

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES



**THE EFFECTS OF RURAL –URBAN MIGRATION ON AGRICULTURAL
DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE STUDY OF TWO FARMING
COMMUNITIES IN THE TOLON DISTRICT**

BY

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DECLARATION

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

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(SUPERVISOR)

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DATE

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family

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I wish to express my appreciation and gratitude to Almighty God who made it possible for me to go through this programme successfully.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of rural –urban migration on agricultural development in the Tolon District of the Northern Region of Ghana. Many studies in Ghana have focused on the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration on the destination communities with less emphases on the effects on the non-migrants left at the origin . The framework for analysis of causes of rural-urban migration was the push and pull theory. Non-probability sampling was employed in this study because it is less expensive, less time consuming and requires little sampling skills. Two levels of sampling were employed in this study; the quota and the convenience sampling techniques. The quota sampling helped gave both male and female farmers the opportunity to respond to the questionnaires. The convenience sampling procedure was then used to select fifty respondents in all. The convenient sampling was employed because the information needed did not require any special skills or qualities. Therefore, any member farmer in the community who was willing and ready to respond to the questions got the chance to respond. The study found that the major causes of rural-urban migration in the Tolon District as indicated by the respondents included inadequate employment opportunities in the district, search for better education, inadequate social infrastructure in the district, poor medical care services in the area, lack of apprenticeship programmes in the district, better housing in the city and displacement as a result of communal crisis such as witchcraft accusations in the district. The study therefore made recommendations in order to reduce the rural-urban drift from the Tolon District in particular and Ghana in general. Recommendations include subsidies on agricultural inputs and effective implementation of government policies such as one district one factory one village one dam and Planting for food and jobs

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Migration has taken centre stage on the global platform, especially migration of youth from Africa across the Mediterranean Sea. According to Olayide (2009), rural-urban migration, especially youth out migration has been a challenging issue for policy makers and governments especially in developing countries. Its impact of out-migration on rural livelihoods is an area of great concern. It be documented that out-migration may result in drastic decrease in the labour which in turn reduces total cropped area and quality of work giving rise to reduced food production and reduced household wealth leading to increased vulnerability in many rural areas which may bring agriculture in most African countries including Ghana to serious challenges. In his book, tradition and change in Ghana, the driving force behind out-migration were identified to be numerous including social amenities, employment opportunities and the desire to break from family control (Nukunya, 2002). Tacoli (2002) asserts that in areas where there are no communication infrastructure and access to financial institutions, the investment options for receiving families are very limited. On the other hand, areas with good road and transport networks, with positive conditions for agriculture, and that offer local non-farm employment opportunities such areas are much more conducive to attract investment and employment generation (Tacoli, 2002).

According to Braunvan (2004) people tend to be pulled to the areas of prosperity and pushed from areas of decline. Migrants are usually concerned with the benefits they hope to gain by

moving and usually give less thought to the problems that their movement may create at both the source and the destination. According to Justina (2007), migration is a wide spread phenomenon that any study made on an urban centre in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) will have to deal largely with a population that was not born in the place. Bahns (2005) contends that about half of the population in the world lives in cities and urban areas and the population are hypothesized to be growing by around 1 million every year.

Migratory movements have increased greatly in recent years in Africa because of improved transport, communications, and expansion in urban informal sector employment in most SSA countries (Awumbila, 2007). According to Dao (2002), the rate of annual urban population keep growing and annual growth has reached up to 6% in some African cities including Accra, Lagos and Nairobi.

One of the most noteworthy demographic phenomena faced by many developing countries in the world is the shortage of skilled labour, food security and conversely the rapid population growth in the urban centres. This phenomenon has been identified earlier to be largely caused by migration (Agesa & Kim, 2001). Unlike mortality and fertility, internal migration does not affect the entire population size of a country but it has a very important role in redistributing the population size between rural and urban areas and between rural areas of low potential and those of higher agricultural potential.

Caldwell (1969) argued in his study of migration that moving from rural areas to towns has been an important part of farm household livelihood strategy for decades. He observed that to many Ghanaians, urban life represents new employment opportunities, the possibility of working indoors, modernity and being less tied to family duties, which is different from working mainly

on farms, coupled with enormous family responsibilities. Northern Ghana has long been characterized by out-migration. Rural households in these communities send out internal migrants for prolonged periods, primarily to the large urban centres in the south (Wouterse, 2010). This study therefore is interested in the effects of Rural –Urban Migration on Agricultural Development in the Northern Region, taking the Tolon District as a case study.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Afshar (2003) contends that, the inadequacy of incomes, lack of gainful employment, coupled with poverty in the rural areas, have pushed people out of their villages in search of better sources of livelihoods in the urban areas. According to Bryceson et al. (2000), most of these migrants do not possess relevant skills or education that would enable them secure employment in the formal sector in urban places.

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

The farming communities in the Tolon District have experienced out-migration of its labour force since the last two decades to Tamale and other bigger cities in Ghana. This mass migration of labour force from the areas which is predominantly agricultural are perceived to be the cause of labour shortage for agriculture in the source region. This together with poor and declining soil fertility and erratic rainfall pattern continue to intensify migration in the district. There are

reports of post harvest losses due the shortage of labour in the district. This makes the district prone to eminent food insecurity. There are few or no other opportunities for livelihood activities apart from farming and a few formal sector employments in the education sector. The mass migration of the labour force from agriculture and the declining soil fertility together threaten agricultural sustainability in the Tolon District. The out-migration of the agricultural labour, who are mostly youth, threatens agricultural performance and productivity, which subsequently brought about food insecurity and low farm incomes.

1.3 Research Questions

In the light of the problem stated above, the following research questions are posed;

1. What are the factors that influence out-migration of the youth in Tolon District into the urban areas?
2. What is the relationship between youth out-migration and agriculture productivity in the Tolon District?

1.4 Rationale for the Study

In view of the strategic role agricultural productivity plays in bringing about development in the rural areas by way of food security, job creation and poverty reduction, efforts aimed at holding back the labour force in the rural areas is critically important. The findings and recommendations from this study will be seen as a useful resource to a variety of practitioners. The results of this study will suggest to policy makers as to how to tackle the issue of rural urban migration of the youth and also explore ways to make agriculture very attractive to them. This would help bring about food security and poverty alleviation as farmers will sell surpluses to meet other social

needs including their children education if the youth are engaged in agricultural production. This study will contribute enormously to the current debate on the rural to urban drift.

Findings based on empirical evidence could provide insights to policy makers on the appropriate choice of rural development strategies, which could make the rural areas attractive and offer the same opportunities to the youth out-migrants in the cities. This would make them stay back in their rural communities thus reducing the incidence of rural urban migration with its associated problems such as food insecurity and rural poverty because of low productivity as a result of labour shortage.

The government of Ghana has much interest in strategies that could curb youth out-migration and this study will generate the debate around ways to make rural communities conducive for the teaming youth. Results of the study would contribute to knowledge in the area of youth out-migration and further guide further research in this area.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to examine the perceived causes and effects of rural out-migration of youth on agricultural productivity in the Tolon District.

