

EFFECTS OF INTERMEDIATE CENTRES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN
GHANA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF OBUASI AND ASUNAFO NORTH
MUNICIPALITIES

KNUST

By

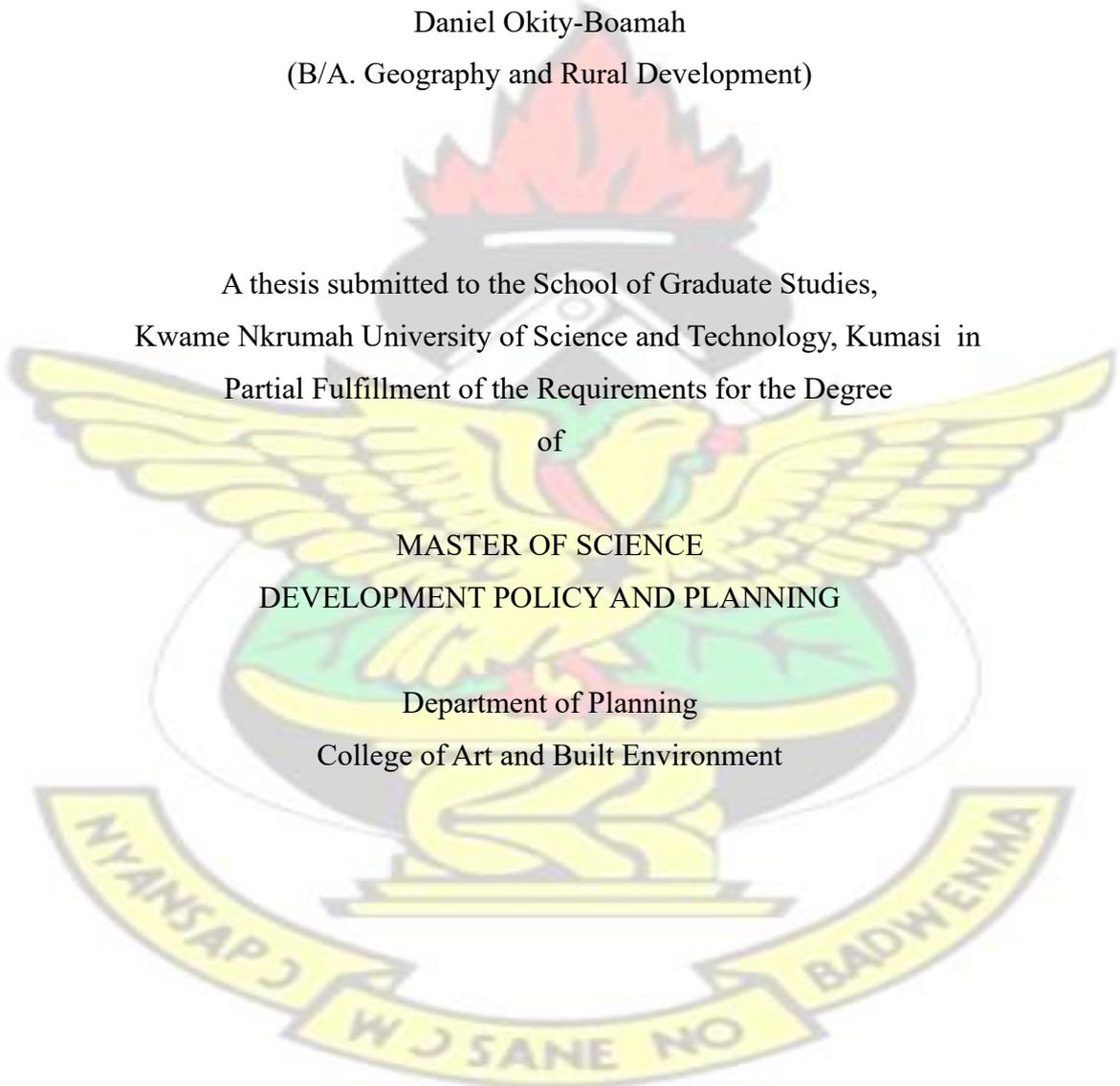
Daniel Okity-Boamah

(B/A. Geography and Rural Development)

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies,
Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
of

MASTER OF SCIENCE
DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND PLANNING

Department of Planning
College of Art and Built Environment



August, 2015

DECLARATION

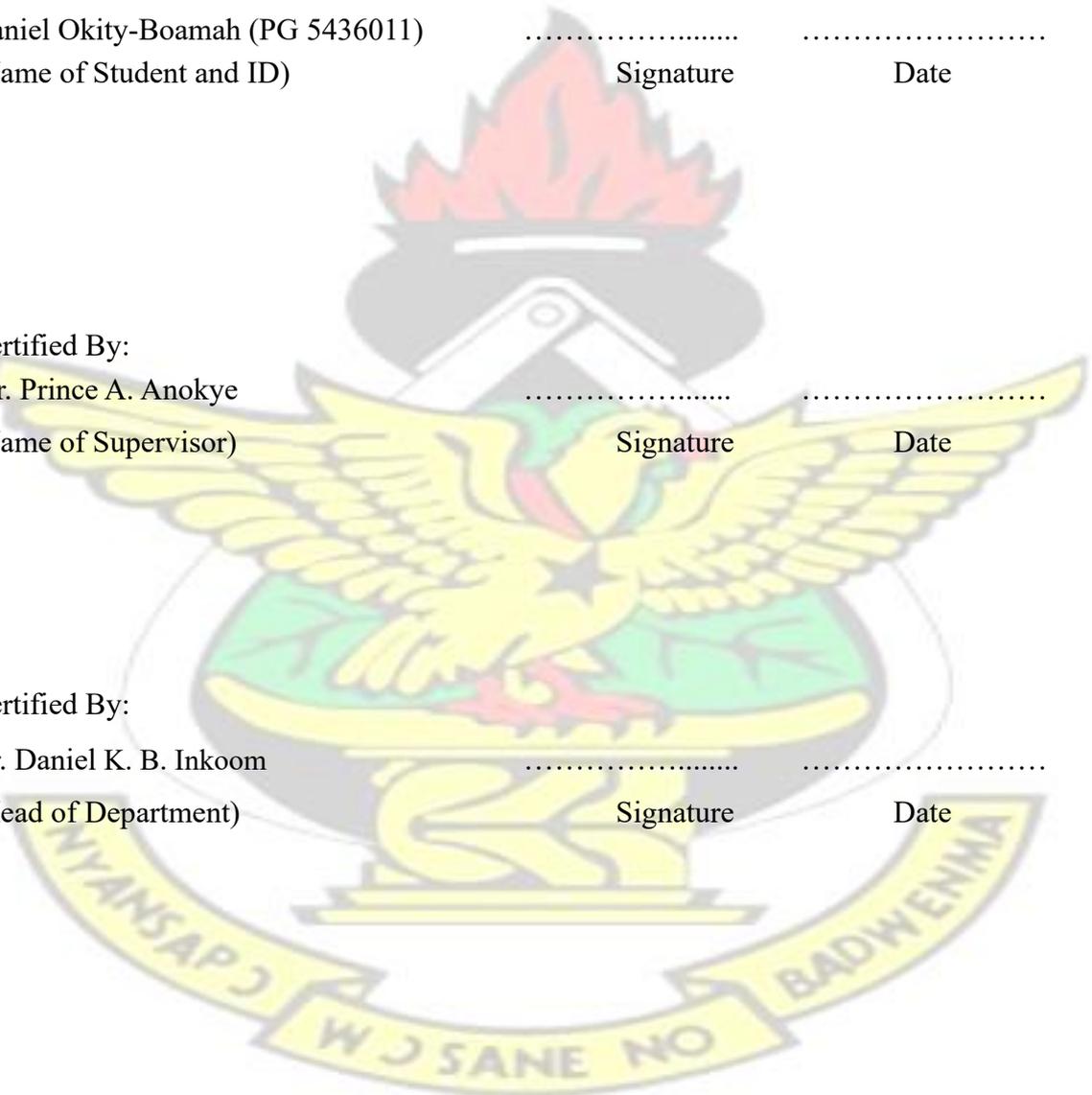
I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the Master of Science in Development Policy and Planning and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains neither materials previously published by another person nor materials which have been accepted for the award of any other degree by this or any other university except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

KNUST

Daniel Okity-Boamah (PG 5436011)
(Name of Student and ID) Signature Date

Certified By:
Mr. Prince A. Anokye
(Name of Supervisor) Signature Date

Certified By:
Dr. Daniel K. B. Inkoom
(Head of Department) Signature Date



ABSTRACT

Ghana as a country seems to be upgrading some of its human settlements and delineating its geographic landscape into additional sub administrative units. The upgrade and creation of these sub-settlement structures with its attendant varied infrastructural development is intended to facilitate development and consequently serving their rural hinterlands with their effects. Years into the practice of Ghana's decentralization policy and processes, and despite efforts being made to improve rural livelihood, rural poverty and wide urban-rural disparity still persist.

Yet in an era where the country's sub-administrative centres, referred to as intermediate centres in this study, are hugely being promoted and undergoing significant socioeconomic changes, they are likely to have a profound impact on the conditions of the rural poor and their ability to lift themselves out of poverty. The study was therefore designed to examine how the functional roles played by such sub-administrative units known as intermediate centres could assist to improve the livelihood of the rural poor and thereby bringing about rural development.

