

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

CENTER FOR MIGRATION STUDIES

MIGRATION AND GENDER RELATIONS AMONG MIGRANTS IN MADINA

BY

APEANIMAA ADWOA DZANDU

(10065135)



**THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA,
LEGON, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE
AWARD OF MA MIGRATION STUDIES DEGREE.**

JULY 2013

DECLARATION

I, **APEANIMAA ADWOA DZANDU**, declares that, except for references cited which have been duly acknowledged, this dissertation is the product of an independent research conducted under the supervision of Professor Mariama Awumbila and to the best of my knowledge has not been submitted either in part or full for the award of another degree elsewhere.

.....
APEANIMAA ADWOA DZANDU (MRS)
(STUDENT)



.....
DATE

.....
PROFESSOR MARIAMA AWUMBILA
(SUPERVISOR)

.....
DATE

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work first and foremost to the Almighty God for His endless guidance, protection and provision throughout my MA. in Migration Studies programme. To my husband ROBERT DZANDU .To my parents, DR & MRS TWUMASI for their parental guidance and prayers. To my children SELASIE, DELA & SEYRAM for their support and encouragement and to my sisters and friends for their kindness and support throughout my programme.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to sincerely give thanks to my supervisor, PROF. MARIAMA AWUMBILA, whose continuous suggestions made this work come to a successful conclusion.

My deepest gratitude goes to all who responded to my interviews promptly and accurately.

I wish to equally express my heartfelt gratitude to all lectures of my study department (Centre of Migration studies) especially, DR BADASU for helping me further unearth and shape my intellectual capacities to another level.

I am infinitely grateful to all my colleagues of the M.A Migration Studies class (2013) for their love, support and encouragement during my programme.

Finally, I am indebted to several friends not only for the successful completion of my thesis, but also for making the write up a challenging and rewarding experience.

May the Almighty guide, protect and reward them all.



ABSTRACT

Public interest in migration has been on the increase in response to a shift in perceptions on migration among other factors. Migration research has since the 1980s increasingly acknowledged and highlighted a wide range of issues related to one of the key features of contemporary migration flows. They indicate that in the area of destination, migration can have great impact on the gender roles performed by both males and females. Moreover, role reversal usually hurts the ego of males, which may lead them to react in a violent behavior towards their partners. However, recent attention has been given to children and wives left behind with little focus on the family in general. The present study aimed to fill this gap by exploring the influence of migration on gender relation/roles among migrant couples. Fifteen interviewees from Madina, Accra - a migrant community participated in the study. The findings indicate that most of the couples before migration were involved in their traditional gender roles which were breadwinning roles and household headship among the males while the women were also involved in domestic work and social reproduction. However, after migration, some of the men said their traditional roles had changed and that they have now perform roles such as washing, cleaning and cooking. Again, some respondents also said that these changes in roles have created tensions and frictions in their relationships. The study recommends that concrete efforts should be tailored towards educating migrants prior to migration to alert them on the changes and uncertainties of migration.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Pages
DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM	4
1.4 OBJECTIVES	7
1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	8
1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	8
1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY	9
CHAPTER TWO	10
LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1 INTRODUCTION	10
2.2 THEORETICAL ISSUES IN MIGRATION	10
2.3 EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE ON MIGRATION	11
2.4 GENDER AND MIGRATION	13
2.5 CHANGES IN GENDER ROLES	17

2.6 MIGRATION AND IMPLICATIONS	20
2.7 MIGRATION AND RE-ENFORCEMENT OF MARRIAGES	20
CHAPTER THREE.....	22
METHODOLOGY.....	22
3.1 INTRODUCTION	22
3.2 RESEARCH METHOD.....	22
3.3 STUDY AREA AND STUDY POPULATION	23
3.4 SAMPLE POPULATION.....	25
3.5 DATA COLLECTION.....	26
3.6 DATA ANALYSIS	26
3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION	27
3.8 LIMITATIONS	27
CHAPTER FOUR.....	28
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MIGRANTS	28
4.1 INTRODUCTION	28
4.2 SEX DISTRIBUTION	28
4.3 AGE DISTRIBUTION.....	29
4.4 EDUCATIONAL STATUS	29
4.5 CHANGES IN OCCUPATION	30
CHAPTER FIVE.....	34
REASONS FOR MIGRATING.....	34
5.1 INTRODUCTION	34
5.2 REASONS FOR MIGRATING	34
5.3 LENGTH OF STAY	35

5.4 GENDER ROLE CHANGES AMONG MIGRANTS	36
5.4.1 GENDER ROLE BEFORE MIGRATION	36
5.4.2 GENDER ROLES AT DESTINATION	36
5.5 THE ROLE OF MIGRATION IN GENDER ROLE CHANGE	38
CHAPTER SIX	40
IMPACT OF GENDER ROLE CHANGES ON MIGRANTS	40
6.1 INTRODUCTION	40
6.2 IMPACT OF GENDER ROLE CHANGES ON THE MIGRANTS.....	40
6.3 IMPACT OF LIFE AT THE DESTINATION ON CONJUGAL RELATIONSHIP ..	41
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	44
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	44
7.1 INTRODUCTION	44
7.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS	44
7.3 CONCLUSION	45
7.4 RECOMMENDATION	45
7.6 AREA FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	46
REFERENCES.....	47
APPENDIX I.....	57
INTERVIEW GUIDE	57

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Interviewees Age.....	29
Table 4.2: Interviewees' Level of Education.....	30
Table 4.3: Interviewees' occupation before and after migrating to their present community.....	31
Table 4.4: Religion.....	32
Table 4.5: Ethnic Background.....	33
Table 4.6: Number of children of interviewees.....	33
Table 5.1 Reasons for Migrating.....	34
Table 5.2: Interviewees' years living in the community.....	35
Table 5.3: Gender and changing roles.....	36
Table 6.1: Extent of Effect of Gender Role Changes on the Family.....	40

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Sex Distribution.....	28
Figure 5.1: Migration impact on their relationships.....	38

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents readers with a strong overview and a discourse of migration and gender relations/roles among migrants. It discusses the choice of research questions and their importance to meeting the objectives of the study. Further, it delves into the purpose and significance of the study and serves to bring clarity to how it contributes to solving issues related to gender roles changes. Additionally, it concludes by providing an overview of the chapter disposition contained in this study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Migration is the temporary or permanent move of individuals or groups of people from one geographic location to another for various reasons ranging from better employment possibilities to persecution. Migration is a physical movement across a defined boundary that results in a semi or permanent change of place of residence and economic, social and other activities (Weeks 1999, Shryock et al. 1976)

While migration is as old as humanity itself, theories about migration are fairly new. One of the early writers on modern migration is Ravenstein, who in the 1880s based his “Laws of Migration” on empirical migration data. This collection of empirical regularities, for example the fact that most migrants only travel short distances, was far from a complete theory of migration.

Early migration models (e.g. Zipf, 1946) used the physical concept of gravity and explained migration as a function of the size of the origin and destination population and predicted to be inversely related to distance.

Migration is good for growth and poverty reduction because it can stimulate productive restructuring, productivity-enhancing investment and skill accumulation in sending countries, as well as increasing employment and income opportunities for migrants, or the flow of remittances. It can also, however, aggravate income inequality, cripple health or education systems (when teachers and nurses leave), create social tension and give rise to serious human-rights violations.

At the global level, the number of international migrants in the world is said to be more than doubled since the 1960s and it is currently estimated to be 214 million people (IDF, 2010). It is however observed that more people move internally than across borders with the number of internal migrants in the world estimated at 740 million people as at 2010 (IDF, 2010). Such movements, involve not only leaving social networks such as marriages and families but also includes experiencing at first a sense of loss, dislocation, alienation and isolation, which will lead to processes of acculturation.

Whether voluntary or forced, migration makes it possible for people to broaden their horizon and be exposed to socio-cultural values and lifestyle of different societies. Consequently, migration impacts on various institutions including family settings. The increase in migrant activities is an on-going concern of Governments in Developing Countries and the international development community. It has been widely recognized that increasing the effectiveness of the use of public funds, including funds provided

through official development assistance (ODA) requires the existence of a national policy that meets international standards.

While it is true that technological change has made migration cheaper and transnational communication easier and both more rapid due to “time-space compression” (Harvey 1989), this is not sufficient to understand why communities seem to have proliferated in recent years.

I examine the effects of migration on status outcomes: on taking up household headship, on the extent of participating in decision-making, on the extent of mobility, on opinions on domestic violence and on opinions on gender roles. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, gender roles refers to the differences and commonalities between men and women which are set by convention and other social, economic, political and cultural factors. Theoretically, migration can affect women’s power within the household via several channels and the final direction of the effect is not clear a priori. Women living in extended households with in-laws can have limited participation in decision-making. Another important channel through which migration can enhance women empowerment is that the absence of male household members due to migration—which in many cases result in female household headship--can give women an opportunity to have control over resources, make household and budgeting decisions on their own, be more mobile, gain experience in the public sphere, thereby setting off the process of their empowerment. The potential effects of migration discussed above are conditional on factors like living arrangements and household headship before and after migration

The study is particularly concerned with roles, relations, power dynamics and the inequalities between women and men. This research seeks to understand the gender roles/relations before migration among couples and the changes that have occurred in the Ghanaian context.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

In the last few decades, public interest in migration has been on the increase in response to a shift in perceptions on migration, among other factors. Migration research has since the 1980s increasingly acknowledged and highlighted a wide range of issues related to one of the key features of contemporary migration flows. The feminization of migration grew largely out of feminist work that explored migration and changing migration flows from a gendered perspective. This contradicted the mainstream view of chain migration (the man would migrate and then be joined by his wife, family and others in his social network), feminist analysis explored women's lives and women's experiences of migration (Phizaklea 1983, Koffman et al 2000).

In Africa, high levels of poverty, disease and unemployment explain the steady increase in female migration at a rate that is faster than the global average (UNFPA 2006:) Women currently make up around half of the world's migrant population, and this is without taking into consideration short-term and seasonal movements, many of which are unrecorded (Zlotnik, 2003). Zlotnik (2003) points out that globally, the number of female migrants has been large and increasing, both in terms of the sheer number of women involved and in terms of their share of the world's migrant stock.

Although women's participation in migration streams has been on the increase, it appears that men still dominate this stream. Women are moving independently as well as partners in marital unions. As a result of hard economic situations prevailing in most developing countries, couples are compelled to travel in search of greener pastures. Studies indicate that in the area of destination, migration can have substantial impact on the gender roles performed by both fathers and mothers.

Guendelma and Perez-Itriago (1987) find that among seasonal Mexican migrants gender roles are realigned in the process of migration. Hondagneu (1994) finds that gender roles also shift depending on the pattern of migration and length of stay in the place of destination. The wife's long hours of paid work and her great contribution to the family economy increase the likelihood of marital conflict about the division of housework. Her new role puts pressure on her husband to spend more time on housework. Moreover, role reversal usually hurts the husband's ego, which may lead him to reactions such as violence against their partners (Kluwer et al., 1996; Pleck, 1985).