Specifically, the study seeks to

1. To identify community members perception of causes of out-migration.
2. To determine the effects of out- migration on agricultural labour availability.
3. To examine the effects of out- migration on accessibility of agricultural land.
4. To assess the strategies that can influence curb youth out-migration.
5. Make recommendation on ways to steam the migration tide

1.6 Organization of the study

This chapter presents the structure of the dissertation. The dissertation will be structured in five chapters. Chapter one presents the introduction which focuses on the background of the study, statement of the research problem, objectives of the study and the purpose of the study. The second chapter deals with the operational definitions of some key concepts and conceptual framework for the study, literature review, where relevant literature on the study concepts are discussed. In the chapter two documented research findings on migration and agricultural production issues will be discussed. In chapter three the methodology used for the study will be discussed showing the research method employed and the techniques used in collecting the data and also analyzing it. Chapter four presents the findings of the study. The final chapter which is chapter five gives the summary, conclusions and recommendation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter, which presents the literature review, will basically presents some definitions and conceptualizations of terminologies found in this study. An exact understanding of these terminologies is important in explaining the relationship between migration and agricultural productivity of the rural folk. The chapter also reviews literature on migration and how it affects agriculture and finally bring out the gaps in knowledge to address.

2.1 Some Key Terminologies in the Research

This section defines the key terminologies that repeatedly feature in the write up; They include key terms such as rural areas, livelihood migration and impact of migration on agriculture. Getting together the different perspectives/conceptualizations is of importance particularly in explaining the success or failure to improve the well-being of the respondents.

2.1.1 What are Rural Areas?

Definition of rural areas varies depending on who is defining them and specific country context. Its meaning differs significantly between developed countries, countries in transition, and those in the developing world. Nwanze (2000) defined rural areas as areas with population thresholds of between 5,000 and 10,000, who are primarily dependent on agriculture and/or natural resources for their livelihoods. This definition cannot be fully applied to the Ghanaian situation since some people in some urban areas also solely depend on agriculture for their livelihoods. In Ghana however, a population threshold of 5,000 is commonly used to classify settlements as

urban. Those settlements with a population size less than 5,000 are designated rural (GSS, 2000). Other definitions have included other qualitative and quantitative characteristics. For example, SARDF (1997) see rural areas as those with sparse populations who are dependent on natural resources, USDA (2005) describe them as areas comprising of open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents; whereas compared to urban areas, rural areas are inhabited by people owning more rural-specific assets such as farmland, livestock, and irrigation per person than urban people (IFAD, 2001). The conditions of rural people can profoundly affect agricultural production and productivity, denying them opportunities to reduce their poverty or improve their living conditions. The major descriptions shared by the definitions above comprise remoteness, low population densities and high dependence on agriculture and/or natural resources for livelihoods. Due to these characteristics people living in rural areas, particularly those in developing countries such as Ghana, tend to own fewer assets.

2.1.2 The Concept of Livelihood

To the layman the term livelihood describes “making a living”. The term is well accepted as humans naturally develop and put into operation strategies to ensure their survival. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1991).

2.2 Theoretical Perspectives of Migration

Although few scholars would deny the direct contribution of migration to the livelihoods and survival of families left behind, the extent to which migration and remittances can bring about sustained human development and economic growth in migrant-sending areas and countries is quite a different question (De Haas, 2007). This issue has been the subject of heated debate over the past four decades, and it is possible to distinguish four periods in the post-Second World War thinking on migration and development. While “developmentalist” optimism dominated in the 1950s and 1960s, large-scale pessimism prevailed in the 1970s and 1980s. This changed with the emergence of more nuanced views in the 1990s and the current rediscovery of remittances, and the simultaneous resurgence of optimism on migration and development in recent years (De Haas, 2007).

2.2.1 Developmentalists and Neoclassical views

The Developmentalists assume that, through a policy of large-scale capital transfer and industrialization, poor countries would have attained rapid economic development and modernization in the 1950s and 1960s. This same period, saw large-scale labour migration from developing to developed countries. Amidst these expectations of the “dawning of a new era” many developing countries became involved in the migration process (Papademetriou, 1985). Migration being viewed as one of the major vehicles on which national development would occur, many governments of developing countries started actively encouraging their citizenry to participate. Developmentalist “migration optimists” were inclined to think that migration leads to a North-South transfer of investment capital and accelerates the exposure of traditional communities to liberal, rational and democratic ideas, modern knowledge and education (De

Haas, 2007). He further contends that, (return) migrants are perceived as important agents of change, innovators and investors. The general expectation was that the flow of remittances as well as the experience, skills and knowledge that migrants would acquire abroad before returning would be brought to bear on their economies. Return migrants were expected to invest large sums of money in enterprises in the country of origin. Interestingly however, this positive view of migration has recently experienced a new beginning.

Migration is also positively viewed by neo-classical economist though this theory does not include remittances (Taylor, 1999). The neoclassical economic theories were first founded on principles of individual optimizing behaviour (Sjaastad 1962; Todaro, 1969). These traditional micro-economic models treat migration as an economic phenomenon in which the migrant considers the costs and benefits from current and future employment opportunities. Neoclassical economic theory also suggests that internal migration occurs relative to the global supply and demand for labour (Zaslavskaja & Liaschenko, 1976). In other words, the author posits that rural-urban migration will occur as long as the urban expected wage exceeds the rural wage (Todaro, 1969). The author's "expected incomes" model of migration, therefore, suggests that "expected rather than actual earnings" drives the perception to migrate. Todaro's (1969) theory presents an economist's view about the motive of migrants. Neoclassical advocates of the theoretical model of fair growth recognize migration as a process that contributes to the optimal allocation of production factors for the benefit of all, in which the process of factor price equalization will lead to the stoppage of migration since wage levels are equal at both the origin and destination.

From this perspective, the re-allocation of labour from rural, agricultural areas to urban, industrial sectors is considered as an essential requirement for economic growth which forms part of the whole development process (Todaro, 1969). The free movement of labour is eventually expected to lead to the increasing scarcity of labour, which will then lead to a higher marginal productivity of labour and increasing wage levels in migrant-sending societies. While this happens, capital flows will be expected to flow in exactly the reverse direction as labour migration. The developmental role of migration is entirely realized through this process of factor price equalization in the neoclassical world. Until recently, this neoclassical view of migration and development was dominant in international financial institutions. For instance, the “Policies toward migration” section of the Globalization,

Growth, and Poverty report of the World Bank (2002) saw the benefits of migration for receiving countries uniquely in terms of factor price equalization, and did not talk about remittances at all. This is in contravention with Ratha’s (2003) chapter entitled “Workers’ remittances: An important and stable source of external development finance” in the World Bank’s Global Development Finance only one year later, and which played a major role in the sudden resurgence in the interest for remittances.

2.2.2 Historical structural and dependency views

The 1973 oil crisis heralded a period of worldwide economic downturn, industrial restructuring and increasing unemployment (De Haas, 2007). It was also thought that the great age of international migration had ended. This more or less coincided with a turning point in thinking on migration and development. De Haas (2007) further stated that , as of the late 1960s, optimistic views on migration and development in sending areas were increasingly challenged

due to the combined influence of a paradigm shift in social sciences toward historical or structuralist views and an increasing number of empirical studies that often did not support optimistic views on migration and development. An increasing number of academic studies seemed to support the hypothesis that migration sustains or even reinforces problems of underdevelopment instead of the reverse. These “migration pessimists” have argued that migration causes withdrawal of human capital from traditional economies which leads to the break of traditional, stable village communities and their economies. This would then lead to the development of passive, non-productive and remittance-dependent communities (De Haas, 2007). Besides, the massive departure of young, able-bodied men and women from rural areas (Lewis, 1986) is typically blamed for causing a critical shortage of agricultural and other labour, depriving areas of their most valuable work force. This is because it is generally not the poorest that migrate the most, migration and remittances were also believed to increase inequality in communities of origin (Lipton, 1980).

