

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON

CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES

**EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH OUT-MIGRATION AND FOOD
SUPPLY IN AGRICULTURAL HOUSEHOLDS IN HOHOE MUNICIPALITY**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Fritz Kosi Exornam Adom, hereby declare that this dissertation is an outcome of an original research work done by me under the supervision of Professor Christina A. Nti of College of Basic and Applied Sciences, Department of Family and Consumer Sciences. I therefore declare that no part of this work has been submitted anywhere for an award of a degree. All references to other people's work have been dully acknowledged.

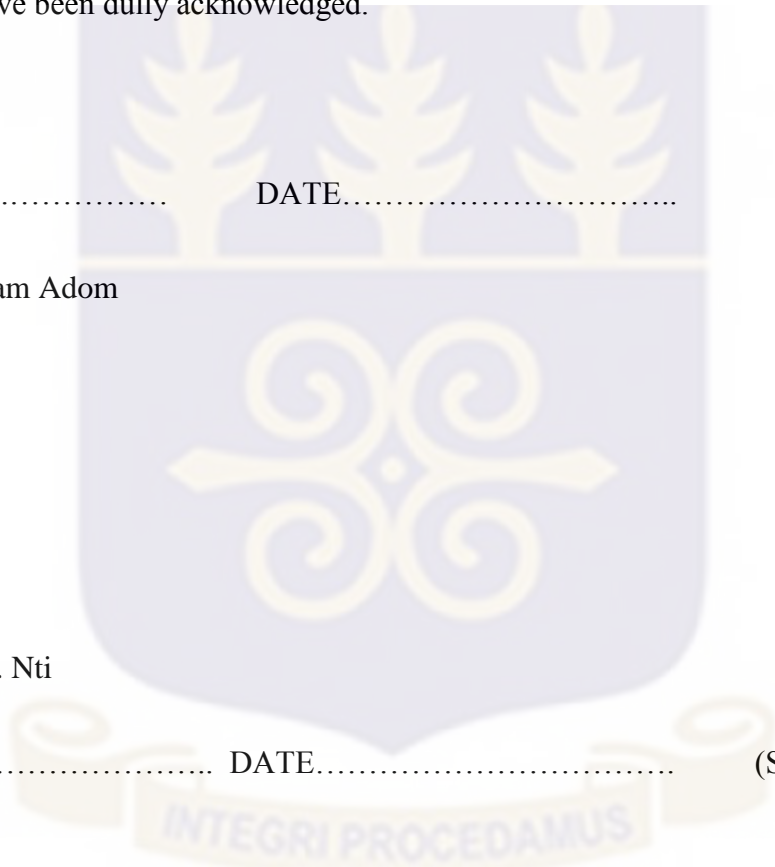
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the Creator of the universe, Mrs. Comfort Adom my wife and children as well as my mother, Mrs. Alice Adom for your sacrifices. God richly bless you.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Unto the Lord be the glory. My sincerest thanks goes to my supervisor, Prof. Christiana A Nti for her immense contributions that has seen this work come to fruition. I am most grateful to my supervisor for her advice, corrections and the insightful comments. May God richly bless you.

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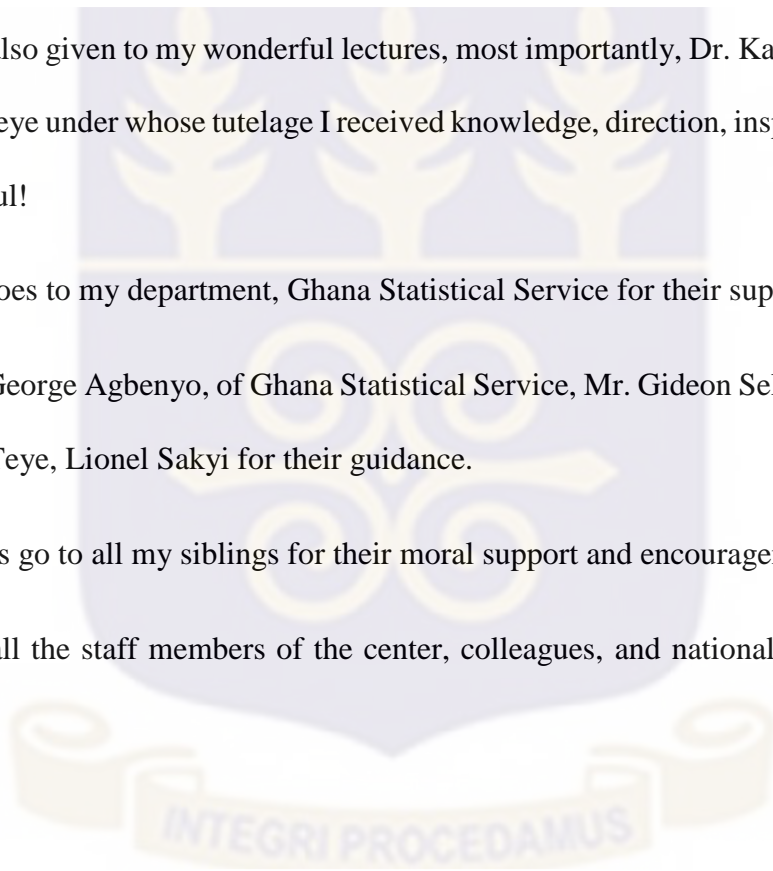
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I love you all.



ABSTRACT

Looking at the increasing number of the youth migrating from the rural areas to an urban areas and bearing in mind the implications of rural-urban migration on the origin communities and destinations, this study sought to explore the challenges the rural folks face with regards to rural-urban migration particularly its effects on agricultural productivity. The objectives of the study were to: (i) describe the characteristics of a sample of household heads in the study area, (ii) find out about youth out-migration if any, (iii) examine communities' viewpoints about rural-urban migration among the youth, describe the food supply situation in the households and examine communities' perception of the effects of youth out-migration on agricultural productivity. Adopting quantitative and qualitative research designs for complementarity, one hundred respondents from four agricultural communities were interviewed using a survey questionnaire. Four focus group discussions (FGDs) were held (2 female groups, 2 male groups). In each group there were eight (8) members. The findings for the study indicate that, about a third of the household heads interviewed fall between the ages of 55-59 years of age. Similarly in terms of gender, overwhelming majority (81%) of the heads of households interviewed were males. Majority (93%) of the household heads interviewed affirmed that there has been an out-migration of the youth annually and their preferred destination is outside the region, specifically Accra, Kumasi and Ashiaman. Most of the youth (68%) migrate because of lack of jobs in the area. On the views of the study respondents on the effects of youth out-migration on agricultural productivity, majority (94%) of the respondents also affirmed that migration of the youth affects agricultural productivity and to some extent food supply in the households. The study therefore recommended that since the basis of the youth out-migration is lack of job opportunities in the rural communities, government should set up cottage industries that would provide jobs for the

rural youth in the Hohoe Municipality. By so doing, a number of the youth will not migrate to urban areas for non-existing jobs.



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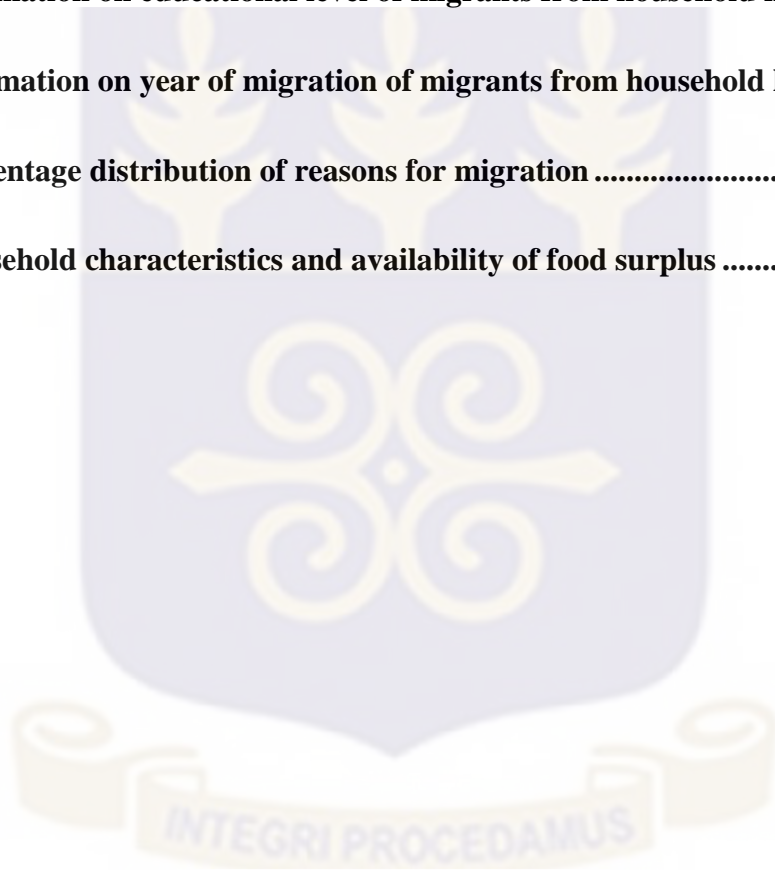
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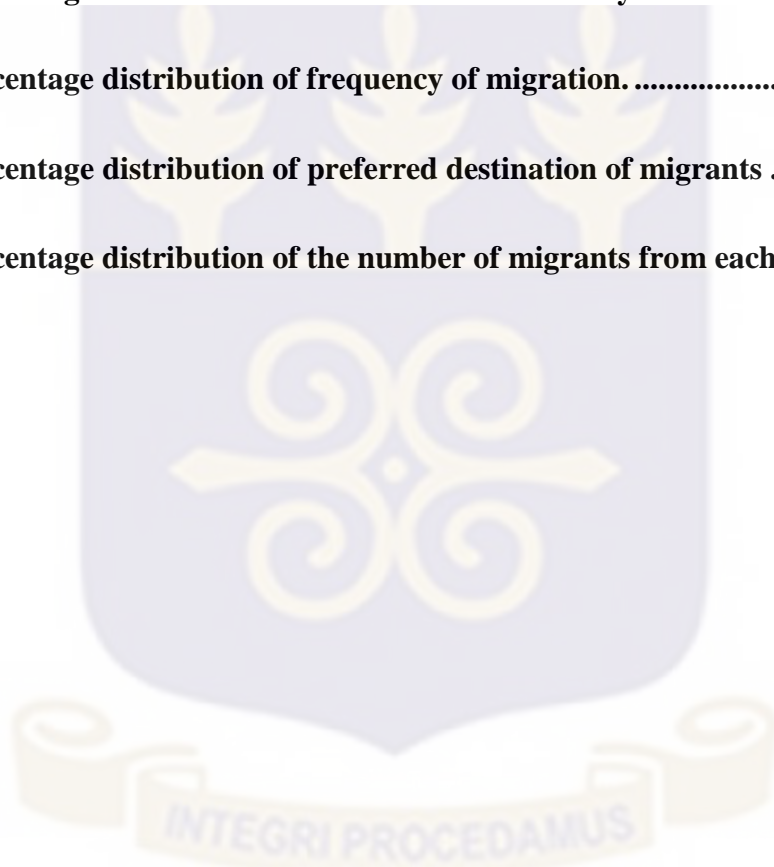
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ABBREVIATIONS

IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
UN	United Nations
NELM	New Economics of Labour
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
MOFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
P4P	Purchase for Progress
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
FGD	Focus group discussion
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization



CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

This introductory chapter presents the background to the study, as an attempt to situate the research in the right perspective. This foundational data presentation also include the discussions on the research problem, research questions and objectives, as well as the significance of the study and the organisation of chapters.

1.1 Background to the study

One of the most remarkable demographic issues confronting many developing countries in the world is the shortage of labour and food insecurity, and the rapid population growth in the urban centres, which is largely caused by the incidence of rural-urban migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001). But labour shortage notwithstanding, unemployment is also wide spread and devastating in Africa. According to Dugbazah (2007), migration is a wide spread phenomenon, that any study made on an urban centre in Sub- Saharan Africa (SSA) of which Ghana is part, will ever, deal largely with a population that was not born in the place. Bahns (2005) contends that about half of the population in the world lives in cities and urban areas and the population are conjectured to be around 1 million every year. Most of these people have migrated from other parts of the country mostly from the rural areas. The current rate of urban population growth has reached up to 6% in many African countries including Ghana (Accra), Nigeria (Lagos), and Kenya (Nairobi), (Dao, 2002). Globally, rural-urban migration has been a thorny issue for policy makers and or governments particularly in developing countries. The effect of out-migration of labour on rural livelihoods is an arguable subject. Out-migration of labour from the rural communities may result in the reduction of total cropped area vis-à-vis the quality of work leading to reduction in food production as well as household income. This can result in increased vulnerability in many rural areas which may, bring about food insecurity.

According to Adepoju (2008) and Bull, 2001 the rural-urban pattern of migration takes more young men than women out of rural areas, resulting in many women becoming the heads of households and being responsible for agriculture production. This view is however changing these days as more rural young women are also migrating from rural areas to urban areas. For example, according to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 5), round five survey data, which was conducted between 2005 and 2006, 47 percent of females in the rural savannah over the age of seven had migrated at least once in their lifetimes, as compared with 37.6 percent of their male counterparts in the same age-bracket. As more youth are migrating to urban communities, more aged people are now left to undertake the herculean tasks associated with farming, specially the tasks which are earmarked for the youths. Therefore, there is no doubt that the additional responsibilities will decrease the agricultural productivity Basil & Olumide, (2013). The present study therefore investigated rural urban migration and its implication (s) on agricultural productivity in the Hohoe Municipality of the Volta Region.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Several factors are responsible for out-migration of labour out of agriculture from the rural-areas of Ghana to urban centers (Lee, 1966). Among these are poverty, lack of jobs, intermittent rainfall patterns (Adefolanu Do, 2000) and declining soil fertility, coupled with adversarial climatic variations among others (World Bank, 2010). This continuous direction of flow of labour force have impacted negatively on food production causing food insecurity and low income levels (Barrios et al., 2003).

The Hohoe Municipality consists of a number of farming communities. Some of the major crops cultivated by farmers in the area are cassava, maize, rice, yam, plantain, and cocoa, among others. Over the years, the Municipality has been confronted with out-migration of its labour force, most importantly the youth (Foresight, 2011, Salvador, Luisito, and Strobl, 2006).The out-migration of labour from these farming communities in the Municipality is perceived to be responsible for the reduction in agricultural productivity, specifically a decline

in food production. The out-migration of the youth is also responsible for disturbance of the population structure.

Over the years, several interventions have been rolled out by successive governments through its agencies such as Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA) and Cocoa Board to render services such as increase seed production to food crop farmers, livestock production, Agriculture extension services, distribution of free fertilizers and the distribution of free cocoa seedlings to farmers in the Hohoe Municipality in order to increase food production.

Aside the effort of governments, various Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Ghana have also contributed immensely towards the agricultural productivity. One of such NGOs is World Food Programme. Purchase for Progress (P4P) is one of the World Food Programme that connects smallholder farmers to markets, giving them opportunity to grow their businesses and their lives and those of their entire communities. This Programme also promotes food security by providing storage facilities to farming groups in some deprived communities to enable them overcome post-harvest losses.

In spite of all these interventions, most farmers in Ghana and in the Hohoe Municipality have not been able to produce enough food to feed themselves and also create wealth leading to poverty. This is largely due to out-migration of the youth which constitute the labour force (Lewis, 1986 and Penninx, 1982). Similarly, some of these youth are well educated and capable of embracing modern agricultural technology but have migrated to the urban centres.

Several studies have assessed the impact of rural-urban migration on agricultural productivity and also on its impact on the urban population. Among these are: Awumbila et al (2008), Awumbila et al.,(2016), Yeboah (2008), Chang (2003), Badasu, (2004), Chang and Brada (2002), Seeborg et al., (2002) and Long, (1988). However, these studies did not focus much attention on the rural areas, specifically, Hohoe Municipality although it has challenges similar to the issues discussed in literature. Per the 2010 Population and Housing census of Ghana Statistical Service, about 91.1 percent of agricultural households in Hohoe Municipality are

engaged in crop farming. According to literature, those who are likely to migrate are the youth. This therefore suggests that if this number of people migrate, food production in the district will be greatly affected. Again, the 2010 census report of Hohoe has it that, majority of the economically active population (15-64 years) are engaged in primary industries, particularly, agriculture, forestry and fishing. Data from the Ghana Living Standard Survey Round 4, 5, and 6 showed that people in this sector of the economy are mostly poor. One of the push factors in migration is poverty. This statistics therefore suggests that a lot of the people in this municipality are liable to migrate if measures are not taken to assist them financially. According to migration literature those who are likely to migrate to urban towns are those who have human capital. Education in the Hohoe Municipality per the 2010 Census of Ghana Statistical Service has it that about 88.3 percent of the population is literate. Looking at the gendered dimension, males (92.8%) are more literate than females (84.3%). Again, the active population (15-35) in the Hohoe Municipality are either in school or have completed a particular level. A number of these school leavers have their own farms. Likewise, some of those in schools assist their parents on their farms. This also suggests that a number of such persons, who have attained some level of education and skills in the district, are the first to migrate if the opportunity presents itself. This has therefore prompted the assessment of the dynamics of the implications of rural urban migration in the Hohoe Municipality. This study therefore extends the literature on rural-urban migration detailing the influence of out-migration on agricultural productivity in the Hohoe Municipality.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to investigate the experiences and perception of youth out-migration and food supply in agricultural households. The specific objectives were to:

- i. Describe the characteristics of household heads in the study area.
- ii. Find out about youth out-migration, if any, in the study community.
- iii. Examine communities' viewpoints about rural-urban migration among the youth.