Migration and the attempt by couples to employ available means to provide for the family often lead to a switch or turn in gender roles. Normative functions normally change when couples migrate. Couples, when they have not migrated, have decision making most often in the hands of the man. Women most often than not have little participation in decision making. These normative issues about men are reversed when women have the opportunity to migrate. Their say is therefore appreciated and decision does not stay in the hands of the man alone as has been the norm (Manauh 2005).

The division of house labor is a major source of marital conflict (Kluwer et al., 1996; Pleck, 1985). Role reversal contributes to marital tensions and violence, particularly when the husband maintains traditional gender role attitudes (Rubin 1983).

Several studies have indicated that the increase in immigrant wives' economic role with no significant change in their husbands' gender role attitudes has caused marital conflicts and tensions (Gold, 1989, 1995:36-38; Kibria, 1990, 1993; Lim, 1997; Mahler, 1995:107; Park, 1997:132,133; Pessar, 1995:56-72; Rubin, 1994; Sluzki, 1979). Pessar (1995:58) made similar comments on marital conflicts in Dominican immigrant families in New York City. Asima equally made similar contribution about Ghanaian immigrants' families in London. Mahler (1995:107) also documented that Salvadorian immigrant women's increased economic role enhanced their bargaining power at home, but that the latter became a new source of tension in marital relations when their husbands expected their wives to serve them meals.

However, different immigrant groups encounter differential levels of discrepancy between gender role behavior and attitudes because they differ both in the level of the patriarchal ideology brought from their home country and in the degree of preserving it. Due to this development it brings about tensions in the home.

The dearth of research on gender and migration until the 1990s has been redressed by Curran (1996), Grasmuck and Pessar (1991), Hondagneu Sotelo (1988). Yet attention has mostly been given to children left behind, wives left behind with little focus on the family

in general. Additionally, a significant proportion of these studies are sociological researches. Studies on the influence of migration on the family and related areas have not been extended to internal migrants.

In the light of the above, the present study examined gender role changes among migrant couples in Madina, a migrant community in Accra. It focused on gender roles, power relations and conflicts between women and men in families where both husband and wife are migrants.

1.4 OBJECTIVES

The general objective of this study was to explore the influence of migration on gender relations/roles among migrant couples in Madina, a migrant community in Accra. The specific objectives are:

- i. To describe the socio-demographic characteristics of the migrant couples.
- ii. To examine gender relations/roles among migrant couples before migration.
- iii. To comprehend the gender relation/role among migrant couples after migration.
- iv. To examine gender role changes among migrant couples.
- v. To find out the influence of the gender role changes on the marital relationship of the couples.
- vi. To make policy recommendations, based on the findings of the study.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study sought to answer for the following questions:

- i. Have individual gender roles changed for the couples at their destination?
- ii. To what extent has migration affected gender roles?
- iii. Have there been any consequences on families as a result of the changes in gender roles?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study will be a useful tool in the hands of Public policy actors to determine the appropriate policy decision for migrant communities. It will also provide an in-depth knowledge about migration and related issues in Ghana. It is envisaged that the result of this study will help;

- Provide important information about the gravity of gender role relations and role reversal in the study area of Madina.
- Fulfill the Master of Arts (MA) requirement of Migration studies

It is also significant in that migration has a direct impact on:

- The successful delivery of government projects and services..

The study hopes to add to existing literature and enhance further academic work on migration and gender relations/roles. Since Ghana is in the process of adopting a migration policy, this study will contribute to the process by providing research evidence on gender role issues on migration in Ghana.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The research will be divided into five chapters as follows:

Chapter one deals with the introduction, problem statement, objectives, research question, significance, and the organisations of the study. The second chapter reviews literature of some selected studies with present empirical evidence on migration issues relating to gender relations, the associated benefits, and best practices. Chapter three describes the methodology of the study and provides an insight into the design of the data analysis and further provides a justification of the type of data analysis chosen for this work. Chapter four, five and six involves the presentation and discussion of the data analyzed. Chapter seven provides the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter is on the literature that was reviewed for the study. It covers theoretical issues in migration, empirical evidence on migration, gender and migration, changes in gender roles, implications of migration and migration and re-enforcement of marriages.

2.2 THEORETICAL ISSUES IN MIGRATION

This study applied the migration system and network theory (Mabogunje, 1971) as its theoretical framework. It sets migration into social and economic context as part of an inter-related system linking areas of origin and destination. The system and the environment act and react with each other continuously. Migration system theory provides a conceptual framework that includes both ends of the flow and studies all dimensions of the relations between emigration and immigration

Migration system and network theory originates from the study of sociology and anthropology (which is the science that deals with the origins, physical and cultural development, biological characteristics and social customs and beliefs of humankind). The use of Mabogunje,(1971) theory on gender role is ideal because of the cultural development, biological characteristics and social customs, beliefs which either undermine or reinforce marriages (Mabogunje, 1971).

Gender roles are undermined or reinforced in the urban area when couples relocate. There is a vacuum created at both place of origin and destination. This comes about as a result of the decision that is taken by both family members and the nuclear family. When they move to the urban area a lot of dynamics come into play which begins to affect the social fabric of the relationship. Both partners would have to work long hours to support the home. Traditional roles cut out for men and women begin to change, domestic roles get swapped. They also have to assimilate into their new environment and adapt to the culture and life style.

2.3 EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE ON MIGRATION

The dearth of research on gender and migration until the 1990s has been redressed by Curran 1996, Grasmuck and Pessar 1991, Hondagneu-Sotelo 1988. Studies of Latin America offer some examples in which migration processes can actually challenge gender roles. Similarly, Guendelma and Perez-Itriago (1987) find that among seasonal Mexican migrants gender roles are realigned in the process of migration. Hondagneu-Sotelo (1994) finds that gender roles also shift depending on the pattern of migration and length of stay in the place of destination.

A review of the sociological research about gender and migration shows the substantial ways in which gender fundamentally organizes the social relations and structures influencing the causes and consequences of migration. Yet, although a significant sociological research has emerged on gender and migration in the last three decades, studies are not evenly distributed across the discipline. Much of the recent scholarship has been by qualitative sociologists, who have been more successful than their quantitative counterparts incorporating gender in migration studies. Therefore, gender is only partially

included in sociological studies of migration in a way that illustrates it as a "key constitutive element" (Hondagneu-Sotelo, 2003:9).

UN figures show that about 120 million people were resident outside their country of birth in 1990, and that the number of international migrants was growing only slightly faster than world population as a whole (Zlotnik, 1999). Even allowing for faster growth in the 1990s and for the fact that many temporary migrants return home after a period abroad, this indicates that international migrants are a minority of 2-4 percent of global population. Some analysts therefore argue that the real task for social scientists is to explain why so many people stay at home when there appear to be sound reasons to move (Arango, 2000:293).

According to most sociology scholars gender distribution among migrants today is reasonably balanced, with almost 50 percent of the global migrant population today being female although the increase has been mainly in the developed world. It is believed that between 1970 and 2000 the numbers declined in Asia (46.6% to 43.3%), North America 51.1% to 50.3%) but rose in Africa (42.7 to 46.7%) Oceania 46.5% to 50.5, Latin America and Caribbean 46.8% to 50.2%.

Nonetheless these statistics do not reveal the true numbers of movement particularly within countries and regions. We do know that in most developing regions more females are migrating independently (Sorensen 2004). The normal perception of international migration is that it was predominantly a male phenomenon during the large labour movements of the 60s and 70s in Europe and the US, with women and children following

in secondary waves of family reunification in the 1980s and 1990s. But by the 1990s, women were migrating in far higher numbers, both as family members and independently (Khachani, 2001; Sorensen 2004).

The usual starting point for empirical studies of family migration is the human capital model of migration (Mohlo 1986), which treats migration as an "investment increasing the productivity of human resources, an investment that has costs and that also renders returns" (Sjaastad 1962, 83). This model posits that a potential migrant in a one-person household evaluates the anticipated future stream of benefits and costs (both monetary and psychic), appropriately discounted over time, to living in any one of a set of geographic areas, including the current place of residence. The person then chooses to live in the area with the highest net benefit and migrates if that area is not the current place of residence. Sandell (1977) and Mincer (1978) extend the human capital model of migration to the context of a nuclear family with two wage-earners, arguing that net family benefit motivates the migration of a family, rather than net personal benefit. Within this familial context, spouses calculate their own individual net personal benefit to migration across a set of geographic areas, including the current place of residence. The sum of the individual net benefits, for each geographic area under consideration, is the net family benefit to migration. A family then chooses to live in the area with the highest net benefit and migrates if that area is not the current place of residence.

2.4 GENDER AND MIGRATION

Since the late 1970s, studies depicted women in the migration process and recognized they were as likely as men to migrate to the United States. Since then, women migrants were the subject of many studies and special volumes on gender and migration (Dumon, 1981 ;

Phizacklea, 1983; Morokvasic, 1984; Morawska, 1986; Simon and Brettell, 1986; Pedraza, 1991; Tienda and Booth, 1991; Chant, 1992a, 1992b; Gabaccia, 1992, 1994; Bujis, 1993; Zlotnik, 1993; Schenk-Sandbergen, 1995; Grieco and Boyd, 1998; Hondagneu-Sotelo, 1999, 2003; Hondagneu-Sotelo and Cranford, 1999).

This thesis found out that women were both independent economic actors and dependent family members in the migration process (Boyd, 1975, 1976, 1984; Fernandez-Kelly, 1983; Tyree and Donato, 1985, 1986; Foner, 1986; Pessar, 1986, 1988; Findley and Williams, 1991; Wolf, 1992; Donato, 1993; Hugo, 1993; Zlotnik, 1993).

Conceptualizing gender as an individual issue can lead to reinforcing differences rather than similarities between men and women (Thomson and Walker 1989). The notion of gender roles may serve to reinforce inequalities where such roles are viewed as 'natural', as 'a set of expectations for behaving, thinking and feeling that is based on a person's biological sex' (Kilmartin 2000: 20) from the basis of male and female reproductive roles, it is argued that men developed aggressive and competitive behaviours, while women developed nurturing and supportive tendencies. Thus, socio-biological and evolutionary theories assume that gender roles are both functional and natural (Barnett and Hyde 2001).

Evidently the assumptions and views posited by traditional theories concerning gender roles are no longer compatible with current concepts of gender in relation to work and the family. Sjørup (1994) notes that specific gender roles in relation to parenting and to the world of work have gone beyond the mere division of labor. For instance, fathers often take an active role in parenting, and women are pursuing professional careers. The

expansionist theory does attempt to incorporate modern conceptions of women, men, work, and the family (Barnett and Hyde 2001). So, the word 'gender' refers to roles and responsibilities of women and men that are socially determined (WHO 1998).

