiles and compressed earth blocks. According to her, the skill training will ennoble the youth fit into the government youth employment programme. As to whether the youth were involved in the design of these programmes, the sub-metro Director was emphatic that they were not involved. According to him, the programme planners determined the appropriate modules, and the youth are just supposed to chose on the basis of their interests and capability.

5.1.4 Livelihood Coping Strategies of Respondents

One of the main areas that the survey sought to investigate is the coping strategies that the youth in the urban poor communities have adopted to cope with poverty and joblessness, and a number of questions were asked to investigate that. Responding to what they do to survive as a way of coping with their deprived conditions, majority of them (49.1%) indicated that they do any kind of work that can bring them money to enable them survive. Nineteen (19) percent also indicated that they were still living with their parents even though the subsequent question provided by some of them revealed that they would want to be independent if they could find jobs to do. Some of them (14.7%) have also engaged themselves in long-term apprenticeship as way of saving themselves from idleness but with the hope of setting up their own businesses as soon as they get money to do so. Also 6.9 percent indicated that even though they were no longer living with their parents, they sometimes receive remittances from them. (See Table 5.20)

Table 5.20: Respondents' Sources of Livelihood

Response	Frequency	Percent
I depend on remittances from parents, relatives and friends	8	6.9
I am still living with my parents / a relative	22	19.0
I am still an apprentice even though I should have graduated	17	14.7
I do any kind of job that I get	57	49.1
Others	12	10.3
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Fig 5.6: Perception about Adequacy of Support from Parents/Relatives



When asked about the adequacy of financial support from they receive from parents and relatives, majority of them constituting 71 percent said that what they receive is not adequate. 29 percent however indicated what they get adequate. (See Fig 5.6)

Table 5.21 Participation in Informal Sector Activities

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	81	69.8
No	35	30.2
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The survey also sought to find out whether respondents participate in any kind of informal sector activities, and this is summarized in Table 5.21. Majority of them constituting 69.8 answered in affirmative, while 30.2 percent indicated that they did not participate in any kind of informal sector activities. Further questions was asked to find out the nature of the activities respondents were engaged in and the results revealed that they were mainly engaged in petty trading (36.2%), “kayayee” (25.5%), street hawking (12.8%) and truck pushing (10.6%).

The survey investigated the amount of money respondents are able to earn in a day from their economic activities and this is summarized in Table 5.23. The results revealed that about 44 percent of the respondents are able to raise daily incomes of more than 1 US\$ a day. About 56 percent do not get one dollar a day. By World Bank standard, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents in the survey who are involved in informal sector economic activities are not able to raise the minimum daily income of 1 US\$. It must also be stressed that due to the high cost of living in urban poor communities, even those who are able to raise one dollar or more a day still find cost of living unbearable because residents in those communities end up paying higher prices for their basic needs, which quickly reduce their earnings (Mitlin, 2004). Essamuah and Tonah (2004) also observed that the most pressing challenge of most urban households, especially those living in poor communities is how to earn adequate income that can enable them meet their basic needs like food, clothing, rent and pay for other services such as education and health.

Table 5.22: Daily Reported Incomes of Respondents

Income Range	Frequency	Percentage
2,000-4,000	18	15.5
5,000-9,000	48	41.4
10,000-14,000	28	24.1
15,000-19,000	15	12.9
20,000-50,000	7	6.0
Total	116	100

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Some studies have shown that some of the unemployed youth in the urban poor communities use immoral or illegal means to survive under the harsh urban conditions. The study therefore sought to find out whether some of the respondents had ever been suspected, implicated or arrested for any crime. Majority of them (79.39%) said they had never been implicated or arrested for any crime. However, 10.3 percent said they had been implicated or arrested before. When probed further to find out the type of crimes which brought about their arrests or suspicions, they mentioned crimes or cases such as theft, assault, fighting, flouting of Accra Metropolitan Assembly's regulation banning street hawking among others (See Table 5.23). Pellow and Chazan (1986) refer to this practice as the "*beat-the-system*" strategy, which involves the use of immoral or illegal means to survive

Table 5.23: Incidence of Crimes among Respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	12	10.3
No	92	79.3
Non response	12	10.3
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

The importance of social networking in coping with urban life cannot be overemphasized since it works like 'social capital' (Hossain, 2005). Urban poor especially migrants therefore maintain 'blood' networks as well as other networks based on ethnicity, religious affiliation, clan, hometown, classmates, or occupational/professional affiliations (Essamuah and Tonah (2004). Memberships of these network groups are based on common interest and affiliations, and they are basically formed to provide financial and social support to their members.