- iv. Describe the food supply situation in the households.
- v. Examine communities' perception of the effects of youth out-migration on agricultural productivity.

1.4 Research question

The central question of this assessment was how out-migration has affected agricultural productivity in the Hohoe Municipality. The research questions were:

- i. What is the household heads characteristics in the study area?
- ii. Is youth out-migration evident in the study community?
- iii. What is the study communities' views about rural-urban migration?
- iv. How is the food supply situation and its effect on the households?
- v. What are communities' perception of the effects of youth out-migration on agricultural productivity?

1.5 Justification of the study/Significance of the study

The important role of agriculture in the economy of developing countries cannot be underestimated. Agriculture is the mainstay of Ghana's economy providing food and raw materials for industries. The sector is therefore considered as the backbone of the economy, given that over 60% of the population depends on it for their livelihood. Rural livelihood in Ghana is largely dependent on agriculture (World Bank, 2014). Since the rural areas are agrarian economies (GSS 2010) any attempt to stifle the labour force of the rural areas will likely lead to under-development of the rural areas. The outcome of this study therefore provides helpful insight into the implications of rural-urban migration on production of food crop, food security and livelihood so as to adopt measures in de-accelerating rural-urban migration and also boost agricultural productivity in Ghana, particularly in the Hohoe Municipality. The study also provides helpful insight to policy makers in government (e.g. Ministry of Food and

Agriculture) and Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as the World Food Programme (WFP) as to how best to address the problems of rural-urban migration. Similarly, the study unearths new approaches of making agricultural more appealing to the youth in order to boost agricultural production in rural communities and improve household incomes. Lastly, the study helps to fill in the existing knowledge gap on the economic impacts of rural-urban migration on rural communities, specifically rural communities within the Hohoe Municipality.

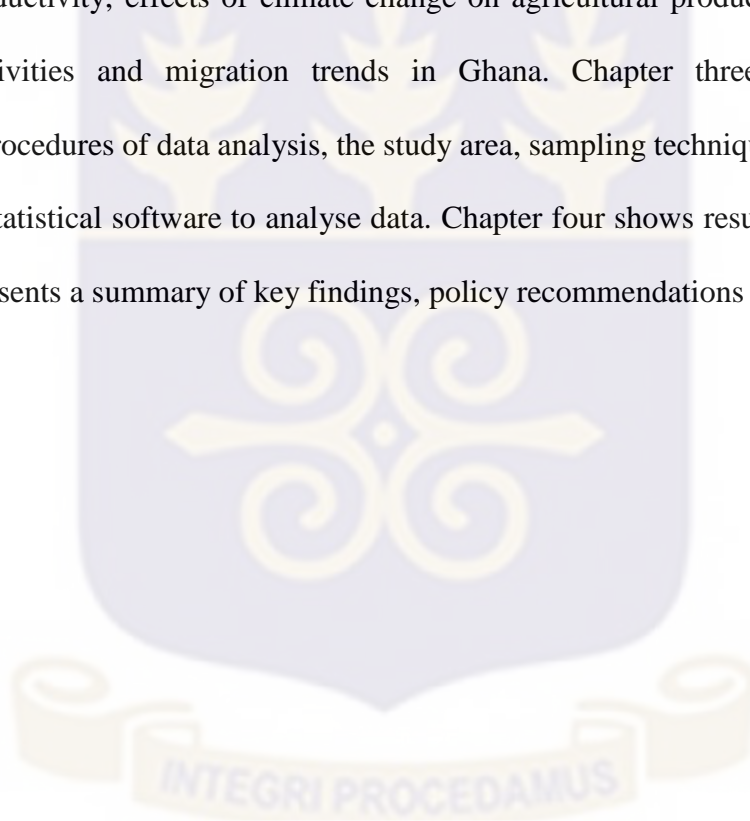
1.6 Definition of terms

Migration is the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State for a period of time (Perruchoud, 2004). Rural-Urban Migration on the other hand is the movement of people from the rural areas to urban centres for a specified period of time. Agricultural household refers to a household where at least one member of the household is involved in a farming activity, namely, crop farming, tree planting, livestock rearing and fish farming (2010, GSS). A migrant is a person who has relocated to his or her current place of residence for a period of one or more (GSS, 2008). Agricultural Productivity can be defined as a measure of efficiency in an agricultural production system which employs land, labour, capital and other related resources (Dewett et al., 1966, p. 66).

For the purposes of this study, a youth is anybody from age 15 years to 35 years. In spite of the fact that the minimum limit of adult age in Ghana starts at age 18, the researcher considered age 15 as to 35 because, per the United Nation the youth cohort fall between the ages of 15 – 24 years (United Nation, 1981). Also, the National Youth Policy classifies all persons 15 - 35 years as the youthful population (Republic of Ghana, 2010). But because the research is going to be conducted in a Ghanaian setting, the definition by the National youth Policy will be the most appropriate (youthful population 15 – 35 years).

1.7 Organization of the study

This dissertation is structured into five chapters. Chapter one presents the background to the study on labour migration which results in the shortage of agricultural labour and its implication food production, the problem the research attempts to solved, objectives of the study and the justification or the significance of the study. Chapter two presents the literature review which covers topics such as classification of rural and urban communities, migration and development, theoretical framework, consequences of rural rural-urban migration on agricultural productivity, effects of climate change on agricultural production, variations of agricultural activities and migration trends in Ghana. Chapter three touches on the methodology, procedures of data analysis, the study area, sampling techniques, data collection and the use of statistical software to analyse data. Chapter four shows results and discussion. Chapter five presents a summary of key findings, policy recommendations and conclusions.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of some literature important to the topic. It shows broad themes including the classification of rural and urban communities, agricultural in Ghana, agriculture, youth employment and its challenges in Sub-Saharan Africa, migration and its effects on agriculture, and effects of out-migration on rural and urban communities, livelihood, and the nature of livelihood strategies in Ghana. It also includes issues on migration and development, and effects of climate change on agricultural production.

2.1 Classification of urban and rural communities

Globally, classification of communities into rural or urban status varies from country to country. This is because different countries consider a number of factors when classifying communities into urban and rural status (Tacoli, 1998). According to Tacoli (1998), demographic and economic criteria on which definitions of urban and rural areas are based can vary widely between different nations, making generalizations problematic.

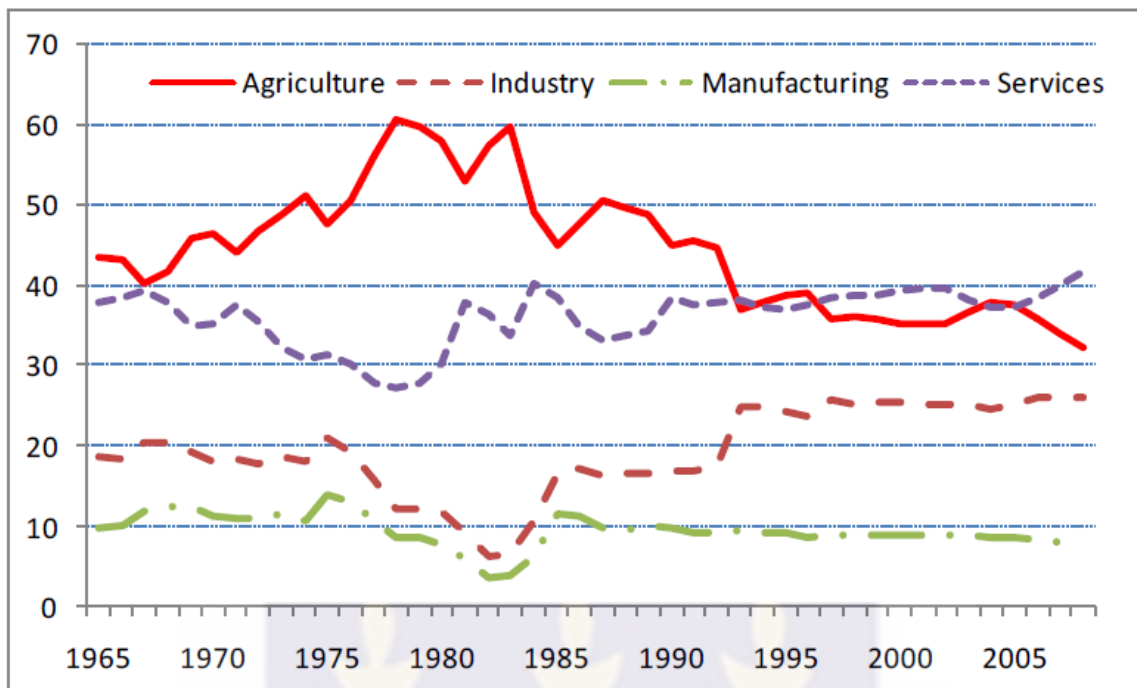
In a work done by Cloke (1985), in an attempt to examine and define rural locality, he concluded that a further research has to be done before the subject matter can be determined. A similar assertion was made by Falk and Pinhey, (1978) and, much earlier by Bealer et al; (1965). Countries such as Africa (Angola, Ethiopia) and Latin America (Argentina) all localities of a population of 2002 or more inhabitants are considered as urban localities, while in Benin only localities with 10,000 people or more are classified as urban. In yet other cases, urban boundaries are drawn up based on a mixture of population size or density and various economic or social indicators. In Botswana, for example, an agglomeration of 5,000 or more people where 75 percent of the economic activity is non-agricultural would be considered urban (United Nations, 2001). Ghana Statistical Service in the 2010 Population and Housing Census exercise, categorized rural or urban communities on the basis of its population size. Localities

with 5,000 population or more are categorized as urban whereas communities having population less than 5,000 people are categorized as rural. In the Philippines, the National Census defines all areas with a population density of about 500 persons per square kilometres` as urban localities. Per the 2010 Census, more than fifty percent (50.9%) of Ghana's population currently live in urban communities while 49.1% live in rural areas (GSS, 2010). This 2010 Census statistics suggest that, most of the rural areas in Ghana are fast developing into urban communities. In spite of the recent spate of urbanization in Ghana, most of the youth from rural areas are still migrating to urban areas in search of employment (Ghana Statistical Service 2010 Census Report).

2.2 Agriculture in Ghana

Agriculture has been the mainstay of Ghana's economy throughout the era of post – independence history (McKay and Aryeetey, 2004). Although government policy and political failure has resulted in per capita GDP growth reducing until 1980s, the agricultural sector had remained resilient as compared to the non-agricultural sector. This is due to the fact the agriculture sector was less interfered by government than the non-agricultural sector and its growth is largely being controlled by the smallholders for subsistence purpose of production.

Figure 1 presents GDP shares of agriculture, industry, manufacturing (as part of industry) and services between 1965 and 2008.



Source: World Bank, 2009

Figure 2. 1: Sector share of GDP (1965-2008)

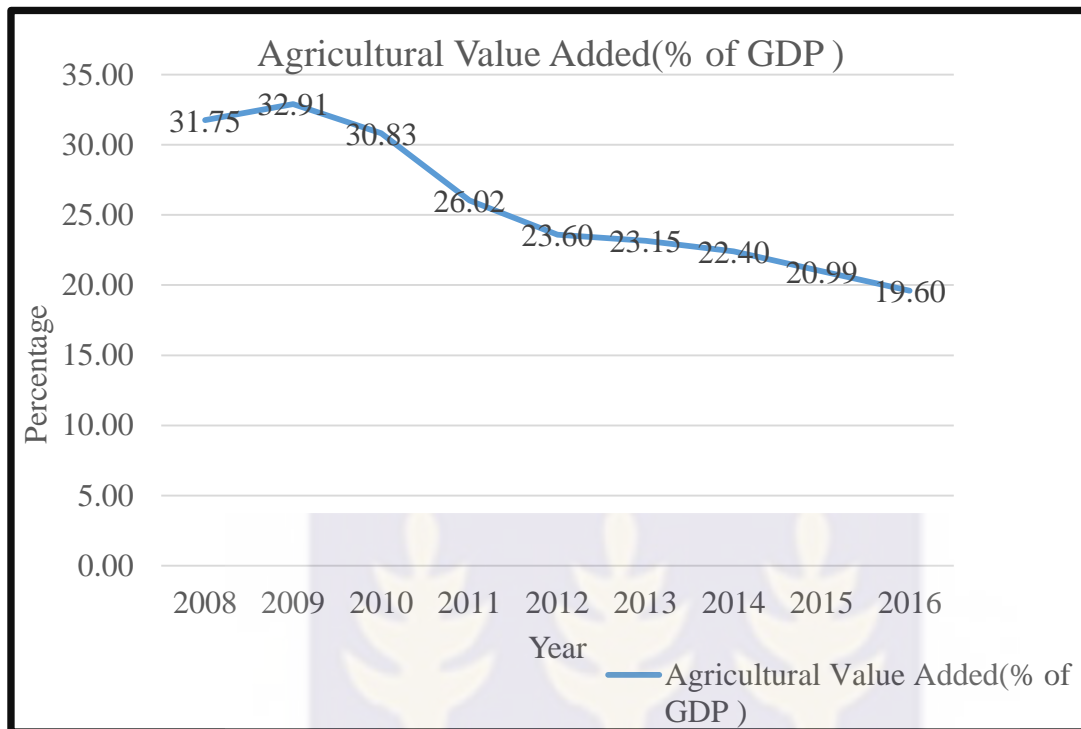
The figure shows that, prior to the late 1980s when the economy growth rate was negative vis-à-vis agricultural growth rate, the agricultural growth rate was less negative than the other sectors of the economy. Consequently, GDP share of agriculture rose in this period and peaked at 60% in a few years in the late 1970s and early 1980s. At the time growth began to recuperate and turned into positive after 1983, the non-agricultural sector of the economy required more recovery as it dropped more in the previous period. In spite of the fact that the growth in the agricultural sector achieved some positive gains after 1983, its share in GDP reverted to its level in the 1960s immediately after the independence. Agriculture constituted about 40% of GDP in the late 1990s and was still above 35% until 2007. It was only in 2007 and 2008 that the share of agriculture falls to below 35% at 34% and 32%, respectively. What actually has accounted for the recent decline in the agricultural GDP share is as a result of faster growth in the services, which has raised the share in GDP to 40 or more than 40% in 2007 and 2008. This situation is unprecedented because it is the first time in the history of Ghana that the service sector becomes the largest sector in Ghana's economy than agricultural sector. On the contrary, industrial sector share in GDP has not altered much after 1990s and that of the manufacturing

sector has even dropped to less than 10% of GDP in the recent ten years. The kind of growth patterns exhibited in the non-agricultural sector are not consistent with the transformation theory vis-à-vis the experience of other developing countries in which the role of industry, particularly that of manufacturing has increased in the development process (Breisinger and Diao, 2008).

The structure of agricultural and agricultural GDP distribution based on regional levels significantly differ across Ghana's agro-ecological zones. These regional variations have significant implications for sub-sector-level agricultural growth strategies. The Forest ecological Zone remains the leading agricultural producer, representing 43% of agricultural GDP, compared to about 10% in the Coastal Zone, and 26.5% and 20.5% in the Southern and Northern Savannah Zones, respectively (Breisinger et al. 2008). In terms of cereals and livestock the Northern Savannah zone is noted for that. About more than 70% of Ghana's cereals such as sorghum, millet, cowpeas and groundnuts as well as livestock come from that enclave. The Forest Zone also is noted for the supply of a large quantity of higher-value products, such as cocoa and livestock (mainly commercial poultry). The varied nature of agricultural production in the country is also an indication of differences in the agricultural income structure across regions. The Forest Zone alone produces about half its agricultural revenue from two of Ghana's major export goods (cocoa and forestry). In addition to nontraditional exports and fishery, export agriculture likewise plays a vital role in total agricultural income for the Coastal and Southern Savannah Zones. In contrast, 90% of income realized from agricultural in the Northern Zone comes from staple crops and livestock.

Agricultural contribution to GDP from 2008 to 2016

As presented in Figure 2.2, the agricultural sector share of the GDP was 31.7% in 2008. This increased approximately to 32.9% in 2009 and gradually declined to 23.6% in 2012 and remained slightly stable. However, in 2014 it began to drop from about 22.4% to 19.6% in 2016.



Source: World Bank, 2018

Figure 2.2 Agriculture share of GDP (2008-2016)

2.3 Agriculture, youth employment and challenges in Sub Saharan Africa

Agriculture sector remains the largest employer for most African countries. The sector employs about 65% of the total work labour force in the Sub Saharan Africa. In spite of the fact that there has been some decline in the relative number of agricultural workers, the sector still account for the greater number of the working population in the region. It is therefore reasonable to focus on the agricultural sector when policies are being designed to provide jobs for the youth. “Efforts to accelerate agricultural growth and improve food security have often been separated conceptually from efforts to create jobs for young people. Agriculture, already Africa’s largest employer, is the most immediate means of catalyzing economic growth and employment for young people” (African Agricultural Status Report, 2015). According to Christiansen, Demery and Kuhl (2011), a 1% increase in agricultural per capita in other sectors, mostly among the poorest people in sub Saharan Africa (SSA). Agricultural is therefore a pro-poor, income-generating and job-creating sector for the most SSA economies.