The Case Study research design was used where two intermediate centres; Obuasi in the Obuasi Municipality and Goaso, in the Asunafo North Municipality, were purposively sampled to identify the functions each play, and the effects that the interactions existing between each one of the centres and three other rural communities also purposively selected from the respective Municipalities have on the latter. Using a confidence level of 92 percent, the sample for the Asunafo North's case was approximately 156 household heads and that of Obuasi's case was 157, but to ease comparison, the samples were rounded up to 150 respondents for each study area. This was further subjected to proportions to secure household heads interviewed in each rural community.

The study found out that intermediate centres per their level of infrastructure availability perform certain strategic functions which tend to have either a strong or weak interaction with their rural communities. Areas where those strong linkages were identified have had rural livelihood improved than areas where weak linkages existed. The study recommended that policies enacted should rather be targeted at equipping the intermediate centres with requisite infrastructure to perform adequately their intended roles with the spread effect of such functions improving the livelihood of the rural poor and thereby bringing about rural development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The completion of a scholarly academic requirement as this has largely been a cooperative enterprise and special acknowledgement is hereby given, first and foremost, to God, the Master Planner of the universe; Oh Lord! Indeed which height have I attained now that it is not You who brought me? I owe so much to You than I do to any one; and to the Authorities whose academic work and documents were consulted and reviewed to enrich this study, I say thank you so much.

The conduct of an academic work of this magnitude would not have been possible without the supervisory guidance of Mr. Prince A. Anokye; you permitted me to draw enough from your well of knowledge and I therefore would like to express my profound appreciation to you for your input in getting this done. I am also humbled to mention the considerable support and inputs I enjoyed from all the other lecturers of the Department of Planning, KNUST.

I have also benefited in no small measure from the overall contributions, advice and support of my Mom, Miss Juliana Adu, Regional Coordinating Council -B/A, my Uncle, Mr. Kwadwo Adu, KNUST Finance office-Kumasi, and all other family members. You have in many ways been a blessing to my life and I am grateful.

I gratefully acknowledge the support and the prayers of Eunice whom God brought my way for a reason, you encouraged me to never say „it’s enough“ when there is still more room to cover. Your statement „*we do what we need to do before what we want to do*“ still echoes in my ears and your timely phone calls were inspiring. Augustine, Aaron, Lydia, Anita and all other colleagues of the Development Policy and Planning class who played varied roles but have not been specially mentioned, I say AYEKOO!

Finally, I would like to express my appreciation to the Municipal Chief Directors, Planning Officers and all the other officials in the case study Municipalities whom I collected data from, especially Bernard, Assistant Planning Officer at the Obuasi Municipal Assembly, who took the pain to travel with me to the communities to collect data, Family Worship Centre, Kumasi and CASA-KNUST. Indeed you played your bit so well and enjoyed the pats of encouragement I received from you.

I humbly admit that I have come this far in the Academic ladder all because of the prayers of those who pray for me and to them, I am most grateful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE DECLARATION
.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.....	x
CHAPTER ONE	1
GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Research Questions	6 1.3
Research Objectives	6 1.4
Scope	6
1.5 Justification of the Study	7
1.6 Limitation and Delimitation	7
1.7 Organization of the Report	8
CHAPTER TWO	9
THE CONCEPT OF INTERMEDIATE CENTRES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT	
.....	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Concepts and Theories of Intermediate Centres	9
2.2.1 Intermediate Centres defined	9
2.2.2 Definition of intermediate centres with Population as the basis for classification	9
2.2.3 Definition of intermediate centres by “functions it performs” as the basis	11
2.2.4 Intermediate Centres as Growth Centres	12
2.2.5 The intermediate centre as "Engine of Growth"	13
2.2.6 The need to promote intermediate Centres	14
2.3 Theoretical Framework	14
2.3.1 The Core-periphery Concept	14
2.3.2 Growth Pole/Centre	15
2.3.3 Central Place Theory	16
2.4 Need to Invest in Rural Areas	18
2.5 Rural Development	21
2.6 Rural/Urban Interaction	21
2.6.1 Effects of rural-urban interaction	24
2.7 Spread and Backwash Effects	25
2.8 Conceptual Framework	25
2.9 Summary	28
CHAPTER THREE	29
PROFILE OF STUDY AREAS AND THE METHODOLOGY	29
3.1 Introduction	29

3.2	Profile of Case Study Areas	29
3.2.1	Profile of the Obuasi Municipality	29
3.2.1.1	Background	29
3.2.1.2	Location and Size	29
3.2.2	Demographics	32
3.3	Economic Activities	32
3.3.1	Mining	32
3.3.2	Agricultural Activities	32
3.4	Profile of the Asunafo North Municipality	32
3.4.1	Background	32
3.4.2	Location and size	33
3.4.3	Demographics	33
3.4.4	Household Size by type of locality	33
3.4.5	Economy	33
3.5	Methodology	35
3.5.1	Research Design	35
3.5.2	Sampling Techniques	36
3.5.3	Sample Size Determination	37
3.5.4	Data Required, Sources and Collection Tools	38
3.6	Data Analysis Techniques	40
3.7	Summary	41
CHAPTER FOUR		42
FUNCTIONAL ROLES AND LEVEL OF INTERACTION OF INTERMEDIATE CENTRES		42
4.1	Introduction	42
Infrastructure and Functional Roles of Intermediate Centres		42
The Structure of the Economy in Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities		42
4.3	Interaction Type - Health	46
4.4	Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Cases	46
Frequency of Interaction in the access of Healthcare		47
Interaction Type - Education		48
4.6.1	Formal Education	48
4.6.2	Informal Education	49
4.7	Interaction Type - Economic	50
4.7.1	Market Centre	50
4.7.2	Frequency of Access to the Obuasi Market	52
Motivation to Trade at the Municipal Capitals		54
4.7.4	Availability of Agro-Processing Enterprises and frequency of access	56
4.7.5	Interaction Type - Administrative	57
4.7.6	Interaction Type - Financial Services	59
4.7.7	Type of Financial Institutions and Location	60
4.8	Overall flow levels between the Capital and Rural Communities	61
4.9	Motivation to Commute to the Municipal Capital by rural communities	64

4.10	Challenges Involved in the Interaction	66
4.11	Effects of Interaction	69
4.11.1	Effects of the Health Services on Rural Communities	69
4.12	Effects of Educational Services on Rural Communities	70
4.13	Effects of the Agro-Processing Services on Rural Communities	70
4.14	Effects of the Administrative Services on Rural Communities	71
4.15	Effects of the Financial Services on Rural Communities	71
4.16	Conclusion	72
CHAPTER FIVE		73
INTERMEDIATE CENTRES FUNCTIONING TO EFFECT RURAL DEVELOPMENT		73
5.1	Introduction	73
5.2	Findings	73
5.2.1	Functional roles of the intermediate centres	73
5.2.2	Levels of interaction between the Intermediate Centres and the rural communities	74
5.2.3	Effects of interaction on the development of the rural communities	76
5.3	Recommendations	77
5.4	Conclusion	79
REFERENCES		80
APPENDICES		87
Appendix 1: Interview Guide for Municipal Planning Officers/MCDS		87
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Household		91
Appendix 3: Interview Guide for Municipal Agriculture Director		99
Appendix 4: Interview Guide for Municipal Education Directors		100
Appendix 5: Interview Guide for Municipal Health Directors		102
LIST OF TABLES		
Table		Page
3.1:	Municipalities and Rural communities	37
3.2:	Data required and Sources	39
4.1:	Level of Infrastructure Available at Goaso and Obuasi Township	43
4.2:	Access to healthcare by rural communities in the Obuasi Municipality	46
4.3:	Access to healthcare by rural communities in the Asunafo North	47
4.4:	Frequency of access of Health centres at Obuasi and Goaso Township	47
4.5:	Type of Schools accessed in Obuasi Capital	49
4.6:	Type of schools attended at Goaso by rural communities	49
4.7:	Frequency of access of the Obuasi and Goaso market by the rural communities	53
4.8:	Motivation to trade in Obuasi and Goaso by rural communities	55
4.9 :	Frequency of access of Obuasi and Goaso agro-processing enterprises	56

4.10:	Access to Extension Services by Obuasi and Asunafo North rural communities	58
4.11:	Frequency of visit to Goaso Township	63
4.12:	Reasons why respondents travel to Obuasi and Goaso for such activities and services	65
4.13:	Challenges Obuasi and Goaso rural dwellers faced in commuting	66
4.14:	Time of flow of interaction between Obuasi and rural communities	67
4.15:	Time interval of interaction flow between Goaso and rural communities	68
4.16:	Average time spent on road to Goaso by respondents	69
4.17:	Level of benefit derived from Goaso's Health Facility	70
4.18:	Benefits derived from training offered by Goaso Township	70

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
2.1: Conceptual Framework on the Inputs, Outputs and Outcomes of Intermediate Centres	27
3.1: Map of Ghana Showing the Ashanti Region and the Obuasi Municipality	30
3.2: Map of Obuasi Municipality showing the location of the communities	31
3.3: Map of Asunafo North Municipality	34
4.1: Respondents from Rural Communities who access Market from Obuasi	51
4.2: Percentage of respondents from rural communities who access the Goaso Market	52
4.3: Type of Financial Institution respondents transact with	60
4.4: Types of Financial Institutions Respondents Transact with at Goaso	61
4.5: Frequency of Interaction with Obuasi Capital	62
4.6: Activities Undertaken by Respondents who commute to Obuasi	63
4.7: Activities undertaken by the Rural communities at Goaso	64
4.8: Level of benefits derived from Agro-processing plants at Goaso	71
4.9: Use of credit accessed from financial Institutions	72

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANMA	Asunafo North Municipal Assembly
BAC	Business Advisory Centre
CHIPS	Community Health Planning Service
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
DAs	District Assemblies

DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DFID	Department for International Development
DMTDP	District Medium Term Development Plan
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GoG	Government of Ghana
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
JHS	Junior High School
MCD	Municipal Coordinating Director
MMDAs	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MLG&RD	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NGOs	Non-governmental Organizations
OMA	Obuasi Municipal Assembly
PHC	Population and Housing Census
SHS	Senior High School
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Disparities between urban and rural areas in terms of income and employment and the availability of basic infrastructure and services persist. In most developed and developing nations, urban areas offer more and better opportunities for socio-economic mobility of the poor, and rural-urban migration therefore becomes the result (Nam et al, 2010). A major effort is however required to ensure that the urban areas can absorb the growing urban population and that urbanization will not result in an urbanization of poverty. Intermediate centres or medium-sized towns have important roles in this urbanization process by absorbing rural-urban migrants and offering conditions necessary to propel development in the rural areas of the country, thereby, reducing rural-urban migration.