The surveys revealed that majority of the urban youth depend on social network group as a means of getting additional livelihood support. Thus 66.4 percent said they belong to some associations while 25 percent indicated said that they do not belong to any social network group. Among the migrants especially, these network groups have become social capital in the context of migration to the city, which provide initial assistance in terms of provision of accommodation and adaptation to urban life. Example of network groups found among the migrants included Gonja Youth Association, Sisala Youth, which are based on tribes. Others like Moslem Youth Association found in Agboghloshie is based on faith in Islam, and Scraped Dealers Association found in Atupai (Old Fadama) is purely motivated by economic interest. Some of them have also become like Community-

Based Organization or pressure groups that protect the interest of its disadvantaged members. An example is the Ghana Homeless Association for the Urban Poor also found in Old Fadama. This group, which was set up as a result of the eviction threat issued against the residents of Old Fadama (Sodom and Gomorrah) has over two hundred members, even though some of them are not very active. Among the indigenous people, most of these network groups were for recreational purpose.

Table 5.24 Membership in Social Network Group

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	77	66.4
No	29	25.0
Non response	10	8.6
Total	116	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Table 5.25: The Times Network Associations Meet

Response	Frequency	Percent
Once a week	21	72.4
Once a month	6	20.7
Once every quarter	2	6.9
Total	29	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Data (June, 2006)

Further enquiry was made about the number of times that members of this network groups meet, and it was revealed that most of them meet once a week or once in every two weeks, usually on Sunday afternoons (see Table 5.25). Further investigation also revealed that members make monthly contributions, which serve as the main source of

income. Among the migrants for instance, it was found out that when a member loses a parents, they make additional contribution and present to the bereaved person to enable him or her attend the funeral. They also receive religious and moral teachings and counselling from their leaders. The leaders of these associations also serve as parents who help to resolve conflicts and problems among themselves. Some of them got places to stay through the help of these associations, especially when they first arrived. Others have also been assisted to get involved in economic activities through these network groups.

Responding to the question of the coping strategies that the youth have adopted to survive, the Secretary of the Canoe fishermen Association indicated that some of the youth are involved in informal activities to earn a living. Some of them also depend on their family members and friends for especially food, shelter and clothing even though majority of them have reached the ages that they are supposed to be working and fending for themselves. He also indicated that some of the youth have constituted themselves into political social and economic network groups with the aim of helping themselves and also for recreational purposes. Other purposes for these network groups according to him include helping themselves during funeral, wedding and outdooing. According to him, the James Town Canoe Fishermen Association, which has a lot of young members, is one association that was established to provide support for members and also solicit support from government and other donor organizations to improve their lives. He however indicated that they do not get enough support like credit facilities and equipment to improve their fishing industry. He further indicated that some of these network groups

have become **Community-Based Organizations (CBOs)** that try most often to get assistance from government and donor agencies.

The sub-metro Director also indicated that high rates of poverty and unemployment have brought about communal living among the people in the sub-metro. He confirmed that some of the youth depend on their parents and friends for survival. He also confirmed that some of the youth, both indigenous and migrants belong to network groups such as fun clubs, ethnic (or hometown) associations, political associations as well as CBOs. Examples among the migrant youth include Gonja Youth Association, Sisala Youth Association and Ghana Homeless Association for the Urban Poor. According to him, the youth get themselves into these associations to support one another when any of them is in need.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the major findings of the study, draw conclusion and make recommendations.

6.1 Poverty Profile of Ashiedu Keteke and its Effect on the Youth

The study shows that from oral tradition, historical research as well as interviews, Ashiedu Keteke found in the Central Business District of Accra was once a prosperous area in Accra. Due to its strategic location along the coast, residents were among the first privileged people to benefit from the Atlantic trade. The fishing industry in the area, the presence of the Old Harbour as well as many multi-national companies created employment opportunities for the indigenous people. This also made the area very attractive to many migrants from all over the country. The area has therefore become one of the densely populated areas in Accra.

According to the Kotey (2002) the economy of the area started to decline after the relocation of the harbour as well as the multinational companies. This was also confirmed by the key informants interviewed. Seasonal nature of fishing, the main occupation of the people, depletion of fish due to the excessive use of heavy trawlers and overpopulation have all contributed to the poverty situation in the area. What has worsened the plight of many of the residents in the sub-metro is the Structural Adjustment Programme, which brought about retrenchment, cost sharing among other things.

Due to poverty, high incidence of unemployment and the fact that many parents are not able to raise enough income to look after their children, many children drop out of school early to take part in money-making activities. Also, because the area is found in the main commercial area in Accra, where many 'low cost' poor communities are found, many migrant youth are also attracted to the area more than any part of Accra. The study therefore examines how the youth have been affected by the poverty and unemployment situation, and the coping strategies they use in order to survive.

- Education

The study revealed that most of the respondents have not had enough education and that has reflected on their livelihood and their employment opportunities. Most of them did not go to school at all or dropped out school after primary school. The study also shows that people who obtain higher level of education leave Ashiedu Keteke and settle in other suburbs of Accra.

The cross-tabulation ran to examine the relationship between the level of education and the kind of economic activities respondents were engaged indicated clearly that there is a link between respondents' educational levels and their employment status. Majority of the young people who dropped out from school did so due to lack of financial support. Many of them therefore dropped out in order to take part in money-making activities in the informal sector.