Migration pessimists have also argued that remittances were mainly spent on conspicuous consumption and “consumptive” investments (such as houses), and rarely invested in productive enterprises (De Haas, 2007). The use of migrant remittances for productive investments in the migration and development debate is cynical. Apart from deteriorating local economies and increasing dependency in the sending areas, increased consumption and land purchases by migrants were also reported to aggravate inflationary pressures (Russell, 1992) and high prices of land (Rubenstein, 1992). Also, in respect of socio-cultural, the effects of migration and remittances were increasingly seen as detrimental. Migrants’ exposure to wealth was assumed to have brought about change in rural tastes (Lipton, 1980) that would increase the demands for imported urban or foreign produced goods and food. Hayes (1991) cited by De Haas (2007)

contends that this would further reinforce the cycle of increasing dependency. Migration has often been held responsible for the socio-cultural decay in migrant-sending communities. Moreover, as a result of capitalist penetration, migration was perceived as having broken traditional peasant societies by undermining their economies and uprooting their populations (Massey et al., 1993). In particular, the dependency school of thought about development saw capitalist infiltration and its associated phenomena such as migration not only as detrimental to the economies of underdeveloped countries, but also as the very causes of the “development of underdevelopment” (Frank, 1966). In a process known as cumulative causation (Myrdal, 1957) increasing prosperity in the economic core areas of the Western world was causally linked to the draining of capital and labour from peripheral areas. In fact, these approaches turned the argument of neoclassical and developmentalist approaches upside down: migration does not decrease, but instead reinforces spatial and interpersonal disparities in development. Although these pessimistic views have been increasingly contested in recent years, they have remained prevalent in some recent studies. New economics of labour migration and livelihood approaches

The New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) emerged in the 1980s and 1990s, mainly within the American research context as a response to developmentalist and neoclassical theories (the migration optimists) and structuralist theory (the migration pessimists). These approaches seemed too stiff and determinist to deal with the complex realities of the migration and development interactions. Offering a much more suitable view of migration and development, the NELM links causes and consequences of migration more clearly. This theory creates the room for both positive and negative development responses.

Stark (1978 and 1991), in particular, placed the behaviour of individual migrants within a wider societal context and considering the household rather than the individual as the most appropriate

decision-making unit (Taylor, 1999). This new approach views migration as the risk-sharing behaviour of households. Individuals better than households seem able to diversify resources such as labour in order to minimize income risks (Stark and Levhari, 1982). According to the proponents of the household strategy approach, people act collectively not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks for the members of the kinship unit (Skeldon, 1997; Meagher, 2001). This happens by diversifying household sources of livelihood (Stark, 1991 and Whitehead, 1981). This approach therefore suggests that migration decisions are not made by isolated individuals, but rather, by families or households (Krantz, 2001). Households or families are seen as the principal agents in the decision-making (Gadzar, 2003). Tacoli (2002) argues that migration is undertaken as part of a family strategy for sustenance, and risk diversification rather than an individual decision in the developing nations. This approach integrates motives other than individual income maximization that is central to migration decision making. Lucas and Stark (1985) argue that migration is considered as a household strategy in reaction to income risks since migrant remittances serve as income insurance for households of origin. This can theoretically explain why people migrate even in the absence of substantial income differentials.

In addition to its contribution to more stable and secure household livelihoods, NELM scholars argue that migration plays a vital role in providing a potential source of investment capital, which is especially important in the context of the imperfect credit (capital) and risk (insurance) markets that prevail in most developing countries. Such markets are often weakly developed and inaccessible to non-elite groups. Hence, migration can be considered as a livelihood strategy to overcome various market constraints. This will enable households to invest in productive activities and improve their livelihoods. For instance, recent studies conducted in Burkina Faso (Hampshire, 2002; Wouterse 2006) and Morocco (De Haas, 2006) suggest that internal and

international migration within the African continent should primarily be seen as a means to enhance livelihood security through income diversification because the welfare gains, if any, are relatively small. This went along with fundamental criticism on the weak methodological foundations, poor analytical quality or empiricist character of much prior research, which often failed to take into account the complex, often indirect, positive impacts of migration and remittances on migrant-sending communities as a whole, including non-migrant households (Taylor et al., 1996). NELM has striking—though as yet unobserved—conceptual parallels with the livelihood approaches that evolved as of the late 1970s among geographers, anthropologists and sociologists conducting micro research in developing countries. On the basis of their research, they argued that poor people cannot be seen only as passive victims of global capitalist forces (as neo-Marxist and dependency approaches tended to do), but also as trying to actively improve their livelihoods within the constraining conditions in which they live (Lieten and Nieuwenhuys, 1989). This view points to the fundamental role of human agency. From this perspective, migration is seen as one of the main elements of strategies to diversify, secure and improve livelihoods.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

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

urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc (Kinuthia, 2003 and Yeboah, 2008). There is no doubt that, apart from these factors, urban areas also offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle. The provision of services such as electricity, pipe borne water, and public services make urban areas attractive. Another drive for migration is that migration is used as strategy for risk aversion in times of bad weather and poor harvest. While the motives for rural movement are important in themselves, the means of movement are also of importance. Improvements in transport systems and increasing awareness of the urban areas through media, social networks, together with improved educational standards are equally important factors to be taken into account when dealing with rural-urban migration as a phenomenon. Rural inhabitants see and hear success stories about people that leave their communities for the cities. This acts as incentive for more out-migration from the rural areas. Therefore, rather than targeting the migration itself, it is preferable to focus on the causative factors and its consequences.

Historically, in the migration literature, pull factors have predominated urban environment, providing better employment and income opportunities. Recently, it seems that push factors seem to be increasingly powerful. Increased rural-urban migration certainly makes the rural areas depopulated and this affects the rural economy in general and agriculture in particular, which is the main economic activity in those areas. Migration from the rural areas causes changes in resources (labour and land resources) in the rural areas.

The changes in the rural resources will intend affect agricultural performance and this affects the livelihoods of the rural folk. The level of out-migration in a particular community also has direct impact on agricultural performance of that community. The resultant impacts on the rural areas

are perceived to be poverty and hardship because of low agricultural production, shortage of agricultural labour and food security. These will have negative consequences on the well-being of the rural folk. Migration may also affect the livelihoods of people in places of origin through remittance from migrants. Where remittances are flowing, the people's livelihoods are likely to improve and vice versa.

Apart from the traditional push-pull factors, which have been known to motivate migration in the past, migration is now seen as a risk-sharing behaviour among farm families or households. Individuals and households seem to diversify their resources, such as labour in the form of human capital, in order to reduce income risks (Stark & Levhari, 1982). The basic supposition is that people, households, and families do act not only to make best use of income but also to decrease and spread risks. Internal and international migration is perceived as a household response to income risk, as migrant remittances provide income insurance for households of origin. This risk-spreading motive can even explain the incidence of migration even in the absence of (expected) wage differentials.