While disparities persist, rural and urban areas and their economies are increasingly interconnected. There is a growing movement of people, goods, capital, ideas and information between urban and rural areas (Bajracharya, 1995). Some of these movements benefit both urban and rural areas; other movements benefit only one side, usually the urban areas. Part of the problem is that policy-makers often do not take these rural-urban linkages into account and divide their policies along spatial and sectoral lines. Urban planners concentrate on the development of the urban areas without due attention to its impact on rural development, while rural development planners tend to ignore the urban areas, as if rural areas exist in isolation. Moreover, the administrative division in urban and rural areas results in a lack of coordination between the rural and the urban decentralized areas. Recognition of the rural-urban linkages by policy-makers is becoming all the more important in the light of the ongoing decentralization of government functions in the country.

This decentralization catches many local governments ill-prepared for the new responsibilities, which include such important tasks as local economic development, the provision of basic infrastructure and services, poverty alleviation and environmental management. Intermediate and medium-sized towns often have the lowest capacity to manage their resources for an efficient and equitable urban development (McGee et al, 2002). It is important that national government and the local government of large cities, intermediate and medium-sized towns and rural areas, recognize the rural-urban linkages,

the impact of their actions on urban and rural areas, and the positive (and negative) role they can play in poverty alleviation.

Intermediate centres and medium-sized towns more likely have close links with the rural areas and, therefore, can play an important role in rural poverty alleviation. In this respect, poverty alleviation would mean the development of infrastructure and services within and to urban areas that will allow the rural population and in particular the rural poor to improve their living conditions and seize new economic opportunities. In order to be able to do so, urban local governments need to have an adequate resource base. The local governments in many of the intermediate centres and towns lack capacity and resources to alleviate urban and rural poverty, and capacity building of local governments is, therefore, critical for poverty alleviation.

Policies, Strategies and Projects, according to Haggblade et al, (2002) have been enacted in time past aiming at rural development. The purpose of such has presumably been to improve the well-being of rural households, particularly the poor and food insecure rural households. These strategies and projects designed targeted livelihood in these two ways; first, actions taken to improve the asset position of households by investing directly in the various forms of capital those households employ for livelihood generation. Secondly, actions taken to influence the context in which households operate. By altering the context, strategies and projects then create an environment that allows households to expand their capital base or projects create a situation, which allowed households to better use the capital they already own. Whether improving the investment opportunities or allowing more efficient use of existing resources, or altering the context did improve livelihoods to some extent.

Given the background on rural livelihood strategies noted above, this appears to be a move in the right direction. Following in this same direction and given that livelihood strategies tend to be multidimensional, interventions are geared towards improving rural livelihoods and strategies are designed accordingly. This study proposes the creation and delineation of intermediate centres tended to target development in rural areas. If rural development is the aim and poverty reduction is a crucial part of that aim, it is necessary to examine the strategies through which such development may be achieved and through the functions known to be performed by intermediate centres which serve as nodes for linking rural agricultural areas to marketing centres thereby opening up the area for development.

1.2 Problem Statement

The population of the developing world especially is still more described to be rural than urban: it is estimated that some 3.1 billion people, or 55 per cent of the total population, live in rural areas (IFAD, 2011). For a larger part of the world, the areas described as „rural“ in the hierarchy of human settlements, share a number of common attributes and qualities that include overwhelming involvement in primary production, which is greatly agrarian, that supply raw materials and food to the manufacturing industries and greater percentage of the people that reside in the relatively large urban centres of the society (Hardoy et al., 1989). In most cases, these rural centers are the seedbeds of national population and conservatory of pristine national culture, manpower, patriotism and tradition (Ekong, 2010).

However, it is further forecasted by IFAD (2011) that between 2020 and 2025, the total rural population will peak and then start to decline, and the developing world’s urban population will overtake its rural population. In Latin America and the Caribbean, and in East and South East Asia, the number of rural people is already in decline. Elsewhere, the growth of rural populations is slowing. By 2050, it is postulated that Africa will have an urban population of 1.2 billion, or nearly a quarter of the world’s urban population.

Altogether, 95 percent of the world’s urban population growth over the next four decades will be absorbed by urban centres and cities in developing countries” (UN-HABITAT, 2008, p.15). What partly accounts to this is that people move to the urban and city centres because they are pushed by shades of under development at the rural communities or pulled by the attractions of urban and city lives.

The combination of these push and pull factors have been identified as the major reason for the movement to these urban centres (Gugler 1997). The consequent migration of the large number of rural people to the urban centres has resulted in the rapid growth in the population and physical size of most urbanized areas, leading to a situation where these urban areas are increasingly becoming congested and outliving the functions expected to be played in national development. This rapid growth of population and urbanization, coupled with the poor availability of urban services, is largely responsible for the poor living-environment and the development of slums, also leading to the creation of urban poverty in the large urbanized centres. The result is that urban centers are characterized not as a focus of development but as a place where rural surplus labour ends up,

unemployment occurs, and social tensions abound. The new urban poor are seen as a drain on developing nation and as belonging primarily back on the farm (Lynch, 2005). The poor urban migrants are also depicted as a drain on the large urban centres because, with their involvement in unskilled, unproductive work, they ultimately end up in "slums of despair" or "cultures of poverty; thus emerged the stereotype of the urban poor as a people ensnared in a tradition of poverty, incapable of contributing to urban life and therefore marginal to the modernization process (Rauch et al., 2001). Therefore there is a need to organize efforts and resources to provide safe and comfortable living environment, with proper basic services and utilities (such as drinking water, sanitation facilities, education, health and urban services); this additionally puts a burden on town/city authorities to manage these human settlements.

On the other hand, despite massive progress being made in the achievement of the MDGs and in reducing poverty in some parts of the world over the past couple of decades – notably in Sub-Saharan Africa, available statistics indicate that at least 70 per cent of the world's very poor people are rural and there is still much more to be done in order to arrest the trend, especially in developing countries. According to IFAD (2011), rural people constitute about 72% of the people living in extreme poverty (less than US\$1.25 per day). About 51% of all the people in these developing countries, Sub-Saharan Africa inclusive, live in poverty (less than US\$2/day); while 27% live in extreme poverty.

Again, the International Food and Agriculture Organization further puts forward that levels of such poverty vary considerably however, not just across regions and countries, but also within countries. Absolute poverty levels are generally low in the developed countries. For instance, about 37 out of 42 European countries have less than 2% of their population living in poverty (<US\$2), and rural poverty is virtually non-existent in EU and northern Europe (FAO, 2009, IFAD, 2009). Hence the onus is on the developing world to find their way out of poverty (rural poverty especially) and curtail its effects on the well-being of their citizens by striving towards the attainment of their development goals and the MDGs. As Ghana becomes increasingly urbanized, it is important to emphasize, however that until recent years where poverty is gradually taking an urban dimension, poverty was overwhelmingly a rural problem with about 84 percent of the poor residing in rural areas where their absolute numbers were also on the increase (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002, p.8). The rural poverty then results from the rapidly deteriorating productivity levels and living conditions in the rural areas manifesting in the lack of assets, limited economic

opportunities and poor education and capabilities, as well as the disadvantages rooted in socio-economic inequalities.

The three rural communities each chosen from the Obuasi and Asunafo Municipalities for this special study show manifestations as; lack of access to, and control of, vital production inputs, face a range of other constraints to improve their livelihood, the communities are predominantly producers of agricultural commodities and are faced with the challenge of micro-capital for expansion of farm size and increase in yield, lack of access to simple agro-machines for processing crops, good agricultural tools and startup capital especially for non-agricultural businesses. There are also marketing problems giving rise to post harvest losses and low prices, and there is a lack of powerful negotiating bodies to face the strong city/town-based market queens, who take advantage of the rural sellers through their powerful networks, to offer them lower prices.