The average contribution of agriculture to GDP in several African countries has been dwindling or static at around 30% since early 1980. The percentage of exports of farm products and food fell from 10% in the 1960s to about 4% in 2005. With the large number of youth the Sub-Saharan African countries have coupled with the high demand of food and farm products in the national, regional and global markets, SAA countries should be able to redirect and make available the skills and knowledge the youth require so as to engage in productive, economically sustainable agriculture. Currently, it has been projected that, Africa's food markets will grow from USD 313billion in 2010 to USD 1 trillion in 2030 (World Bank, 2013). Food imports have surpassed exports since 2003. There are opportunities for the youth to become producers as well food suppliers so as to meet the demand created by Africa as a result of expanding its domestic market. Likewise, the demand in international food markets is rising and the upsurge in global food prices hold the promise of higher rates of return on investments in high-value agricultural products. More than two-thirds of the rural youth are already engaged in agriculture and there is still supply of abundant land. Agriculture is a sector of opportunities for rural youth. In spite of opportunities for youth in the food supply chain, there are major challenges and constraints when it comes to agriculture and youth in SSA. Notable among them being the land tenure system which makes it difficult for individuals to have access to large track of agricultural land for commercial agriculture. Similarly, lack of credit facilities and capital is one of the major challenges confronting farmers in SSA countries. Furthermore, farmers in SSA have difficulty in having access to international and regional markets to sell their farm produce. More so, public and private sectors find it very difficult to invest in agricultural infrastructure, extension services, farming inputs such as improved seeds, organic and inorganic fertilizers that will make farming more appealing to the youth. In spite of all these challenges enumerated, if only proper policies are put in place by governments, for example public and private sector strategic interventions, proper technologies, and access to innovative agriculture financing, the youth will take advantage of it and contribute

meaningfully to the economies of their respective countries and by so doing enhance their livelihood as well as reduce poverty.

2.4 Migration trends in Ghana

Throughout history Ghana has been altering from an immigration towards an emigration country (Nieswand, 2008; Anarfi et al, 2003; Tsikata and Seini, 2004; Hardus, 2010). From the era of the pre-colonial up to the early 1970s, there were self-employed traders coming into the country to trade. There were also labour prospects in the mines and cocoa farms which attracted the youth especially the young unmarried men from the neighbouring countries into Ghana (Anarfi et al, 2003). Ghana in the 1960s had a relative economic prosperity. As a result, immigration was the leading trend throughout colonial times. Migration at the time was largely internal. However, some few high skilled migrants migrated mostly towards England due to the language, and also as a result of the colonial ties. Migration trends within Ghana during the colonial era were driven by economic prospects. During this era, the Colonialists were actively recruiting labourers in the North to construct roads, rail lines and also to work in the mines and the cocoa growing areas in the South. This is because migration trends within Ghana have usually been from the north to south. The north at the time was considered as a labour reservoir to the south. Migrants also came from the less developed rural areas to the relatively developed urban areas, serving as growth poles. The migration from north to south was often seasonal in character; migrants returned during the harvesting season which happens once a year (Anarfi et al., 2003). After independence (1960 to 1970), urban growth trend increased rapidly in all regions. This has been largely due to inter-regional migration following the lessening of colonial laws that restricted rural-urban migration (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005). Natural growth and migration can be as a result of distribution and redistribution of population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). However, migration literature has it that urban towns grow faster by migration than by natural growth (Ravenstein, 1885; 1889). Demography, geographic and socio-economic factors are some of the factors that underpin redistribution of population

through migration. These include the distribution and utilization of natural resources and infrastructural development, which results from local factors as well as policies, and programmes of government and non-government agencies. One outcome of the movement is urbanization (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The percentage of urban population increased from 23.1 in 1960 to 50.9 in 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Statistics showing the proportion of urban and annual growth rate from 1960 to 2010 have this to show: 1960 (23.1%), 1970 (28.9%), 1984 (32.1%), 2000 (43.8%) and 2010 (50.9%). This can be explained in terms of the fact that while at the national level, the growth of the population is the result of dwindling but still high fertility and decreasing mortality, movement of the population nationwide from the rural areas to urban areas redistributes the population internally and affects the process of urbanization in the country (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). This also supports the assertion that, urban towns grow faster by migration than by natural growth (Ravenstein, 1885; 1889). Similarly, migration literature has it that people mostly migrate from agricultural to industrial areas (Ravestien, 1885; 1889).

According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 7) report, age and gender differentials in migration statistics, indicate that those between the ages of 25-29 of the population who also constitute the youth, are more mobile. This also suggests that when it comes to migration, the older people and parents with school-going children are less likely to migrate. If this is the case, then the migration of the youth from the rural communities to urban communities will lead to loss of labour which will also result in low agricultural productivity at the source region (Azeez & Opoola, 2011). Conversely, the loss of labour which largely involves male youth will lead to a situation where many, women becoming the heads of households and being responsible for agriculture production (Bull, 2001). The massive exodus of the youth, strong men and women from the rural communities is usually attributed to causing an acute shortage of agricultural and other labour, robbing rural areas of their most valued labour force (Lewis, 1986). In terms of sex composition of the migrants in Ghana, statistics have shown that internally, 35% of Ghanaians migrated in 2014. Greater Accra alone recorded 40.7%. Surprisingly,

females far outstripped males in intra- regional migration at both the rural and urban levels. In the inter-regional migration however, males outnumbered females (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). This also supports the assertion that women migrate for shorter distances while men migrate for longer distances (Ravenstein 1885; 1889).

The 2010 Population and Housing Census report has it that, Ghana is becoming progressively urbanized. Also per the 2010 census report, Ghana's urban population grew from 8.3 million in 2000 to 12.5 million in 2010, showing a growth rate of 4.2 percent per annum during the period, higher than the national average of 2.5 percent. The level of urbanization in Ghana increased from 43.8 percent in 2000 to 50.9 percent in 2010, an increase of 7.1 percentage points during that period. Thus, the country became more urban than rural as at 2010. Currently, the number of people living in urban centers surpasses the total of rural areas, the results of rural-urban migration, natural population increase in towns and cities, and the reclassification of rural jurisdictions to urban once, exceed the threshold populations of 5,000 (GSS, 2013; World Bank, 2014). Indeed, if current trend of population growth continues through 2030, Ghana's population will surpass 33 million, with almost two thirds residing in urban areas, and nearly doubling the share of urban residents in 1984. According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey, round six report, the percentage of the migrants' population from other urban centres in Accra alone stands at 81.7% (GSS, 2014). The current trend in migration so far has been that a significant number of individuals as well as households continue to migrate from the rural communities to urban centres in order to enhance their standard of living. A number of migration experts have touched on the various facets of these persistent phenomena. Notable among these scholars are Ravenstine (1885) and Lee (1966) showing the patterns of migration and Todaro (1969), giving the rational why people migrate. The prominence placed on rural-urban migration as demonstrated by these scholars only demonstrate the speed at which communities in most developing countries are becoming urbanized, typifying the nexus between rural and urban centres.

2.5 Migration and development

Globally, the link between migration and development has remained an issue under serious academic argument (Adams, 2006; De Haas, 2006). According to Papademetriou and Martin (1991), the nexus between migration and development discourse is unsettled. Ellerman (2003) also said the issue is unsettled and unresolved, Appleyard (1992) said the issue is unresolved. Newland (2007) has it that the link between migration and development is still very weak whereas Castles (2009) concludes that the evidence on all aspects of the mantra is uneven and contested. Despite all these assertions, migration has always been closely related to economic and social development throughout history (Nyberg-Sorensen et al., 2002). It is often perceived as the outcome of differences in development, but also as a catalyst to development. A thorough examination of the subject as presented in most migration literature on the effects of migration on development indicates that, the parameters have altered over time (Nyberg-Sorensen et al, 2002). In some instances, migration has been perceived as beneficial to development and at times as disadvantageous to development depending on the historical antecedents and prevailing conditions. These variations have also resulted in a change in migration policies by different countries. (Nyberg-Sorensen et al, 2002). Since migration has positives as well as negatives for both the sending and the destination regions, a crucial question therefore that can be asked is, to what extent is migration beneficial particularly to the origin and how best can the positives be harnessed for the development at the origin?

The first benefit that comes to mind is remittances. Migrants remit home when they travel outside their place of origin. These remittances can take different forms, tangible and intangible. The tangible ones are largely in the form of money. The intangible ones could be in the form of new skills acquired, new ideas, food remittances (Andersson, 2002), and even in the form of different cultures. Remittances sent in the form of money are spent on items such as land, houses, education, transport, food, jewelry and in the case of agrarian communities, to expand on agricultural production (Russell, 1992). According to Castles and Miller (2009),

there is a colossal transfer of monies by migrants from all over the world which become a conduit through which families and communities especially those in the developing countries use to develop. This is the reason why Heinemeijer et al. (1977) described migration from the Moroccan rural areas to Europe as a livelihood strategy which validates with the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and livelihood view of migration and development.

Remittances are also attracting the attention of both the media and researchers as huge sums of monies are being transferred to developing countries (Burman, 2002, Orozco 2007, Ratha, 2007, Ratha and Shaw 2007 and Sorensen, 2004). Official remittances received from migrants living outside Ghana according to the Bank of Ghana report (2015) totalled 4.9 billion dollars. This shows how remittances contribute greatly to the livelihood of people in the developing countries.

2.6 Migration and its effect on agriculture productivity

Nearly 75% of the world's population resides in rural communities and are heavily reliant on agricultural activities for survival (IFAD, 2016; 2007). Although they are often very context specific, the root causes of poverty and food shortages in rural areas are natural disasters such as drought and flooding etc), civil conflict and structural inequalities. Such occurrences inhibit the rural populations' access to resources and prospects to secure a sustainable livelihood. When home-grown solutions are rare, poor families residing in rural localities will adjust to the situation by frequently sending a family member to a nearby urban communities or abroad in search of paid jobs. The agreement in the literature about the nexus between migration and rural development remains thin. The findings suggest that generally, migration does not lead to radical transformation of rural agriculture but that it often occupies a central part in the maintenance of rural people's livelihoods (De Haan, 1999).

The discourse in the migration literature has been that both internal migration and international migration one way or the other have contributed to a decline in agriculture and a general disaffection with small-scale peasantry. A research done by Aworemi, Abdul-Azeez & Opoola

(2011) in Nigeria indicates that rural-urban migration is a double-edge problem affecting the rural locality vis-à-vis the urban centres. They contend that rural communities suffer because the youth and adults that are expected to remain in the community and promote agricultural production as well as helping in the development of the community have abandoned the rural areas to urban areas. They move to urban centres in pursuit of non-existent greener pastures and leave the farming activities which they consider less rewarding as compared with what they will achieve in the urban destinations. Consequently, this results in the decrease in agricultural production and food shortages in the origin communities. The 'lost labour' of able-bodied (migrated) men and women significantly play an important role in the process of agricultural decline. Fascinatingly, internal migration is linked more often with rural and agricultural stagnation or even decline (Regmi and Tisdell, 2002; De Haas, 1998) than with international migration to affluent countries, where much higher remittances enable households to exchange the lost labour by investing in agricultural production as well as investing in other sectors of the economy.

The mass movement of the rural labour force is supposed to be the **cause** of reduction in agricultural production or even leaving agriculture sector altogether (De Mas, 1990; Ferry and Toutain, 1990; Kerbout, 1990). This situation does not speak well for agricultural production because the exiting of the youth and the able-bodied men and women from the rural areas will result in a situation where the aged will now have to do the tedious agricultural work which should have been done by the youth (Angba, 2003). Once these migrant youth have left, households in the rural communities will have less labour to engage in agricultural activities. If a migrant household's marginal product on the farm is positive, crop production will reduce when the household sends out a migrant(s). Taylor et al. (2003) note that the adverse effect of loss of labour may be high since those who normally migrate are the able-bodied youth who are also better educated than the average rural labourer.

Rozelle et al. (1999) report a significant and adverse effect of loss of labour on yields, but Taylor et al., (2003) using the data collected by Rozelle et al., (1999) in another paper

discovered that though loss of labour to migration has a negative consequence on household cropping income, the general effect of migration on crop yields is positive. The reduction in agricultural production as a result of the youth migrating out of agriculture may be compensated for (partially) by remittances received from the migrant(s) (see Awumbila et al, 2014), which are used to buy more agricultural inputs or rent substitutes for labour in cropping. Instead of investing, it has been contended that migrant households tend to withdraw partly or totally from agriculture. This is because the remittances sent by migrants raise the economic status of migrant household to a higher level where they can diversify their economy hence leaving primary production. Those return migrants who even invest in agriculture often do so, not out of rational economic reasons, but because of their strong emotional attachment towards agriculture. Bonnet and Bossard (1973) observed in the early 1970s, that remittances had made it possible for the expansion of agriculture in the Sous region. In other migrant-sending communities, too, migrants have played important innovative roles in contributing immensely to the advancement of subsistence and commercial agriculture whereby they buy land, new agriculture tools, such as water pumps, tractors, introduction of improve seedlings and new methods of farming as well as establishment of new farms. Migrants show a particular liking for investments in the advancement of new irrigated agriculture (Bencherifa, 1993; Bencherifa and Popp, 2000; De Haas, 2001; Popp, 1999).

Pascon (1985) saw that investments in wells and water pumps by international migrants have lessened the effects of the severe drought that had occurred in the mid-1970s. This apparent inconsistency in the literature can be partially resolved by knowing that the impacts of migration are not the same for diverse areas across time and space. There are signs that the initial consequence of migration on agricultural productivity might indeed have been bad, because of a drastic reduction in family labour. This is likely because, at the initially stages it is difficult for migrants to send remittances due to the fact that they have yet settled. Nevertheless as they settle and have established well in the destination areas they send

remittances which the family eventually uses to expand on agricultural production as well as compensating for lost labour in (De Haas, 2001).

2.7 Effects of out migration on rural and urban communities

There are several implications for both the origin and destination communities when rural-urban migration takes place in the rural communities (De Haas, 2010). These effects will be either positive or negative. For the origin, out-migration from agricultural by the youth will have dire consequences for the rural farming communities in the Hohoe Municipality. One of such challenges will be shortage of labour. This is because when migration occurs, it is the able-bodied persons who leave. Its implications therefore are that there will be a reduction in agricultural production because the herculean task of farming will be done by the women and their children as well as the aged at the origin. The immediate effect will be that, food prices will increase, and rural livelihood will be greatly affected.

In comparison with the rural areas, urban areas are still seen as offering opportunities for improvement in livelihoods and an escape route out of poverty. (Awumbila et al, 2014). Even when formal employment figures dwindle, urban communities still offer more opportunities in their huge informal labour markets (Songsore, 2003). Similarly, there exist vast differences in income and living standards between places (Awumbila *et al.* 2011b; Murrugarra *et al.* 2011). It is on the basis of the afore-mentioned assertions that rural dwellers, specifically the youth migrate to urban areas. However, there are challenges in the urban areas. One of such challenges will be that those rural youth who have migrated from rural areas to urban centres, will be competing with the urban dwellers with the limited jobs. If these rural youth find jobs they will also earn wages. This will inure to the benefit of the origin because they will receive remittances from the migrants. The remittances received will be used to hire labour to replace the lost labour in order to expand on agricultural production. This will eventually boost food production and also impact positively on the livelihood of the left behind. However, if the rural

migrants are not able to secure urban jobs it will have serious consequences for urban dwellers. One of such problems will be that there will be pressure on the limited urban amenities. Slum areas will therefore spring up at different locations in the urban communities as a number of such migrants cannot afford decent accommodation. UN Habitat report (2006), has it that 66% of urban Ghanaians live in a slum neighborhood. Old Fadama in Accra for example is a slum community. It is one of the largest informal settlements in Accra (Afenah, 2010). This slum community can lead to outbreak of communicable diseases as a result of overcrowding. There will also be petty crime as well as armed robbery. According to Muggah (2012), environments that are underdeveloped, coupled with governance structures that are weak, high population densities, and inherently higher intensity of direct competition for limited resources largely seem to bring about higher levels of violence and crime. In the long run, there will be high food prices in urban communities due to food shortage which has come about as a result of out-migration of labour from the rural areas.

2.8 Livelihoods

The term livelihood to a lay person is described as “making a living”. This terminology is well accepted as humans naturally advance and put into action plans to make sure that they survive (Chambers & Conway, 1991). Some of these capabilities and properties are perceived by section of the people to also include material and social resources.

2.9 The nature of rural livelihood strategies in Ghana

Rural Ghana has witnessed major economic changes, as households increasingly add value to their livelihoods by both increased migration and more local non-farm employment (Lay et al., 2007). Aduse-Poku et al. (2003) also give credence to the assertion that, rural livelihood options identified in Ghana include farming (crop production and animal rearing), gathering, hunting, trading, craft making, and public or civil service. Crop production however has become unexciting to most farmers in Ghana since getting market for the produce is a problem for the

rural dweller. In the rural communities in Ghana, animals are mostly reared on free range basis and they are also reared on a small scale basically for home consumption. Some people however engage in it for commercially purpose. The main issue hampering commercial animal production is attributed to the high start-up capital for building up structures, acquisition of veterinary products and high cost of feed to keep the animals. Fishing is another vital source of livelihood for people who are close to water bodies such as rivers, lakes and ponds to produce fish for their personal consumption as well as for commercial purposes. Unfortunately, fishing has become unsustainable since there have been an over exploitation of these water sources.

According to Aduse-Poku et al. (2003), with the introduction of “commercialization”, trading has become very common in most rural economies in Ghana. Items sold included food crops, local and imported products. Initially, selling was being done by women, children and the youth. The trend ever since has changed as more men are now getting involved in the trading business. In some rural communities and towns, cottage industries such as pottery, woodcarving, soap making, basket weaving, palm oil extraction and food processing are found. In addition rural inhabitants that have received some form of formal training are also employed in the public services such as teaching, nursing, or in providing services to the public. Such educated elites however may be few as a result of lower levels of education in the rural areas.