Rural-urban migration is therefore perceived to bring some changes in the household and community resources available. Due to rural-urban migration, changes in household income through remittances, changes in availability of labour and changes in availability of land are expected to occur. The perceived changes in the household and community resources resulting from rural-urban migration would affect agricultural performance, agricultural productivity, farm income, food security and expenditure on other household needs in the sending areas.

2.4 Types and Trends in Global Migration

The literature reveals that there are four types of internal migration, viz, rural-urban, urban-urban, rural-rural, and urban-rural migration. The most important form of internal migration evident from the discussion is rural-urban migration (IOM, 2002; Sander, 2003). However, recently, more attention has also been paid to the other migration streams (Dao, 2002; Anh, 2003). Often, all these four types of migration patterns are present in a country, and can sometimes be observed within the same locality. Almost, all these types of migration patterns are undertaken mostly by men. There are, however, an increasing number of women also participating in migration (IOM, 2005).

The pattern of migration that occurs in a country is usually indicative of its socio-economic situation, and can, therefore, be seen as a very important phenomenon for development (Zachariah & Conde, 1981). These include urbanization and manufacturing in Asia, more circulation within urban areas in Latin America, and increased occupational diversification and mobility in response to macroeconomic reforms in sub-Saharan Africa (Gugler, 2002; Yang, 2004). However, this study is more concerned with rural-urban migration.

2.4.1 Rural-Urban Migration in Africa

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from the countryside to the city. Rural Urban can either be voluntary or forced. In most developing countries, especially in Sub Saharan Africa, a shift from subsistence to cash crop production or manufacturing has resulted in the temporary or permanent exodus of men, and sometimes women, from rural communities to urban areas in search of wage employment opportunities (Deshingkar & Grimm, 2005). Much of this migration is relatively long-distance to the larger cities and manufacturing centres (Zhao,

2003). However, there are also smaller moves, typically undertaken by poorer people, to smaller towns where they work as labourers, small traders and/or artisans (Dao, 2002). Rural-urban migration was once regarded as a natural process of economic development, whereby the surplus labour released from the rural sector was needed for urban industrial growth (Todaro, 1969; Weeks, 1989). However, in more recent times, the perspective on rural-urban migration has undergone a sharp reversal (Deshingkar & Grimm, 2005).

Rural-urban migration has come to be viewed by some policymakers and urban planners as having a negative effect on the development of cities in many countries by creating slum areas and increasing the crime rate (Gazdar, 2003; Yang, 2004). As a result, the current policy climate in several countries continues to curtail this important route to poverty reduction and economic development, through regulations on population movements and limitations on informal sector activities (Harteveld, 2004). Rural-urban migration is the most popular type of migration in developing countries, including Ghana. However, the other types of migration also exist, even though on a smaller scale. Figures from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2000) indicate that about 35% of migratory movements within the country are rural-urban, followed by 18% seasonal migration, 14% rural-rural and 23% urban-urban migration.

In South-East and East Asia, urbanization and expansion of manufacturing, especially for export, have led to massive increases in both short and long term migration (Yang, 2004). However, contrary to the situation in SSA, most of the rural-urban migrants in South-East and East Asia are women who work in the garment factories in the cities (Hugo, 2003). According to Yang (2004), the Chinese situation has been greatly aided by relatively good road networks,

communication technology and export market links that have emerged in China and other Asian countries, which has opened up their economies.

In India where rural-rural movements from poor areas to rich areas have been the dominant form of migration, there has been a sharp increase in rural-urban migration in recent years as more young men travel to urban centres to work in construction and urban services within the expanding informal sector (Hugo, 2003). For example, studies in areas of Bihar that have experienced a doubling of out-migration rates since the 1970s, show that migration is now mainly to urban areas and not to the traditional destinations in irrigated Punjab where work availability has declined (ibid:71).

2.5 The Ghana Migration Literature

Even though migration is very common in Ghana, it has attracted a modest number of economic analytical studies. This dearth of economic migration studies is apparently due to the fact, that over the years, there has been a general lack of detailed migration data. Some notable attempts have, nevertheless, been made to capture the main patterns and rationale for migration in Ghana. Whilst most of these studies are descriptive, they often present cross-tabulated survey statistics and other information that offer valuable insights into the reasons, extent and patterns of migration (see, for example, Caldwell, 1968 and 1969; Tutu, 1995; and Gbortsu, 1995). Thus, for instance, according to the literature, the reasons for migrating include job search, schooling, marriage, and other family-related considerations (Caldwell, 1969; Tutu, 1995; and GSS, 2000). Litchfield and Waddington (2003) have employed multivariate analyses (using census or survey data) to investigate issues relating to migration determinants and the welfare impact of migratory movements. This section aims to present a broad overview of studies on Ghana's migration. The

review will cover three main areas namely, migration patterns, the determinants of migration, and the impact of migration.

Apart from highlighting key results of the Ghana migration literature, the discussion will bring to the fore some limitations and knowledge gaps.

2.5.1 Patterns of Migration in Ghana

Migration in Ghana in the early twentieth century was mainly in the form of rural-to-rural movements, as people migrated to work on cocoa farms and gold mines on a seasonal or semi-permanent basis (Brydon, 1992). Whereas permanent migration has assumed increased importance over the past four decades, data constraints have considerably limited the available information on the magnitudes and patterns of temporary and seasonal migration. According to GSS (2000), 52% of Ghana's adult population is migrants, with the corresponding percentages for men and women being roughly the same (51.4 and 52.2, respectively). In view of the fact that these figures do not include temporary and seasonal migration, population mobility in Ghana is quite high. Regarding the occurrence of temporary and seasonal migration in Ghana, these are mainly associated with agricultural activity. More than three decades ago, Beals and Menezes (1970) observed that temporary migration is the major form of labour mobility in Ghana.

Whilst the increase in manufacturing and other non-farm activities may have contributed to an increase in permanent migration, there is no reason to doubt the importance of temporary migration, even if it is not the most dominant form of migration in Ghana presently. A significant component of temporary migration is seasonal migration, which often results from the different farming calendars between northern and southern Ghana. The north-south migration is justified by the seasonal difference between the north and the south. The slack season in the north is the

busiest season in the south. Therefore migrants tend to move to the southern regions of Ghana to work on their cocoa and coffee farms as a livelihood diversification. Short-term movement from [savannah] to forest was thus a natural adaptation, particularly because the kinds of work required in the cocoa and coffee regions, harvest [labour] and the clearing of new plantations, lent themselves to seasonal or casual performance” (Berg, 1965).