There are virtually unmotorable roads to market centres from farm lands during the rainy season, a problem which leaves only few vehicles, if any, to ply such roads with high fares. These conditions have given rise to rural citizenry migrating to and interacting most often with the urban centres in order to have access to some higher-order facilities like health care, education and marketing centres, sometimes bypassing the intermediate urban centres, which are also expected to perform roles and functions intended to develop such rural surroundings. This deterioration in living conditions is enough powerful "push" force to the large urban centres of the rural poor.

In addressing this problem, the study in summary sought to therefore correct the imbalances or disparities in the development between urban and rural areas within the country with intermediate urban centres, acting as growth centres to reduce, if not eradicate, the manifestation of rural poverty and thereby bringing about a sustainable improvement in livelihood and development in the scattered rural communities around the case study areas.

1.2 Research Questions

The main research question is; what effects do Obuasi in the Obuasi Municipality and Goaso in the Asunafo Municipality, playing their roles as intermediate centres, have on the development of their adjoining rural communities?

The sub-questions are as follows:

1. What levels of economic, social, financial and administrative infrastructure are available in Obuasi and Goaso?
2. What functional roles do Obuasi and Goaso play as intermediate towns?
3. What levels of spatial interactions exist between Obuasi and selected rural communities, and Goaso and selected rural communities?
4. What effects do the existing spatial interactions have on the development of the selected rural communities?

1.3 Research Objectives

The general objective of the study is to do a comparative assessment on the effects that „Intermediate (Growth) Centres“ like Obuasi and Goaso, have on their surrounding rural communities in the overall Ghana’s Rural Development effort and to suggest policy recommendations.

Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. establish the level of economic, social, financial and administrative infrastructure available in Obuasi and Goaso;
2. examine the functional roles played by Obuasi and Goaso as intermediate towns;
3. analyze the spatial interactions that exist between Obuasi and selected rural communities, and Goaso and selected rural communities; and
4. assess the effects of the spatial interaction on the rural development of the selected rural communities in the respective municipalities.

1.4 Scope

The study, contextually, sought to examine the effects that intermediate centres have on the rural development efforts of Ghana. Specifically, it compares the functions served by two intermediate centres, Obuasi (Obuasi Municipal Capital) and Goaso (Asunafo North Municipal Capital), and the effects of these functions on the development of their rural surroundings. Geographically, it focused on two intermediate towns Obuasi (Ashanti Region) and Goaso (Brong Ahafo Region) and three selected rural communities in the respective municipalities; Anwiam, Diewuoso and Gyimisokakra, for Obuasi, and Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie, for Goaso.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Rural Development as a concept in Ghana has received attention from varied approaches.

Some of these approaches could not entirely yield their expected outcomes. Ghana's rural population has gradually given way to urban dominance, according to the Population and Housing Census, 2010, by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012). Attempts to manage these urban centres have compelled its Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development to come out with a Human Settlement Policy, 2012. Included in this policy is a hierarchy of settlement. Each grade of settlement has specific services it offers and functions it performs, and all the grades of settlement are intended to perform helpful roles to trigger development and reduce underdevelopment in their adjoining areas, which are noted to have been successfully done in other countries but the same is yet to be said of Ghana.

This study is therefore significant to promoting intermediate towns and centres, as an approach to rural development. By this it is expected that the intermediate centres will play a major role in rural development and also serve as a preferred destination to migrants from the rural hinterlands who otherwise would go to the cities in Ghana thereby helping in the development of the rural settlements. The comparison is drawn from two Municipal capitals to give a clearer appreciation of the levels of roles such intermediate centres perform to improve rural livelihood. The study adds to the knowledge bank on how intermediate centres function to promote rural development and helps extend the frontiers of knowledge on the significance of intermediate centres in the human settlement hierarchy, and rural development.

1.6 Limitation and Delimitation

The study comes not without limitations, to adequately achieve the objectives that the study set for itself; there were time and resources constraints. There was also the difficulty in constantly having access to electrical energy supply to speedily work on this study since the frequent power outages indeed delayed the time lines for the preparation of the study report. On the other hand, the study did not cover an assessment on urban poverty and urban development since the study's focus was rather to do a thorough examination on the effects of intermediate centres on rural development. The study identified the infrastructural availability in the intermediate centres, examined the functions or roles intermediate centres rather than larger city centres do play in reducing poverty and consequently bringing about rural development.

1.7 Organization of the Report

The study has been organized and presented in five chapters. Chapter One introduces the study and gives a background on Rural development and intermediate centres as variables for examination in the study, it therefore covers the background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, objectives of the study, scope of the study, significance of the study, limitations and delimitation of the study and the organization of the report. Chapter Two covers the review of related literature. In this section, books, articles, and other works, which have been done by other researchers on the subject, were reviewed. Chapter Three covers the methodology and comprises the research approach, data required and sources, data collection methods and instruments, sample size and sampling technique, and data analyses methods. Chapter Four covers data analyses. Statistical tables, cross-tabulations and other analytical tools used to draw meanings from data into information which supported the discussions in the study. The fifth chapter covers the summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions.



CHAPTER TWO
THE CONCEPT OF INTERMEDIATE CENTRES AND RURAL
DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

The chapter reviews literature related to the study that have been carried out by various other authorities. It reviews the concept of intermediate centres, characteristics and functions they perform under the decentralization processes and how these roles relate to bringing about development in their surrounding rural communities or centres. It however reviews what rural areas are, their characteristics as well, the need to invest in the rural areas and the theories and concepts that informed the study.

2.2 Concepts and Theories of Intermediate Centres

2.2.1 Intermediate Centres defined

There is no consensus among researchers yet as to the correct and standard definition of intermediate centres, however, different researchers use a variety of universal population size categories (UNCHS, 1995; Rondinelli, 1984). Owing to this, definition of intermediate centres has been variously given by different authorities, countries and regions because of the different social, economic and population conditions, and circumstances that pertain. GRAL/CEDAL (1994) asserts that intermediate centres are primarily determined by its position between local centres with direct contact to the rural world, or specialized towns on the one hand, and metropolitan centres that function at national and international level on the other (GRAL/CEDAL, 1994: p 130).

Tacoli (1998), cited in Owusu, (2005) in his definition of intermediate centres came up with two major classifications of it; by demography or population and by functions it plays. It continues that these variations in the definition of what constitutes an urban centre clearly make generalisations problematic (Owusu, 2005).

2.2.2 Definition of intermediate centres with Population as the basis for classification

Population thresholds are commonly used for the definition of urban centres, but while many Latin American and European nations use the relatively low threshold of 2,000-2,500 inhabitants, other nations use much higher thresholds. A large proportion of the rural population of Asia lives in settlements that, under other nations' urban definitions, would be classed as urban (Owusu, 2005).

According to Owusu (2005), there is also no universal definition of small and intermediate urban centres, since this depends largely on the national urban structure. In large countries with large cities, such as India, a „small“ town can have a population of several tens of thousands and an intermediate centre as many as 500,000 inhabitants. In smaller size nations, the population of the largest city can be less than 500,000.

Khan and Iftikhar (1991) have classified all towns of 25,000 to 99,999 inhabitants as intermediate cities, even if they have no intermediate role in the urban structure of the country.

Rronahil (1987) has defined settlements with population between 25,000 and 100,000 as intermediate centres. In some countries, like People’s Republic of China (UNCRD, 1982), National Human Settlement Policy classifies the urban centre according to the population size into the following four classes:

- large cities 500,000 and above
- Small cities 100,000 - 499,999
- Intermediate towns 25,000 - 99,999
- Small towns 10,000 - 24,999

Farvacque-Vitkovic, (2008) asserts that the territory of Ghana is divided into District Assemblies and some Districts tend to cover very large surfaces. Act 462 defines the structure of District Assemblies by distinguishing them according to population size: Metropolitan Assemblies (at least 250,000 inhabitants); Municipal Assemblies (at least 95,000 inhabitants); and District Assemblies (at least 75,000 inhabitants).

Ghana’s Human Settlement Policy (2012) drafted by its Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development also outlines functions served by the various hierarchy of settlement in the country as; GRADE 1, GRADE 2, GRADE 3, GRADE 4 and GRADE 5. The Grade 1 which are the Largest Metropolitan Centres perform very specialized functions. They perform services that people are willing to travel longer distances to get, as they are more important or rarer. The Grade 2, unlike the Grade 1, also performs higher order functions which those in the Grade 3, could be referred to. The Grade 2 type of settlements is the other regional capitals, and the Grade 3 constitutes the remaining District Capitals. The Grade 4 type are settlements other than the District capitals and provide the essential services for the Grade 5, which also provide service that require only a very low

threshold population to survive, and are basically the rural areas and their adjoining hinterlands (MLGRD, 2012).

2.2.3 Definition of intermediate centres by “functions it performs” as the basis

Owusu (2005) reiterated that it is probably more useful to consider small and intermediate urban centres on the basis of their functions, including the provision of services, facilities and infrastructure to their own population and that of their surrounding region. However, such detailed data is not easily available, especially in poor nations.

Moreover, the wide differentiation of small and intermediate centres’ size and shapes affect their functions and roles. A useful alternative is to consider the functions of these urban centres within the wider national or regional system of urban centres.

The empirical evidence on the capacity of small and intermediate towns to play a positive role in regional and rural development and in the reduction of poverty is mixed. This points to the important issue that space, in itself, is not the key determinant: a better balance of economic activities, with small and intermediate centres strategically located within their surrounding rural region, does not necessarily imply economic growth within the region, nor a more equitable distribution of resources and incomes.