Gender roles are highly variable and are determined by social, economic, political, and cultural factors (DFID 2000). Like race and ethnicity, gender is a social construct which defines and differentiates the roles, rights, responsibilities, and obligations of women and men. The innate biological differences between the sexes form the basis of social norms that define appropriate behavior for them and determine the differences in social, economic, and political power between them. Although the specific nature and degree of these norms vary across societies and over time, at the beginning of the twenty-first century men and boys are still typically favored, receiving more resources and opportunities than do women and girls - factors important for the enjoyment of social, economic, and political power, and well-being.

Male privilege has been part of the culture of Bangladesh since time immemorial. Within the household and beyond it, men exercise control over women's labour, their sexuality, their choice of spouse, their access to labour and other markets, and their income and assets through local decision-making and legal bodies (Baden et al 1994). In other words, the programme (gender quality action learning programme also focused on women's decision-making power within the household, the division of labour, and access to and control over resources. The main purpose of this programme is to create a positive attitude in rural areas towards women's empowerment and to improve gender relations in the family, society, and organizations at the village level.

The expected outcomes were increased knowledge and awareness among the villagers about gender roles and relations; better understanding of the rationality of joint ownership of family resources; and the increased participation of women in decision making in the family, thus establishing gender equality within both the household and community.

The division of house labor is a major source of marital conflict (Kluwer et al., 1996; Pleck, 1985). The wife's long hours of paid work and her great contribution to the family economy increase the likelihood of marital conflict about the division of housework. Her new role puts pressure on her husband to spend more time on housework. Moreover, role reversal usually hurts the husband's ego, which may lead him to react to his wife violently. Role reversal contributes to marital tensions and violence, particularly when the husband maintains traditional gender role attitudes (Rubin, 1983).

Several studies have indicated that the increase in immigrant wives' economic role with no significant change in their husbands' gender role attitudes has caused marital conflicts and tensions (Gold, 1989, 1995:36-38; Kibria, 1990, 1993; Lim, 1997; Mahler, 1995:107; Park, 1997:132,133; Pessar, 1995:56-72; Rubin, 1994; Sluzki, 1979). Pessar (1995:58) made similar comments on marital conflicts in Dominican immigrant families in New York City.

Mahler (1995:107) also documented that Salvadorian immigrant women's increased economic role enhanced their bargaining power at home, but that the latter became a new source of tensions in marital relations when their husbands expected their wives to serve

them meals. Migration often leads to shifts in gendered roles and responsibilities for both women and men – sometimes to women's benefit and sometimes to their further marginalization.

Women may suffer from the added work burden or transfer this to younger girls who have to assume more responsibilities such as caring for children, the elderly and the sick (El Jack 2003). This shift of responsibility impacts on the welfare and future of female household members. The skills women gain enable them to assume new roles within their households, becoming the main breadwinners have problems finding jobs. Men however may react to these changes with depression, alcoholism and an escalation of violence against women in public and private (ibid.).

2.5 CHANGES IN GENDER ROLES

The expansionist theory does attempt to incorporate modern conceptions of women, men, work, and the family (Barnett and Hyde 2001). It has four principles. The first claims that multiple roles are beneficial to the physical, mental, and emotional health of both sexes. The second states that several processes contribute to the positive effects of multiple roles, such as social support and added income. The third principle recognizes that there are specific conditions that are likely to ensure the beneficial effects of multiple roles: for example, time management and the quality of the various roles. Finally, the fourth principle notes that psychological gender differences tend to be minor.

Neo-classical economics - which has had a dominant influence on migration policy in many Western countries - focuses on individual expectations of higher wages and better economic opportunities in destination areas compared with the place of origin. The income gap between poor and rich countries should be sufficient reason to make a 'rational choice' to migrate. In this free market model, international migration should in the long run lead to convergence of wage levels in sending and receiving countries, and thus to a long-term decline in migration. The shortcomings of this model in explaining actual movements have been repeatedly shown (see Castles and Miller, 1998:Ch. 2; Massey et al., 1993).

The new 'economics of migration' approach puts more weight on collective elements in migration decision-making: migration is part of family and community survival strategies, and is shaped by long-term considerations of security and sustainability, as well as by the role of remittances and investment opportunities (Stark, 1991; Taylor, 1999). Adepaju, shows that migration in Africa is closely linked to family strategies of high investment of their scarce resources in the education of one family member- usually the oldest male child. Since crisis-ridden local economies make it hard to realize the benefits of this investment, the result is often emigration in search of better conditions in other African countries (such as the Republic of South Africa or Gabon), or an attempt at illegal migration to the North.

Similarly, migration may be a rational attempt to mitigate the dramatic effects of structural adjustment programs on the family. Such programs typically lead to cuts in education and health systems and to reduction of employment opportunities, making emigration a 'coping mechanism of last resort' (Adepaju, 2000:385). On the one hand, studies have found that

migration provides women with greater economic opportunities and a more-egalitarian cultural environment, thereby heightening their power vi-sa-vi men (Boserup 1970; Grasmuck and Pessar 1991). However, few studies have systematically examined the gender domains that are associated with gains and losses for migrant women and isolated and interrelated the factors that condition power outcomes (Pessar 2003). Labor force participation gives women independent access to economic resources and has been regarded as central in undermining patriarchy (Blood and Wolfe 1960).

In addition to reducing women's financial dependence on men, work for pay involves outside contacts that increase women's social capital and interpersonal skills, enhancing their self-confidence and assertiveness and thus their bargaining power (Crandon and Shepard 1985; Hood 1983). On the other hand, the presence of multiple earners and additional sources of support that are potentially available in extended households could reduce women's dependence on their husbands' earnings and the husbands' control over resources (Oropesa, 1997).

Migration often has a positive effect on women's labor force participation. Heightened employment opportunities and the greater financial independence they offer women have been argued to be one of the central factors that promote migrant women's control over budgetary and other decision-making realms and that provide greater leverage in involving men in household chores (Boserup 1970; Grasmuck and Pessar 1991; Lamphere 1987; Pessar 2003).

2.6 MIGRATION AND IMPLICATIONS

In addition to its effect on women's level of resources, migration also has the potential to alter the effect of particular resources on gender power. For instance, migration is often a stressful experience that entails prolonged ambiguity and uncertainty, the need to learn and assimilate vast amounts of new information, and numerous other challenges related to operating in a foreign language and culture (Espin 1999). Factors that facilitate coping and adaptation, such as education and social networks, are likely to be of heightened importance to the power of migrant women relative to that of women in their community.

Rather than simply assimilate the culture and values of the United States, migrant communities and households may reinforce "traditional" gender-role behaviors for migrant women as a way of preserving their cultural heritage and protecting themselves from the disintegrating forces arising from residence in a foreign environment (Espin 1999). Rather than emphasize an overall positive or negative effect of migration on women's relationship power, what is needed is a better understanding of which changes facilitate or impede greater gender parity within relationships (Pessar 2003).

2.7 MIGRATION AND RE-ENFORCEMENT OF MARRIAGES

Carling (2005) argues that three intrinsic asymmetries characterize relations between migrants and non-migrants. First, migrants and non-migrants are differently positioned in relation to transnational moralities. Second, migrants and non-migrants do not enjoy equal access to information in the transnational social field. Third, there is asymmetry in the distribution of different forms of resources between migrants and non-migrants. As a result, we see many contradictions. It can be liberating when migrant women become breadwinners and find themselves on more egalitarian footing with men (Hondagneu-

Sotelo 2001). The flip side, however, reveals that gender distinctions are sometimes reinforced and reinvented to create hierarchies that are more rigid and traditional than in the homeland and to protect women from what is perceived as hostile and immoral receiving-country culture (Alumkal 1999, Caglar 1995, Espiritu 1992).

This complex web reaches outside of family as women go to their jobs (which they may never have had at home), join community associations, or become active in congregations. Women receive multiple, conflicting messages from the public and the private spheres of both the homeland and the receiving country, which they must somehow reconcile (DeBiaggi 2002, Pessar & Mahler 2003, Salih. Another dimension, adopted by Udry (2000), is grounded in biological determinism, in which gendered behaviour is thought to be a direct product of biological forces.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Migration and its effects can be examined as situations and experiences of the study population. This chapter discusses the research design, sampling technique, data collection and analysis. A description of the ethical consideration of the study was also discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH METHOD

According to Parahoo (2006) the design selected for research should be the one most suited so as to achieve an answer to the proposed research questions. For the purpose of this research I chose to carry out a descriptive research design in the hope to explore migration and gender relations. Furthermore qualitative research is a systematic, subjective approach to describe life experiences and give them meaning (Burns and Grove 2009). Qualitative studies allow researchers to explore behaviours, perspectives, feelings, and experiences in depth, quality and complexity of a situation through a holistic framework. (Holloway and Wheeler 2002).

There are four common approaches within qualitative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and historiography. Descriptive design aims to describe the essential findings in a rigorous way that is free from distortion and bias (Brabury-Jones et al. 2010). Descriptive studies help discover new meaning, describe what currently exists, verify the rate at which something occurs, and categorize the information.

The study used in-depth interviews in order to gain a better understanding of gender roles and gender relations. The research focused on collecting socio-demographic data that helped to measure attitudes towards gender. Information was collected with the use of an interview guide. Thus, I chose this design for the study as it facilitated the precise actions that I aimed to achieve such as identifying any issues with current practice or justifying current practice.

3.3 STUDY AREA AND STUDY POPULATION

The target population was the migrants of Madina. Out of the target population a sample size of fifteen (15) individual migrants were selected in order to gain detailed accounts of the respondents and allow for large amounts of information to be analyzed. This was so because, they constituted a central part of the study based on the researcher's own stakeholder analysis. The interviewees were chosen for convenience, limited time, and financial constraints.

Madina is a particularly interesting setting in which to examine the relationship between migration and gender relations. It is believed to be a migrant community. Madina is a suburb which is found in the Ga –East district of the greater Accra Region. It lies about seventeen kilometres to the northeast of Accra, about four kilometres beyond the University of Ghana campus. The land is owned by the LA stool of the Ga ethnic group who are natives of Accra. According to Dakubu (1997).the total initial population was 849 persons.

Alhaji Seidu Kardo founded the town on 14th June 1959 after he and his people had to leave an earlier village they occupied on La land near Shiashie, close to the airport and the

motor way (Dakubu,1997). The community is found to be purely multilingual with 96% of the people being polyglots; nearly everyone speaks two or more language. The 2010 census estimated the population of Madina to be around 7000.