2.10 Effects of climate change on agricultural production

Climatic conditions are also having a toll on agricultural activities. It has been observed recently that rainfall pattern in Africa has in general, been on a decline since its relative peak in the 1960s; see, for instance, (Nicholson 1994; 2001). Unlike the developed countries, agricultural activities in the sub-Saharan Africa is heavily reliant on rainfall which activates the potential effect of rainfall variations on economic activity (Barrios et al., 2003). These impacts are particularly pronounced in the rural areas which are usually agrarian communities and thus potentially triggers rural-urban migration patterns (Salvador Barrios et al., 2006). Climate change in modern time has caught the attention of several nations due to its dire consequences on societies, most importantly agrarian communities. It has therefore been seen

as a global threat (Foresight 2011; Salvador et al., 2006). The effects of climate change are many. Some of these effects are high tidal waves, excessive heat, and long periods of droughts which eventually lead to sparse vegetation. Similarly, crops are stressed by climate change and therefore predisposing them to damaging pests and diseases (Porter et al., 1991). The resultant effects of this situation is the movement of people from agrarian societies to areas where conditions are favourable for farming (Van der Geest et al, 2010). Warner and Afifi (2014) contended that, climate change tend to have a dire consequences on the poor and marginalized groups in society because of their incapacity to mobilize the required resources to combat this menace. In an effort to overcome this condition in Ghana, several people tend to migrate from the rural areas particularly those within some ecological zones to urban areas as a safety valve (Van der Geest 2011; Yaro et al., 2015). Climate change also affects animal husbandry. This is because, changes in climatic conditions can affect pasture and forage crop yield leading to high price of feed grain. For instance, excessive heat will kill poultry and this will lead to a reduction in milk production in cows. In addition, climate controls the distribution of livestock pests and diseases (Rotter et al., 1999). The impacts of climate change on food security is also perceived to be responsible for the migration of people from the agrarian communities to urban centres. A study conducted by Richard et al., (2015) in Kalusa District in Western Tanzania shows how climate change impacts negatively on food security. The findings of this study show the percentage of households in Nyakimue and Shunga villages that experienced food shortage in a farming year. The findings have it that an average of 68% of households sampled reported to experience food insecurity sometimes in a normal year, with only 24% reporting to be self-sufficient in food supply all year round. Nevertheless, during dry season, the greater part of the households in the two village experience shortages of food as expressed by 76.8% and 79.8% of respondents in Nyakimue and Shunga villages respectively. This study demonstrates clearly that, there is a nexus between climate change and food insecurity. As people's livelihood is threatened, they have no other choice than to migrate to areas where climatic conditions are favourable.

2.11 Theoretical framework

2.11.1 “Push Pull” theory

There are several reasons accounting for the out-migration of labour from the rural communities to the urban centres. The traditional push-pull theory of migration by Lee (1966) explains the reasons why people in the rural communities migrate to urban areas. According to Lee, there are several factors responsible for the migration process. Similarly, most researchers who used the push-pull hypothesis presumed that different economic, environmental and demographic factors play a pivotal role when in migration decision making (Awumbila et al., 2011). These factors can also be looked at three different levels: factors associated with the source region, factors associated with the destination as well as personal factors. The push factors are those uncomfortable conditions at the origin which compel potential migrants to migrate to areas where favourable conditions exist. Similarly, the pull factors are those conditions at the destination, such as relatively high urban wages, good schools and good drinking water which attract migrants to the urban areas (Afsher, 2003). The main push factors motivating people to migrate from rural communities to urban areas are: limited employment opportunities, lack of social amenities such as good health facilities, good schools, good roads, good drinking water, ‘bright lights’ of the cities or the cornucopia of western commodities. These factors act as a bait enticing peasants to migrate to urban communities (Kinuthia, 2003; Yeboah, 2008). Other push factors are urban programmes, including food policies which tend to work against agriculture and the rural localities, encourage migration from rural communities to urban communities (Anarfi et al., 2003). According to Afshar (2003), the inadequacy of earnings, absence of paid work in addition to poverty in the rural areas, have compelled people to move out of their villages in search of better sources of livelihoods in the urban communities. One of the amazing thing about most of these rural migrants is that, a number of them seem not to have the requisite academic qualification and skills needed to secure employment in the formal sector in urban communities (Anaglo et al, 2014). The

resultant effect is that, most of them end up not realizing the purpose of which they have migrated. A significant point about this theory is the fact that, largely an individual takes the decision to migrate. The main reason has always been an economic factor. Similarly, according to the push and pull theory, more often than not, it is the high skilled individuals who are more likely to migrate. This situation could lead to brain drain as well as brawn drain which may impact negatively at the source region.

2.11.2 The neo-classical theory

Another important theory that explains why people migrate is the neo-classical theory (Castles, De Haas & Miller, 2013). This theory explains migration decisions at two levels, macro and micro. At the macro level, migration occurs as a result of uneven spatial distribution of labour and other factors of production especially capital. At the origin, there is surplus of labour but wages are low. Conversely at the destination, labour is scarce but wages are high. This situation therefore creates an enabling environment for surplus labour to move in the opposite direction of where there is scarce labour as well as high wages. Capital will now flow in the opposite direction, from the destination where there is high wages but scarce labour to the origin where there is abundant labour but low wages. This will continue until a time where there will be shortage of labour at the origin due to continues migration of labour from the origin until such a time that there will be abundance of labour at the destination and shortage of labour at the origin. As capital continues to flow to the origin, factor price equalization will be attained and migration will finally cease. On the basis of this assumption, at micro level, an individual is considered as a rational actor who does cost benefit analysis. If an individual after calculating the pluses and minuses realizes that his pluses are more than the minuses he will migrate to an area where he thinks he can maximize a higher return on his investment. The work of Todaro also gives credence to this neo-economics of labour theory. Todaro's ideal demonstrated clearly that the rate of unemployment of an area is reliant on the job creation and income disparity in the area. It further shows the contradictory result that the creation of more job

opportunities in the cities can lead to more unemployment by encouraging more migration (Todaro, 1969).

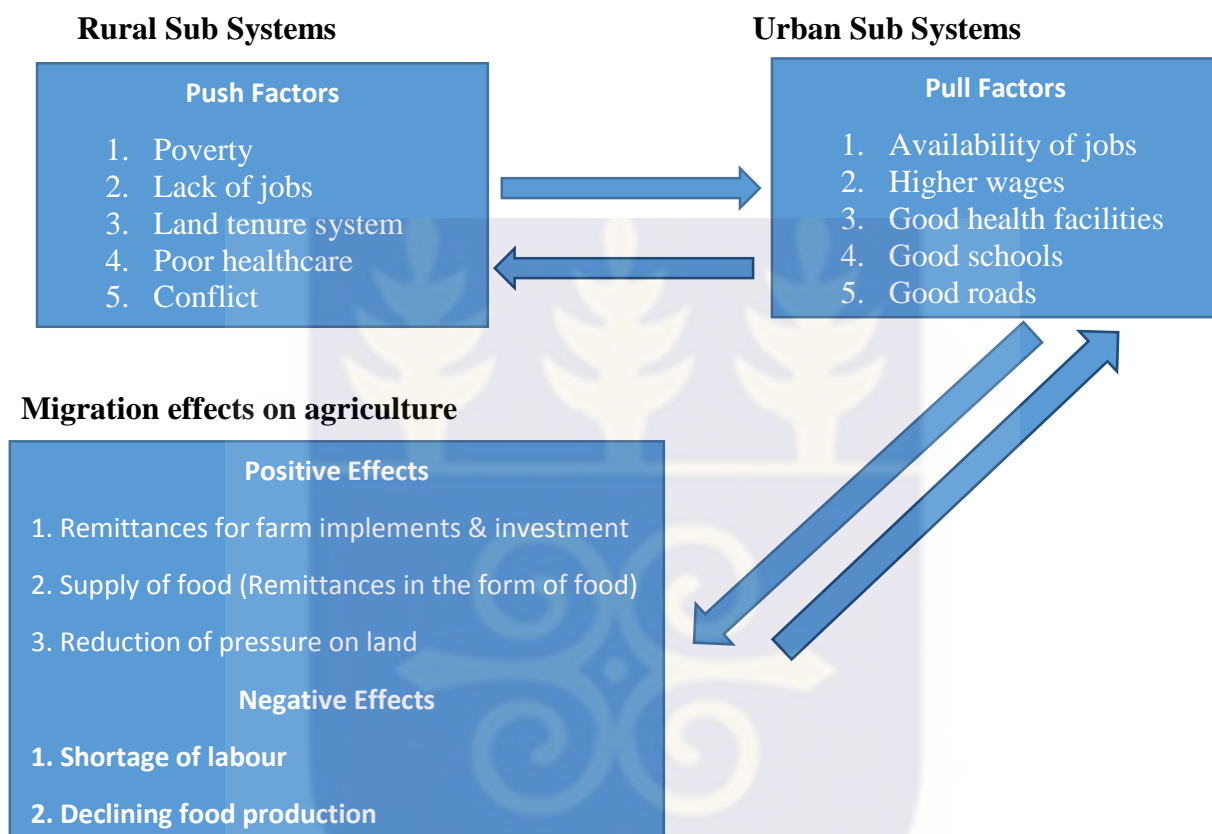
2.11.3 The new economics of labour theory

Equally important theory that explains why people migrate is the New Economics of labour theory (NELM). This theory emerged during the 1980s and 1990s eras to counter developmentalists and neo-classical theorists. Unlike the push pull theory where decisions are taken by an individual, joint decisions are taken by households, families and sometimes communities when it comes to matters relating to migration (Massey et al., 1998). The rationale behind households taking such decisions is about maximizing profit, risk aversion or risk sharing (Stark & Levhari, 1982). Households appear to diversify resources such as labour better than an individual in order to reduce risk. Who to send and where that person should go then becomes a matter of concern to the decision makers. Since most deprived communities lack certain infrastructural development such as banks, small scale financial services and insurance companies, migration therefore seems as the best alternative to weather the storms in the unlikely event that there is crop failure or market failure. This notion of risk aversion can explain the perpetuation of migration even in the absence of expected wage differential. The rationale is that for the household, this is the best tactics they can adopt to have household members migrate to other places either as an avenue to minimize income risks or as an investment to maximize profit (Lucas et al., 1985). It is on the basis of this that returnees in the NELM theory are seen as 'heroes'.

2.12 Conceptual framework: causes of migration and its effects on agricultural

In order to provide a framework for this study, a system approach has been adopted. The system approach emanated from the physical sciences but latter applied to migration theories. A migration system is a set of places connected by flows and counter flows of people, goods and

services and information between an area of origin and destination. According to Akim Mabogunje (1970), migration flows are influenced by rural control sub-systems and urban control sub-systems. These systems will either encourage or restrain migration. In this study, the system approach is taken one step forward by linking it to its effects on agricultural households in the rural areas.



Source: Researcher's own construct, 2017

Figure 2. 2 : Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework assumes that the relationship between migration and agricultural, depends on the context at both the origin and the destination. At the origin, several factors may contribute to out-migration. Based on the migration literature (see de Haas, 2008) different factors account for the out-migration of people from rural areas to an urban areas. The traditional push-pull theory by Lee (1966) explains the reasons why people migrate from the rural areas to urban areas notable among them being poverty, poor educational facilities, low wages, lack of jobs and bad roads. Sex and age are also determining factors in migration

decision making. According to Adepaju (2008), in Africa, migration is being dominated by males although it is being feminised (Awumbila, 2015). The neo-classical theory on the other hand explains migration decisions at two levels, macro and micro. At the macro level, migration occurs as a result of uneven spatial distribution of labour and other factors of production especially capital. At the origin, there is surplus of labour but wages are low. Conversely at the destination, labour is scarce but wages are high. This situation therefore creates an enabling environment for surplus labour to move in the opposite direction of where there is scarce labour as well as high wages. On the basis of this assumption, at micro level, an individual is considered as a rational actor (being) who does cost-benefit analysis. If an individual after calculating the pluses and the minuses realizes that his pluses are more than the minuses, he will migrate to an area where he thinks he can maximize a higher return on his investment. This is the situation of people in the rural areas where there is abundance of labour but wages are very low due to unattractive prices they receive for the sale of their farm produce. Rural dwellers therefore perceive urban areas as places where higher wages exist as a result of availability of factories and other urban jobs that attract high wages. Unlike the neo-classical theory where migration decisions are taken by an individual, joint decisions are taken by households, families and sometimes communities when it comes to matters relating to migration decision making (Massey et al., 1998). The rationale behind households taking such decisions is about maximizing profit, risk aversion or risk sharing (Stark & Levhari, 1982). Households appear to diversify resources such as labour better than an individual in order to reduce risk. Who to send and where that person should go then becomes a matter of concern to the decision makers. In the system theory, Mabogunje (1971) provides one of the best famous applications of the migration system theory. Mabogunje places migration into social and economic perspective as part of an inter-related system connecting areas of origin and destination. He perceived migration as a circular, inter-dependent and self-regulating system in which the effects of in one part of the system can have an effect on the entire system.

Since the study area is rural communities within Hohoe Municipality, the study assumes that the dominant push factors in the Municipality are poverty, unemployment, low wages, land tenure system, poor health facilities, and bad road networks among others (see Figure 2.1). These factors are assumed to push the youth from Hohoe Municipality to urban communities. On the other hand, certain factors at the destination attract these rural youth. These destinations are however different. In the sense that some are urban destinations and some are rural destinations. Those migrants going to the rural areas are attracted by factors such as fertile agricultural lands, cash crop economy, good rainfall patterns and good climatic conditions. Migrants going to these rural destinations are therefore not bothered with availability of lights or entertainment centres. On the other hand, migrants going to urban destination centres are however attracted by good things in the urban sub-system such as availability of jobs, good schools, electricity, portable water, good health facilities as well as copiousness of western commodities.

The framework assumes the effects can be both positive and negative for agricultural. Some of the positives are remittances. For example, when migrants in the cities get good jobs, they experience improve social status and they send money home which could be used to buy resources such as fertilizers, improve seeds and other farm equipments that can be used to expand on agricultural production. Lack of credit facilities and capital is one of the major challenges facing farmers in rural Ghana (Massey et al., 1993). The sending of cash remittances can therefore help households to have access to some form of capital which they can use to expand on agricultural production. Again, remittances is not only in the form of cash but in-kind as well such as food remittances (Andersson, 2002) which those left behind can use to feed themselves so as to get more energy to do farm work. For that matter if these migrants send money or in-kind remittances home, the result will be positive.

Similarly, remittances received from migrants can be used to substitute for loss labour by using the money to either hire farm labour, purchase weedicides or even hiring tractors to plough the land. It is also possible for migrants to get jobs and money but do not have a link with the rural

communities again. If this happens then it is probable that those migrants will not send any remittances. This will mean that even though they may be doing well, they are not sending to improve. If that is the situation it can still be said that there are circumstances under which that can improve agricultural. In the sense that if the local community is facing land shortage, the fact that people have left the rural communities will mean that there will be less pressure on land. Land fragmentation or use of the land for housing will reduce making land more available for farming. Furthermore, remittances can be used to pay school fees for the children or younger siblings left behind.

On the other hand, migration could be detrimental to the origin. The first thing that comes to mind is shortage of labour. Normally those who migrate are the male youth. (Adepoju 2008). When this happens, the agricultural work will suffer because the herculean task of farming will be left on women and the aged. The consequences will be that agricultural production would suffer. Migration can also result in declining food production. As more and more rural youth migrate, it will lead to shortage of agricultural labour. Labour therefore will become scarce which would eventually affect food production.

Therefore this conceptual framework implies that, the effects of the migration can be both positive and negative depending on the rural and the urban context and that is what the study is seeking to investigate.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents data on the general research method adopted in undertaking this study. The topics discussed included the study area, the study design, the target population the population size, and the sampling technique adopted. The study also touched on the pretesting of instruments, data collection procedures, Data analysis and presentation as well as ethical considerations.

3.1 The study area

Hohoe Municipality is the study area. The Municipality is one of the twenty-five (25) districts in the Volta Region (GSS 2014). The administrative district Capital is Hohoe and is made up of 78 localities (GSS 2010). Total number of households in the Municipality according to the 2010 Census stands at 43,329. Out of this number, 23,796 are agricultural households. The total population of the Municipality in 2010 stood at 167,016. Males formed 47.9 percent and 52.1 percent are females. The population density of the Municipality in 2000 was 211.9 persons per square kilometers and reduced to 196.0 persons per square kilometers in 2010. This is higher than both the national and regional estimates of 103.4 persons per square kilometers and 103.0 persons per square kilometers, respectively (GSS 2014). The Municipality covers a total land area of 1, 172km². (GSS 2014) and is situated almost in the centre of the Region (GSS 2014). From the nation's capital, Accra to Hohoe the administrative capital covers a distance of about 220km (GSS 2014).. 52.6 percent of the population in the Hohoe Municipality live in urban locality while 47.4 percent live in rural locality. (GSS 2010). The Municipality lies in the west semi-equatorial climatic zone. The Municipality has an annual rainfall of between 1,061mm-1,210mm. It has a dry season which lasts for 4-5 months. The municipality lies within the forest-savannah transitional ecological zone. The forest area is at the southern and

eastern sides and tapers into the middle of the Municipality (GSS 2014). The majority of the population in the Municipality is engaged in petty trade, crop farming and livestock rearing (GSS 2014). In terms of tourism, the Hohoe Municipality can boast of a number of attractive tourist locations. The Hohoe Municipal Assembly’s 2014 Fiscal Year Composite Budget, made mention of a number of such tourist sites (www.mofep.gov.gh). The prelude to the Composite Budget touched on these tourist sites. Notable among them being the Wli waterfalls, the highest waterfall in West Africa which is situated at Wli, Tsatsadu waterfall located at Alavanyo, Wadjakli Waterfalls located at Likpe Todome, and the four ancestral caves situated at Likpe Todome.