Owusu (2005) puts forward that intermediate urban centres contribute to rural development in four main economic ways:

- *By acting as centres of demand/markets for agricultural produce from the rural region*, either for local consumers or as links to national and export markets. Access to markets is a prerequisite to increase rural agricultural incomes, and the proximity of local small and intermediate centres to production areas is assumed to be a key factor.
- *By acting as centres for the production and distribution of goods and services to their rural region*. Such concentration is assumed to reduce costs and improve access to a variety of services, both public and private and for both rural households and enterprises. Hence, services include agricultural extension, health and education (and access to other government services), as well as banking, post, services of professionals such as lawyers and accountants and lower order services such as bars and restaurants, and wholesale and retail sales of manufactured goods from within and outside the region.

- *By becoming centres for the growth and consolidation of rural non-farm activities and employment*, through the development of small and medium-sized enterprises or through the relocation of branches of large private or parastatal enterprises.
- *By attracting rural migrants* from the surrounding region through demand for nonfarm labour, and thereby decreasing pressure on larger urban centres.

Owusu added that these intermediate centres additionally functions as centers of attraction for rural migrants, stimulant of rural economies, agro-processing centers and as service centers to their surrounding rural communities.

According to UNCHS (1996: 4), intermediate centres have some outstanding characteristics, which are given as;

- A substantial proportion of their labour force is engaged in non-agricultural activities.
- They have a relatively small administrative role and usually some concentration of low-order public services such as health centres, schools, police posts, etc.
- They play a relatively small role in sub-national and national production but an important role as centres where goods and services are available to the hinterland populations and as centres through which populations are linked to sub-national and national transport networks.
- They represent the category of centres with which the rural and agricultural population have most of their links.

2.2.4 Intermediate Centres as Growth Centres

Hardoy et al (1989), also indicate that these centres are designated as "growth centres" through which innovation and all development resources are expected to spread to the rural areas. They further argue that prospects of employment at the centre frequently attract rural-urban migrants and become first point of call during such migration; thus becoming increasingly important centres of opportunity for rural-urban migrants, and catalytic nodes for more effectively linking rural areas to the national economy (Hardoy, and Satterthwaite, 1989).

Higgins et al., (1997) writing on intermediate centres as “growth centres” related to Perroux, the father of regional development, article in a 1955, which he wrote that

economic growth has to be brought about by growth poles, “constellations of dynamic, innovating enterprises, often but not always in urban centres, that generate propulsive effects upstream and downstream, positive or negative” (Higgins and Savoie, 1997: 91). Perroux did not make clear what a growth pole was, but over time it came to mean an urban-industrial growth centre. If a region has to be developed, it must have a leading economic sector or propulsive industry which will serve as the nucleus of economic growth and stimulate the emergence of ancillary companies. The sector may not develop without initial external support and governments must invest in the region to promote this leading industry or economic sector. The expectation was that development of the sector would have an impact on the regional centre by creating employment. Growth in employment would lead to higher income and a greater demand for goods and services, including agricultural products, and gradually the entire region would develop.

Gilbert and Gugler (1992) identifying suitable growth poles, designed other related strategies as places acting as counter-magnet. The counter-magnet is an urban centre that is created or developed elsewhere in the country to reduce the concentration in the primate city. It has to be a large city, distant from the primate city. Another strategy is the development corridor. This approach compensates for the limited viability of individual growth centres by developing two centres at the end points of a development axis so that they can reinforce each other. Regional development strategies through growth poles experienced two kinds of problems: problems related to implementation and problems related to impact (Gilbert and Gugler, 1992: 228-243; Richardson, 1981: 219-220).

2.2.5 The intermediate centre as "Engine of Growth"

Pedersen (1992) asserts that intermediate centers offer greater economic efficiencies because their population concentration is so much greater than that of rural areas. The report further defines for intermediate centres and market towns a specific role in raising rural incomes. The focus of this approach is not on the reciprocity of rural and urban factors but rather on the arena of competition between different types of urban centers. The type of urban development envisioned according to this approach would take place in intermediate centres and market towns lying in areas of expanding agriculture-which in effect takes us full circle to rural development.

2.2.6 The need to promote intermediate Centres

Tacoli (1998) arguing on the need to promote intermediate centre indicates that over the years, many different policies have been designed and tested to develop the rural areas, including policies that somehow integrated urban and rural development and focused on regional development. The argument continues that the principle underlying these policies was the primacy of industrial development and the acceptance of rural-urban migration. Surplus labour in the rural areas had to be absorbed by the urban industrial sector, but industrial development would have to be promoted in intermediate centres other than the primate city, so that they could spread economic growth to their respective hinterlands and absorb rural-urban migration that would otherwise move to the capital (Tacoli, 1998: 153).

Lipton (1999) argued that the most important conflict of interest in developing countries was not between capital and labour or between national and foreign interests, but between the intermediate urban centre and the countryside. In Lipton's view (Martinussen, 1999: 136-137), the imbalances in the attention given to urban and rural areas were unacceptable because they widened rather than reduced the disparities between the urban and the rural population. The policies benefited a small portion of the population, the city dwellers, and ignored the majority of the population that lived in the rural areas. He adds that because resources are scarce in developing countries, they must be used in the best possible way and where they have the most impact on the rural hinterlands which he proposes intermediate urban centres.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 The Core-periphery Concept

Holme (2005) on the concept of Core-periphery model formulated by Friedmann in 1966 asserted that the world can be divided into four types of regions. These are core regions, upward transition regions, resource frontier regions and downward transition regions. Core Regions are the centres, they are most often metropolitan, with a high potential for innovation and growth. Next to the core region is the upward transition regions, which are areas of growth that spread over small centres rather than at a core. Upward transition regions are normally development corridors that link two core cities. The resourcefrontier regions are peripheral zones of new settlement while the downward transition regions are areas which are now declining because of exhaustion of resources or because of industrial change (Holme, 2005).

The core areas experience higher wages and prices while the periphery is faced with the lack of employment and low wages. It is anticipated that the periphery will benefit in the long-run through the “trickle-down effect”, however, what actually happens is a “trickleup effect” where the peripheries are helpless as their resources drain towards the core. Thus, core areas make better use of the resources from the periphery leading to retarded development at the periphery. This brings about uneven development in the nation with few metropolitan areas enjoying both economic and social growth to the detriment of the peripheral areas. However, the periphery may lose population to the core thereby the remaining population have access to more agricultural land.

The growth of many countries and the world economy as a whole has been largely based on this principle where the core industrialized nations utilize the resources from the peripheral developing countries that are their former colonies. The case is also evident in the uneven development in many developing countries especially sub-Sahara Africa. Few metropolitan areas dominate in economic growth offering more opportunities for employment, high wages and high prices for commodities. This has resulted in high rates of migration to the main city causing primacy and leaving the peripheries less developed and unattractive to invest.

2.3.2 Growth Pole/Centre

Van der Leij et al. (2009) on the theory of growth pole (centre) explains that growth does not occur everywhere and at the same time but manifests itself at certain points or poles of growth with variable intensities. These growth centres play major roles in the development of their hinterland. Thus, the growth centre is concerned with aspects of points of development and their impact in the surrounding areas, and therefore satisfies the dynamics of growth condition, which appears to be lacking in the central place theory. In this regard, they conclude that "the French development pole theory and the German theory of location appear to supplement each other in a fruitful way". In general, they conclude that the theory is important especially in its harmonized form, in the determination of the desirable hierarchical organization of human centres and their hinterlands (Van der Leij, Marco, and Goyal 2009)

Growth poles theory of the French economist F. Perroux is fundamental to the phenomenon of polarisation. The concept of growth poles in Perroux's work denotes an individual company with a high degree of dominance, although the one which occupies an abstract

economic space rather than a specific geographical space. A group of the best companies, industry or economy sectors called “motor units” or “leading industries” fulfill the role of growth poles for the whole economy by gaining control over other weaker companies. According to Perroux’s theory, they are characterized by the highest level of innovations, the highest degree of dominance, high growth rate of business activity and interactions with other firms (Grzeszczak, 1999).

Malizia and Feser (1999) examined research on the development of growth poles theory in the regional context carried out by Hirschman and Myrdal. Positive and negative effects of relations between the growth pole and its surroundings were among the main scientific interests of Hirschman and Myrdal. Investments and purchases in the surroundings of the growth pole by the companies from the growth pole and the flow of the unemployed from poor regions to these with high level of development can be counted among positive effects. To exemplify negative effects we can say that new attractive investments are usually located in the growth pole, draining the best qualified labour force from the surroundings of the growth pole. Among the observations of great importance made not only by Hirschman and Myrdal but also by other experts is the one which states that negative effects gain advantage over the positive ones (Grzeszczak, 1999, Malizia and Feser, 1999) and that it takes quite a long time for positive effects to emerge. The process of economic dependence of peripheral areas on strong growth poles is accompanied by deepening of regional diversification (mechanism of vicious circle).

Friedmann (1966) in his core and peripheries model touches on the problem of unequal development of regions. According to the author service and production activity of the most competitive firms is located in core regions in metropolises which built their advantage over surroundings in particular. The dominance of the “core” over its peripheries is noticeable not only in economic sphere but also in political and cultural areas (Malizia and Feser 1999). Similar view is expressed by Castells, cited in Grosse (2002). In his opinion the centres of economic growth are the biggest metropolises and technopolises in which the highest economic, financial and innovative potential is concentrated (Grosse, 2002).