According to Dakubu (1997), the total initial population was 849 persons, including 81 from Nkwantanang, a settlement around which Madina was developed. Alhaji Seidu Kardo had requested the new town be named “Medina “but the spelling “Madina” was adopted with the approval of the then La ‘Mantse’ and his council as a concession to local feelings after some people had raised concerns about the name. Alhaji Seidu kardo was formally installed as the headman of Madina in 1964 by the first Parliamentary secretary, Paul Tagoe, with the approval of the Ga ‘Mantse’ and the council. Many historians believe that Alhaji Seidu Kardo developed Madina (Dakubu 1997).The ethnic and linguistic composition of the town had altered by 1966 with the proportion of non-Ghanaians reducing drastically from 32% to 14% (Dakubu, 1997). The number of people from Northern Ghana had also fallen to 5% and Ga and Adangme from 30% to 5%.However the proportion of Akan and Ewe rose dramatically to 31% and 38% respectively. In a linguistic survey carried out by Ansre and Berry(1969), seventy community languages were found to be in contact in Madina. .Attempts by Ga Mantse and the La traditional council to rename Madina and also to appoint a chief for the people have been objected to seriously by the “migrants’ described as one of the fastest growing suburbs. Many migrants throughout the country prefer staying in Madina due to its proximity to the city Centre ;and the relatively low cost of living as compared to other areas such as Tema, East Legon, Airport and other residential areas. Madina has a total population of 104,238 out of the 281,724 total population of the entire district(Ga East District Assembly,2007)

The most common occupation in the municipality is public service and other service sectors. Other economic activities carried out include tourism (guesthouses, hotels, etc). Commercial activities including transport services and trading activities (the Madina market centre is the biggest centre in the Municipality) are the mainstay of the people of Madina. Dressmaking, garages and sachet water production also abound in the municipality. The area also has many distribution points for daily essential commodities, artisans and hardware sellers. However, lack of raw materials and storage facilities hinders manufacturing activities.

3.4 SAMPLE POPULATION

A snowballing sample technique was used to seek people who have actually migrated. This is where people will nominate others for participation. This method was appropriate since getting couples who have actually migrated together was difficult to find. Cormack (2000) suggests that qualitative researchers use a small selective sample, because of the in-depth nature of the study and the analysis of data required. As I applied the snowballing sample method, there were some exclusion and inclusion in the selection of the migrants in the study area. The criteria include

- Minimum of 15 and a maximum of 20 respondents in order to gain detailed accounts of the respondents and allow for large amounts of information to be analyzed. These are individual participants from various households who are married.
- Minimum of one year length of stay at the destination as a prerequisite for an in-depth knowledge of the issues and the challenges thereof.
- The target population was chosen from Madina; a suburb of Accra as a result of the cosmopolitan nature of the place.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

As previously stated, the study was a qualitative study, In order to do so it required open-ended, semi-structured, in-depth interviews. Open-ended interview was chosen as it allowed the interviewees to discuss their opinions, views and experiences fully in detail whereas perhaps interview with closed ended questions may inhibit them to express their full opinions and feelings. A face to face interview allowed me to observe any non-verbal communication and also allowed both me and the participants to seek any clarification necessary.

The interviews were estimated to last 30 to 45 minutes, however, these questions and times were merely a guide or structure to the interview sessions; it was the respondents responses which led the direction and length of the interview. The interviews were audio-taped with permission from the participants to ascertain an accurate account of the interview which was replayed for analytic purposes. The interviews were carried out over a period of one week (two interviews a day), which allowed the researcher to reflect and make necessary adjustments.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

“The purpose of data analysis is to organize, provide structure to, and elicit meaning from research data”(Polit and Beck 2008). Data analysis was done alongside data collection. As Polit and Hunglar (1999) stated that as interviews are conducted, gathered data is synthesized, interpreted and communicated to give meaning to it. According to Burns and Grove (1999) qualitative data analysis occurs in three phases: description, analysis and interpretation. I transcribed the interviews verbatim and analyses of the transcripts were carried out by me using thematic and content data analysis. I sought clarification of any

issues at the time of interviewing. In order to achieve complete data saturation, thorough reading and re-reading was necessary to ensure all recurring information and variations were identified and only when no new information could be obtained was this achieved (Holloway and Wheeler 2002 and Polit and Beck 2008). The data collected was categorized and sought to identify similar themes by using flat codes, tree codes and child nodes to help interpret findings more easily.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

All research studies present a number of ethical and moral dilemmas which must be identified and addressed prior to the conduct of research study in order to protect all participants from potential harm. Anonymity was assured during the course of the recording. Respondents were reminded of their right to withdraw from the study or terminate the interview at any time before commencing the session. This study commenced only when approval or consent was given by the interviewees.

3.8 LIMITATIONS

The small population sample size caused the findings to be relevant only within the district it was taken from, and could not be generalized outside of this study. In addition it is predicted that the findings may benefit migrants as a result of the knowledge gained.

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MIGRANTS

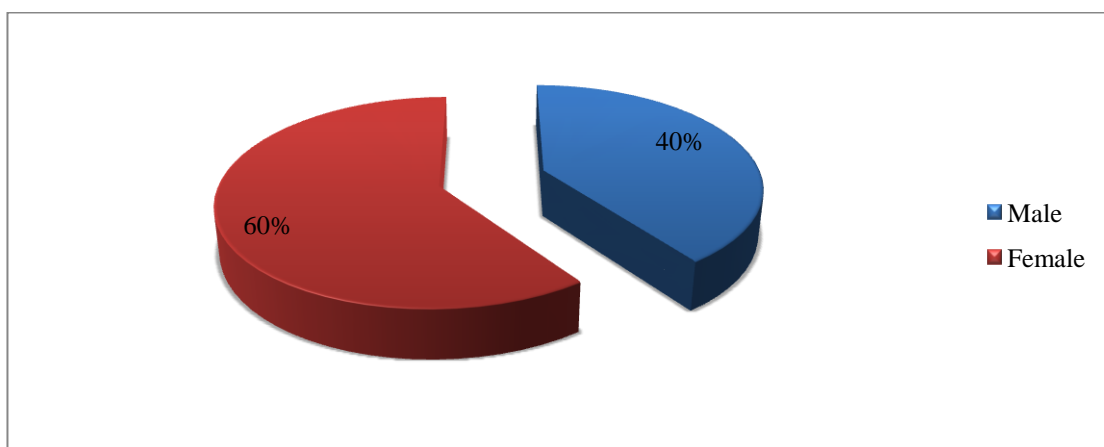
4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the analysis of the data collected in line with the research objectives. In this chapter, the socio-demographic characteristics of interviewees, gender roles among married couples before migration, gender roles among couples after migration and the impact it had made on their families are described. The analysis was primarily conducted using Microsoft excel 2007.

4.2 SEX DISTRIBUTION

This section reports on the socio demographic characteristics of interviewees that took part in the study. The figure 4.1 below indicates that majority (60%) of the respondents were females while the remaining (40%) were males. There were more females than males because majority of the interviewees were females.

Figure 4.1: Sex Distribution



Source: Field Data, 2013.

Studies have shown that, in most developing regions more females have been migrating independently (Sorensen 2004). But by the 1990s, women were migrating in far higher numbers, both as family members and independently (khachani, 2001; Sorensen 2004) the sex distribution of the migrants under study confirms this.

4.3 AGE DISTRIBUTION

Table 4.1 indicates that 60% of the interviewees were between 30 – 40 years old, whereas the remaining (40%) of the respondents were between 41 and 50 years of age. It is clear from the above analysis that majority of the respondents are young and within economically active age.

Table 4.1: Interviewees Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
30 - 40 years	9	60.0
41 - 50 years	6	40.0
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

4.4 EDUCATIONAL STATUS

Table 4.2 shows that 27% of the interviewees had completed middle/JSS, 20% had completed post graduate degrees, 13.33% had vocational/technical/agric/commercial/ post sec./polytechnic/agric./nursing and undergraduate level of education., 6.67% of the interviewees' had primary, whiles the remaining 6.67% had no formal education. The above composition of interviewees shows their ability to be able to analyze issues on gender and migration.

Table 4.2: Interviewees' Level of Education

Education	Frequency	Percent
No formal education	1	6.67
Primary	1	6.67
Middle/JSS	4	26.67
Vocational/Tech./Comm.	2	13.33
O'Level/SSS	0	0.00
Post Sec./Polytechnic/Agric./nursing	2	13.33
Undergraduate	2	13.33
Post graduate	3	20.0
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

4.5 CHANGES IN OCCUPATION

Table 4.3 shows that 40% of the interviewees were farmers, 20% of them engaged in other activities, another 20% were schooling, while the remaining 20% engaged in other occupations prior to their migration. This question was to find out whether migration has influenced their personal status in anyway. From the other part of the table it is realized that more people now work in office settings.

Table 4.3: Interviewees' occupation before and after migrating to their present community

Occup.(Before Migration)	Frequency	Percent	Occup.(After Migration)	Frequency	Percent
Schooling	3	20	Traders	5	33.33
Farming	6	40	Office work	7	46.67
Office work	3	20	Others	3	20
Others	3	20			
Total	15	100	100	15	100

Source: Field Data, 2013.

The occupation of the interviewees was examined from two angles, namely occupation before migration and after migration. This was done to examine the changes that have occurred in their occupational status during their migration process as this will have an impact on their standard of living. Interviewees who indulge in office work prior to migration were 20%, but the number shot up to 46.67% after migrating to their present community.

Examination of the data on interviewees' occupation after migration reveals that, of the 15 interviewees, 33.33% worked as traders, 46.67% as office workers, and 20% as others. Among those who worked majority of them (46.66%) worked as office workers, 33.33% worked as traders and the remaining 20% as others. Despite these categorizations, analysis of the interview data reveals that the migrants were engaged in multiple jobs. Some combined 2 to 3 jobs at a time. This was illustrated in the experience of a male interviewee in an interview reproduced below

I am a spare parts dealer and I also sell cars. Due to the slow nature of the car business, I give more attention to the spare parts. This venture has helped me increase my economic status compared to when I had not

come here. This helps me provide adequately for my family and this brings as all peace and reinforces my marriage (Kweku 2013).

The nature of jobs engaged in by these interviewees is due to the difficulties that migrants face in accessing the labour market, thereby restricting most migrants to the periphery of the labour market (Anderson et al. 2006, Clark and Drinkwater, 2007). The migrant in this study therefore refutes the point Anderson et al, Clark and Drinkwater made as their migration improved their condition. Their argument is that, they rather have improved lives as compared to their earlier status before migrating to their present location.

Table 4.4 shows that 33 % of the interviewees were of Catholic faith, another 33% of the interviewees' were Methodist, 20% were Moslems, whereas the remaining 13.% of the interviewees' belong to other religions. This is an indication that religion does not influence migration in anyway. The table indicates equal amount of people of different faith. Therefore the inference is that there is no influence on migration.

Table 4.4: Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Catholic	5	33.33
Methodist	5	33.33
Moslem	3	20.0
Others	2	13.33
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

Table 4.5 shows that 33% of the interviewees were Akan. Additionally, 33% of the interviewees' were from the Northern Part of Ghana, 20% were Ewe, whereas the remaining 13% of the interviewees' belong to other types.

Table 4.5: Ethnic Background

	Frequency	Percent
Akan	5	33.33
Ewe	3	20.0
Dagomba	5	33.33
Others	2	13.33
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

As depicted in Table 4.6, seven (7) families representing 46.67% of the interviewees had either a child or two children. Six (6) families making 31% of the interviewees' had three or four children. 6.67% (1 family) had 6 children, whereas the remaining 6.67% of the interviewees' is yet to have a child.