Source: Ghana Statistical Service, GIS

Figure 2. 3: Map of Hohoe Municipal

3.2 Study design

The study employed a mixed method approach whereby both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to generate data for the research to ensure complementarity (Sale et al., 2002, Silva and Wright, 2008). A combination of quantitative and qualitative data was needed to ensure a full investigation of issues that were examined without living out any salient points, different viewpoints as well as statistics (Bryman, 2004; Chambers, 2004).

The quantitative data focused on socio-demographic characteristics of household heads in the study area as well as getting a wider respondents in order to find out their perception about the youth out-migration and its implications on agricultural production in the Hohoe Municipality. For the quantitative approach, interviews were conducted for a sample of hundred (100) migrant agricultural household heads. Regarding the qualitative approach, four (4) focus group discussions (FGDs) consisting of (2 female groups and 2 male groups) were held for non-migrant youth who are considered to have an in-depth knowledge in the study area, soliciting their views on why the youth migrate. In each group there were eight (8) members.

It is on the basis of the above assertions that the researcher considered the mixed method as the most suitable for the study.

3.3 Target population

The target population of the study included agricultural households that people have migrated from in four of agricultural communities within the Hohoe Municipality. Heads of these households were interviewed because they have accurate information about each individual member of their households. Non-migrant youth between the ages of 15 to 35 in all the four sample communities were also interviewed because the topic under investigation is about the youth. For that matter, the youth are the best people to understand the underpinning factors responsible for the out-migration of the youth from agriculture. This approach validates the use of mixed method (Sale et al., 2002).

3.4 Sample size and sampling technique

Four agricultural communities in the Municipality namely Santrokofi Benua, Lolobi Ashiambi, Likpe Bakua and Gbi- Kledzo were purposively selected for the study. Reason being that, these communities served as a food basket for the Municipality because these areas lie within forest-savannah transitional ecological zone (GSS, 2010). Also, these communities are traditionally migratory in nature. Furthermore, these areas are rural agricultural areas per the 2010 Population and Housing Census report (GSS, 2010). Hundred (100) quantitative questionnaires were administered to migrant household heads using snowballing for the selection. The researcher admits that, purposive and snow ball sampling techniques may not be a strong scientific technique for quantitative analysis. However, the study considers it the most appropriate technique since its study population is strictly migrant agricultural household and also considering the time constraint on the part of the researcher. The selection was done with nodes to achieve equal representation from the communities

3.5 Survey techniques

The survey was conducted in four agricultural communities within the Hohoe Municipality. In each of the four communities, a questionnaire was administered to agricultural households that their members migrated from. The questions in the questionnaires are structured under three sections. These are data on socio demographic characteristics of the household, knowledge and evidence of out-migration in the study area, the communities' perceptions on the effects of out-migration on agricultural productivity. The questions were asked the heads of the selected households as well as the focus group participants.

3.6 Instrumentation and pretesting

The researcher used questionnaires and interview guides. The questionnaires were used for the household interviews whereas interview guides were used for the focus group discussions

(FGD). The structure of the questions in the quantitative instrument was in three sections. Section A containing demographic characteristics of respondents, such as age, sex, marital status, education among others. Section B has questions related to knowledge and evidence of out-migration in the study area, while Section C has questions relating to the communities perceptions on the implications of out-migration of the youth on agricultural production.

Prior to the main field work in the selected communities, a pretesting of the data collection instruments was carried out at Gbi- Avegah, a community that was not earmarked for the study. This involved household questionnaire administration and the use of the interview guides for the focus group discussions. . The rationale behind the pretesting was to check errors, inconsistencies and also to ascertain whether the respondents understand the questions contained in the research instruments. The necessary editing was done and the instruments were duly modified before the actual kick-start of the main field work.

3.7 Procedure for data collection

Questionnaires and interview guides were used. The questionnaires were used for the household interviews whereas interview guide was used to conduct focus group discussions. The focus group discussion time was to allow the participants to give out vital information needed for the study while the interviewer also had ample time to probe responses given by the participants. The interview guide and the household questionnaires were written in English but the interviews with the household heads and participants for the focus group discussions was conducted in Ewe since the household heads and the participants were more comfortable expressing themselves in Ewe language than English which also happens to be the mother tongue of the researcher. With regards to how the participants were selected for the focus group discussions, the researcher had a prior meeting with the Assemblymen or Unit committee members of the selected communities who informed the non-migrant youth groups and also organized the non-migrant youth for the focus group discussions. After they had agreed to

participate in the study, an interview was then requested by the researcher at a time and venue suitable for them. Their participation in the exercise however was voluntary. In addition, the rationale behind the study was clarified to the participants. The participants were however guaranteed of confidentiality and anonymity regarding the responses they provided. With the permission from the participants the interviews were audio-taped with the aid of a recorder. Each of the interviews lasted for a maximum period of about an hour.

3.8 Data analysis and presentation

According to Levine (1997), data analysis involves a form of methods that help to describe facts, identify patterns, come up with explanations, and test theories. On the basis of the above assertion, the field data gathered was cleaned and edited to check whether every question has been answered and filled. The quantitative data was manually coded and the coded data was entered into Statistical package for social science software (SPSS) and run for analysis were generated and the findings presented using Tables and Figures. For the qualitative data, the audio-taped data were downloaded on a computer to serve as backup. The recorded files were played severally for the researcher to acquaint himself with the information recorded, and also paying a particular attention to the emerging themes. The researcher went ahead to transcribe verbatim from the audio recorded files to a text form. After the transcription was done, the researcher read through the script making sure that every vital information and themes were captured. The emerging themes were written down and codes were assigned to the themes. The themes were termed, confirmed and matched against the data sets. Here the researcher sought to find out if the themes consistently tell the full story as captured in the data sets. In addition, the researcher defined and elucidated the themes identified and looked for where they fit in the texts, which parts of the data are captured and whether the themes met the set objectives of the study. These processes were followed so as to conform to the six steps identified in qualitative data analysis by Attride-Stirling, (2001). The report was then written based on the themes identified. Portions of the raw data were also quoted intermittently to support the themes to

further give credence to the analysis done. Similarly, all the notes taken throughout the interviews as well as the field observations regarding the respondents and his or her environment were all factored into the data analyses.

3.9 Ethical considerations

All the ethical issues involved in research were strictly followed. As part of community entry procedure, the researcher paid a courtesy call on the overlords of these communities to announce his presence in their community and sought their permission to conduct the research. The rationale of the study was also explained to both the opinion leaders and the respondents as well. The respondents were not coerced to give responses and were also made aware to withdraw from the interview at any stage that they think were not comfortable. As a way of seeking the consent of the respondents, they signed or thumb printed a consent form. Also, permission was sought from parents whose children fall below the ages of 17 years and who were selected to participate in the focus group discussions (FGDs) in order not to contravene the children's right. The respondents were assured of confidentiality and anonymity to ensure that their identity and responses were not disclosed to the third party. They were also assured that their responses will be aggregated and no individual's identity would be revealed. It was on the basis of this that in reporting the findings of the study, the researcher used pseudonyms instead of the actual names of the respondents. Permission was also sought from the respondents to use pictures taken in the research. The researcher throughout the interviews made sure that the interview with the female respondents was held at an open space in the full view of the other occupants of the house. However, the principle of confidentiality was strictly adhered to in order not to allow for intruders. Finally, at the end of every interview session, the researcher expressed his gratitude to all the respondents.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents results and discussions of the analysis carried out based on the stated objectives of the research. The chapter covers demographic characteristics of the respondents. Variables such as age, sex, level of education and marital status were considered. In addition, the chapter also considers, knowledge of research participants and evidence of out migration in the study area, which looks at how often migrants move from the study area, the preferred destination of migrants, number of migrants from each household, reasons for migration, migrant information from household heads, household characteristics, availability of food surplus and effect on agricultural productivity.

4.1 Socio-demographic and economic characteristics of the respondents

This segment presents the findings of the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents of the study. The section (4.1) is divided into two subsections (4.1.1 and 4.1.2). The first subsection (4.1.1) under this section presents the socio-demographic characteristics of household heads who responded to the survey questionnaires. The second subsection (4.1.2) presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the focus group participants from all the study communities.

4.1.1 The socio-demographic characteristics of household heads

This first section presents the demographic characteristics of the household heads and it covered the age, sex, education and marital status of the respondents.

4.1.1.1 Distribution of household heads by age

The age of study respondents is critical in analysing issues related to migration. It is a major factor that can influence migration intentions, decisions and actual migratory movement. According to Piracha and Saraogi (2013), the youth are more migratory than the aged. Table 4.1 shows the age distribution of household heads that responded to the survey questionnaire. The ages of the household heads ranged between 34 years and 78 years. The ages have been re-categorized into five years' age groupings, starting from 30-34 to 75+. Table 4.1 shows that a greater proportion (27%) of the household heads is within the ages of 50-54. Closely related to this is the 45-49 cohort (19%) and 55-59 age group (18%) respectively. The least (1.0%) of the household heads who responded to the household questionnaires were between the ages of 30-34 and 75+ respectively. Most of the household heads interviewed (77%) were between age groupings of 50-64.

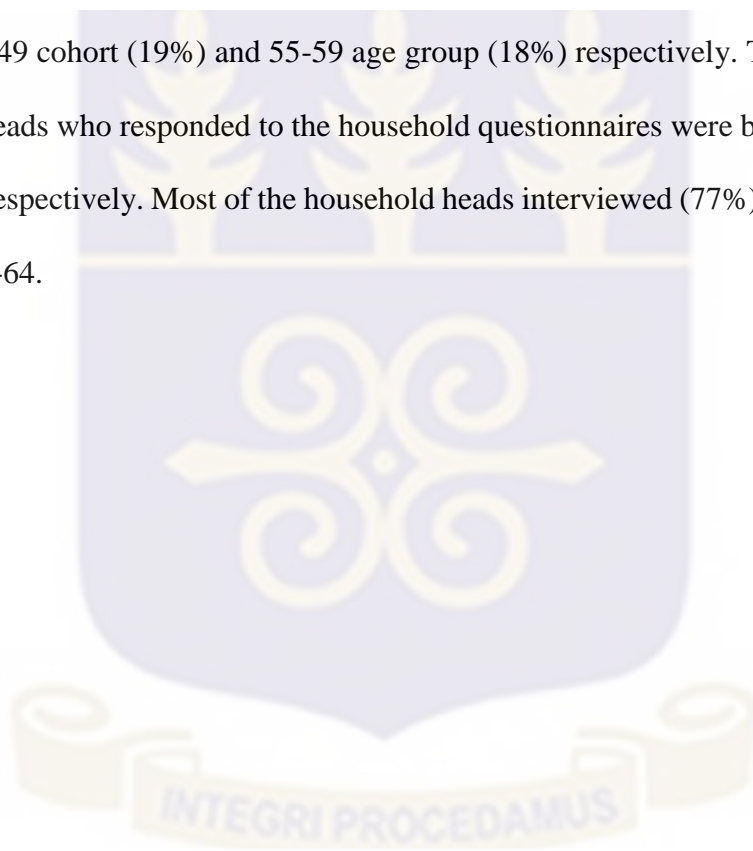


Table 4. 1: Age distribution of household heads by age

Age	Frequency	Percent
30-34	1	1.0
35-39	2	2.0
40-44	9	9.0
45-49	19	19.0
50-54	27	27.0
55-59	18	18.0
60-64	13	13.0
65-69	8	8.0
70-74	2	2.0
75+	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field data, 2017

4.1.1.2 Distribution of household heads by sex

For researchers to understand the dynamics of the composition of a household, sex is one of the important factors that have to be considered. According to Haan (2000), sex is considered as social differentiation that sways migration intentions. The result shows that out of a sample population of one hundred, 81% of the household heads are males while the females headed households constitute 19%. This affirms the result of the 2010 Census Analytical Report of the Volta Region of the Ghana Statistical Service which shows that the majority of the households in Volta Region are headed by males (61.6%) while their female counterparts constitute 38.4%. A reason that could explain this is the fact that Volta Region is patriarchal society. Literature has it that, throughout Ghana, households, lineage, and community leadership is male-

dominated (Clark, 1994). Again, according to Brydon (1996) and Ray (2003), tradition has it that women cannot be family heads, clan heads, or chiefs.

4.1.1.3 Distribution of household heads by level of education

Gaining knowledge and skills through education is vital for the development of an individual as well as to the benefit of the generality of the society. It is on the basis of this that all past and successive governments invested so much in education so as to obtain the needed human capital for accelerated growth of the economy of the country.

Table 4.2 shows the results of school attainment by the respondents. Majority (86%) of the respondents in the sample communities had attained Basic/Middle level of education while the remaining levels all shared 14%. Those without any formal education in the communities constitute 3%. It is however interesting to note that, tertiary education in the Communities has the least (2%) of all the levels. This also confirms the 2010 Census Analytical Report of Volta Region which shows that only 3% and less than 1% of the population in the Region had undergraduate and post-graduate education (GSS, 2010).

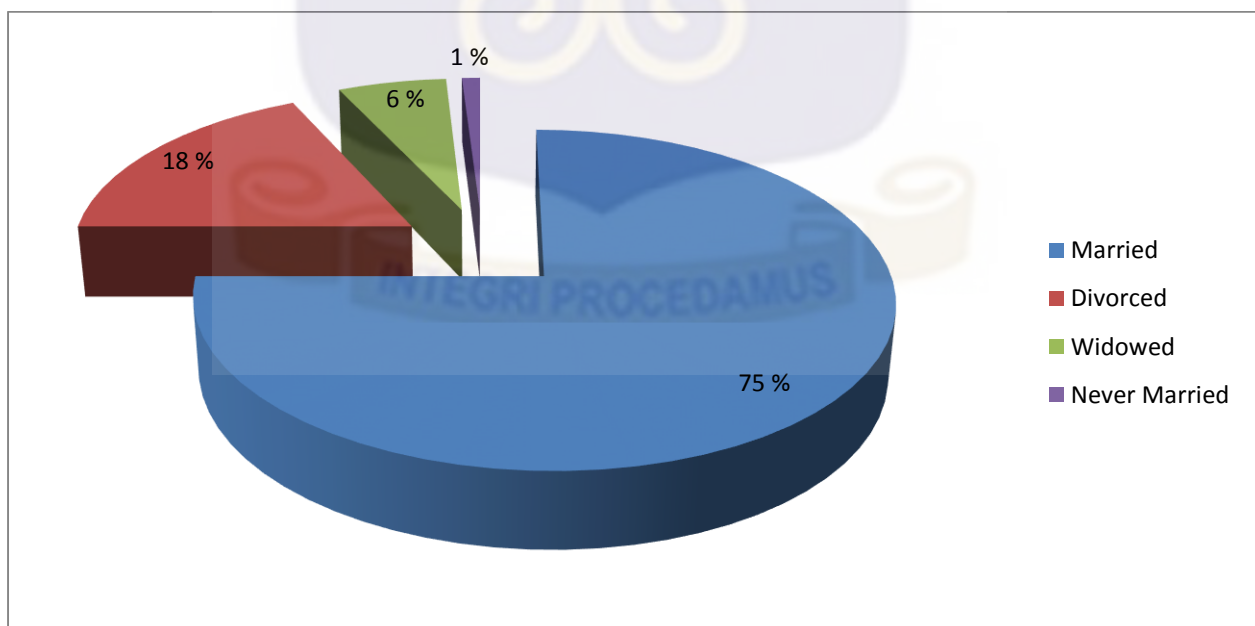
Table 4. 2: Percentage distribution of household heads by level of education

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Basic & Middle	86	86.0
Secondary	6	6.0
Technical & Vocational	3	3.0
Tertiary	2	2.0
No education	3	3.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field data, 2017

4.1.1.4 Distribution of household heads by marital status

One of the vital variables that need to be looked at as far as the individual is concerned is the marital status. Marriage supposedly confers social integration to its participants, providing them with a feeling of belonging and purpose (Waite and Gallagher, 2000). Figure 4.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents interviewed were married (75%) while a negligible number (1.0%) of the respondents never married. Closely related to those who have married is the proportion (18%) of the respondent who had been divorced. It is also worth-noting that 6% of the respondents in the communities were widowed. The highest proportion (75%) recorded for the category, married, also confirms the Volta Regional Analytical Report of 2010 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2010) which shows that those in rural areas are more likely to be married (45.9%) than their counterparts in urban areas (42.3%). The National Analytical report of the 2010 Population and Housing Census also confirmed this finding. Per 2010 Census, in the rural areas about 45 percent of males and 49 percent of females were married – higher than among the urban population.



Source: Field data, 2017

Figure 4. 1: Percentage distributions of household members by marital status

4.1.2 Socio-demographic characteristics of focus group participants.

A total of 32 participants from 4 of the sample communities made up of 2 female focus groups and 2 Male focus groups involving 8 participants in each group participated in the discussions. This section presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the focus group participants.

The result in Table 4.3 shows that 24 of the participants made up of 15 males and 9 females had Basic/Middle education. This result corroborates with the result of the quantitative interview which also had a greater proportion (86%) of the household heads having Basic/Middle school education. Five of the participants made up of 1 male and 4 females also had secondary/SHS education while 3 participants, involving 2 males and 1 female had tertiary education. Three of the participants involving 2 males and 1 female had Tertiary education while 1 female had Diploma in education. One female participant had no formal education. The analysis again shows that, 12 participants made up of 6 males and 6 females were engaged in some form of economic activities as self-employed while 4 female participants were unemployed at the time of the focus group discussions. In terms of marital status, more males 9 than female 6 were married while one female was divorced.