2.3.3 Central Place Theory

In central place theory Christaller (Christaller, 1963) assumes that the importance of the city and its position in national settlement system is connected with the number of inhabitants

and the size of the area of services provision. In accordance with this assumption centres placed higher in the hierarchy have influence on the areas bigger in size and accomplish more central functions, while smaller centres offer low range and low threshold goods and services and constitute a distinctive growth pole for a smaller area.

Although Christaller used many simplifications in order to describe the rules explaining the rise of settlement systems and his theory is often refuted in view of its “incompatibility” with the present socio-economic conditions (for instance because of the fact that the hierarchical nature of migrations within the network – from smaller centres to the nearest big one – is superseded by non-hierarchical migrations between the towns of different sizes regardless of the distance between them), from this point of view the important thing seems to be confirmation of the existence of a certain hierarchy of cities which is the derivative of their size and performed functions as well as the possibility of providing services in certain surroundings.

Christaller's and Losch's (1963) service centre theories are the most specific attempts to explain the existence of intermediate towns. Here, the agglomeration (or urban) economies are market-oriented (though they might also be oriented toward a dispersed resource base or labour market). They are based both on a horizontal specialization among local enterprises interacting with the same local market (rather than with each other), and on a vertical specialization and interaction with enterprises at higher levels of the urban hierarchy. The small town here becomes a service centre which serves the surrounding rural area and smaller towns with products and services, but which on the other hand receives inputs from the larger higher-order centres. Christaller's and Losch's theories give one explanation of the development of small towns. When used in a nonplanned market economy, the theories assume the existence of independent enterprises operating in a perfect free market with relatively easy entry. If this assumption is not fulfilled, and that is often the case in the Third World, small towns may not develop as expected. Very low rural incomes and efficient long-distance transportation also tend to reduce the role of small towns.

A central place, according to Christaller who put forth the theory in 1933, is a place which has central functions that extend over a large area in which other smaller central places exist. Thus, there are categories of central places performing varying functions and exerting influence on regions of various sizes. There is an observable pattern in the

relationship between sizes of settlements and their location, between sizes and functions, and between settlement sizes and sizes of their hinterlands. Central places of a higher order perform more specialized functions (in addition to non-specialized ones), and extend their influences over larger areas. Such places are fewer in number and located further apart than central places of a lower order. Several low order centres and their complementary regions will be found within a higher order centre and its complementary region. In summary, the central place theory is a model of spatial organization which helps to "understand the interdependency and hierarchy of settlement, hierarchy of functions, interdependent and hierarchy of functions, interdependency of city and region, market range and threshold population" (Christaller, 1963: 113-122).

2.4 Need to Invest in Rural Areas

Lipton (1999), one of the most influential critics of government policies that favor urban primacy, who studied the rural-urban relations in developing countries, blamed many governments for having an "urban bias" in their development policies. The expressed policies, he argued, were to invest in rural and agricultural development, but the realities were often quite different. The urban dwellers, even the urban poor, were in a much better position to make their demands known than the rural population. City dwellers were visible and had influence because of their numbers, their ability to organize and their proximity to the seats of government. Moreover, the administrative and the economic elite may not have liked the presence of many poor families in the city, but they needed the labour to clean the city and produce goods and services at low cost. In

Lipton's view, many governments paid lip service to rural development, the expressed aim of which was to improve conditions in rural areas and control rural-urban migration. The actual policies improved conditions in the urban areas and were aimed at placating the urban population and at promoting the development of the city.

This uncertainty in the development policy continued for decades and the victims of the policy uncertainties were the rural population. The bulk of the investments by the public and the private sector ended up in the urban areas, more particularly in the cities and most particularly in the capital city, often a primate city and sometimes a mega-city. Through price controls on staple foods, the cost of living of the urban population was kept low, while the income of the farmers was reduced. Such subsidies were said to be necessary to develop a competitive import-substituting industry, but they increased rural poverty and delayed rural development. Because public funds were scarce, investments in physical

infrastructure, education and health care were made first in the urban areas, perhaps because the elite lived there, but also because of economies of scale: more people could be reached. In the rural areas, people are dispersed and reaching them is difficult and expensive; rural areas, therefore, always came last.

According to Lipton (1999) this was not achieved by policies that concentrated on urban development and neglected agriculture. Resources that could have promoted economic growth or benefited the poor or both were in fact used to the detriment of economic growth and poverty alleviation. Lipton further suggested that scarce capital should instead be invested in agriculture and in supporting small farmers so as to increase their productivity. Many have criticized Lipton for presenting the clash of interests in developing countries as arising primarily from where people live (i.e., urban and rural areas) rather than from their position in the economy. There is no doubt that public investments and subsidies went to the rural areas, but they did not improve the conditions of the rural poor.

Gilbert and Gugler (1992: 224-225), shared a different opinion, according to them, the policies were less biased against rural areas than against the small and medium-sized farmers. These were unable to benefit from export credit, loans and subsidies in the same way as the large farmers. Large farmers may in fact have supported, or at least not opposed, urban-biased policies that kept the prices of agricultural products down because they benefited from other, rural-biased policies. Government policies aimed at economic development in urban and rural areas often favour the better-off population and discriminate against the poor, irrespective of where they live. With the majority of the population of developing countries living in rural areas and the majority of that rural population being poor, the failures of the policies to reduce rural poverty were simply more evident.

Sawant and Mhatre (2000), proposed reasons which was also confirmed by Gannon and Zhi (1997) that there is the need for rural development in the rural areas because of the following: (Gannon and Zhi 1997: 9-12; Sawant and Mhatre 2000: 102).

- Limited access to infrastructure and services; and these services are essential for a healthy life, the acquisition of knowledge, employment and an adequate income. Lack access to clean water supply, health care and education; Inadequate sanitation and health care is a problem for the poor but the urban population has generally much better access to such infrastructure and services than the rural population.

- Limited access to appropriate health services as defined by “available within one hour by local means of transport”, but it is not always clear what “appropriate” means.
- The consequences of limited access to education and health care are visible in the differences in life expectancy and literacy levels between urban and rural areas in various countries.
- Rural areas often have limited access to resources such as credit. Three factors play a role in the limited access to credit: the distance to the nearest bank branch, problems of procedure and requirements, and the size of the loan. The rural poor face a particular problem because there are usually few bank branches in the rural areas where the spread of the population over a large area is not attractive for commercial banks.
- Another aspect of service deprivation is the limited access of the poor to energy. In many rural areas, the most commonly used source of energy is still wood that is collected in the forest. However, forests are rapidly disappearing and are increasingly declared out of bounds for the collection of firewood because of fears of further deforestation. Lack of access to sources of energy has an impact on the living conditions of the poor (lighting, cooking, etc.) as well as on their possibilities for economic development (both on-farm and off-farm). On the other hand, a reliance on wood as a source of energy has serious implications for the environment and thereby indirectly on the productivity of agriculture through erosion resulting from deforestation.
- The limited access to knowledge and information that are essential for participation in contemporary society. Because they are not educated or informed, and live on the margin of society, the poor are vulnerable and easily cheated out of any assets they may have, such as their land.
- Weak linkages in terms of transport to urban and from rural areas deprive the poor of opportunities to take advantage of available employment and basic services, such as education and health care. In fact, the poor linkages can have greater welfare implications for the poor than for the rich because basic social services and employment are critical for the livelihood of the poor.
- The effectiveness of direct targeted interventions, such as schools, health clinics and nutrition programmes, is substantially reduced without adequate transport infrastructure and services as complementary inputs. In addition, such

infrastructure and services provide an opportunity to rural households to combine on-farm employment with employment in non-farm activities, improve their incomes and provide surpluses for enhancing investment in agriculture.

2.5 Rural Development

“Rural development may be defined as seeking to sustain vibrant rural communities with a balanced structure of age, income and occupational groups, capable of adapting to ongoing economic, social and cultural change, enjoying a high standard of living and an attractive quality of life and with sufficient income and employment opportunities to allow individuals and families to live with dignity” (O’Hagan, 2000, p. 252). Harris et al.

(1988: 47) summarized the World Bank definition of rural development as “...a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people – the rural poor.”

Wanmali, in a study in Bangladesh cited that rural development requires a package of interventions to be effective (Wanmali, 2000: 5-7). The institutional infrastructure (organization, governance) needs to be combined with hard infrastructure (roads, power supply) and soft infrastructure (such as transport, credit and other services) to create development opportunities. The development of transport and other types of infrastructure have a direct impact on the welfare of the poor. A study of 16 villages in Bangladesh showed that the development of infrastructure (roads, electricity, schools, health centres, banks and markets) had a significant impact on the income of rural households. Average household incomes increased by one third. Crop income rose by 24 per cent, wage income by 92 per cent, and income from livestock and fisheries by 78 per cent. These increases largely benefited poor households. Income from non-farm activities rose by 17 per cent and largely benefited non-poor households (World Bank, 1990: 60).

2.6 Rural/Urban Interaction

Mellor et al. (1973) defined as the movement and exchange of people, goods, money, services, and ideas back and forth between rural areas and urban (including intermediate centres) centers. More narrowly, it is the flow of agricultural inputs, services, products, and money between farms and towns through the medium of the market. While ruralurban exchange is rooted in the agriculture sector, it is assumed, following Mellor et al. (1973), that the exchange is of a type that spreads growth and jobs outside of that one sector, creating more and more linkages. In Mellor’s view, specific elements of the ruralurban

linkage provide the basis for a successful agriculture and employment-based strategy. These elements are provided by communications and transport infrastructure and by regional urban centers with high employment potential. Such regional urban centers are often small towns, which, if they are functioning effectively, generate demand for farm products, offer job possibilities for farm and town populations alike, and function as centers for agricultural supply (Rondinelli, 1987).