Table 4.6: Number of children of interviewees

Number of Children	Frequency	Percent
0	1	6.67
1 – 2	7	46.67
3 – 4	6	40.0
5 – more	1	6.67
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013

The number of children interviewees had played a significant role in their migration . The large number of children one had, the more attention and time that is needed to cater for them. This then influenced the family to a very large extent.

CHAPTER FIVE

REASONS FOR MIGRATING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks at the interviewees Reasons for Migrating, their Length of Stay and Role Changes among migrants.

5.2 REASONS FOR MIGRATING

An analysis of reasons for migrating is important in this study because it tends to bring out the motivation for their movement. Table 5.1 presents reasons for migrating.

Table 5.1 Reasons for Migrating

Reason	Frequency	%
Education	1	6.66
Economic reasons	10	66.66
Family Reunification	2	13.33
Transfer	2	13.33
Total	15	100

Source: Field work, Accra 2013

The interviewees gave various reasons as to why they migrated out of their home town. Data in Table 5.1 shows the reason for migrating. About sixty-seven percent said because of hard economic conditions. Thirteen percent gave reasons as family reunification and transfer respectively and nearly seven percent gave reasons of education. This therefore confirms Sandell (1977) and Mincer (1978) human capital model of migration

in the context of a nuclear family with two wage-earners, arguing that net family benefit motivates the migration of a family, rather than net personal benefit. The person then chooses to live in the area with the highest net benefit and migrates if that area is not the current place of residence.

5.3 LENGTH OF STAY

Table 5.2: Interviewees' years living in the community

Years	Frequency	Percent
	8	
1 - 5 years		53.33
6 - 10 years	3	20.0
11 – 15years	2	13.33
16 – 20years	2	13.33
More than 20 years	0	00.0
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

More than half (53.33%) have lived at the destination for more than one year. This may probably be new arrivals trying to settle in. Twenty percent have stayed over six years which is indicative of the fact that conditions have been quite favourable to them. It could also mean that they do not have the means to go back. Thirteen percent have gained roots and are very comfortable and have lived continuously for a period between 11 to 15 years. Lastly, another 13 percent have also managed to live for between 16 to 20 years. They probably have experienced adaptation syndrome and have to live with it since their gender roles might have changed.

5.4 GENDER ROLE CHANGES AMONG MIGRANTS

5.4.1 GENDER ROLE BEFORE MIGRATION

Table 5.3 indicates that 53% made up of two males and four females of the interviewees perform their roles as head of family as well as domestic work, 27% comprising seven males and one female perform only domestic work, whereas the remaining 20% perform their role as head of family only.

Table 5.3: Gender and changing roles

	Male	Female	Total	%
Head of family	2	4	6	20
Domestic work	7	1	8	27
Head of family/domestic work	6	10	16	53
Total	15	15	30	100

Source: Field Data, 2013.

5.4.2 GENDER ROLES AT DESTINATION

Table 5.3 shows that most men (interviewed said that they were performing their traditional roles as head of family before they migrated. They also indicated that they are compelled by circumstances to adjust to their current roles as being head of family as well as assisting with domestic work (including child care).

On the other hand, their female counterparts said they were performing their traditional roles such as taking care of the children and doing all the domestic work. However, their roles have changed since they migrated.

One interviewee Baaba reiterated he had to cook food for himself as the wife does not come home early therefore he had to do it all the time which sometimes marvels him as he cannot fathom the fact that he is virtually serving his wife rather than she serving him. Cooking is seen as a quintessential female activity, and cooking the evening meal in particular is regarded as a wifely duty. As Clark (1994) has argued, cooking for a man in the Ghanaian context is for all intents and purposes equivalent symbolically to living, and indeed sleeping, with a man in the United States. He claims:

I am a school bus driver so I leave early for work every day and come back earlier than my wife who sells at the Madina market. I am not given the opportunity to be served as is the custom of our people but rather I cook for my wife to come and enjoy most of the time. With regards to the children, I virtually do everything for them from preparing them for school, taking them to school and also picking them up, in addition to preparing supper for them. This is unbelievable (John, 2013).

Amoako another respondent claims he misses the respect and the honor which was accorded him. He states ‘ My wife will call me[Mewura me pa wokyewu me di nso no a se ho] “(which means my lord your water is ready for bathing)”. He does not get those kind of services any more. I fetch my own water now he lamented.

A good wife carries out the traditional roles assigned to her to the best of her abilities. These roles, according to Nukunya (2003), include seeing to the general upkeep of the home, caring for the children and carrying out all the duties associated with the provision of daily meals such as going to the market for groceries and cooking.

I find that although none of the women were exempted from, or exempted themselves from the responsibility of cooking, only one woman cook on weekends. While the rest of the women shared cooking duties with their husbands. Selassie one of the women gave reasons for cooking only on weekends. “My job is far away from Madina and I have to wake up so early in the morning around 4.30 in order to get to work on time”. My husband virtually does everything from bathing our three children, to clothing them, feeding them,

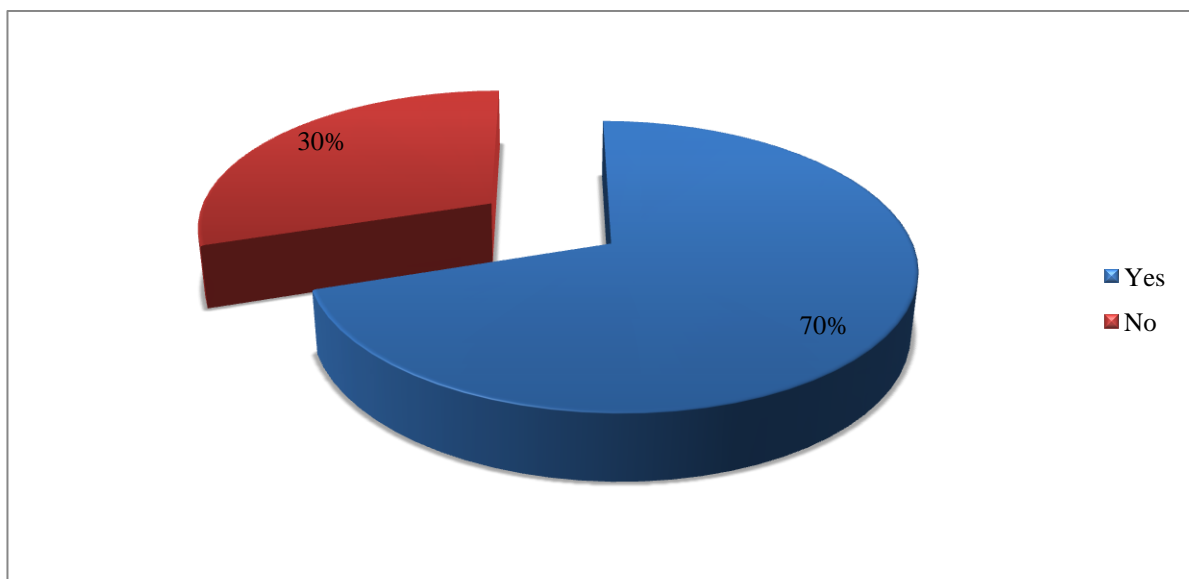
and taking them to school. He equally picks them up from his relative's house and feeds them supper before I get back from work. Selassie's husband Dela had this to say:

Before we came, I was actually a fully served husband but I have now turned into the woman of the house. I do almost everything. From child care, to cooking, washing, marketing and feeding.

5.5 THE ROLE OF MIGRATION IN GENDER ROLE CHANGE

Figure 5.1 shows that majority of the respondents' (70%) indicated that migration impacted positively on their relationship; whereas the remaining 30% of the respondents indicated that migration have not had any effect on their relationship.

Figure 5.1: Migration impact on their relationships



Besides, the 15 interviewees who indicated that migration impacted on their families, 70% of them indicated that migration had brought significant improvement in their status, whilst 30% of them indicated that it had improved their standard of living.

The following respondents who had positive impact had this to say;

Amoako:

You see I used to farm and the business was not booming enough so, I had to move. Fortunately for me my friend introduced me to some man who is a station master and he offered to give me job. I also got a station master job and the pay is better than when I was a farmer. Also the drivers at the station are so good to me. They give me small tips almost every day so by the end of the month my pay will have been intact. So I use the money for other things”.

Mr Aborh:

You see I was transferred from my former place to this place, Where I was working previously, I was not offered any incentives or allowances but now they are giving me all sort of allowances which my colleagues from my former place are not enjoying. I am so grateful for the transfer. My standard of living has dramatically improved”

Twumasi, a 50 years old farmer:

Before I came here I was a cocoa farmer, my business was good then and suddenly, fire raided my farm. All my capital and money was locked up. It became very difficult for me everything came to nothing. I became as poor as a church mouse so I came here and got involved into the selling of sandals and by God's grace [“Mafa metuma asa fra be om’] meaning my riches has been restored.

CHAPTER SIX

IMPACT OF GENDER ROLE CHANGES ON MIGRANTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the impact of gender role changes on the marital relationship of the migrants. Since gender roles are important areas in marital relationship, any change in them can affect the relationship. It is therefore important to examine this.

6.2 IMPACT OF GENDER ROLE CHANGES ON THE MIGRANTS

The impacts of gender role change should be expected to be both positive and negative. Among the 15 respondents who indicated that changing gender role impacted on the family, 90% of them indicated that changing gender role had brought unfair responsibility into the relationship.

As can be seen from Table 6.1, 40% of the interviewees indicated that their family unity had been affected greatly by changing gender roles, another 40% indicated that it had somewhat been affected, 3% indicated that there had been no effect on the family unity whereas none indicated that there had been no effect at all on the family. Gender role changes have affected the majority of the families of the migrants.

Table 6.1: Extent of Effect of Gender Role Changes on the Family

Extent of effect	Frequency	Percent
Greatly affected	6	40.0
Somewhat affected	6	40.0
No effect	3	20.0
No effect at all	0	0.0
Total	15	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2013.

As narrated by a number of the migrants, gender role changes have negative effects on their marriages.

CASE 1

Fuseina a 31 year old woman from Northern Ghana. She met her husband while both were at University of Ghana. Though they were both based in the north they both know the benefit and the respect accorded to husband over there like bending down to greet your husband and saying please when requesting for some things. Now in Madina she feels uncomfortable and it looks quite odd to be doing these things in a compound house. And this is creating tensions as the husband feels she is becoming disrespectful. This to her is undermining her marriage.

6.3 IMPACT OF LIFE AT THE DESTINATION ON CONJUGAL RELATIONSHIP

The migrants also indicated that the gender role changes have affected their conjugal relationships. These were experienced by both males and females. The following cases are illustrative:

Auntie Yaa

Auntie Yaa 45 years old interviewee explained how their migrating has affected their cordial relationship which they used to have as a couple. She emphasized how Accra is so demanding and therefore everybody is all the time on the move and not having enough time for her husband. Due to this the husband found another woman to be doing the jobs which she neglected in performing for him. At the moment they are not on good terms and she fears they might separate or even

divorce. She blames her coming to Accra, Madina as the cause of her woes and she regrets it.

Another interviewee said the wife also haven't become the bread winner in the house also liberates him and therefore reinforces their relationship.