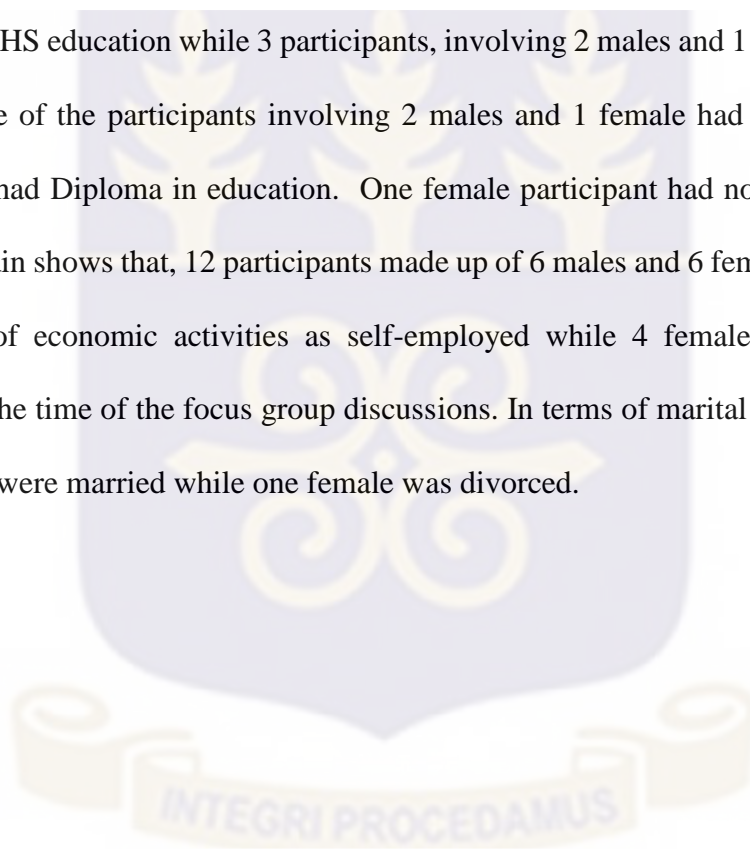


Table 4. 3: Socio-demographic of focus group participants

Age	Male (s)	Female(s)	Total Number
15-24	7	5	12
25-35	9	11	20
Educational level			
Basic/Middle	15	9	24
Secondary/SSS/SHS	1	4	5
Technical/Vocational	0	0	0
Diploma	0	1	1
Tertiary	2	1	3
No Education	0	1	1
Employment Status			
Employed	0	1	1
Self employed	6	6	12
Student	2	3	5
Apprentice	2	1	3
Not working	0	4	4
Marital status			
Never Married	9	6	15
Divorced	0	1	1
Locality			
Santrokofi Benua	8		8
Lolobi Ashiambi		8	8
Likpe Bakua	8		8
Gbi-Kledzo		8	8

Source: Field data, 2017

4.2 Migrants information from household heads

Table 4.4. to Table 4.6 presents information from the household heads regarding the youth who migrated from the agricultural households in the study communities regarding their ages, sex and year of migration.

4.2.1 Information on age distribution of migrants from household heads

The result in Table 4.4 shows that, about 54% of the migrants were between the ages of 25-35 while those who belong to the age cohort of 15-24 represent 46%. This confirms the a scholarly work done by Flynn et al.,(2016) which indicates that youth unemployment is one of the contributing factors in Sub-Sharan Africa that drives migration of the youth out of Africa, and adds to conflict on African continent.

Again according to the GLSS 7 report of Ghana Statistical Service, age and gender differentials in migration statistics, indicate that those between the ages of 25-29 of the population who also constitute the youth, are more mobile. This also confirms the earlier work done in literature by Piracha and Saraogi (2013) which also indicates that the youth are more migratory than the aged, akin to earlier results stated elsewhere (see GSS, 2008; Ackah and Medvedev, 2010), young adults, aged 25 to 29 years, form the largest percentage of migrants.

Table 4.4: Information on age distribution of migrants from households heads

Age	Frequency	Percent
15-24	126	46.2
25-35	147	54.0
Total	273	100

Source: Field data, 2017

4.2.2 Information on educational level of migrants from household heads

With regard to their educational levels, the result in Table 4.5 shows that those who attended Senior high school or secondary school recorded a higher percentage of 59%. This is followed by Basic/Middle School Leavers (38%), while the least (3%) recorded level is Technical/Vocational. In terms of gender, the male dominated the Secondary/S.H.S level (62%) while the female recorded a higher percentage for both Basic/Middle School (45%) and Technical/Vocational levels (3.2%) respectively. This result also confirms what is in the migration literature which says that those who normally migrate are younger and better educated than the average rural dwellers (Taylor et al. 2003).

Table 4.5: Information on educational level of migrants from household heads

Educational level	Male	Female	Frequency	Percent
Basic/Middle	34.8%	45.2%	123	38%
Secondary/ SHS	62.3%	51.6 %	141	59%
Technical/Vocational	2.9%	3.2 %	9	3%
Total	100%	100%	273	100%

Source: Field data, 2017

4.2.3 Information on year of migration from household heads

Table 4.6 shows information received from the household heads regarding those who migrated from the rural communities to urban areas from the Municipality from 2010 to 2016. The results show that the least number of people (3 persons) migrated at a rate of 1% in 2010. The figure jumped to 79 people in 2014 at a rate of 29%, the highest rate recorded, and then decreased again in 2016 at a rate of 27%.

Table 4.6: Information on year of migration of migrants from household heads

Year of Migration	Frequency	Rate of Migration
2010	3	1
2011	5	2
2012	27	10
2013	22	8
2014	79	29
2015	63	23
2016	74	27
Total	273	100.0

Source: Field data, 2017

4.3 Knowledge and evidence of out-migration of participants in the study area.

This section presents the knowledge of the study participants and evidence of migration in the communities. Distributions of frequencies are used to demonstrate the number of occurrences of responses from respondents. However, Sample quotes under various basic themes have been provided for easy understanding of what the themes meant which were extracted from transcripts of interviews conducted by the researcher with respondents.

4.3.1 Frequency of migration

Figure 4.3 below shows frequency of migration. When the respondents were asked how often the youth migrate from the communities, an overwhelming majority (93%) of the household heads said the youth migrate annually while 3% of the respondents said weekly and monthly respectively. Those respondents who said daily were the least (1%).

Also, almost all the participants in the qualitative study showed an understanding of migration. Most of the respondents in the 4 focus groups understood migration as the movement of a person or a group of persons from one place to another. The movements they described were further characterised by the duration or length of stay of migrants. Thus, respondents explained

that such movements are characterised by at least a year or two years of stay in the place of destination. There was an almost consensus amongst all the Focus Groups that there was an increasing out-migration of the youth into other parts of Ghana. Below are some quotes extracted from the transcripts:

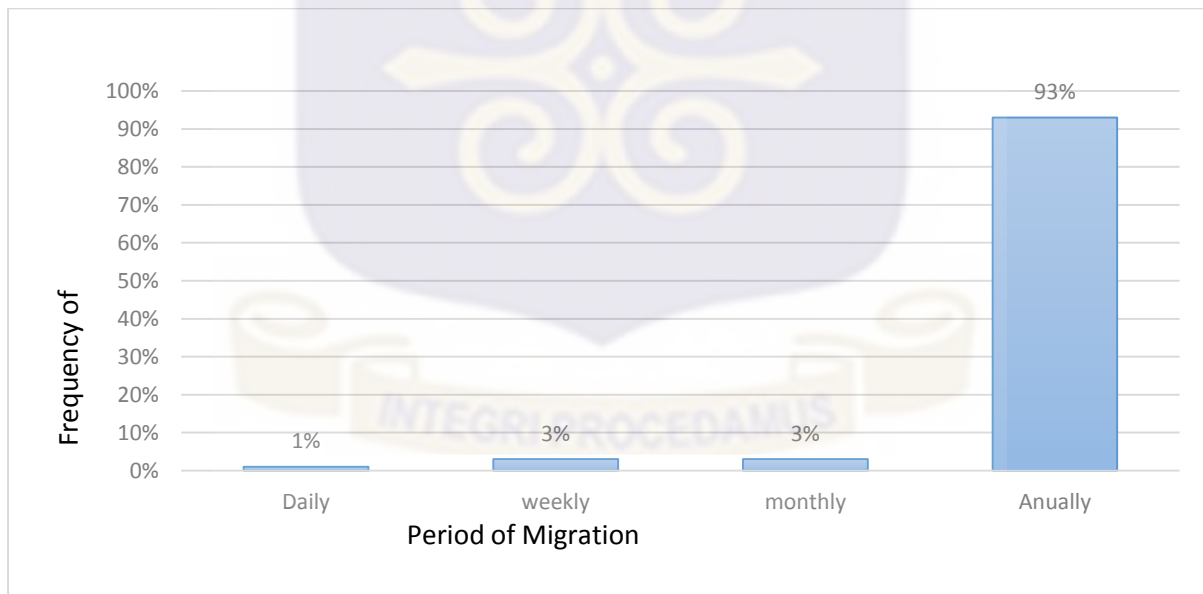
“When you move from one town to a new town as your home.” FGD3-R3

“As for me I understand it as when people move from where they stay to another area”FGD4-R3

“Migration is for instance I am from Lolobi and I go and settle at another place for more than a period of three month it means that I have migrated.”FGD3-R7

“It could be one or two years.”FGD3-R5

“You can stay there for a number of years.”FGD2-R1



Source: Field data, 2017

Figure 4. 2: Percentage distribution of frequency of migration.

4.3.2 Distribution of preferred destination of migrants.

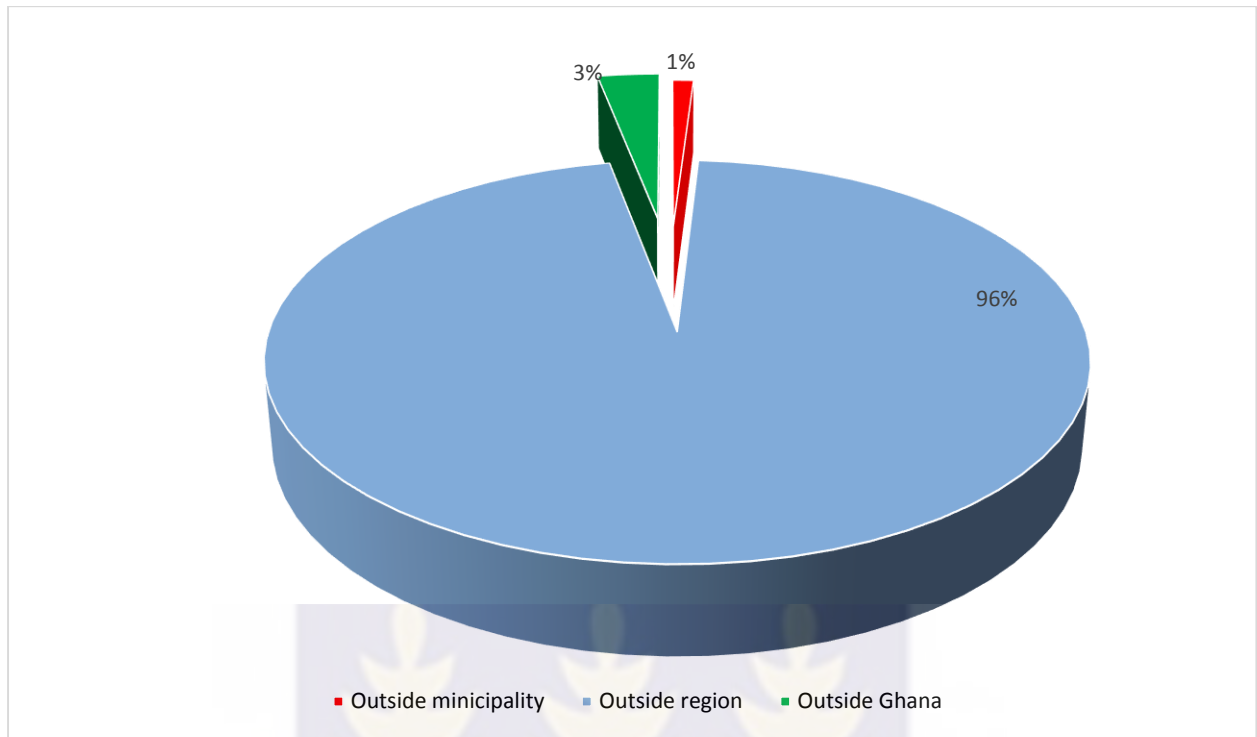
Decrop (2000) defined destination preference as “an attitude resulting from an explicit comparison process by which one destination is chosen over the other”. Also Crompton (1979) and Gartner (1986) defined destination image as the sum total of beliefs, ideas and impressions individuals have of characteristics or activities that are available at the destination communities. Echtner et al., (1993) defined destination as the construction of whole mental pictures (imagery) of that destination.

On the basis of the above assertions, the respondents’ views were sought on the preferred destination choices of the migrants from their communities. The findings are presented in Figure 4.4. From the results and analysis, the majority (96%) of the respondents said the preferred destination is outside the Region. This also confirms the result of the 2010 Population and Housing Census Volta Regional Analytical Report (GSS, 2010 pp 84), which indicates that the popular destinations of migrants from Volta Region are to Greater Accra and Eastern Regions. Those who said outside Ghana constitute (3%) while the remaining (1%) said outside the Municipality.

The Focus Group Discussions (FGD) held with some community members also revealed that most preferred destination of youth migrants were outside the municipality. The dominant preferred place of destination was Accra as well as Ashiaman. Other places such as Kumasi, Aflao as well as Koforidua were all mentioned. Below are sample quotes from respondents in the various focus groups.

“They normally go to Accra.” FGD3-R7

“Others go to Koforidua.” FGD1-R2

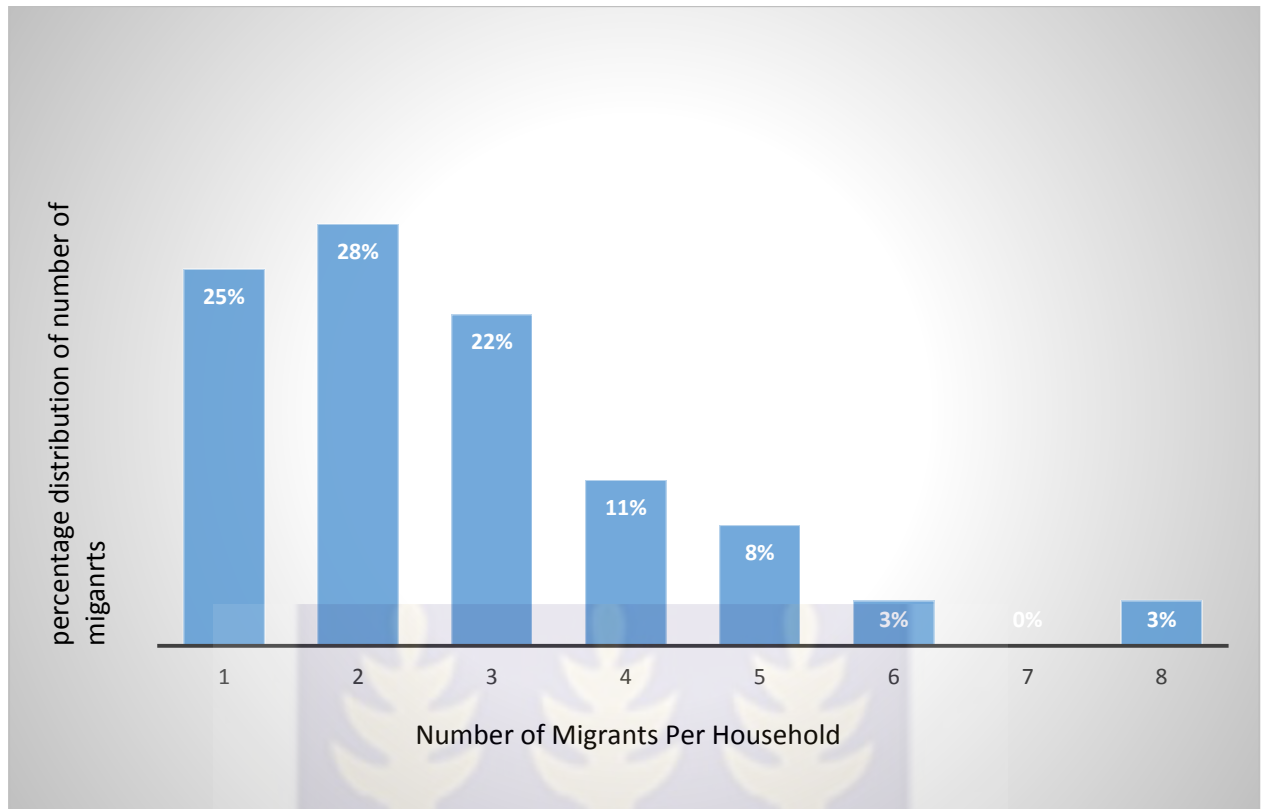


Source: Field data, 2017

Figure 4. 3: Percentage distribution of preferred destination of migrants

4.3.3 Distribution of the number of migrants from the households surveyed

Observation from Figure 4.5 shows that households who have two migrants constituted the greater proportion (28%) of the study sample from the Municipality. Closely followed are the households with one migrant representing 25%. Those households with three migrants constitute 22% and those with four migrants represents 11% of the migrants' population. A few of the households (3%) of the migrants stock are the households having six migrants and eight migrants respectively.