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- Increase in Informal Sector Economic Activities among the Youth

The study showed that majority of the respondents (both indigenous youth as well as migrants) who have dropped out of school and have got themselves involved in activities in the informal sector. This according to Yeboah and Waters (1997) is referred to as “*strategy of participation*”, a situation whereby young people have to work in the informal sector to supplement household incomes. The main reason for this is the low level of education and training, which make it difficult for them to compete in the job market. Activities that they mostly find themselves in include street vending, petty trade, truck pushing and others. Some of the respondents entered into informal activities with the intention of raising money to start a better business later or learn a trade, but they have ended up staying in for a very long time. It was also revealed from the study that youth with little or no qualification easily find something to do in the informal activities than those with relatively higher education (Table 5.4). Some of them have acquired skills, which could have enabled them to be self-employed, but lack of capital has made it difficult for them to set up their businesses. They therefore engage in long-term apprenticeship, which is a waste of their productive years. In spite of their involvement in the informal sector activities, the most daunting challenge for most of them is how to raise enough income to meet the ever increasing daily expenditures on basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing and pay for other necessities such as transportation, health care etc.

Ashiedu Keteke serves as an attractive place for many migrant youth who had migrated mostly from the four most deprived regions in Ghana namely Upper West, Upper East, Northern and Central Regions. Of course others also migrated from the other regions

including Ashanti, Volta, Brong Ahafo, Eastern and Western regions. This is partly because of the vibrant informal commercial activities that take place in most parts of the area. It is also because of so many low cost areas (slums), which are affordable to them. Some of the youth migrate to these places at tender ages and start life without parental guidance, which is not good for their social and personal developments because at those tender ages they lack the ability to make good life choices and therefore are predisposed to so many risky lifestyles.

Escaping from the economic deprivation of their places of origin to acquire wealth has been the main reason behind the migration of many young people who were interviewed. This is also common among many ambitious young people in Ghana. However, they have not been able to achieve that as evidence in the study showed that many of them struggle to survive. They are living live of drudgery full of disappointment and frustration. In spite of this, urban centres continue to attract many young people as majority of them were very happy or happy that they were living in the city because according to them, the situation they were living in was far better than what they left back at home.

- Expenditure Pattern and Assets Ownership

The urban poor mostly spend their earnings to fulfil their basic needs especially for food, clothing, transport and shelter. Even on these, they are not able to raise enough money to meet them all. The daily expenditure of a large proportion of them is less than ten thousand cedis (₵10,000). In spite of this the assets ownership of the respondents revealed that some of them have been able to acquire few household durables like fridge,

television, electric iron and fan among others. But they have not been able to acquire durable assets like land, houses and vehicle.

What may seem to be a paradox in this study is the difference between what the respondents reported as their income or expenditure levels (which indicate that they are poor) and their asset ownership. It is probably that some of them refused to report correctly about their income levels or inflated the things they hold as assets as a sign of prestige. The Researcher's own visits to the communities as well as further investigations revealed that even though some of them, under such poor environments, have acquired few household items such as TV, electric fans, irons and fridges. Most of them are living in deplorable and highly congested conditions. Most of the items that they had purchased were used ones, which are very cheap in the market, and they are not things that portray well-being or wealth.

- Meeting Housing Needs and Accessing Public Services

It was also revealed from the study that majority of them especially the indigenous people are living in compound houses with occupants ranging from 6-20 people. Majority of the migrant youth were living in kiosks, shacks, and containers and some of them even sleep in front of shops. Because urban poor have no or little access to land some of them build their houses on vacant private and government lands as well as land that belong to institutions and therefore becoming squatters in the city. Their housing situations become very bad during the rainy season. Due to the non-permanent nature of their houses, especially among the migrants, they are constructed with low cost housing materials like wood, bamboo, polythene materials etc and electrical cables are not properly done, which

sometime lead to fire outbreak. Also because of over population in the areas and pressure on housing facilities, the urban poor pay higher rates for housing, electricity, water and toilet facilities. Those who are not able to afford high tariffs engage in illegal connections to their homes,

In terms of proximity to public services (which has always been assumed as equivalent to access) the residents in the sub-metro have access to electricity, water and health. The study revealed that toilet facilities, which are provided by private operators for instance, were found to be woefully inadequate and sanitation was poorly maintained. Residents, especially those living along the coast and the Korle Lagoon openly defecate into the sea and the Lagoon causing serious health hazards to the residents in the sub-metro. The main reason is that very few household have toilet facilities and the private operators charge ₵2,000 - ₵3,000 per visit. Residents have access to water but they experience irregular supply sometimes. Some of residents especially those living in the slums engage in illegal connection of electricity. Some of them also do not have their own electric meters and get their electric supply through agents who charge them exorbitant tariffs.

6.2 Unemployment among the Youth

High rates of youth unemployment are observed throughout the world, and in Ghana, it is one of the most serious challenge facing the youth. The contributory factors include high rate of population growth and the growth of labour force, rural-urban migration, lack of skills,

The extent and characteristics of urban unemployment among the youth obviously constituted an important aspect of the study. In the study, the 'unemployed include persons who are willing to work but do not have work to do and had sought employment through employment exchanges, friends and relatives.