The major impetus for rural-urban movement or exchange is viewed as economic including jobs, production, income, marketing, and consumption-it is heavily shaped by the social factor, that is, by how people involved in the exchange are organized. Type of community, extension of kinship system, household organization, division of labor by age and gender, and solidarity and degree of sharing among social groups are some of the social features of linkage. Also critical to linkage is the clearly physical aspect or infrastructure, including roads, marketplaces, and communication systems. Political administrative arrangements and health and education services also provide important glue for linkage. Ultimately it is in these kinds of conditions surrounding economic exchange, the so-called "conditioning environment" (Ramasamy, 1999), not in the mechanics of trade or commerce itself, that development intervention will be made.

The situational character of rural-urban linkages is especially evident at the level of small and intermediate urban centers in rural areas. Given that every such center has its own peculiar mix of resources, skills, and development potentials (Ramasamy, 1999), its ties with the surrounding area, including regional and national economies, are bound to be more or less unique. This is the case even where two towns in the same region have a similar population size. Thus, local or situational factors must clearly be factored into the design of development interventions that aim to promote a greater dynamic in the ruralurban linkage. Ramasamy continues that the dimensions of the interactions are (1) economic-technological, (2) spatial, (3) infrastructure and services, (4) financial administrative, and (5) key organizational players. While economic forces are deemed to have the greatest influence on rural-urban exchange, the other "conditioning" factors are critical to how viable and sustainable that exchange can become.

This Ramasamy adds, consists of backward and forward flows between predominantly rural agriculture and mostly urban industry, including production, exchange, and consumption of each other's products. Rural and urban demand and production are seen as generating exchanges that drive economic growth and development. Rural nonfarm

employment and income generation are important ingredients of the economic technological aspect of rural-urban linkage. Under the spatial dimension, towns and small secondary cities are highlighted for their place as links in the food marketing chain between rural and urban markets and as centers of innovation and diffusion, especially technological and financial. Infrastructure and services include all the means of keeping things and ideas moving (market, transport, roads, water and sanitation systems, communications systems), and people fed, healthy, and educated so they can go about their business and be productive. These different, physically based systems play a critical part in keeping the rural-urban flow dynamic.

The financial-administrative dimension consists of financial institutions for savings, investment, and credit for rural production in the broad sense. In addition to financial resources for agricultural production, this dimension includes services, marketing, manufacturing, and commerce for off-farm and nonfarm production. This dimension is divided along public and private lines in that some of the critical services and infrastructure in rural areas (such as irrigation, roads, and central marketplaces) are financed by public sources, while private sources finance the private sector for the functions associated with the food marketing chain. The last dimension consists of the key organizational players. They are the persons who in their specific roles keep the linkages linked. They produce the surplus crops, broker the sale, lend the money, process the food, market the produce, drive the trucks, earn an income, buy the product, spend their cash. These key players also highlight some of the points where development interventions can be made in order to enhance the growth of rural-urban exchange.

Owusu (2005) asserts that rural areas depend on urban areas for secondary schools, post and telephone, credit, agricultural expansion services, farm equipment, hospitals and government services. Greater access to information technology, better roads, improved education and changing economic realities are increasing the movement of people, goods and services, waste and pollution and blurring the boundaries between urban and rural areas. As incomes from agriculture decrease, rural households are forced to develop new and more complex livelihood strategies that include both agricultural and nonagricultural incomes, including remittances from seasonal and permanent migrants. At the same time, low income households in urban areas may rely on agricultural goods from rural relatives to supplement their income. Current changes in the global economic, social and political context, including structural adjustment programs and economic reform, have resulted in

deepening social polarization and increasing poverty in both urban and rural areas (Owusu, 2005).

Rural-urban linkages are important for poverty alleviation and sustainable rural development and urbanization. Strong linkages can improve the living conditions and employment opportunities of both rural and urban populations. Domestic trade and the adequacy and efficiency of infrastructure are the backbone of mutually beneficial rural-urban relationships and of the success of the relationship between urban and rural areas (Tacoli, 1998; Owusu, 2005). The increasingly complex connections between urban and rural areas are beginning to be recognized but “still have a relatively limited impact on development policy and practices” (Douglass, 1998:77).

The regional development planning used to create a “better balance between urban and rural and reduce migration pressure on urban areas” has disproportionately benefitted large farms and wealthy land owners. Instead of stimulating the regional economies, the goods and services required by the new economic activities stimulated by these policies come from businesses located outside the regional boundaries and new income is not reinvested in the community (Douglass, 1998). Even many policies that attempt to draw on urban-rural linkages are often unsuccessful because they fail to reflect the true circumstances of the people they are created to help.

2.6.1 Effects of rural-urban interaction

The proximity and accessibility to small rural towns and urban centers by rural residents is crucial for the rural economy, especially for the development of the rural nonfarm sector and for livelihood diversification (Bhalla, 1997; Shukla, 1992). These linkages discussed by Wandschneider (2004), who studied the impact of small rural towns in local economic development in Madhya Pradesh and Orissa, two poor states of India found out that intermediate urban towns and nearby villages are strongly linked through consumption, production, employment, and financial linkages, and various types of economic and social service provision. While villages benefit strongly from these towns through these linkages, the reverse is also true. Intermediate urban centers depend and benefit from labor, inputs, and markets of nearby villages as well.

The development of intermediate centres or towns is also associated with better infrastructure (in terms of quantity and quality), which in turn will facilitate access to markets and lower transportation costs. Moreover, by absorbing agricultural labor surplus,

small rural town development in India and China helps to alleviate the pressure on bigger cities, while contributing to the growth of the national economy.

2.7 Spread and Backwash Effects

The spread-backwash effects as a concept was originally introduced by Myrdal and this was to study trade linkages (Myrdal, 1957), but it has been also been used to conceptualize and investigate urban-rural interactions (Gaile, 1992). In the latter context, urban and rural performances are considered to be interrelated through a complex set of linkages, producing a series of positive and negative spatial externalities. This literature classifies spatial externalities as spread or backwash effects. A spread effect refers to a general benefit for a place due to its closeness to another well-performing place. Transposing this definition to an urban-rural context, a spread effect can be defined as the positive effect that the growth in an urban Centre yields in the nearby rural areas. Conversely, backwash effects occur when the effect of growth processes in urban centres is negative for rural areas.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

Bridging the inequality gap between the rural poor and the urban rich has called for a growing interest in looking at the linkages and interaction between rural and urban areas. These linkages matter because rural and urban livelihoods are interconnected economically, financially, socially and the like. From a rural perspective, most farmers depend on urban markets to secure their livelihoods. Rural households also depend on urban centers or intermediate centres for various services (e.g., hospitals, banks, and government offices) and for the provision of various private and public goods. Moreover, the rural sector benefits from remittances sent by urban-based family members (DfID, 2003).

Likewise, urban areas are linked to the rural sector through several channels. For example, various urban businesses and enterprises depend on rural demand for their goods and services. They also rely on rural areas for the supply of raw materials. Urban consumers, on the other hand, benefit from cheap and sustained food supply from rural areas (Fan, 2003; Zhang, 2003). Furthermore, many poor urban households partly depend on rural activities (e.g., farming) for their livelihoods (DfID, 2003). The rural sector can also act as a buffer from the impact of macroeconomic shocks on the urban economy (World Bank, 2000). Additional interactions between the rural and urban sectors also include flows of

information, such as markets and employment opportunities, as well as flows of people moving between rural and urban centers on a temporary or permanent basis.

Development policies that facilitate these rural-urban linkages can promote economic growth and poverty reduction. But how does this balancing and synergistic relationship work? Economic theory suggests that resources should move freely so that marginal returns are equalized between sectors and regions. An increase in agricultural productivity may precede the growth of intermediate urban settlements. But as new innovations take place in the urban sector, urban labor productivity and wages rise, making migration from the rural to urban sector attractive. In the meantime, urban development may also improve access to capital, inducing further mechanization or other innovations relevant to agricultural production. As a result, agricultural productivity grows, narrowing the productivity and income gaps between rural and urban areas. When innovations take place again in the urban sector, the gap in productivity and income widens between the two sectors. Rural labor begins to migrate to the urban sector, and capital moves to rural areas. A new equilibrium emerges in the improved lives of the rural poor.