Source: Field data, 2017

Figure 4. 4: Percentage distribution of the number of migrants from each household

4.3.4 Distribution of reasons for migration

Several factors accounted for out-migration of people from the rural areas to urban areas as discussed in migration literature. These factors are well captured in Lee (1966) traditional push-pull theory. According to Lee, the push factors are those unfavourable conditions that are present at the origin that push rural dwellers from rural areas to the destination areas. The pull factors on the other hand are those favourable conditions that attract the migrants to the destination areas. Table 4.7 presents the findings of the reasons for out-migration of the youth. Out of the several factors responsible for out-migration of the youth, lack of jobs and to look for jobs in the rural communities came up as the highest (80%) compelling reason why the youth migrate. This supports the assertion of Ravenstein (1885) which says the major motivating factor for people migrating is for economic reasons. This also confirms the (GLSS 6) report where to look for jobs came up as the third highest (13.6) reason why people migrate

in Ghana. This is followed by reason to learn a trade (6%) while seven of the options given accounted for the least (1%) reasons why the youth migrate.

Focus group discussions also supported many of the reasons provided in the quantitative analysis. The reasons provided for the out-migration of the youth by the respondents in the various FGDs include schooling and seeking employment. Below are samples of quotes that collaborate the findings emanated from the quantitative data.

“Some of them have no one to look after them when they are done with school so they ask their friends to find work for them then they also follow them.” FGD4-R1

“Lack of job opportunities around the communities especially the villages around. There are no factories, no work. We only depend on the farming activities. Some do not like farming so they want to go and trade and do other things in the big towns.” FGD1-R3

“Sometimes it is because of school. Because there are no schools in this community, when the person finishes school here their parents take them to the big cities to school. It has to do with where they are going to get school.” FGD2-R8

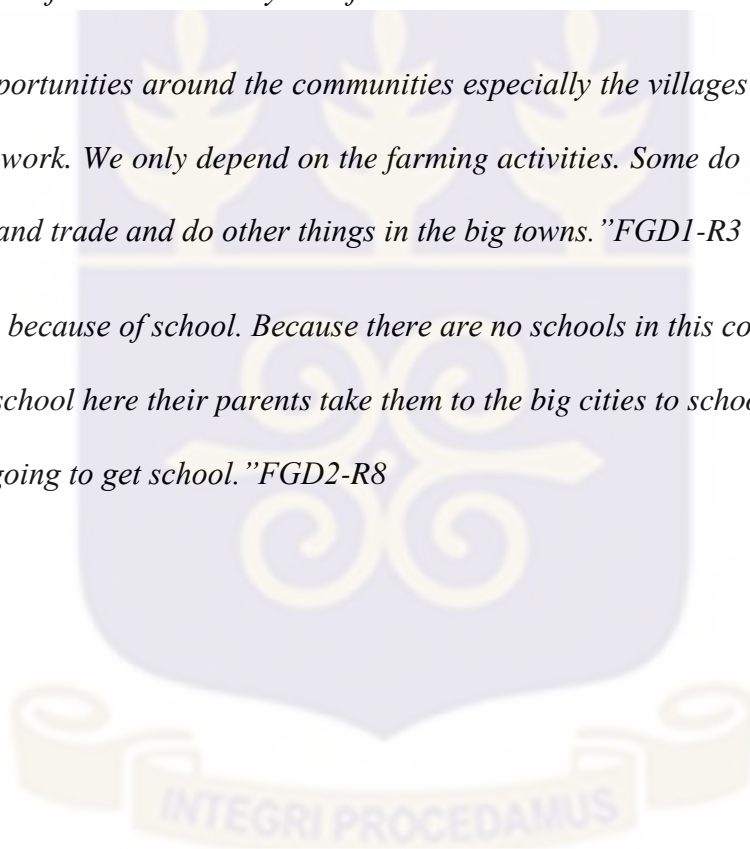


Table 4. 7: Percentage distribution of reasons for migration

Factors causing Migration	Percent
Lack of jobs/ To look for jobs	80.0
To learn a trade	6
To further my education	3
Marriage	2
Laziness	2
Land tenure system	1
Don't want to farm	1
Adventure	1
To look for Money	1
Poverty	1
Peer pressure	1
Financial difficulties	1
Total	100

Source: Field data, 2017

4.4 Household characteristics and availability of food surplus

Though the sample size may be too small to make any generalisation, a cross tabulation of some background characteristics of the household heads (age, sex, and marital status) and the availability of food surplus from the previous planting season, is shown in Table 4.8.

From the analysis, 79% of households that have less than 5 of its members (1-4) migrating said they have surplus food from the last year's planting seasons while relatively lower percentage (5%) of the households that have more than 4 people (5-8) migrating said they have food surplus from the last year's planting season. With regards to those who responded that they had no surplus food from last year's planting season, 9% of households that have above 5 (5-8) members migrating said they had no surplus food from last year's planting season while 7% of households that have less than 5 (1-4) members migrating said they had no food surplus from last year's planting season.

A cross tabulation of the sex of the household heads with the availability of food surplus from last year's planting season revealed that 71% of male headed households have surplus food from the last season's planting seasons while a relatively small percentage (13%) of female headed households have food surplus from the last season. . In terms of sex, more males constituting (10%) said they have no food surplus while their female counterparts forms (6%) said they have no surplus food. With regards to age, 50% of those household heads between the ages of 30-54 said they had more surplus food remaining from last year's planting season while those between the brackets, 54-79, representing 34% said they have surplus food from last year's planting season. Those who said they had no surplus food from last year planting season constituted 8% respectively for all the age group categories. It is evident from table 4.8 that about 72% of married population said they have surplus food from last year's planting season while 10% of those who never married said they have surplus food from last years' harvest. For those who said they have no surplus food from last year's planting season, the married category constitute 3% while the never married who said they had no surplus food from last year planting season constitute 8%. The least (2%) of those who had surplus food

from last year's planting season belongs to the widowed category. On the other hand, those widowed who said they had no surplus food remaining from last year's planting season constituted 4% of the all the categories while the least (1%) of those who said they had no surplus food from last year's planting season were the divorced. They however did not give any response for having a surplus food from last year's planting season.

One of the themes that emerged from the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) in the various towns was how the youth migration affected the livelihoods of the household members left behind. Some members of the various (FGDs) explained that the migration of the youth leads to difficult standard of living since it reduces the family income. However, some of the youth in the focus group discussions were of the view that migration also brings about some benefits to the households. This assertion by the youth contradicts what was discussed in most migration literature which only highlights the negative side of migration. Mention was made of remittances received from migrants which was used to plough the land, food remittances received from the migrants, remittances received to buy fertilizers and chemicals to spray the farms, increasing family social status, sponsoring of education of siblings left behind, building of new houses for parents or renovating old family buildings, sending money for developmental projects in the communities (Orozco, 2007), and reduced pressure on land. Here are quotes extracted from some of the transcripts:

"Migration can affect the livelihood of people. Assuming my father farms and my mother sells it in order to earn an income for the family. Assuming that my father leaves, the farm will grow weeds. My mother on the other hand, will not get anything to sell and thus reduces family's income. So it can affect the families."FGD2-R6

"When they are with their parents they all farm together. And the youth put the maximum effort because they are young and strong. But when they leave their parent, the sale reduces because they do not have the strength to do it on large scale. So it will affect their livelihood."FGD1-8

“When they go and get a good work they prevent their parents from going to the farm to do the hard work. They send them money regularly which they use to buy food, and hire labour.”FGD1-R2

Table 4. 8: Household characteristics and availability of food surplus

Number of migrants from house hold	Do you have surplus food from last year’s planting season		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)
1-4	79%	7%	100%
5-8	5%	9%	100%
Total	84%	16%	100%
Sex			
Male	71%	10%	100%
Female	13%	6%	100%
Total	84%	16%	100%
Age			
30-54	50%	8%	100%
54-79	34%	8%	100%
Total	84%	16%	100%
Marital Status			
Married	72%	3%	100%
Never married	10%	8%	100%
Widowed	2%	4%	100%
Divorced	0%	1%	100%
Total	84%	16%	100%

Source: Field data, 2017

4.5 Availability of food surplus in the households from previous year's planting season.

Food is necessarily for human development. Sahn (1989) postulates that enough food is required to supply the energy needed for healthy living. Figure 4.3 presents the distribution of households' food surplus in the study communities within the Hohoe Municipality. The findings show that a greater proportion (84%) of the households in the study communities had food surplus from last year's planting season. Only a lower percentage (16%) of the households had no food surplus from last year planting season. When asked what accounted for surplus food in the households, as indicated by the quantitative data, this is what the participants of the focus group discussions have to say:

“At times some of the youth who migrate send foodstuffs from Accra to their parents. This includes food that are easily packaged, such as rice, milo, milk, sugar, bread, maize, beans and even yam” FG2-R1.

This is consistent with earlier research findings by Andersson (2002) which says that remittances are not only in the form of cash but also in kind such as food remittances. The availability of food surplus in most households per the findings probably could be as a result of the food remittances being received to supplement the household food stock.

4.6 Respondents views on implications of out-migration on agricultural productivity

Agriculture is the mainstay of Ghana economy. Volta Region's economy is mainly reliant on agriculture which offers about 74% (GSS, 2010) of jobs for the rural youth in the Region. It is at the backdrop of this that any attempt to stifle the labour force of the Region will be of a great concern. The results indicate that, an overwhelming majority (94%) of the respondents assert that migration affects agriculture productivity. Only 6% of respondents indicated that migration does not impact on agriculture.

Respondents from FGD3 pointed out that out-migration of the youth reduce the scale of their farms. This is because of the old age of the family that stay behind and their inability to hire people to work on their farms. The out-migration of the youth therefore leads to reduction in the productivity level of their farm produce. Discussions with FGD2 members also revealed that youth migration, particularly those in farming, causes food shortage in the household due to the shortage in labour. Below are some of the quotes from participants.

“For instance you are a farmer and you have planted five acres of cocoa and in about 3 years when the cocoa is bearing fruits, you are called for work in Accra so you leave. Maybe your parents are also old and they cannot go to farm regularly. They also do not have money to hire workers to weed the farm for them. So when the weeds grow it will kill the cocoa trees. When this happens it can affect agriculture productivity.” FGD2-R5

“We do rice farming and the people who will do the work are the young ones. But when they leave, it limits the scale of the farms and also because they will not get enough money to hire people to weed the farm. So they will do the farm to the level of their strength. But if they are around they would have helped them do the farm on a large scale so that when they sell they will also get enough money and food to give to them.” FGD3-R4

“Most of our agricultural land here are left fallow when the youth migrate because they are the strong ones to cultivate the land, this reduces agricultural production because their parents who are old cannot farm like them. Also some of the farm lands are family lands for that matter as soon as the youth leave the land to urban towns, other family members take over the land. This sometimes results in land litigation which also affects food production, so at the end nobody farms on the land.” FGD4-8

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusion and some recommendations based on the findings as well as conclusions drawn from the study.

5.1 Summary of the study

The specific objectives of this study were to describe the characteristics of household heads in the study area, find out about youth out-migration, if any, in the study community, examine communities' viewpoints about rural-urban migration among the youth, describe the food supply situation in the study in the households and examine communities' perception of the effects of youth out-migration on agricultural productivity.

With regard to the demographic characteristics of the study respondents, the findings revealed that, about a third (27%) of the household heads interviewed were between the ages of 55-59 years of age. Similarly in terms of gender, the study revealed that an overwhelming majority (81%) of the heads of households interviewed were headed by males. This finding affirms the result of the 2010 Census Analytical Report of the Volta Region of the Ghana Statistical Service which shows that the majority of the households in Volta Region are headed by males (61.6%) while their female counterparts constitute (38.4%). A reason that could explain this is the fact that Volta Region is patriarchal society. Literature has it that, throughout Ghana, households, lineage, and community leadership is male-dominated (Clark, 1994). Again, according to Brydon (1996) and Ray (2003), tradition has it that women cannot be family heads, clan heads, or chiefs.

On the issue of the level of education in the Municipality, the results indicated that, educational level of the people was that of a diverse one. These levels ranged from basic/middle to tertiary level education. It was found out that, those with Basic/Middle School were in the majority (86%). It is however interesting to note that, tertiary education in the study Communities in the

Municipality has the least (2%) proportion of all the levels. This also confirms the 2010 Census Analytical Report of Volta Region which shows that only (3%) and less than (1%) of the population in the Region had undergraduate and post-graduate education (GSS, 2010).

Equally important finding was the marital status of the people in the study communities. The majority (75%) of the people were married while (18%) of them were divorced. The proportion (18%) of the divorcee in the study communities is about three times higher than the Volta Regional figure (3.4%) per 2010 Analytical Report (GSS, 2010).

On the knowledge and evidence of youth out-migration in the study area, it was evident that the respondents have an in-depth knowledge in the out-migration of the youth in the study communities. Majority (93%) of the respondents interviewed affirmed that there has been out-migration of the youth annually in the communities mostly to the urban areas. This finding fits well into the assertion in literature that, much larger numbers of the youth like migrating into the urban areas than the rural areas (Johnson, 2006; Johnson et al.; 2005).

It was also found out that an overwhelming majority (96%) of the respondents indicated the preferred destination of the youth was outside the region while the least (1%) of the youth migrate outside the Municipality. This view was supported during the focus group discussions with these quotes from some of the participants: *“They normally go to Accra.” FGD3-R7*

“Others go to Koforidua.” FGD1-R2

This again is in line with the report of the 2010 Census of the Volta Region where the preferred destination of the people from Volta Region is to Greater Accra and Eastern Region. As indicated, it is interesting to note that international migration in the region was on the low side (3%).

Concerning the food supply situation in the households, a greater proportion (84%) of the household heads said they had surplus food from the previous season. Only 16% of the household heads alluded to the fact that they had no surplus food from the previous planting season. The reason given by the participants of the focus group discussions for the surplus food

realized in most households was as a result of food remittances received from family members who have migrated. This is a quote from one focus group member:

. “But at times some of the youth who migrated send foodstuff from Accra to their parents. This includes food that are easily packaged, such as rice, maize, milo, bread, beans and even yam”

FG2-R1

Majority (94%) of the respondents in the study communities however assert that the youth out-migration affects food crop production and agricultural in general. Only 6% felt otherwise.

5.2 Conclusion

The study examined the experiences and perceptions of youth out-migration and food supply in agricultural households in Hohoe Municipality. Based on the results of the study, some deductions have been drawn. Firstly, it is concluded that the greater percentage of the household heads are male dominated and most of the household heads were between the ages of 50-54. This is in line with the earlier work by Clark (1994) which says that leadership is male dominated. Again, Bradon (1996) and Ray (2003) have it that, most traditions in Ghana do not allow women to be family heads, clan heads or chiefs. In terms of education, it was concluded that the greater number of the people interviewed had low levels of education. Only a small number of the people in the Municipality had tertiary education.

One of the main reasons why the youth migrate from the rural communities is unavailability of jobs. The unavailability of jobs can pose dire consequences for both the origin and the destination areas. At the origin, there will be loss of labour as more of the youth will migrate while the destination areas would also realize an increase in population. This movement of the youth however, is in consonance with migration literature, the push and pull theories as well as the neo-classical theory.

Additionally, members of the communities had an in-depth knowledge in the concept of migration. They were able to link migration of the youth to low food crop production as well as creating shortage of labour needed for the community development.

Also per the findings of the study, it is concluded that majority of the households in the study area had food surplus from the previous year's planting season. This was mainly due to food supply received as food remittances but not necessarily through farming.

With regard to the study communities' perceptions of the effects of out-migration of the youth on agriculture, the general perception is that out-migration of the youth affects agricultural productivity.

5.3 Recommendations

Per the findings of the study, some recommendations have been made. These recommendations, when observed and followed rationally, would curb the flow of rural youth into an urban communities and also boost agricultural production in the Hohoe Municipality.

Since the basis of the youth out-migration is lack of job opportunities in the rural communities per the findings of the study, it is recommended that government should set up cottage industries that would provide jobs for the rural youths in the Hohoe Municipality. By so doing, a number of the youth will not migrate to urban areas for non-existing jobs.

It also came to light that the youth see farming as a difficult venture and also less rewarding, for that matter farming has become so unattractive to the youth in the rural communities. For the youth to be actively involved in farming, it is recommended that, government should mechanize agriculture in order to make it more appealing to farmers, most importantly the rural youth so as to stay back and contribute to the development of their communities.

From the interaction with both the respondents and the participants, it was evident that, another compelling reason why the youth migrate from the study communities to the urban centres is

lack of employable skills. It is therefore recommended that youth training centres should be set up by government to train the youth so as to acquire the needed skills for job placements.

Furthermore from the study it came out clearly that, for some youth it does not matter whatever investment has been made in agriculture, they would still not farm. Similarly, the majority of the people in the rural communities as the study shows have low levels of education. For such groups of people, skills development training centres should be established by the government, NGOs or churches in the rural communities that would empower such youths with employable skills which they can use to establish their own businesses. Furthermore, per the findings, one of the reasons given why the youth migrate is to acquire higher education. This was evident in the low tertiary education levels in the Municipality. For this problem to be resolved, the study recommended that more tertiary institutions should be established by both the government and the private sector in the Municipality so as to curb the flow of the youth to urban centres in search of higher education.

On the effects of out-migration of the youth on agricultural productivity, per the findings, it was evident that the youth migration results in food shortage as the herculean task of farming is left on the aged. The plausible reason could be the unattractive nature of farming. It is therefore recommended that government should mechanize agriculture so as to make it more appealing to the youth.