The study showed that the severe unemployment and the desire to get job have forced some of the young people to migrate to the city in search of job. Majority of the indigenous youth sample for the study who dropped out of school also did so in order to get job to do to supplement households' incomes or provide for themselves. Both the indigenous and migrant young job seekers, especially the educated ones initially have high aspirations of getting jobs that can help them raise enough money to supplement family incomes or for themselves. But after a period of time, when they are unable to get the type of jobs they want, they adapt to the nature of the labour market faced by them and adjust their aspirations and work preferences. Those who continue to receive family support are however able to prolong their job search. Some also remain in long period of apprenticeship because of lack of capital to set up their own workshops.

In the case of youth with low-level education, they are always ready to settle for any types of activities that can earn them income such as truck pushing, street hawking and petty trading etc. Therefore the youth with no or lower levels of education easily find activities in the informal sector to do while those with higher level of education spend long time looking for jobs rendering them unemployed most of the time (see Table5.4).

6.3 The Relationship between Poverty and Unemployment

From the literature it was identified that the relationship between poverty and unemployment is not clear-cut, and there seem to be absence of the empirical evidence that link the two variables. Thus there is no direct positive or negative relationship between poverty and unemployment. There are some people who are employed but are poor, i.e. when the annual income fall below what is accepted as national or international minimum threshold. This is the situation many urban poor find themselves in many African countries where social welfare system is poor. Even though many urban poor find work in the informal sector, they are not able to raise enough incomes to meet their basic needs, and the unemployed are not given any compensation. There are others who are not employed but are not poor, and this happens in situations where they receive government unemployment compensation or social welfare benefits. In Ghana like many other countries, there is nothing like unemployment compensation or social welfare a benefit for the unemployed or the poor. Therefore the unemployed youth are left alone without any support from the government.

This study could not establish any empirical link between the two variables, and this is the area that needs to be explored further. The study could not also bring out clearly the empirical evidence on the social costs of unemployment including its impact on the health and psychological wellbeing of those affected by it as well as the consequent increase in crime rates that often accompany unemployment among the youth, especially in the urban areas. The study basically focused on the livelihood strategies that the unemployed youth employ to survive in the phase of joblessness or inability to raise enough incomes from the non-formal sector activities to meet their basic needs and the

absence of unemployment compensation. Other studies, however, have shown the debilitating effects of unemployment on those affected. A study by Norman Feather for instance captures it this way:

“...the research supports the conclusion that other variables that relates to quality of life and the categories of experience that are available to the unemployed are also important influences on wellbeing. Thus, both economic variables and psychological variables have to be taken into account. ... Life satisfaction depends on a quality of life that involves more than financial considerations. Happiness and psychological wellbeing also depend on opportunities to satisfy basic needs and values within environments that enable individuals to develop short-term and long-term goal structures that give meaning and purpose to daily activity” (Feather, 1997, p.42 and 44).

Other contributions have identified various effects of unemployment on community life (Bryson and Winter, 2002), on health (Taylor and Morrel, 2002), on psychological wellbeing (Headey, 2002), on patterns of criminal activities (Weatherburn, 2002), on further constrain on public expenditure (Brenner, 1979), and how it contributes adversely to deprivation and social exclusion (Hunter and Taylor). None of them have concluded that unemployment is synonymous with poverty. That does not also imply that the effect of unemployment on an individual is anything less serious. Whether those affected receive compensation or not, unemployment implies dependency which tend to reduce the economic gains that any country can achieve. And youth unemployment and its possible repercussion come at a price to the economy, to society and to the individual.

6.4 Livelihood Coping Strategies

The livelihood strategies of the youth surveyed revealed a number of means the youth have adopted to survive under difficult conditions, and it depends on factors like the level of education and training, interest and membership in social network group and their

abilities to solicit support from parents and relations. The main livelihood strategies used by respondents are as follows:

- Assistance from Relations and Maintaining Rural Ties

The survey revealed that family support plays a very important role in the survival of the youth in the urban poor communities. The urban poor migrant youth migrated from different rural districts to the cities due to 'push' and 'pull' factors. Even though many of them are older, they continue to receive support from their parents and relatives and as a result continue to maintain ties with their family members. Some of the indigenous youth are still staying with their parents while the migrant youth continue to receive remittances from the parents.

- Participation in Informal Sector Activities

The surveys showed that majority of urban youth obtain their source of livelihood through their participation in informal sector activities by working day and night. The main reasons include the low level of education that most of them have attained. Many of them are therefore involved in petty trading, street hawking, "kayayee", and shoeshine among others. Some also do not have any specific daily activity, but move from one activity to the other and do anything they find. Some of them get involved in the informal sector with the intention of raising income to learn a trade or do a better business later on. But studies have shown that many of them stay in it for a very long time.

Even though they get money out of the informal activities, the most serious challenge is how to raise enough income to meet the numerous expenditures such as market tolls, toilet/urinal fees, bathing fees, electricity and water bills as well as transport fares, which keep on going up every passing day. Some of them also use illegal and immoral means such as theft (among the males) and prostitution or cohabitation (among females) in order to survive.