Kwesi , the forty years old man had this to say: *Due to the fact that much responsibilities has been placed on him it is creating communication gaps in his marriage.*

LIFE HISTORY OF TWO INTERVIEWEES

The aim of this section is to offer details into how migration has influenced the gender relations/roles of couples.

Case 1: Atampoka: I have a mouth piece now!

Atampoka is a 37 year old mother of three. She comes from Bolgatanga in the upper east region. She is a Catholic with a basic education certificate. She travelled together with her husband to Accra in search of greener pastures. Since she arrived in Madina, she has not traveled to any other part of the country before . She has been married for ten years and has lived in Madina for almost eight years. Prior to departing from her place of origin, she was involved in farming and basket weaving, however, she now finds herself in trading. Due to the nature of her job she has to leave the home very early in the morning and come very late in the night, therefore not giving her enough time to do her wifely duties. She says migration has brought about all these changes. She is also supporting financially more than before. Some of the things which she used to do before migration were cooking, washing, cleaning and taking care of her children. But now, she is providing financially for the family. She thinks her inability to serve her husband creates friction and tension in

the family. To her the ability to provide financially has given her a mouth piece, she can now contribute to decision making in the family. She believes this migration has undermined her marriage by bringing tensions and friction in her marriage. However, for her and the family to survive the expensive living in Madina, she has engaged in this trading activity to enable her support her husband whose salary alone cannot sustain the family.

Case 2: Dela: Migration has done to me more harm than good.

Dela is a 41 year old man. A father of three together with his wife came to Accra on transfer. He has been married for eight years.. He hails from Aflao in the Volta Region. He is a Muslim with post graduate level education. He moved to Madina for almost three years now. Prior to migrating, he was working in a bank. His wife also now works in a bank too. This time around her job is farther away from home so she has to leave the home very early in the morning and come very late in the night. Therefore the wife can hardly perform her wifely duties, so he has taken on the domestic roles now. Some of the things which he used to do before migrating were providing for the family and enjoy being a husband but now he prepares the three children for school, feed them and send them to school. He picks his children from their family home after close of work and returns to the child caring and cooking job again. He believes migrating has done him more harm than good.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study and provides an analysis of the research findings. It further includes the implications and conclusions of the research relevant to the research questions presented in chapter one. Specifically, the discussion of findings, conclusions drawn from the research and the appropriate recommendations made are described.

7.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

The findings indicated that many of the interviewees belong to the Akan and Ewe ethnic group, were aged between 30 and 40 years and also have middle school certificate or basic education certificate. The number of years of stay in the community with the highest skewed towards 1-5 years is significant to tell that, the rate of turnover for the migrants is relatively high enough for gender role changes to have taken place.

Most of the interviewees were involved in their traditional gender roles which were breadwinning roles and family head and the women were into child caring, domestic work and reproduction. It was realized that all of these roles were exactly what society assigns for males and females.

Most of the men confirmed that their roles had changed and that what they did not use to do like washing, cleaning, cooking have now been taken over by them. They have now taken on child caring as part of their jobs which did not use to be so.

The findings revealed that some interviewees noted that the role reversal and changes have created tensions and frictions among the couples. These therefore do not create good conditions in the family. But a few indicated that gender role change such as women becoming bread winners is a good change for them as a couple. Women migrated more than men both as independent individual and as couples.

7.3 CONCLUSION

The study makes the following conclusions. Gender roles have changed in the process of migration, as men and women interviewees noted that their roles changed after migration. This finding supports studies by Guendelma and Perez-Itriago (1987) who also conducted similar studies among seasonal Mexican migrants. These authors also realized that gender roles are realigned in the process of migration and Manuh (2005) who studied Ghanaian migrants in Toronto.

Furthermore, due to these gender role changes, it is also evident in the findings that tensions are created among migrant couples. This finding also supports studies by Kluwer et al. (1996) and Pleck (1985) who also identified that role reversal usually hurts the husband's ego, which may lead him to react to his wife violently. However, among the interviewees of this study, the role reversal did not only affect the husband's ego but also the women. The women complained about their status as breadwinners which were not the case before migration.

7.4 RECOMMENDATION

The study provides an insight into migration and its effect on gender roles. Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations have been made with the hope that their implementations will bring about social development.

Consequently, the suggestion being made here is that concrete efforts should be tailored towards educating people on the dangers and uncertainties of migration.

Government must take up responsibility to institute long lasting reforms to bring equity and equality among groups. Whatever sentiments may have been expressed the fact remains that migrants need to work and can work in Ghana and therefore efforts have to be made in the institution of specific programs to encourage people to stay and work in their indigenous areas. This is where individual financial resources matter in the sense that those with financial resources will be able to do more to make life bearable. Local assemblies should be improved and empowered to support their own to make them independent. Additionally some counseling can be given to migrants in order to abridge the inequality gap

7.6 AREA FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Though the research questions and the issues raised in the study have been thoroughly investigated and analyzed it is recommended that further studies on migration and gender relations among migrant is conducted in other district or Regions of Ghana with larger sample size to help generalization to be made and pattern observed.

REFERENCES

- Abelman N. (2002). Mobilizing Korean family ties: cultural conversations across the border. Work. Pap. 02-11. Transnatl. Communities Progr., Oxford Univ., Oxford, UK
- Adepoju, A. (2000) "Issues and Recent Trends in International Migration in Sub-Saharan Africa," *International Social Science Journal*, No. 165:383-394.
- Adu, S. V. 1969. Soils of the Navrongo-Bawku Area, Upper Region, Ghana. Soil Research Institute Memoirs, No.5. Kumasi, Ghana: Soil Research Institute.
- Akyeampong, E. (2000). "' *Wo pe tam won pe ba*" ("You like cloth but you don't want children"): urbanization, individualism and gender relations in colonial Ghana c. 1900-39', in D. M. Anderson & R. Rathbone, eds., *Africa's Urban Past*. Oxford: James Currey, 222-34.
- Al-Ali NS, Koser K. (2002). *New Approaches to Migration? Transnational Communities and the Transformation of Home*. London/New York: Routledge
- Al-Ali, N. 2002. Loss of status or new opportunities? Gender relations and transnational ties among Bosnian refugees. In *The transnational family*, ed. D. Bryceson and U. Vuorella, 83-102. Oxford, U.K.: Berg.
- Alumkal AW. (1999). Preserving patriarchy: assimilation, gender norms, and second-generation Korean American evangelicals. *Qual. Sociol.* 22:127-40
- Amin, S. (1974). 'Introduction', in S. Amin (ed.), *Modern Migrations in Western Africa*, pp. 65-124. London: Oxford University Press for the International African Institute.
- Ammassari, S., and Black, R. 2001. Harnessing the potential of migration and return to promote development. Applying concepts to West Africa. Sussex Migration Working Papers No. 3. Sussex Centre of Migration Research, Falmer, Brighton, U.K.
- Aparicio FR. (2004). U.S. Latino expressive cultures. In *The Columbia History of Latinos in the United States Since 1960*, ed. DG Gutierrez, pp. 355-90. New York: Columbia Univ. Press
- Aparicio FR. (2006). Writing migrations: transnational readings of Rosario Ferre and Victor Hernandez Cruz. *Lat. Stud.* 4:79-95
- Awumbila, M. (1997). *Gender and structural adjustment in Ghana: A case study in northeast Ghana*. In A. Awotona, & N. Teymur (Eds.), *Tradition, location and community: Place-making and development* (pp. 161-172). Aldershot: Avebury.
- Awumbila, M. (2001). *Women and gender equality in Ghana: A situational analysis*. In E.

- Tsikata (Ed.), *Gender training in Ghana: Trends in politics, issues and tools* (pp. 33-59). Accra: Woeli.
- Awumbila, M. (2006). *The gendered face of poverty: Female porters adaptive responses to poverty in urban Ghana*. Paper presented at the 49th African Studies Association Annual Meeting, San Francisco, 16-19 November 2006.
- Awumbila, M. and E. Ardayfo-Schandorf (2008) 'Gendered poverty, migration and livelihood strategies of female porters in Accra, Ghana', *Norwegian Journal of Geography* 62(3): 171-9
- Awumbila, M., & Momsen, J. H. (1995). *Gender and the environment: Women's time use as a measure of environmental change*. *Global Environmental Change*, 5(5), 337-346.
- Baden, S., & Milward, K. (1995). *Gender and poverty*. BRIDGE Report No 30. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- Barkan ER. (2006). Introduction: immigration, incorporation, assimilation, and the limits of transnationalism. *J. Am. Ethn. Hist.* 25:7-32 Barrett J. 1996. World music, nation and postcolonialism. *Cult. Stud.* 10:237-47
- Basch, L.; Schiller, N. G.; and Blanc, C. S. 1994. *Nations unbound: Transnational projects, postcolonial predicaments and deterritorialized nation-states*. Langhorn, Pa.: Gordon and Breach.
- Baubock R. (2003). Towards a political theory of migrant transnationalism. *Int. Migr. Rev.* 37:700-23
- Benneh, G., Kasanga, R. K., & Amoyaw, D. (1995). *Women's access to agricultural land in the household: A case study of three selected districts in Ghana*. Accra:
- Berry, S. (1993). *No Condition is Permanent: the social dynamics of agrarian change in sub-Saharan Africa*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Beserra B. (2003). *Brazilian Immigrants in the United States: Cultural Imperialism and Social Class*. New York: LFB Sch.
- Black, R.; King, R.; and Tiemoko, R. 2003. *Migration, return and small enterprise development in Ghana: A route out of poverty?* Paper presented at the International Workshop on Migration and Poverty in West Africa, University of Sussex, Falmer, Brighton, U.K., 13-14 March.
- Blom Hansen T. (1991). *The Saffron Wave: Democracy and Hindu Nationalism in Modern India*. Delhi: Oxford Univ. Press
- Bommes M, Radtke FO. (1996). Migration into big cities and small towns: an uneven process with limited need for multiculturalism. *Innovation* 9:75-86
- Doku Aryeetey, E. (2000). 'The participation of women in the Ghanaian economy', in Aryeetey et al., *Economic Reforms in Ghana*, 321-43.