2.6 Patterns and trends of migration from Northern Ghana

In pre-colonial times there seems to have been little migration from present- day northern Ghana to the South. Cleveland (1991) describes human mobility in this era as a tradition of local migration by many and long-distance migration by a minority of warriors and traders. “ People migrated over shorter distances in search of fertile lands and to escape conflict and slave raiders. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, large-scale voluntary migration was impeded by conflict and insecurity resulting from the wars between the Ashanti, the Gonja and the Dagomba and the related activities of slave raiders. The Northern Territories of the Gold Coast (now northern Ghana) were colonized by the British at the turn of the century. The first decades of colonial rule were the time of forced migration through labour recruitment. This period lasted about two decades, from 1906 to 1927 (Lentz, 2006). The colonial government recruited labourers for the mines and for railway and road construction in southern Ghana. Voluntary migration started not long after the first forced migrants had returned from southern Ghana. Most of the early voluntary migrants were attracted by good labour opportunities in the booming cocoa sector. Therefore, it can be argued that population growth declined in northern Ghana, while it increased in southern Ghana, due to increasing North-South migration. This is the case between the 1910 and 1960 censuses and in the last inter-censual period (1984–2000). Increasing

population growth in northern Ghana is an indication of reduced North- South migration and/or increased return migration. This was the case in the 1970s and early 1980s, a time of widespread economic crisis, political instability and high food prices in the South. The trend in annual population growth for northern Ghana therefore indicates that migration gradually increased during the course of the twentieth century with a temporary decline in the 1970s and 1980s. Historical migration data confirm this trend. Ghanaian censuses since 1931 provide information on people's birthplaces. People who were born in northern Ghana and enumerated in southern Ghana are considered to be migrants. Outmigration from northern Ghana gradually increased, although there was a temporary decline in the 1970–1984 inter-censal periods. After that, migration propensities increased sharply in the last inter-censal period (1984–2000). Evidence of North-South migration shows that the densely populated northeast is a principal source area of migrants, but the Upper West region has the highest out-migration rate: 26.9 per cent of the people born in that region were living in the South. The figure for the Upper East region is 22.2 per cent and for the northern region it is 13.0 percent (GSS, 2005). The food crop producing middle belt, the cocoa frontier in the Southwest, and the cities of Kumasi and Accra are prime destination areas of migrants from the North.

2.7 Determinants of migration in Ghana

The Ghana migration literature's evidence on migration determinants may be grouped into community/household characteristics and individual attributes. As is common in the general migration literature, many of the studies on Ghana's migration focus on rural-urban migration. As a result, the migration determinants identified are often mainly applicable to migration from rural-urban localities. The major community and household characteristics mentioned in the

literature include distance from potential destination, the economic condition of the destination locality, the welfare status of the sending household or community, and the presence of kinship or friends in the destination locality. The trend in family migration indicates that people are moving to cities on a permanent basis. Literature on determinants of rural-urban migration, with the exception of few, suggest that individual or household characteristics are the motivating factors for migration (Khan and Shahnaz, 2000); Kalim and Samina (2003); Oda (2005); Memon (2005). One of the key results of the study by Beals et al., (1967) is the negative impact of distance on migration rates.

Using data from the 1960 population census, Beals et al. (1967) found statistically significant evidence in support of distance as a strong deterrent to interregional migration in Ghana. In a study of rural-urban migration using survey data, Caldwell (1968) also found evidence in support of the negative effect of distance on migration. According to Caldwell, for all persons aged more than 20 years, there was a clear inverse association between the tendency to migrate to the towns and the distance from the nearest large locality. It is important to note that Caldwell found this result to be statistically significant for both men and women. As suggested by Beals et al. (1967), the negative effect of distance might be correlated to information costs, as well as important cultural and social differences between localities. Empirical analyses of Ghana's migration experience lend credence to the common view that economic considerations are crucial to migration decisions. They also observed a tendency for migrants to move to regions with high wages, and noted that high wage levels in the destination region contributed highly to the propensity to migrate. Data from the 1991 Ghana Migration Survey suggest that job-related reasons play a major role in migration decisions (Tutu, 1995). Thus, on the whole, the evidence suggests that favourable economic conditions in potential destination localities act as key

determinants of the propensity to migrate in Ghana. Migration studies in Ghana suggest that the welfare level in the sending community (or household) exerts an effect on migration. In their studies, Beals et al. (1967) found a negative effect of origin locality's income on migration. Notably, when urbanization was included in the migration equation, this effect (of origin locality's income) was stronger than that of the destination locality's income level. Caldwell (1968), found a higher propensity to migrate to the towns with better-off rural households. Whilst the results of Beals et al. (1967) and Caldwell (1968) appear to vary, it could be that they both are in point of fact capturing different effects on migration. The result of the former is a reflection of the tendency for people to want to stay in an area if favourable economic conditions prevail the latter result shows, that for any community characterized by unfavourable conditions, members of richer households are generally better able to embark on migration. It is worth noting also, that apart from the fact that the two studies used different datasets, Caldwell was only reporting an association, whereas Beals et al. (1967) carried out a regression analysis. These results nevertheless highlight the complex nature of migration determinants and outcomes. The importance of networks in migration decisions has been acknowledged (Lucas, 1997) and for Ghana, this factor appears to be crucial in most migration decisions (Tutu, 1995). This is because the establishment of networks often results in the reduction of migration costs. On the basis of data from the Ghana 1991.

Migration Survey, Tutu reports that for persons intending to migrate, 76 percent had friends or relatives residing in the destination locality. In the context of rural-to-urban migration, Caldwell (1968) also found a very strong statistically significant association between the presence of rural household members in the destination locality and the likelihood of other members visiting (or migrating to) the town. As observed by Tutu (1995) the role of access to destination-based

kinship and other networks in migration decisions is closely linked to the cost-reducing effect of such access. A dynamic element has further been associated with the role of destination-based networks of relatives and friends. In his study of rural-to-urban migration in Ghana, Caldwell (1969) observes that by increasing the population of rural residents' relatives and friends in urban centres, rural-to-urban migration can be self reinforcing. Whilst the propensity for migration is higher amongst males than amongst females, especially over longer distances migrants in Ghana are dominated by young persons (Tutu, 1995) as predicted by the human capital theory.

The evidence of Ghana's migration studies relating to the effects (on the tendency to migrate) of marital status and the number of dependents are, however, somewhat tentative. Tutu (1995) observes that the unmarried are more likely to migrate, but Caldwell's (1968) evidence for this was not very strong. Again, in respect of the number of dependents, the former reports a negative effect on migratory movements, whilst the latter was very cautious on this. Caldwell however, found a positive relationship between number of siblings and rural-to-urban migration. In the context of rural-to-urban migration, Caldwell further suggests there is often strong pressure on persons of low birth rank (that is, older siblings) to stay at home, and – in the case of persons who have migrated – to return home.

According to Caldwell, this tendency is due to the fact that the most senior siblings are often required by social norms to shoulder certain responsibilities, such as, looking after aged or ailing parents, and managing the family farm. With regard to the impact of education on the propensity to migrate, the Ghana studies are not unanimous on the direction of influence.

In their econometric investigation of interregional migration in Ghana, Beals et al. (1967) found a negative effect of education on migration. This result was contrary to what had been hypothesized, and the authors acknowledged that they “simply do not know what underlies the observed inconsistency”. Caldwell (1968) on the other hand, found a statistically significant positive association between education and the propensity for rural-to-urban migration. According to the 1991 Migration Research Study, however, a higher percentage of migrants have no formal education, compared to non-migrants (Gbortsu, 1995). Data reported by Gbortsu further suggests that it is only with respect to university education, that the proportion of migrants with education exceeds that of non-migrants. Clearly, the education-migration interplay appears to be complex. This complexity may be attributed to the potential for considerable correlation between any pair of education, incomes, and migration. The incorporation of a correction for selectivity bias is a key aspect of a recent econometric migration study by Tsegai (2005). In investigating the determinants of the migration decision, Tsegai places particular prominence on the role of migration income in influencing the decision. In view of the fact that migrants may be non-randomly selected from the population, the study employs Heckman’s two-step procedure for selectivity correction. A major result of the study is the evidence found for expected income gains in influencing migration decisions. Other factors found to influence the migration decision include previous migration experience of the household head and/or spouse, household size, education, social capital, ethnic networks, having irrigated fields and off-farm activities. Since the study’s geographical focus was very localized, its findings cannot be generalized for the entire country. Notwithstanding this limitation, the study’s results and more importantly the methodology constitute a valuable addition to the Ghana migration literature. The literature reviewed in this sub-section suggests that studies on Ghana’s migration

determinants are dominated by the use of descriptive statistics. Whilst the usefulness of such methods can hardly be ignored, it is appropriate to emphasize that an increased use of alternative and more rigorous approaches to the analysis of migration data can be insightful and complementary.