- Membership in Social Network Groups

Due to the fact that most of the people in the poor communities are migrants, there are a lot of social network groups in these areas. Most of these groups are established on the basis of ethnicity, clan, towns, age or religious affiliations, and they are formed to provide some forms of support to their members including financial support. They also provide support during funeral, wedding, outdooring, and other social events. Basically, membership to these associations are opened to all interested people and once a person becomes a member, there are responsibilities like attendance to meeting regularly, payment of monthly dues, and participation in all events and activities.

The study revealed that there are a lot of such groups in the Agbogbloshie, Salaha and Jamestown communities. The survey results shows that majority of the respondents are members of these associations. Concerning their membership, 64.4 percent said they belong to one or more network groups, while 25 percent said they do not belong to any network group (See Table 5.21). One major benefit that members get from these network groups is financial support. Apart from that, the network groups provide counselling, leadership and recreation to the members.

Evidence in the study also showed that few respondents were involved in petty crimes such as theft, assault, fighting, what Pellow and Chazan (1986) refer to as the “*beat-the-system*” strategy, which involves the use of immoral or illegal means to survive. Even though few respondents were found to be involved in this practice, it is still a very serious problem because other young people can learn from them. This can further develop into organized crimes such as arm robbery and can pose serious threat to society. It can also lead some of them to jail and jeopardize their lives.

6.5 Community Participation

According to Hossain (2005), social networking based on place of origin, ethnicity and religion are some of the main characteristics of the urban poor. They also rely on community-based organizations to advance their course. In most cases they do not rely on the law enforcement agencies to solve their problem but rather their organized or network groups. Moreover, the poor are often left out in decision-making process, even decision that concern them like housing, job creation or poverty reduction programmes that are designed for them (Hossain, 2005). It was revealed in the study that even though the government through the Sub-metro has initiated the youth employment programme, there was no evidence to show that they were involved in the design of the various modules, and the implementation is also being done by the technocrats. The youth are only targeted as beneficiaries of programme that they do not know much about.

6.6 Conclusion

This study has examined poverty profile of Ashiedu Keteke and how it affects the lives of the youth in the Sub-metro. The study also examined their unemployment problems and

coping strategies. Once a vibrant commercial suburb of Accra, Ashiedu Keteke started to decline after the relocation of harbour and multinational companies that could have become the source of employment for the youth and wealth for the area. The rapid population growth of the area was not accompanied by expansion of the infrastructure. The Structural Adjustment Programme that affected many urban poor households had great impact on the residents of the sub-metro. The above factors together with the declining fishing industry explain why the sub-metro remains one of the poor suburbs of the metropolis. The indigenous youth have been affected by this situation in many ways. Lack of parental support in education has affected school enrolment and academic performance. Many children drop out of school because their parents are not able to afford high cost of education. Thus the indigenous poor households cope with urban poverty by withdrawing their children and putting them into workforce, through petty trading, living in low cost areas,

Rural-urban drift has worsened the unemployment situation in the in the sub-metro. The youth migrate to the cities due to 'push and pull factors'. They are pushed out of the rural areas because the rural areas are under-developed and there are no jobs. They are pulled by the development taking place in the cities where they expect to get better job opportunities.

Numerous commercial activities in the sub-metro attract a lot of them. Many of them move to the city in anticipation finding jobs. But in most cases, they fail to secure a sustainable livelihood and end up in the informal sector activities, where they find it difficult to raise enough income to meet their basic needs and high cost of living in the

city. They therefore become vulnerable in terms of their physical and social capital. They experience problem with shelter and many of them live in illegal settlements and slums where they live in constant threat of eviction. They therefore develop several survival strategies to be able to cope with their new environments. Majority of them take part in the informal activities including street hawking, petty trading truck pushing, shoeshine and “kayayee”. Some also get involve illegal and immoral activities such as theft (in the case of males) and prostitution (in the case of the females). Multiple memberships in social network groups is another strategy that most urban poor, indigenous and migrants apply to cope with poverty because they serve as ‘social capital’ that meet several needs including financial support, leadership and recreation.

6.7 Recommendations.

Based upon the findings from the study, the Researcher offers the following recommendations:

- The study confirms that Ashiedu Keteke is one of the deprived areas in the metropolis. But it should not be so at all. The sub-metro abounds in commercial, tourism and sport (boxing) potentials, and this need to be developed in order to revive the area. The area has produced all the best boxing talents the country has ever had. Currently, there are two private Boxing Gems, which can be expanded and improved through financial assistance to the owners or involvement of Ghana Boxing Authority to unearth more boxing talents. The beach can also be developed to revive tourism in the area. There are a lot of old and dilapidated buildings, which can be renovated. The families who own these buildings should enter into agreement with prospective developers who can develop and share it with them. Accra Metropolitan Authority

migrating to the urban areas in search of job. The government' Youth Employment Programme is another laudable initiative. It should therefore be well pursued and cover every part of the country and not only urban areas so that the rural-urban migration will be reduced. Government should also ensure that those in charge would not recruit only their family members and favourites. It should not also be based on political affiliation.