- Bortei-Doku, E. & E. Aryeetey. (1995). Mobilizing cash for business: women in rotating susu clubs in Ghana', in S. Ardener & S. Burman, eds., *Money-Go-Rounds: the importance of rotating savings and credit associations for women*. Washington DC & Oxford: Berg Publishers, 77-94-
- Bowen J. (2004). Beyond migration: Islam as a transnational public space. *J. Ethn. Migr. Stud.* 30:879-94
- Boyd, M. (1989) "Family and Personal Networks in International Migration: Recent Developments and New Agendas." *International Migration Review (Silver Jubilee Issue)* 23:638 671.
- Boyle, P. J., and K. Halfacree (1999) *Migration and Gender in the Developed World*. New York: Routledge.
- Boyle, P. J., T. J. Cooke, K. Halfacree, and D. Smith (2001) "A Cross-National Comparison of the Impact of Family Migration on Women's Employment Status." *Demography* 38(2):201-213. Bujis, G. 1993 "Gender and Immigrants." In *Migrant Women Crossing Boundaries and Changing Identities*. Ed. G.
- Bracking, S. 2003. Sending money home: Are remittances always beneficial to those who stay behind? *Journal of International Development* 15:633-44.
- Bryceson, D., and Vuorella, U. 2002. *The transnationalfamily*. Oxford, U.K.: Berg.
- Buggenhagen, B. A. 2002. Prophets and profits: Gendered and generational visions of wealth and value in Senegalese Murid households. *Journal of Religion in Africa* 31:367-95.
- Buvinic, M. (1997). Women in poverty: A new global underclass. *Foreign Policy*, Fall, 38-53.
- Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology* (1975) "The Status of Immigrant Women in Canada." 12:406-416.
- Cerrutti, M., and D. S. Massey (2001) "On the Auspices of Female Migration from Mexico to the United States." *Demography* 38(2): 187-200.
- Chamlee-Wright, E. 1997. *The cultural foundations of economic development: Urban female entrepreneurship in Ghana*. London: Routledge.
- Chant, S. 1998. Households, gender and migration. *Environment and Urbanization* 10:5-21.
- Chant, S., and S. A. Radcliffe (1992) "Migration and Development: The Importance of Gender." In *Gender and Migration in Developing Countries*. Ed. S. Chant. New York: Belhaven Press. Pp. 1?29.
- Clark, G. & T. Manuh. (1991). 'Women traders in Ghana and the Structural Adjustment Program', in C. Gladwin, ed., *Structural Adjustment and African Women Farmers*.

- Gainesville, FL: University of Florida Press, 217-36.
- Clark, G. (2000). 'Mothering, work, and gender in urban Asante ideology and practice', *American Anthropologist* 101, 4: 717-29.
- Conde, J. (1980). 'Migration in Upper Volta', in K. C. Zachariah et al. (preparers), *Demographic Aspects of Migration in West Africa, II*, pp. U.V.i-U.V.156. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Curran, S., and A. C. Saguy (2001) "Migration and Cultural Change: A Role for Gender and Social Networks." *Journal of International Women's Studies* 2(3):54-77.
- Curran, S., and E. Rivero-Fuentes (2003) "Engendering Migrant Networks: The Case of Mexican Migration." *Demography* 40(2):289-307.
- De Biaggi SDD. (2002). *Changing Gender Roles: Brazilian Immigrant Families in the U.S.* New York: LFB Sch.
- Donato KM, Gabaccia D, Holdaway J, Manalansan M, Pessar PR. (2006). A glass half full? Gender in migration studies. *Int. Migr. Rev.* 40:3-26 Dorow SK. 2006. *Transnational Adoption: A Cultural Economy of Race, Gender, and Kinship.* New York: N.Y. Univ. Press
- Donato, K. M. (1993) "Current Trends and Patterns in Female Migration: Evidence from Mexico." *International Migration Review* 27(4):748-771.
- Donato, K. M., and S. M. Kanaiaupuni (1999) "Women's Status and Demographic Change: The Case of Mexico-U.S. Migration." In *Women, Poverty, and Demographic Change*. Ed. B.
- Garcia and K. Mason. Geneva: International Union for the Scientific Study in Population. Pp. 217-242.
- Dumon, W. A. (1981) "The Situation of Migrant Women." *International Migrations* 19:190-209.
- Dumont, J. C, J. Martin and G. Spielvogel (2007) *Women on the Move: The Neglected Gender Dimension of the Brain Drain*, Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour
- Ebaugh HR, Chafetz JS. (2000). *Religion and the New Immigrants: Continuities and Adaptations in Immigrant Congregations.* New York: AltaMira
- Ebaugh HR, Chafetz JS. (2002). *Religion Across Borders: Transnational Immigrant Networks.* Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira
- Eckstein S, Barberia L. (2002). Grounding immigrant generations in history: Cuban Americans and their transnational ties. *Int. Migr. Rev.* 36:799-837
- Eckstein S. (2004). On deconstructing immigrant generations: cohorts and the Cuban migration experience. *Work. Pap., Cent. Comp. Immigr. Stud., Univ. Calif., San Diego*

- Ehrenreich, B. and A. R. Hochschild (eds.) (2002) *Global Women: Nannies, Maids, and Sex Workers in the New Economy*, New York: Henry Holt and Company
- Elson, D. (1999). 'Labor markets as gendered institutions: equality, efficiency and empowerment issues', *World Development* 27, 3: 611-27.
- Escobar C. (2004). Dual citizenship and political participation: migrants in the interplay of United States and Colombian politics. *Lat. Stud.* 2:45-69
- Espiritu YL. (2003). *Home Bound Filipino Lives Across Cultures, Communities, and Countries*. Berkeley: Univ. Calif. Press
- Espiritu YL, Tran T. 2002. *Vi?t Nam, Nu'?c Toi (Vietnam, My Country): Vietnamese Americans and trans-nationalism*. See Levitt & Waters 2002, pp. 367-98
- Espiritu, Y.L. (1999) 'Gender and labor in Asian immigrant families', *American Behavioral Scientist* 42(4): 628-47
- Essang, S. M., and Mabawonku, A. F. (1974). *Determinants and Impact of Rural- Urban Migration: A case study of selected communities in western Nigeria*. African Rural Employment Paper No. 10. East Lansing: Department of Agricultural Economics, Michigan State University, and Ibadan
- Ewusi, K. (1987). *Urbanization, Modernization and Employment of Women in Ghana*. Accra: Adwinsa Publications.
- Findley, S. (1987) "An Interactive Contextual Model of Migration in Ilocos Norte." *Demography* 24(2).
- Findley, S. E., and L. Williams 1991 *Women Who Go and Women Who Stay: Reflections of Family Migration Processes in a Changing World*. Geneva: International Labor Office.
- Foner, N. (1986) "Sex Roles and Sensibilities: Jamaican women in New York and London." In *International Migration: The Female Experience*. Ed. R. J. Simon and C. Brettell. Totowa NJ: Rowman & Allanheld Publishers. Pp. 133-142.
- Fouron G, Glick Schiller N. (2002). The generation of identity: redefining the second generation within a transnational social field. See Levitt & Waters 2002, pp. 168-208
- Gabaccia, D. (1994) *From the Other Side: Women, Gender, and Immigrant life in the U.S., 1820?*
- Gardner K, Grillo R. (2002). Transnational households and ritual: an overview. *Global Netw.* 2:179-90
- Gardner K. (2006). The transnational work of kinship and caring: Bengali-British marriages in historical perspective. *Global Netw.* 6:373-87

- Gilbertson, G. (1995) "Women's Labor and Enclave Employment: The Case of Dominican and Colombian Women in New York City." *International Migration Review* 29(3):657-671.
- Glick Schiller N, Basch LG, Blanc-Szanton C. (1992). *Towards a Transnational Perspective on Migration: Race, Class, Ethnicity, and Nationalism Reconsidered*. New York: NY Acad. Sci.
- Glick Schiller N, Caglar A, Guldbrandsen TC. (2006). Beyond the ethnic lens: locality, globality, and born-again incorporation. *Ethnol.* 33:612-33
- Glick Schiller N. (2003). The centrality of ethnography in the study of transnational migration. In *American Arrivals: Anthropology Engages the New Immigration*, ed. N Foner, pp. 99-128. Santa Fe, NM: Sch. Am. Res. Press
- Gold, S. (2003) "Israeli and Russian Jews: Gendered Perspectives on Settlement and Return Migration." In *Gender and U.S. Immigration: Contemporary Trends*. Ed. P. Hondagneu-Sotelo. Los Angeles: University of California Press. Pp. 127, 147.
- Goldring, L., (2003) "Gender, Status, and the State in Transnational Spaces: The Gendering of Political Participation and Mexican Hometown Associations." In *Gender and U.S. Immigration: Contemporary Trends*. Ed. P. Hondagneu-Sotelo. Los Angeles: University of California Press. Pp. 341-358.
- Greene, S. E., (1996). *Gender, Ethnicity and Social Change on the Upper Slave Coast: a history of the Anlo-Ewe, Portsmouth, NH & London*: Heinemann and James Currey
- Greenwell, L., R. B. Valdez, and J. DaVanzo (1997) "Social Ties, Wages, and Gender in a Study of Salvadorean and Filipino Immigrants in Los Angeles." *Social Science Quarterly* 78:559-577.
- Grieco, E., and M. Boyd (1998) "Women and Migration: Incorporating Gender into International Migration Theory." Working Paper WPS 98-139. Center for the Study of Population, Florida State University.
- Hagan, J. M. (1998) "Social Networks, Gender, and Immigrant Incorporation: Resources and Constraints." *American Sociological Review* 63 (1) : 55-67. 1994 *Deciding to Be Legal: A Maya Community in Houston*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Hammel, E. A., and Howell, N. (1987). 'Research in population and culture: an evolutionary framework', *Current Anthropology*, 28, 141-60.
- Hart, K. (1973). 'Informal income opportunities and urban employment in Ghana', *Journal of Modern African Studies* 2, I: 61-89.
- Hart, K. (1974). 'Migration and the opportunity structure', in S. Amin (ed.), *Modern Migrations in Western Africa*, pp. 321-9. London: Oxford University Press for the International African Institute.

- Heintz, J. (2005). Employment, poverty and gender in Ghana. Working paper Series Number 92, Political Economy Research Institute. Amherst: University of Massachusetts.
- Holloway, I., Wheeler, S. (2002) *Qualitative Research in Nursing* (2nd ed). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Hondagneu-Sotela, P. (1994) *Gendered Transitions: Mexican Experiences of Immigration*, Berkeley, CA: University of California Press
- Hondagneu-Sotela, P. (1999) 'Introduction: gender and contemporary US immigration', *American Behavioral Scientist* 42(4): 565-76
- Hondagneu-Sotelo P. and C. Cranford (1999) 'Gender and migration', in J.S. Chafetz (ed.) *Handbook of the Sociology of Gender*, New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers, pp. 105-26
- Hondagneu-Sotelo, P., and C. Cranford (1999) "Gender and Migration." In *Handbook of the Sociology of Gender*. Ed. J. S. Chafetz. New York: Kluwer. Pp. 105-126.
- Hugo, G. J. (1993) "Migrant Women in Developing Countries." In *Internal Migration of Women in Developing Countries*. New York: United Nations. Pp. 47-73.
- Ilson, G. & C. Potter. (2005). 'Structural adjustment and subsistence industry: artisanal gold mining in Ghana', *Development and Change* 26, I: 103-31. Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER). 2002. *The State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2001oo*. Legon: ISSER.
- Iredale, R. (2005) 'Gender immigration policies and accreditation: valuing the skills of professional women migrants', *Geoforum* 36(2): 155-66
- Jackson, C, & Palmer-Jones, R. (2000). *Rethinking gendered poverty and work*. In S. Razavi (Ed.), *Gendered poverty and well-being* (pp. 145-170). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Kabeer, N. (1994). *Reversed reality : Gender hierarchies in development thought*. London: Verso.
- Kalu, A. C. (1996). 'Women and the social construction of gender in African development', *Africa Today* 4, 33: 269-88.
- Kanaiaupuni, S. M. (2000) "Reframing the Migration Question: An Analysis of Men, Women, and Gender in Mexico." *Social Forces* 78(4):131 1-1347.
- Koopmans R, Statham P. (2003). How national citizenship shapes transnationalism: migrant and minority claims-making in Germany, Britain and the Netherlands. See Joppke & Morawska 2003, pp. 195-238
- Kotey, A. N., & Tsikata, D. (1998). Gender relations and land in Ghana. In A. Kuenyehia (Ed.), *Women and law in West Africa: Situational analysis of some key issues affecting women*. Accra: WALWA.