2.8 Migration and Agriculture in Ghana

The consensus in the literature about the relationship between migration and rural development remains thin. The evidence suggests that migration does not usually 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). It has been commonly argued in the migration literature that both internal and international migration have contributed to decline in agriculture and a general disaffection with small-scale peasantry.

A study conducted by Aworemi, Abdul-Azeez & Opoola (2011) in Nigeria show that rural urban migration is a double-edge problem affecting the rural community as well as the urban destinations. They contend that rural community is affected because the youths and adults that are supposed to remain in the community and contribute to the development of agriculture in particular and the community in general leave the rural areas for other destinations. They move to urban centres in search of non-existent greener pasture and abandon the farming activities which they believe cannot earn them what they will get in the urban areas. Subsequently, this tends to reduce agricultural production and food availability in the sending communities. The 'lost labour' of able-bodied (migrated) men and women is ascribed a key role in the process of agricultural decline. Interestingly, internal migration is associated more often with rural and agricultural stagnation or even decline (Regmi and Tisdell, 2002; De Haas, 1998) than with

international migration to wealthy countries, where much higher remittances enable households to substitute the lost labour and to actually invest in agriculture and other sectors. The mass exodus of the rural work force is supposed to have led to agricultural decline or even abandonment of agriculture (De Mas, 1990; Ferry and Toutain, 1990; Kerbout, 1990). This has serious implications for agricultural production since most of the work which would have been done by the youths is now left for the aged to do (Angba, 2003). While migrants are away, households have less labour to allocate to local production activities. If a migrant household's marginal product on the farm is positive, crop production will fall when the household sends out a migrant(s). The loss in yield due to the reduction in available labour may be compensated for (partially) by remittances from the migrant(s) (Taylor et al., 2003; Rozelle et al., 1999), which are used to purchase additional inputs or rent substitutes for labour in cropping. Instead of investing, it has been argued that migrant households tend to withdraw partially or entirely from agriculture. This is because the remittances sent by migrants pushes the migrant household to a higher economic level where they can engage in other economic ventures leaving primary production. Return migrants who do invest in agriculture often do so, not out of rational economic motives, but because of their strong emotional attachment towards agriculture.

Finally, it is important to differentiate between the impacts of internal and international migration. There is evidence that, especially in areas where irrigation is relatively costly or labour-intensive, internal migration is associated with agricultural stagnation or decline (Bencherifa, 1996; De Haas, 1998). The relatively low incomes of internal migrants often do not allow for lost labour substitution. In arid and semi-arid areas where irrigation water is accessible only through pumping, such as in several oases, internal and non-migrant households can even be forced to withdraw from agriculture if they cannot afford to invest in digging wells and

buying water pumps. It is internal migration, therefore, rather than international migration, that seems to be associated with a retreat from agriculture through the decreased availability of family labour and poverty (De Haas, 1998; 2003).

2.9 Summary

This chapter dealt with the definition of conceptual terminologies, the conceptual framework for the study and review of relevant literature on migration in Ghana and elsewhere. The migration theories discussed in this chapter originated from a variety of disciplines. Different disciplines approach migration in different ways. A major criticism applicable to most migration theories is that no single theory can completely explain all migration phenomena. The above migration theories considered the social, economic and other features of the migrants based on the western experiences. Regardless of this, the theories noted were used as a basic theoretical frame work for this research and will be evaluated based on empirical interpretation whether or not the western model of migration is applicable for this research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE OF CASE STUDY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the various research methodologies that were employed in obtaining the necessary information for the study. It discusses the various tools that were used in data collection, the analysis that was done and the profiles of the district under study.

3.2 Research Design

Research design is an overall framework of a research that explains the direction and method to be used in a study to gather the information needed, either from primary or secondary sources. The research design that the study used was primarily the survey design. The survey design was chosen because the objectives set to be achieved could best be achieved using the survey. The survey is a quantitative approach of analysis.

3.3 Target Population

According to Hair and Bush (2006), target population is a specified group of people or objects for which questions can be asked or observations made to develop required data structure or information. Therefore, the target population in this research was the male and female farmers in two communities in the Tolon District of the Northern Region of Ghana.

3.4 Sampling Procedure and Techniques

Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Webster, 2018).

Non-probability sampling was employed in this study because it is less expensive, less time consuming and requires little sampling skills. Two levels of sampling were employed in this study; the quota and the convenience sampling techniques. The quota sampling helped gave both male and female farmers the opportunity to respond to the questionnaires. The convenience sampling procedure was then used to select fifty respondents in all. The convenient sampling was employed because the information needed did not require any special skills or qualities. Therefore, any member farmer in the community who was willing and ready to respond to the questions got the chance to respond.

3.4.1 Sample Size

The study sampled twenty-five (25) male and twenty-five (25) female to respond to the questionnaires. In addition, two (2) interviews with chiefs in the communities were conducted. In sum therefore, the sample size for the study was fifty-two (52).

3.5 Sources and Methods of Data Collection

In this study, both primary and secondary data sources have been be employed. Primary sources of data included questionnaires and interviews.

3.5.1 Primary Source of Data

The primary sources of data that were used in the study were the administering of questionnaires and interviews. The researcher designed questionnaires which were to be distributed to sampled farmers in the two communities.

Structured interviews were also administered to chiefs in the respective communities. With this, the researcher was able to clarify certain responses from the other farmers.

3.5.2 Secondary sources of Data Collection

In this study, most secondary data were to be extracted from journal articles of relevance to the research topic. The secondary sources of data included both published and unpublished reports on the topics. Information was also sourced from online resources such as databases and internet findings.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

The study made use of both quantitative and qualitative analysis. In analysing the quantitative data collected, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) technique version 17 was employed. The software package was employed because of the nature of the data that will be collected. Also, the software analyses data accurately and present tables accurately.

3.7 Profile of Case Study District-The Tolon District

The Tolon District Assembly came into existence in 2011 by LI. 2142 with Tolon as the district capital. Hitherto, the district was part of the Tolon/Kumbungu District; one of the 45 districts created by the then Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) Law 207 in 1988.

In order to enhance participation and development especially at the grassroot, the District was among the 42 inaugurated districts in 2012. The District was carved out from the then Tolon/Kumbungu District.

Location

The District lies between latitudes 9°15' and 10°02' North and Longitudes 0°53' and 1°25' West. It shares boundaries to the North with Kumbungu, North Gonja to the West, Central Gonja to the South, and Sagnarigu Districts to the East.

Rainfall

The district is characterized by a single rainy season, which starts in late April with little rainfall, rising to its peak in July-August and declining sharply and coming to a complete halt in October-November. The dry season starts from November to March with day temperatures ranging from 33°C to 39°C, while mean night temperature range from 20°C to 26°C. The Mean annual rainfall ranges between 950mm -1,200mm. The area experiences occasional storms, which have implications for base soil erosion depending on its frequency and intensity especially when they occur at the end of the dry season. The situation also has an implication as staple crop farming for instance is highly restricted by the short rainfall duration.