- There is also a need for emergency programme for resettlement of residents in the urban poor communities. Housing improvement should also be integral part of this programme. A visit by this Researcher to Old Fadama (Sodom and Gomorrah) revealed to him the nature of deplorable situation that the residents are living in. Because it is an illegal settlement, the residents do not construct proper structures for fear that they can be evicted at any time. For that reason, they live in kiosks and shacks and electric wires are lifted on tiny sticks. The structures are also constructed anyhow, and in case of any disaster, rescue effort will just be impossible. There are no proper toilets and sanitation is very bad to say the least.
- The study further revealed that rural-urban migration and lack of job opportunities in the urban areas add to the incidence of urban unemployment. Rural development programmes should be reinvigorated to reduce the serious unemployment problem being created as a result of rural-urban migration. The government should also develop, modernize and mechanize agriculture and make it attractive to the youth. Modern agriculture practices like irrigation and the use of equipment should be embarked upon so the youth, both educated and uneducated will be interested to go

should initiate a programme (like “Ashiedu Keteke Economic Restoration Programme”) that will bring it to the attention of the families and force them enter into agreement with private developers. This can bring ‘economic life’ back to the area.

- The study identified low level of education in Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro as one of the major developmental problems. Majority of the respondents survey either did not attend school at all or dropped out after primary, JSS or SSS, and many of them said that they dropped out of school because to lack of financial support. With growing poverty and high cost of living, many parents are not able to afford the high cost of education especially at SSS and tertiary levels. It was revealed that whenever the family income become insufficient of meeting the basic needs like food, clothing and shelter, parents withdraw their children from school and put them into money making activities such selling of food, iced water among others. It is very laudable that the government has started implementing the Free, Compulsory Basic Education (FCBE) as well as school feeding programme. However, the government policy on cost sharing at the tertiary level should be looked at again so that many young people can have access to education. The government and the local government should have the means of assisting brilliant but needy children and youth to attain higher education.
- Those who have dropped out already need to be targeted with appropriate emergency programmes that can lift them out of poverty. In this case, the central government local government and the local level institutions should all be involved in the effort to offer alternative livelihood in the form skill training to the unemployed youth who are

migrating to the urban areas in search of job. The government' Youth Employment Programme is another laudable initiative. It should therefore be well pursued and cover every part of the country and not only urban areas so that the rural-urban migration will be reduced. Government should also ensure that those in charge would not recruit only their family members and favourites. It should not also be based on political affiliation.

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into commercial farming. This will create jobs, solve part of unemployment problem, reduce rural-urban migration, reduce food shortage, increase the volume of our export and increase our foreign exchange.

- Government should also create investment fund purposely for young people who want to go into commercial agriculture or small-scale industrial activities. One problem many young people who have leaned trade or acquired skills face is how to get start-up capital. This fund if it can be created, should be given out as interest-free loan to young enterprising entrepreneurs to enable them set up their own business instead of continually looking up to the government for job. This will curb rural-urban migration or at least help to reduce it and also enable the youth to pursue a life-long vocation instead of pursuing 'short-circuit' prosperity ambitions.

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Appendix A

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

THE DYNAMICS OF URBAN POVERTY IN ASHIEDU KETEKE SUB METROPOLITAN AREA: YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND COPING STRATEGIES

Date of Interview:...../...../2006

Name of the Community.....

INTRODUCTION

Good morning/afternoon/evening. I am a Student studying for MA degree in Development Studies at ISSER (University of Ghana). As part of the Masters programme, I am undertaking a research on the topic: **“The Dynamics of Urban Poverty in Ashiedu Keteke Sub-Metropolitan Area, Youth Unemployment and Coping Strategies”**. The objective of the study is to find out the extent of youth unemployment in Ghana, examine livelihood strategies of the unemployed youth and make policy recommendation for effective targeting and improvement of the situation the youth in Ghana. I would, therefore be grateful if you can assist me to collect necessary information to enable me research into this topic and recommend ways to improve the livelihoods of the youth. The survey is for academic purpose only and your answers will be treated as confidential.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Sex of respondent 01 male [] 02 female []

2. Age of respondent

01	15 -20 years	[]	02	21 – 25 years	[]
03	26 -30years	[]	04	31 – 35 years	[]

3. Marital status of respondent

01	Single	[]	02	married	[]
03	Separated	[]	04	divorced	[]
05	Widowed	[]			

Education and Skills Acquired

4. Educational level of respondent

04	No schooling	[]
05	Primary	[]

- 06 Middle School []
- 07 JSS []
- 08 SSS/Secondary/Tech/Voc/Comm. []
- 09 Tertiary []
- 10 Non-formal []

5. Did you achieve the highest level of education that you needed or desired? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
6. If no, why could you not achieve the highest level of education that you wanted?
 01 Low academic performance [] 02 Lack of financial Support [] 03 Lost interest in education []
 04 To work and take care of myself/siblings [] 05 To learn a trade [] 06 Others (specify).....