- Lange, S. (2003). *When Women Grow Wings: gender relations in the informal economy of Kampala*. Bergen: Chr. Michelsen Institute, CMI Report 8.
- Lloyd, C, & Gage-Brandon, A. (1993). Women's role in maintaining households: Family welfare and sexual inequality in Ghana. *Population Studies*, 47(1), 115- 131.
- Mahler SJ, Pessar PR. (2006). Gender matters: ethnographers bring gender from the periphery toward the core of migration studies. *Int. Migr. Rev.* 40:27-63
- Manuh, T. (1994). 'Ghana: women in the public and informal sectors under the Economic Recovery Programme', in P. Sparr, ed., *Mortgaging Women's Lives: feminist critiques of structural adjustment*. London: Zed Books, 61-77.
- Massey, D. and W. Kandel (2002) 'The culture of Mexican migration: a theoretical and empirical analysis', *Social Forces* 80(3): 981-1004
- Maxwell, D., C. Levin, M. Armar-Klemesu, M. Ruel, S. Morris & C. Ahiadeke. (2000). *Urban Livelihoods and Food Nutrition Security in Greater Accra, Ghana*. Washington, DC: IFPRI.
- McAlister EA. (2002). *Rara!: Vodou, Power, and Performance in Haiti and Its Diaspora*. Berkeley: Univ.
- McKeown A. (2001). *Chinese Migrant Networks and Cultural Change: Peru, Chicago, and Hawaii 1900-1936*. Chicago: Univ. Chicago Press
- Meagher, K. (1995). 'Crisis, in formalization and the urban informal sector in sub-Saharan Africa', *Development and Change* 26: 259-84.
- Moran, M. H. (1990). *Civilized Women: gender and prestige in southeastern Liberia*. Ithaca, NY & London: Cornell University Press.
- Murray Chapman, R. Mansell Prothero** (2000) *Circulation in Population Movement*:
- Overa, R. (2007) 'When men do women's work: structural adjustment, unemployment and changing gender relations in the informal economy of Accra, Ghana', *Journal of Modern African Studies* 45(4): 539-63
- Overd, R. (2006). 'Networks, distance, and trust: telecommunications development and changing trading practices in Ghana', *World Development* 34, 7: 1301-15.
- Overi, R. (1998). 'Partners and competitors: gendered entrepreneurship in Ghanaian canoe fisheries', Ph.D. dissertation, University of Bergen.
- Parreas RS. (2005). Long distance intimacy: class, gender and intergenerational relations between mothers and children in Filipino transnational families. *Global Netw.* 5:317-36

- Pessar PR, Mahler SJ. (2003). Transnational migration: bringing gender in. *Int. Migr. Rev.* 37:812-46
- Pessar, P. (1999) 'Engendering migration studies: the case of new immigrants in the United States', *American Behavioural Scientist* 42(4): 577-600
- Pluss C. (2005). Constructing globalized ethnicity: migrants from India in Hong Kong. *Int. Sociol.* 20:201-24
- Portes A. (2001). Introduction: the debates and significance of immigrant transnationalism. *Global Netw.* 1:181-94
- Press. Prothero, R. M. (1957). 'Migratory labour from north-western Nigeria', *Africa* 27, 251-61.
- Raghuram, P. and E. Kofman (2005) 'Gender and skilled migrants: into and beyond the work place', *Geoforum* 36(2): 149-54
- Razavi, S. (Ed.) (2000). *Gendered poverty and well-being*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Sassen S. (1996). *Analytic borderlands: race, gender and representation in the new city*. In *Representing the City: Ethnicity, Capital, and Culture in the Twenty-First-Century Metropolis*, ed. AD King, pp. 183-202. New York: N.Y. Univ. Press 154
- Sorensen NN, Fog Olwig K. (2002). *Work and Migration: Life and Livelihoods in a Globalizing World*. London/New York: Routledge
Substance and Concepts from the Melanesian Case Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1985
- Social Science - 483 page
- Tanye, M. (2008) 'Access and barriers to education for Ghanaian women and girls', *Interchange* 39(2): 167-84
- Teal, F. (2000). 'Real wages and the demand for skilled and unskilled male labour in Ghana's manu- facturing sector: 1991-1995', *Journal of Development Economics* 6: 447-61.
- Tripp, A. M. (1997). *Changing the Rules: the politics of liberalization and the urban informal economy in Tanzania*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Whitehead, A., & Lockwood, M. (2000). *Gendering poverty: A review of six world bank African poverty assessments*. In S. Razavi (Ed.), *Gendered poverty and well-being* (pp. 115-144). Oxford: Blackwell. World Bank (2001a). *African poverty at the millennium: Causes, complexities and challenges*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Willis KD. (2000). Gender and transnational household strategies: Singaporean migration to China. *Reg. Stud.* 34:253-64
- Wimmer A, Glick Schiller N. (2003). Methodological nationalism, the social sciences, and the study of migration: an essay in historical epistemology. *Int. Migr. Rev.*

37:576-610 Wong D. 2004. *Speak It Louder: Asian Americans Making Music*. New York: Routledge

Yankson, P. W. K., A. Lareya & E. Aryeetey. (2001). 'State of human development', in A. Sawyer, ed., *Ghana Human Development Report 2000*. Accra: UNDP and ISSER

Yeboah, I. E. A. (1998). 'Geography of gender economic status in urban sub-Saharan Africa: Ghana 1960-1984', *Canadian Geographer* 42, 2: 158-73.

Zachariah, K. C., and Conde, J. (1981). *Migration in West Africa: demographic aspects*. London: Oxford University Press.

Zachariah, K. C., and Nair, N. K. (1980). 'Demographic aspects of recent international and internal migration in Ghana', in K. C. Zachariah et al. (preparers), *Demographic Aspects of Migration in West Africa, I*, pp. Gh.i-Gh.129. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

APPENDIX I**INTERVIEW GUIDE****SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

NAME.....

101. WHAT IS YOUR AGE?.....

102. SEX 1 MALE 2 FEMALE

103. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

1 ANGLICAN 2. CATHOLIC 3.PRESBYTERIAN 3 METHODIST 4. MUSLIM 6. TRADITIONAL 7.THEIST 8. NO RELIGION 9 OTHERS(SPECIFY)..

104. WHAT IS YOUR LEVEL OF EDUCATION?

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL 1 NO FORMAL EDUCATION 2. PRIMARY 3. JHS/JSS/MIDDLE 4. VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL/COMMERCIAL 5. SSS/SHS/SEC/O LEVEL 6. POST SECONDARY/POLYTECHNIC/AGRIC/NURSING 7. UNDERGRADUATE 8. POST GRADUATE

105. WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

1 .NEVER MARRIED 2 MARRIED 3 DIVORCED

4 INFORMAL/CONCENSUAL/LIVING 5 SEPARATED 6 WIDOWED

106. DO YOU HAVE CHILDREN?

1 YES 2 NO (IF NO SKIP)

IF YES STATE NUMBER OF CHILDREN

107. WHAT IS YOUR ETHNIC BACKGROUND?

1 AKAN 2 GA ADANGBE 3 EWE

4 MOLE-DAGBANI 5 GUAN 6. OTHER (SPECIFY).....

108 WHAT IS YOUR OCCUPATION?.

.....

MIGRATION PROCESS

109 WHERE DID YOU MIGRATE FROM?.....

110 WHY DID YOU MIGRATE ?.....

111. HAVE YOU EVER TRAVELLED TO ANY OTHER PLACE APART FROM
MADINA BEFORE?

YES NO

IF YES, HOW LONG DID YOU STAY?

112 WAS YOUR FAMILY PART OF YOUR MIGRATION DECISION MAKING?

YES NO

113. HOW DID YOU LEAVE YOUR TOWN TO MADINA?.....

.....

114. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES YOU ENCOUNTER DURING YOUR MIGRATION PROCESS?.....

.....

115. HOW DID YOUR MIGRATION AFFECT YOU?.....

.....

116. HOW HAS BEEN THE BEHAVIOUR OF YOUR NEW COMMUNITY MEMBERS TOWARDS YOU?.....

.....

117. WHAT ROLES DO YOU DO NOW?.....

.....

118. HAVE YOU FORMED ANY ASSOCIATION THAT HELPS TO MAKE YOU FEEL COMFORTABLE HERE?

YES NO

119 WHAT WERE YOU DOING BEFORE LEAVING YOUR TOWN?.....

.....
120 WHAT DO YOU INTEND TO DO IN MADINA?.....

.....
121 DO YOU HAVE ANY RELATIVES HERE IN MADINA? YES NO

122. WHAT CHALLENGES DO YOU AND YOUR FAMILY FACE WHILE HERE?..

.....
123. HOW WELL DO YOU COPE WITH THE SHARED BASIC CULTURAL
VALUES?.....

124 WHAT ARE THE GENDER ROLES CHANGES THAT YOU ARE
EXPERIENCING AT MADINA NOW.....

.....
125 WHAT IMPLICATION THESE CHANGES HAVE ON YOUR FAMILY.....

.....
126 ARE YOUR SPOUSES ENGAGING IN ANY AMOROUS RELATIONSHIP WITH
OTHER PEOPLE?.....

127WHAT ARE SOME OF THE THINGS THAT YOU USE TO DO WHEN YOU
WERE AT YOUR HOME TOWN.?.....

128 WHAT ARE SOME OF THE THINGS THAT YOU DIDN'T USE TO DO BUT
YOU ARE DOING NOW?.....

129 WHAT ARE THE MAJOR TRIGGERS OF CONFLICTS IN YOUR RELATIONSHIP?.....

130 HOW OFTEN DOES IT OCCUR?.....

131 ARE YOU PHYSICALLY/MENTALLY ABUSED.? IF YES STATE THE FORMS?

132 WHO MAKES/ TAKES DECISIONS IN THE HOUSE?.....

.....

133 WHAT OTHER RESPONSIBILITIES HAVE YOU TAKEN ON APART FROM WHAT YOU USE TO DO?.....

134 WHAT DO YOU THINK WILL BE THE BASIC COPING MECHANISM TO FOSTER PEACE IN THE HOME?

135. WHAT IS THE ROLE FOR WOMEN OVER THERE?.....

.....

136 WHAT IS THE ROLE FOR MEN OVER THERE?.....

.....