The main vegetation is grassland, interspersed with guinea savannah woodland, characterized by drought-resistant trees such as acacia, mango, baobab, shea nut (*Vitellaria paradoxa*), dawadawa, and neem (*Azadirachta indica*).

Major tree species include the sheanut, dawadawa, and mango, which are economic trees and form an integral part of livelihood of its people. There is also the neem which mostly has some

medicinal use. The dense woodlands and forests along river valleys (especially areas along the basin of the White Volta and its tributaries) is gradually beginning to change due to the influx of people.

Topography and Drainage

Generally, the land is undulating with a number of scattered depressions. There are no marked high elevations throughout the district. The land is drained by a number of rivers and streams, most prominent being the White Volta. Among the major tributaries of the White Volta are Kulabong, Koraba, Salo, Bawa and Winibo. The major river and its tributaries exhibit dendrite drainage patterns. Most of these tributaries dry up during the dry season. Besides, there exist smaller dams and dug-out in some communities in the District.

Soil

The soil is generally of the sandy loam type except in the low lands where alluvial deposits are found. There are also deposits of gravel which are sold for economic value. The nature of the soil makes it highly vulnerable to sheet and gully erosion. This condition happens primarily because of the perennial burning of the natural vegetation, leaving the soils exposed to high weather intensity. The continuous erosion over many years has removed most of the top soils and depleted its organic matter content. This situation does not allow the soil fauna to thrive, leading to low agricultural yields.

Traditional Political System

There are nine Sub-Chiefs who pay allegiance to the “Yaa-Naa,” the King of Dagbon. They include, Nyankpalana, Tolon-Naa, Waribugulana, Gburimanilana, Kasulana, Lingbunlana,

Kpedulana, Dimabi-Naa, and Zantani-Naa. The structure of the traditional system does not only promote the culture of the people, but it enhances a peaceful and harmonious environment for development.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present the findings of the research from the analysis of the primary data. Conscious efforts will be made to link the findings of the research to the objectives they set out to achieve in order to help arrive at useful conclusions and to make great recommendations.

4.2 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Socio-demographic variables such as age, sex and marital status are very key in the analysis of respondents in any research. Responses elicited from respondents are most often influenced by these variables. More so, recommendations that generally come from varied ages, sexes and marital status generally reflect the views of the wider majority.

4.2.1 Age of Respondents

Majority of farmers generally sampled for the study were between the ages of 30-69. It was found that 66% of the farmers were between the ages 30 to 69. Only 18% of farmers were less than 30 years. The age composition of farmers reveal that the study is dealing with matured farmers who may possibly have huge experience in farming and can reveal a lot about the communities.

Table 4.1 Age Composition of Farmers

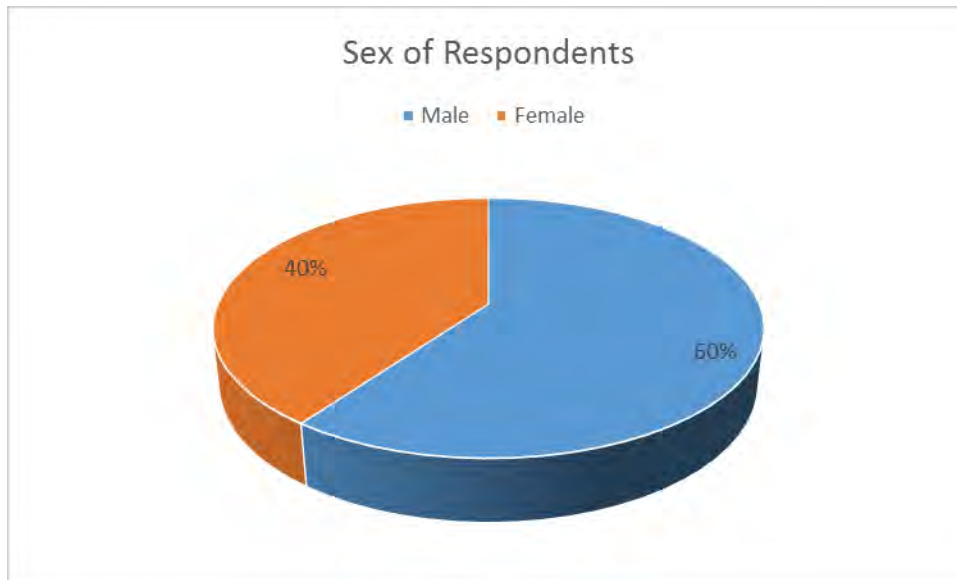
	Frequency	Percentage
18-29	9	18.0
30-49	14	29.0
50-69	18	37.0
70 and Above	8	20.0
TOTAL	49	100.0

Source: Field Data; July, 2018

4.2.2 Sex of Respondents

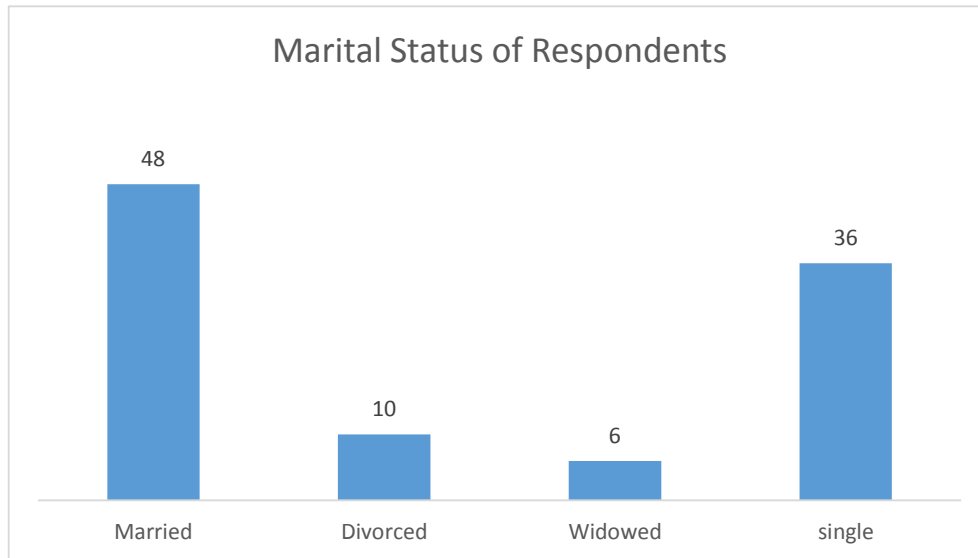
Generally it is a fact that males dominate their female counterparts in farming. The case is especially true with regard to farmers in the Tolon District. It was therefore not a surprise that 60% of farmers sampled were male as against 40% females. The implication is that the responses will be slightly skewed in favour of males. The objectives of the study however will not be significantly affected with sex dominated responses.

Figure 4.1 Sex Proportion of Respondents



4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents

The age category of respondents analyzed earlier suggested that the respondents were matured in terms of age and could therefore be married. It was found that 48% of respondents were married. Quite a significant percentage of respondents were however single, that is, 36%.