SECTION B: POVERTY PROFILE OF URBAN YOUTH

Migratory History of Urban Youth

7. In which community do you stay?
 01 Salaha [] 02 Opera Square [] 03 Bukom [] 04 Jamestown []
 05 Zongo Lane [] 06 Agbogbloshie [] 07 Others (specify).....
8. Which region in Ghana do you come from? 01 Upper East [] 02 Upper West []
 03 Northern [] 04 Brong Ahafo [] 05 Ashanti [] 06 Western []
 07 Central [] 08 Eastern [] 09 Volta [] 10 Greater Accra []
9. Please list the places where you have lived for the past three years and duration.

Place	Duration

10. Why did you decide to come and stay here? 01 to look for job [] 02 to start or further my education []
 03 to acquire skills [] 04 to escape forced marriage []
 05 Advised from friends [] 06 Others (specify).....
11. At the time that you came here did you plan to stay here permanently? 01 Yes [] 02 No []

12. Is it likely that you will leave this place in future? 01 Very likely [] 02 likely [] 03 Unlikely [] 04 Very unlikely [] 05 Not sure []
13. If you will leave this place in future please state the reason why you would want to leave. 01 To join my family [] 02 To look for job opportunities [] 03 To learn a trade [] 04 To Further my education [] 05 Others (specify)
14. Or are you now happy about the fact that you have moved to the present place? 01 Very happy [] 02 Happy [] 03 Indifferent [] 04 Unhappy [] 05 Very unhappy []

Households Expenditures and Consumption

15. What is the size of your family/household? 01 1 [] 02 2 [] 03 3 [] 04 4 [] 05 above 4 []
16. What is the occupation of your father?
17. What is the occupation of your mother?
18. How do you personally assess the financial situation of your household? 01 Very rich [] 02 Moderately rich [] 03 Poor! [] 04 Very poor []
19. How much do you normally spend on the following items per day / month (Approx.)?

Expenditure Item	Amount
a. Food	
b. Drinks and beverages	
c. Clothing and footwear	
d. Rent, electricity and water	
e. Market tools and garbage collection	
f. Medical and health expenses	
g. Transport and communication	
h. Education	
i. Recreation and entertainment	
j. Miscellaneous goods and services	
k. Toiletries	
Total monthly expenditure	

Assets Ownership

20. Which of the following items do you / your household own?

Item/Asset	Yes = 1	No = 2
i. Bed and Mattress		
ii. Furniture		
iii. Kitchen Utensils		
iv. Television and video deck		
v. Electric fan		
vi. Electric iron		
vii. Camera		
viii. Refrigerator		
ix. Washing machine		
x. Bicycle		
xi. Motorbike		
xii. Car		
xiii. Sewing machine		
xiv. House		
xv. Residential/Agricultural/Commercial land		
xvi. Others (specify).....		

Access to Essential Social Services

a. Shelter/Housing

21. What type of shelter or dwelling place do you or/and your household have? 01 Self contained 02 Compound House 03 Kiosk/Container/Shop 04 others (specify).....
22. How long have you been living in this place? 01 Less than 1 month 02 1 – 6 months 03 More than 2 years 04 Others (specify).....
23. Have you received any eviction notice to move out from present place of residence? 01 Yes 02 No
24. Have you ever slept on a veranda or an open space as a result of lack of proper accommodation before? 01 Yes 02 No

b. Education

25. How many of your household members are currently in the following levels in school?

Level of Education	Number of People
Kindergarten / Nursery	
Primary - JSS	
SSS / Vocational / Technical / Commercial	
Tertiary	

c. Health Services

26. What is the most common disease that affects you or your household? 01 Fever/Malaria 02 Diarrhea [] 03 Skin diseases [] 04 Abdominal pains [] 05 Worms infestation [] 06 Cholera [] 07 Others (specify).....
27. How far is your residence from the nearest hospital or clinic (in km)? 01 Less than 1 km [] 02 About 1 km [] 03 More than 2 km [] 04 More than 5 km []
28. What kind of health facility do you and your household able to access and why?

Type of Facility	Response: Yes =1 No =2	Main Reason
Public Hospital/Community Health Care		
Private Hospital/Clinic		
Traditional Healer / Herbalist		
Pharmacy / Drug Store		

*Codes for Reasons:

- 01 Less expensive
 02 Closer to me
 03 That is the only facility available in this area
 04 No time wasting in accessing it
 05 No special reason

d. Water

29. Is your residence supplied with pipe-borne water? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
30. Is there a public (common) tap in your area that you have access to? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
31. How far is it from your residence (in km)? 01 Less than 1 km [] 02 About 1 km [] 03 More than 2 km 04 More than 5 km []
32. What is the source of water for yourself/household? 01 Hand-dug well [] 02 River [] 03 Pond [] 04 Others (specify).....

e. Electricity Supply

33. Is the area that you are staying supplied with electricity? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
34. If no, what is your source of power for lighting? 01 Private generator [] 02 Gas lamp [] 03 Kerosene [] 04 Others (specify).....