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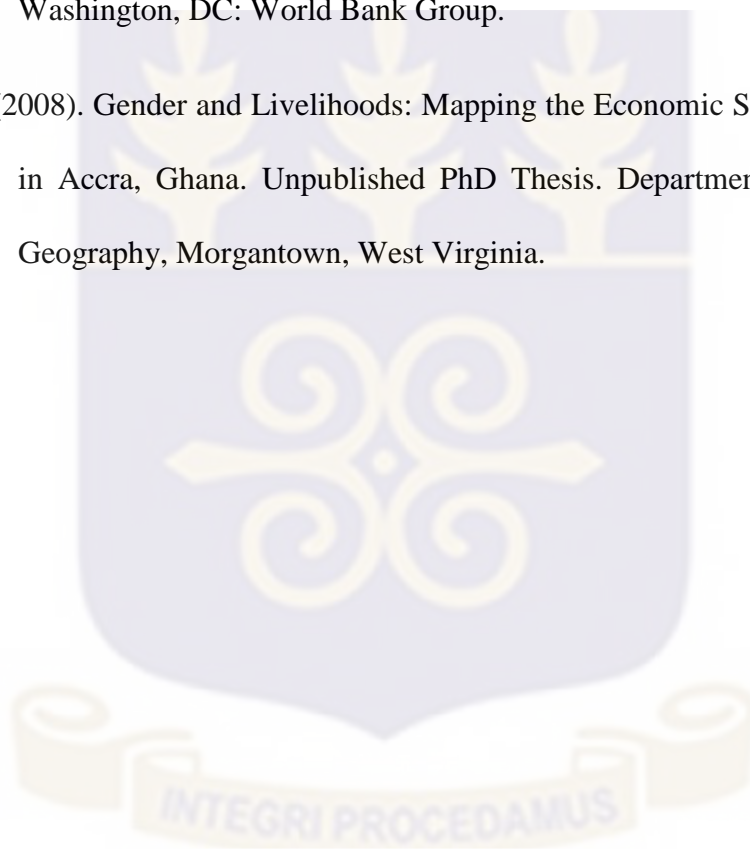
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR AGRICULTURAL HOUSEHOLDS

CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF GHANA- LEGON

My name is Fritz Kosi Exornam Adom, a Postgraduate student from the University of Ghana (Centre for Migration Studies), conducting a research on the topic: “The Implications of rural-urban Migration on Agricultural Productivity: A case study of Hohoe Municipality”. This field study is in partial fulfilment of the University’s requirement for award of Master’s Degree. Data from this research will be confidential and will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you.

The questionnaire to be administered to agricultural households that persons migrated from.

IDENTIFICATION

REGION.....

DISTRICT.....

LOCALITY.....

HOUSEHOLD NUMBER (If applicable)

.....

.....

NAME OF

INTERVIEWER.....SIGNATURE.....

NAME OF RESPONDENT.....

DATE.....

...

TIME STARTED.....

TIME

COMPLETED.....

DURATION OF INTERVIEW.....

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS INFORMATION

1. Sex: 1=Male 2=Female

2. Age (COMPLETED YEARS/AGE ON LAST BIRTHDAY).....

3. What is the highest level of school (Name) attended?

01= Basic/Middle 02= Secondary 03= Technical/ vocational 04= Diploma

05= Tertiary

4. Marital Status: 01= Married 02= Consensual Union 03= Separated 04= Divorced

05= Widowed 06= Never Married

5. Household Size: 01= Adult 02= Children

6. What do you do for a living? (Please indicate the main work)

01= Farming 02= Teaching 03= Trading 04= Others (Specify).....

7. Can you please give reasons for the choice of the particular work that you undertake?

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. If farming is selected as the option in Q 7, which particular type of farming you are engaged in?

01= Food crop farming 02= Poultry 03= livestock

04= Other (Specify).....

9. Are you satisfied with this particular agricultural activity?

01= YES 02= NO

10. If yes to Q 10, please give reasons.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



11. If NO, please give reasons.

.....

.....

.....

.....



12. Giving the chance, will you have opted for another agricultural activity other than what you are currently doing?

01=Yes 02= NO

SECTION B: KNOWLEDGE AND EVIDENCE OF OUT-MIGRATION IN THE STUDY AREA

13. How long (in years) have you been living in this Municipality.....

14. Do people in this community migrate?

15. How often do they migrate?

01= Daily 02= Weekly 03= Monthly 04= Quarterly 05= Annually

16. Where is the preferred destination?

01= City/Town within Municipality 02= City/Town Outside Municipality

03= City/Town Outside the Region 04= Outside Ghana

17. How many people from your household migrated into the town/city?

Please indicate number.....

18. Can you please provide the following information about those who have migrated from this household in the table below?

.....
.....
.....

23. If NO to Q 22, what month did the excess food run out?

.....
.....
.....

24. Please is your household able to produce enough food to feed themselves?

01= YES 02= NO 03= Sometimes

25. What about able to produce enough food for sale?

01= YES 02= NO 03= Sometimes

26. What do you think are the factors that accounted for low food crop production?

01= Drought 02= Poor soil fertility 03= Shortage of farm labour

04=Lack of agricultural land 05= Other (Specify).....

27. Do you think the youth out-migration in the Municipality affect agricultural productivity?

01= YES 02= NO (Please, give reason(s) for your answer).

.....
.....
.....

.....
.....

28. Are you concerned about the current trend of out migration of the youth from agriculture?

01= YES 02= NO

29. Please give reasons for your answer.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Do you think the issue of youth labour out-migration and its effects on agricultural productivity can be addressed in anyway?

01= YES 02= NO

30. If yes, to Q 30, please suggest two ways by which this issue can be addressed.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Is there any further comments you will like to add?

.....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU



APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Introduction

My name is Fritz Kosi Exornam Adom, a postgraduate student from the University of Ghana (Centre for Migration Studies), conducting a research on the topic: “The Implications of rural-urban Migration on Agricultural Productivity: A case study of Hohoe Municipality”.

This field study is in partial fulfilment of the University’s requirement for award of Master’s Degree.

Data from this research will be confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

Thank you.

Consent Note:

Having explained the rationale behind this study to me and guaranteeing me of total confidentiality, I hereby give my consent to partake in this interview. You can proceed now and Interview me and record my voice.

.....Signature

orThumb print.

Instruction to the Interviewer: Please take note of these details before commencement of the interview. Interview Details: Date of interview: Start Time, Date, Locality (Physical Address), and Time interview completed.

Section A: Socio- Demographic Characteristics of Participants.

1. Can you please tell me something about yourself? (Probe for name, age, level of education, marital status, occupation etc.)

2. Please how long have you been living in this community?

Section B: Knowledge and evidence of out-migration of the youth in the study community

3. Please, what is your understanding about the concept of migration? (Probe for what migration is, the duration, and intentions of people to migrate).
4. With the explanation provided above, will you say the youth in this community migrate?
5. Please, how often do they migrate? (Probe. i.e. daily, weekly, monthly, yearly etc.)
6. Please, where do they usually go to? (Probe for preferred destination i.e. town/city)
7. Please in your views, what do you think are the factors responsible for out-migration of the youth from your community?

Section C: Communities' perceptions on the effects of out-migration on agricultural productivity

8. Please, I will like to know from you whether migration out of agricultural has improved households economic status. (Probe for the various ways it has improved economic status).
9. Please do you also think that migration has enabled households to achieve some basic needs of live that they would otherwise not have achieved? (Kindly describe it).
10. Please from the above answers given, in your personal view(S), has migration lowered or enhanced the social status people assign to households in your community? (Probe for increase status, decrease status, no change in status etc.).
11. Do you also think migration out of agriculture by the youth can affect agricultural productivity? (Probe for how it can affect it).
12. Can you say your households have food surplus from last year's farming season?
13. Do you think household's inability to have surplus food is as a result of youth out-migration?
14. Please, can agricultural livelihood of the people be affected due to migration? (Probe for their understanding of livelihood and how it can be affected by migration).

15. Please, is there any way you think out-migration of the youth can be addressed?

16. Please any suggested reasons by which the issue can be addressed?



APPENDIX C:

Sample of Transcript

Experiences and Perceptions of Youth Out-Migration and Food Supply in Agricultural Households in Hohoe Municipalities

Transcript

Focus group discussion

Date: 18th June, 2017.

Location: Likpe Bakua

Interviewer: Fritz Kosi Exornam Adom

Respondents: FGD2

Likpa Bakua -Male

In: when they say migration, how do we understand it?

Res 1: like moving from one place to another.

In: for example

Res1: Like you are in a village and then you travel to Hohoe or Accra.

In: is there any period attached to this?

Res 1: the person can be there for about 10 to 15 years.

In: what if it is less than that?

Res1: it is also migration

In: who else have any other idea?

Res 2: We understand that you move from one place to go and settle at another place

In: for how long?

Res 2: anytime

In: can I say when I leave for about one week I have migrated?

Res 2: No, for about a year going

In: what if it is less than a year...okay any other opinion?

Res 3: Like how I travel from Dzodze to Bakua.

In: do the youth in the community migrate?

Res (all): Yes

In: how often do they migrate? In which period do they migrate?

Res 1: mostly migrate after examination. When they write BECE and also, when they are done with farming.

In: when they leave this place where do they go?

Res (all): most of them leave for Accra, Ho, Kumasi, Awudome.

In: In your view, what do you think are the factors responsible for out migration of the youth from the community?

Res 3: they want to go and find money.

Res 4: some go and find work.

Res 5: Some go and stay with either their mother or their father who happens to be in Accra because staying in the village has become bring to them.

Res: 1 some go and find some work to do.

Res 2: some go and marry over there.

Res 6: some of them go and stay with somebody.

Res 7: some go and find money.

In: what do you think can be done to prevent them from going?

Res 3: when some people leave and they come back they do not have any money. Sometimes too when they are going back, they sell their things before they are able to go back. When we all unite and do the farming we will be much better off than the one who claims he has gone to Accra.

In: What can be done to prevent them from going?

Res 3: we are in the village, so what they have to do to support is to provide us with farm tools and materials. In this recent moment farming is our only source of income.

In: what kind of support do you want to be given to the youth?

Res 3: we have the lands so if you want to farm you have to get fertilizers and other farm materials. So if they will give fertilizers and pesticides you will be able to do it on the scale you want.

Res 6: The reason why they are leaving is that they want work so if they can provide work in the community, the youth would not leave.

Res 7: I think that if I stay here and do the farming, it is much beneficial because when I am working in the big cities, the money I will get will just be used for only food and that will be it. So when I farm here I can sell and use it for something.

Res 6: when you help those of us who want to do the farming, it will encourage others to come and stay and also do the farming and we will not lack in terms of money.

In: so what kind of help do you want?

Res 6: Pesticides

Res 1: assuming my uncle who is in Accra wants to build a house in the village. He won't inform the masons and the labourers in the village but rather bring people from Accra to come

and do the work while there are qualified people in the village who are looking for work. So I will also think there is work out there and I will also go. What the person should have done is to come and ask whether there is any mason in the village who can do the work.

Res 4: they should build a factory in this village so that the youth will not leave to the big cities.

In: Do you accept or think that when the youth migrate, it improves the economic status of the family

Res 3: most of the youth when they leave it doesn't improve the condition or the status of their family because they normally help their families in the farms

Res 2: it improves because when you get money you can come back and help with the health needs of your parents or even build a house in your hometown.

Res 1: Most of them when they succeed they do not use it for anything. For example we the iron guys, when we get money what we only think of are to buy expensive phones and dresses. We do not think about investing it well so that in the future when we do not have we will go for it.

Res 5: With some of us when our houses get destroyed. The youth outside will send money to reconstruct it.

Res 6: with some of us, the youth who go and succeed are able to send money for a businesses to be established and also those who want to do the farming, monies will be sent to them for their farms. I can even give money to my siblings to farm for me so that when I come I will continue.

Res 7: some of them when they go, they are able to find themselves a white-collar job. This makes them invite their siblings to work as a labourers in the company. Or it can help them get employed in any of the service.

In: Does migration help the household get their basic necessities?

Res 2: when some people migrate and they return they are able to buy fridge.

In: what do they use the fridge for?

Res 2: to sell iced cream.

Res 6: some of them the mattress their mothers' sleep on are not good so when coming back they are able to buy mattresses for them.

Res 4: some of them their fathers' houses are not in good condition so when they come back they are able to buy cement to renovate the house.

Res 7: When they migrate they get enough money to build houses where they are and also basic needs would not be a problem for them anymore.

Res 1: When they migrate and they succeed they are able to build a family house in the village so that the families will be able to live in it.

Res 8: maybe there is no money in the family so when I succeed I will be able to help them in school.

In: As a result of migration has the household social status changed?

Res 4: when they migrate the population in the family will decrease. Maybe the person might not get any money when he/she migrates and that brings a lot of burden to the family.

Res 1: when some people migrate they are able to get in touch with good people who can help them. They even help them travel abroad and they get enough money to help their families. On the other hand, when some people migrate they join bad companies and they end up being jailed. Their parents must then find money to go and bail them and then bring them back to their home.

In: In your view has migration lowered or enhanced the social status people ascribe to households in this community?

Res 1: with some people you won't see any sign. However, with others when they were in the village they were far better than when they went to the big cities and have returned. Some

people even go and learn how to drink at Accra but alcohol is produce here and not in Accra. You only hear rumours that the person is a drunkard in Accra and truly when the person comes to the village the story is never different.

In: do you think migration out of agriculture by the youth will affect agricultural productivity?

Res 2: for instance you are a farmer and you have planted five acres of cocoa and in about the 3 years when the cocoa is bearing fruits, you are called for work in Accra so you leave. Maybe your parents are also old and they cannot go to the farm regularly. They also do not have money to hire workers to weed the farm for them. So when the weeds grow it will kill the cocoa trees. When this happens it can affect agriculture productivity.

Res 4: At other places I will say migration can affect agricultural productivity but at our place those who leave here to Accra do not engage in any agricultural activity here. So it does not affect anything in the area here

Res 7: From my point of view when the youth leave the community there will be shortage of labour that will be needed for the production of agricultural goods to increase. You will realise that agriculture will be decreasing.

Res 6: when I was in my home town working, I only go to the cassava farm, harvest, sell some and eat some. It is better than being in Accra. For in instance when I buy cassava dough it wouldn't be enough for me. But I also have children. So when I am in the village farming I will get profit than being in the big city.

Res 1: from my point of view, when the youth go it will be a burden on the parents because they won't get enough labour. Food will also be less but if the youth were around they will be able to do it.

In: Can you say your households have food surplus from last year's farming season?

Res 1: no, we even buy food

Res 4: no, we don't even have money, so the little we get we sell them. We don't even have food let alone surplus.

In: do you think household's inability to have surplus food is as a result of youth out-migration?

Res: (all) yes to some extent.

Res 1: But at times some of the youth who migrated send foodstuff from Accra to their parents. This includes food that are easily packaged, such as rice, maize, milo bread, beans and even yam.

In: Can migration out of agriculture affect the livelihood of the households?

Res 6: when people migrate, it affects the status of the families negatively.

Res 1: Migration can affect the livelihood of people. Assuming my father farms and my mother sells it in order to have an income for the family. My father happens to leave and the farm grows weeds. My mother on the other hand, does not get anything to sell and that reduces the family's income. So it can affect the families.

Res 7: Assuming we are a lot in the family and we are all lazy however there is no money in the family. We have to farm in order to eat but we are unable to do the farming. Hence, we are all poor.

Res 5: some parents farm to help their children succeed. Nowadays, most youth do not want to farm but rather want to go to Accra in order to succeed and that brings a lot of hardships to their households.

In: Is there any way you think out-migration of the youth can be addressed?

Re: (all) yes

Re 4: our major problem in this village is lack of jobs, so if the government can assist us with jobs, the youth will stay.

Re 6: Some of us, we need skill training. As for me I need special training so as to acquire some special skills, so if the government can set up skill training for us, we will be happy and will not migrate.

Re 7: As for me I will want government to give our farmers tractors to farm because farming is a difficult work.

Re 3: Some of the youth in this community also migrate because they want to go to go to big schools, so if we also have the big schools here, they will stay here and school.

In: Thank you



APPENDIX D:**PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS****FDG 1 – Santrokofi Benne**

ID	Age	Sex	Educational Level	Marital Status	Occupation
R1	28	M	J.H.S	Never Married	Barber
R2	26	M	J.H.S	Never Married	Driver
R3	26	M	Primary	Never Married	Apprentice
R4	20	M	Primary	Never Married	Mason
R5	25	M	Primary	Never Married	Plumber
R6	20	M	J.H.S	Married	Apprentice
R7	32	M	J.H.S	Never Married	Repairer (Watch)
R8	38	M	J.H.S	Married	Livestock, Farmer

FGD 2 Likpe Bakwa

ID	Age	Sex	Educational Level	Marital Status	Occupation
R1	21	M	J.H.S	Married	Barber
R2	23	M	J.H.S	Married	Farmer
R3	18	M	S.H.S	Never Married	Student
R4	34	M	J.H.S	Married	Mason
R5	16	M	J.H.S	Never Married	Student
R6	25	M	J.H.S	Married	Farmer
R7	23	M	J.H.S	Never Married	Farmer
R8	32	M	J.H.S	Married	Farmer

FGD 3: Lolobi Ashiambi

ID	Age	Sex	Educational Level	Marital Status	Occupation
R1	23	F	S.H.S	Never Married	Student
R2	22	F	Tertiary	Never Married	Student
R3	31	F	Middle School	Married	Farming
R4	35	F	Never Attend	Divorced	Farming
R5	35	F	Primary	Married	Farming
R6	30	F	Primary	Married	Farming
R7	26	F	Primary	Married	Farming
R8	22	F	S.H.S	Never Married	Student

FGD 4: Kledzo

ID	Age	Sex	Educational Level	Marital Status	Occupation
R1	26	F	Primary	Never Married	Unemployed
R2	22	F	S.H.S	Cohabitation	Unemployed
R3	32	F	J.H.S	Married	Unemployed
R4	31	F	S.H.S	Never Married	Unemployed
R5	25	F	Certificate Diploma	Never Married	Pharmacist Assistance
R6	28	F	J.H.S	Cohabitation	Trader
R7	27	F	J.H.S	Married	Apprentice
R8	23	F	J.H.S	Married	Seamstress