Figure 4.2 Proportion of Respondents who were married

4.3 Perceived Causes of rural-urban youth migration

The study initially demonstrated that migration from rural communities in the Tolon District was high and the study therefore looked at the causes of the trend from the perspective of community members. It was found that the major causes of rural-urban migration in the Tolon District are numerous. The major ones as indicated by the respondents included the following; inadequate employment opportunities in the district, search for better education, inadequate social infrastructure in the district, poor medical care services in the area, lack of apprenticeship programmes in the district, better housing in the city and sometimes displacement as a result of communal crisis such as witchcraft accusations.

Table 4.2 Perceived Causes of Out Migration in the Tolon District

Perceived Causes	Frequency	Percent (%)
Inadequate Employment Opportunities	18	37.0
Search for Better Education,	8	16.0
Inadequate Social Infrastructure	5	10.0
Poor Medical Care Services in the area	5	10.0
Apprenticeship Programme in the district,	8	16.0
Better Housing in the City	1	2.0
Displacement as a Result of Communal Crisis	4	8.0
TOTAL	49	100.0

It can be observed from the table that about 37% of respondents perceived inadequate employment opportunities as the most dominant cause of rural out migrations from the Tolon District. Better housing in the city was the least mentioned by the respondents as the cause of rural out migration from the Tolon District.

4.4 Effects of Rural-Urban Youth Migration in the Tolon District

Regarding the effects of rural out migration in the Tolon District, the study found the major effects to include the following: reduction of agricultural labour force, high cost of labour, low agricultural productivity, farm work becomes tedious , reduction of household annual income, poor standard of living, leads to diversification into non-farm, unavailability of farm labour, farm work is mostly done by aged parent, reduces formation of groups and cooperative society, decreases the dependency ratio in the rural areas, reduces number of mouths to feed, among others. This leads to a heavy drain on the supply of rural family labour and in addition pulls out the individuals who are essential elements for agricultural development programmes and also hinders rural productivity and growth of agriculture sector.

As one farmer laments *–First when we organized communal labour , we could assembly more than 30 energetic young men to work in our farms. Now when even the chief organizes communal labour, we hardly get more than 5 energetic young men”*

4.5 Strategies for reducing rural-urban youth migration

Data from the field revealed a lot regarding the strategies for reducing rural-urban youth migration in the Tolon District. The following were which include provision of basic amenities to the district, establishment of vocational training centers for skill acquisition, use of improved modern technologies such as farm implements, regular and timely provision of farm input such as fertilizers and agro-chemicals, provision of incentives such as microcredits for youths in agriculture, empowering and integrating rural youths into agricultural based activities,

establishment of advocacy programmes such as youths employment in agriculture to encourage them and encouraging formation of groups and societies such as young farmers clubs and cooperative societies for easy access to loans. produce, subsidizing prices of farm inputs such as fertilizers, herbicides, pesticides.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

This section of chapter four presents the discussion of the findings of this study. The findings will be discussed along with the research questions and supported with empirical evidence from similar studies where necessary. As the study has established, outmigration of youth from the Tolon District is likely to bring about labour shortages for agriculture. This may result in low agricultural productivity which may affect the livelihood of the non-migrants left behind and may result in food insecurity and low farm incomes. The study therefore sought to address the following from the perception of the non-migrants left in the study area. The research questions are as follows;

1. What are the factors that influence out-migration of the youth in Tolon District into the urban areas?
2. What is the relationship between out-migration and agriculture performance in the Tolon District?

Based on perception of respondents, both push and pull factors are important factors influencing out-migration of youth in the Tolon District. The most important push factors perceived by the respondents were lack of job opportunities, lack of infrastructure and poor crop yields.

Fortunately, the district has been spared of inter-tribal conflict and did not account for the push factors that account for out migration from the district.

The push factor of poor infrastructure was considered more critical in the district.

The push theory indicates that ‘push’ factors existing at the point of origin act as catalysts which prompt the decision to emigrate. The push factors include, poverty, lack of adequate infrastructure in rural areas, parental neglect, breakdown of family structures, lack of education and employment opportunities, low family incomes, peer influence and debilitating socio-cultural practices. Push factors are associated with the conditions in the place/area of origin of migrants and seem to be more important in the developing world than the ‘pull’ factors associated with destination. War, drought, pest invasion, flooding and other catastrophes could force people to migrate.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

The research found that most of the respondents were males, married, middle aged, having a farming experience of at least 5 years. Majority of the respondents belonged to one type of agricultural organization or the other. Causes of rural-urban youth migration in the Tolon District were inadequate employment opportunities in rural areas, search for better education, inadequate social infrastructure such as schools, poor medical care services in rural areas. Major effects of the menace included low crop yield and poor standards of living in the rural areas.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The study concludes that one critical theory for out-migration, particularly the Push-Pull forces as propounded by Adepogu (2005) was responsible for out-migration in the Tolon District. This therefore implies that the study supports the push-pull used in explaining migration. That out-migration makes more farm land available to be used by the non-migrants. Furthermore, labour shortage created as a result of out-migration affects agricultural performance negatively. The result of which is longer time spent to undertake a specific farm activity, low farm incomes and low agricultural productivity. This results in poor livelihoods of the non-migrants in the district. In a nut shell, the results agrees with Figure 1 that out-migration causes changes in community resources (land and labour) which affects agricultural performance and for that matter livelihoods.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study therefore makes the following recommendations in order to reduce the rural-urban drift from of the Tolon District in particular and Ghana in general.

- Subsidies on Agricultural Inputs
- Targeted Government Policies should aim at the youth in the Tolon District. Policies such as ;
 - A. One district one factory
 - B. One village one dam
 - C. Planting for food and jobs

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QUESTIONNAIRE

CENTRE FOR MIGRATION STUDIES UNIVERSITY OF GHANA LEGON

The effects of Rural –Urban Migration on Agricultural Development: The Case Study of Two Farming Communities in the Tolon District

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent, I am Sulemana Abdul Kahad, a student from University of Ghana, seeking information to contribute to our understanding of the effects of Rural –Urban Migration on Agricultural Development in the Tolon District. I wish to assure you that all information given by you will be treated confidentially. It is your right to opt out of this interview at any point but I urge you to cooperate with me. Thank you.

PART I: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Age category of Respondent: a. 18-29 b. 30-49 c. 50-69 d. 70 and Above
2. Sex of respondent a. Male b. Female
3. Highest Educational Status a. No formal education b. Up to primary education secondary level d. Post-secondary 5. Tertiary
4. Employment type of respondent:
5. Marital status of respondents a. Single b. Married c. widowed d. divorced

CAUSES OF YOUTH OUT MIGRATION

6. In your opinion, what factors account for the out-migration of the youth from the district area?

Check all that apply

1. Famine ()
2. Conflict ()
3. Poor health services ()
4. Poor education services ()
5. Bad quality of housing ()
6. Poor crop yield ()
7. Unemployment ()

8. Others (please state).....

EFFECTS OF YOUTH OUT MIGRATION ON AGRICULTURAL

7. What are the sources of agricultural labour in your district?

- a. Family labour only ()
- b. Hired labour only ()
- c. Communal labour
- d. Others.....

8. How do you evaluate the current availability of labour in your area compared to the past?

- a. Increased b. Decreased c. No change

9. Any reasons for the answer above?

.....

10. What strategies can we put in place to curb rural youth out migration in the district?

THANK YOU