f. Sewage Facilities

35. What type of sewage facility do you have in your house? 01 Flush [] 02 Bucket type [] 03 Pit latrine [] 04 Others (specify).....
36. Are the sewage facilities you usually use sufficient for the number of people who use it with you? 01 Yes [] 02 No []

g. Perception about the Adequacy of Facilities for the Urban Poor

37. Are you satisfied with the following basic facilities/services available in your settlement? (Tick appropriate answers)

Facility	Yes = 1	No = 2
a) Shelter/Housing		
b) Education		
c) Health Services		
d) Water		
e) Electricity supply		
f) Sewage Facilities		

SECTION C: UNEMPLOYMENT, LIVELIHOOD PROBLEMS AND COPING STRATEGIES

Job Opportunities for Urban Youth

38. Apart from formal education that you may have got, have you acquired any other employable skills? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
39. If yes, what type of skill have you acquired? 01 Carpentry [] 02 Masonry [] 03 Painting [] 04 Steel Bending [] 05 Fitting [] 06 Seamstress [] 07 Hair dressing [] 08 Others (specify).....
40. If you have acquired employable skills, why are you not using it for your livelihood currently? 01 Lack of working capital [] 02 There is no

prospects in the skills that I have acquired [] 03 Lack of credit facility []
 04 I am mobilizing funds to set up my business [] 05 Others (specify)...

41. Given your qualification or skills acquired, what is your opinion about the job opportunities in the job market? 01 Very good [] 02 Good [] 03 Bad [] 04 Very bad [] 05 Don't know []
42. Have you been seeking for job
42. Have you ever been employed in the formal sector before (Government or Private)? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
43. If yes, please specify the type of job and duration:

Type of Formal Job	Duration

***Codes for Duration:**

- 01 Less than 1 year
 02 More than 1 year
 03 2 – 5 years
 04 More than 5 years

Livelihood Coping Strategies

Assistance from Relations

44. If you do not have job or involved in any reliable commercial activity, how are coping with this situation? 01 I depend on the remittances from parents, relatives and friends []
 02 I am still living with my parents / a relative []
 03 I am still an apprentice even though I should have graduated []
 04 I do any kind of job that I get []
 05 Others (specify).....
45. If you are still living with your parents / relatives, are you happy or satisfied that you are still living with them? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
46. Do you receive the needed support from your parents or relatives? 01 Yes [] 02 No []

47. If you continue to receive support from your parents or relative, please state the types of support.

Relation	Type of Support
Mother	
Father	
Others (specify).....	

Participation in Informal Sector Activities

48. Are you involved in any commercial activity for a living? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
49. If yes, what type of activities are you involved in? 01 Retail/Petty trade [] 02 Street hawking [] 03 Porter (kayayee) [] 04 Truck Pushing [] 05 Shoe shine [] 06 Others (specify).....
50. Please list the various activities that you do to ear income and how much you earn daily?

Activity	Daily Earning

51. Have you ever been involved in long apprenticeship or unpaid training before? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
52. If yes, please specify the type of training/apprenticeship and duration:

Type of Training/Apprenticeship	Duration

***Codes for Duration:**

- 01 Less than 1 year
02 More than 1 year
03 2 – 5 years
04 More than 5 years
53. Have you ever been suspected, implicated, arrested or jailed for any crime(s) before? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
54. If yes, please specify the type(s) of crime.....
.....
.....

Membership in Social Network Groups

55. Do you belong to any non-political group or club such as Clan Association or Youth Club? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
56. If yes, how often do you meet? 01 Once a week [] 02 Once a fortnight [] 03 Once a month [] 04 Once every quarter [] 05 Seldom []
57. Do you derive any benefits from being a member of this association? 01 Yes [] 02 No []
58. If yes please specify the types of benefit.....
.....
.....

THANK YOU

Appendix B

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

THE DYNAMICS OF URBAN POVERTY IN ASHIEDU KETEKE SUB METROPOLITAN AREA: YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND COPING STRATEGIES

Interview on Poverty and Unemployment Situations among the Youth in Ashiedu Keteke Sub-Metropolitan Area

Name of the Interviewee.....

Position/Designation.....

1. What is your general perception on the following:
 - Poverty situation in Ashiedu Keteke Sub-metro
 - Unemployment situation in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub-Metro among the youth
2. What are the major factors that have contributed to the poverty and unemployment situations in the sub-metro?
3. In what ways have migration and urbanization contributed to the poverty and unemployment situation in the sub-metro?
4. What was the wealth and employment (livelihood) situations among the indigenous (Ga Mashie) people before the place became urbanized?
5. Do you have any other information that traces the history of poverty in Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro, especially among the Ga Mashie people?
6. In what ways have the youth been affected by the poverty and unemployment situations of households in the sub-metro?
7. How are the youth coping with poverty and joblessness in the sub-metro?
8. What policies and programmes have been put in place by the sub-metro, Accra Metropolitan Assembly or government to tackle the problems of poverty and unemployment in the sub-metro?
9. How are the youth involved in policy decisions and programmes that aim at reducing poverty and creating jobs for them?
10. What suggestions do you have for government and developments agencies in respect of policies and programmes that can reduce poverty and unemployment in the sub-metro?