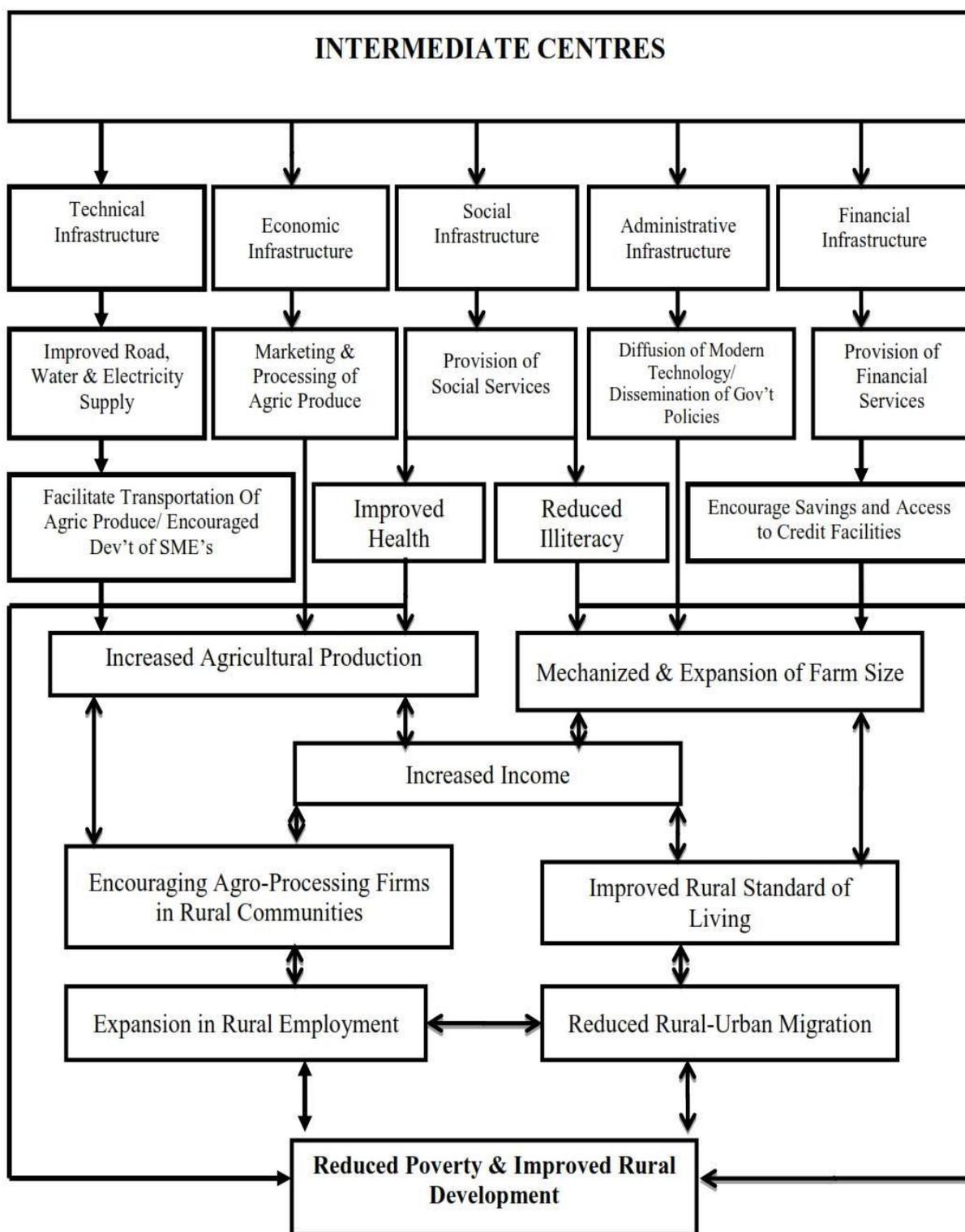


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework on the Inputs, Outputs and Outcomes of Intermediate Centres

Source: Adapted from Owusu (2005)

2.9 Summary

The chapter has reviewed what intermediate centres are, their characteristics, and conditions that ought to prevail for them to perform functions intended to propel development in surrounding rural communities. It further reviewed the concepts and theories that underpin interactions between intermediate centres and surrounding rural localities. The effects and contribution intermediate centres could have on rural development and consequently reduction in rural poverty, were all reviewed. The evidence from literature however served as the basis for the development of the conceptual framework to correct the development bias between the intermediate centres and rural localities, strengthen rural-urban interactions and linkages, and maximize the effects policies on intermediate centres can have on rural development and poverty reduction.



CHAPTER THREE

PROFILE OF STUDY AREAS AND THE METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter introduces the profile of the decentralized areas selected for the study. The chapter again presents the methodological approach that was resorted to in the implementation of the research design employed; the case study research strategy and techniques were used in the collection of data for the study. More essentially, this chapter reviews the context within which data were collected and some of the factors that influenced the way research findings in this study were produced and arrived at. This reflective approach becomes very important indicating that the primary data for this study were gathered through qualitative methods such as face-to-face interviews, direct observation and administration of questionnaires, while quantifiable data were mainly from secondary sources.

3.2 Profile of Case Study Areas

3.2.1 Profile of the Obuasi Municipality

3.2.1.1 Background

The Obuasi Municipality is one of the thirty (30) districts of Ashanti Region. The Municipality was created as part of the government's effort to further decentralize governance. It was carved out of the then Adansi West District on the strength of Executive Instruments (E. I.) 15 of December, 2003 and Legislative Instrument (L. I.) 1795 of 17th March 2004.

3.2.1.2 Location and Size

The Municipality is located between latitudes 5°35' N and 5°65' N, and longitudes 6°35' W and 6°90' W. It covers a total land area of 162.4 square km. It is located in the Southern part of the Ashanti Region. It is 64km from Kumasi, the regional capital. The Municipality has 62 communities and is bounded on the south by Upper Denkyira District of the Central Region, east by Adansi South, west by Amansie Central, and north by Adansi North. It has Obuasi as its administrative capital where the famous and rich Obuasi Gold Mine, now Anglo Gold Ashanti is located.

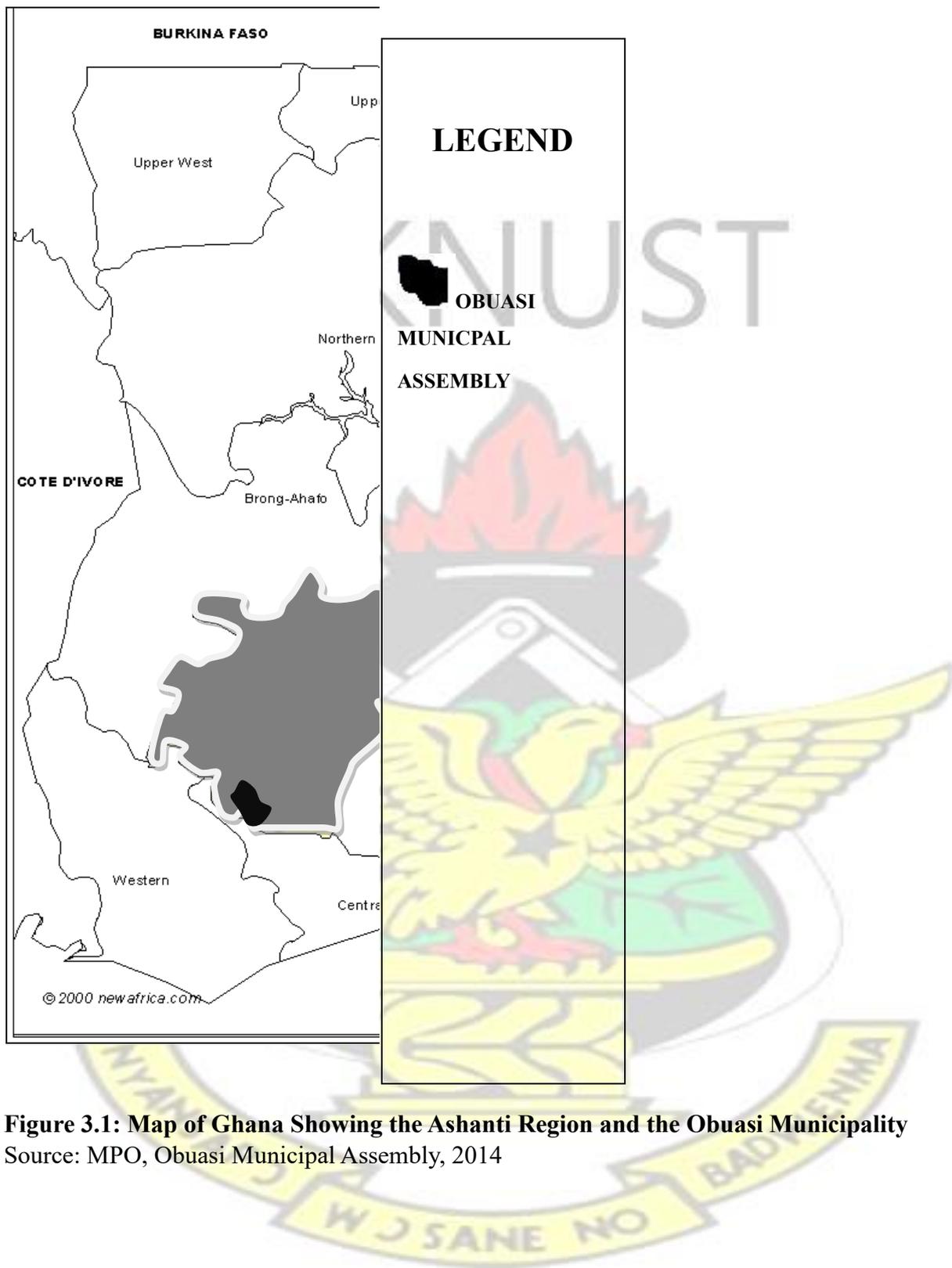


Figure 3.1: Map of Ghana Showing the Ashanti Region and the Obuasi Municipality
Source: MPO, Obuasi Municipal Assembly, 2014

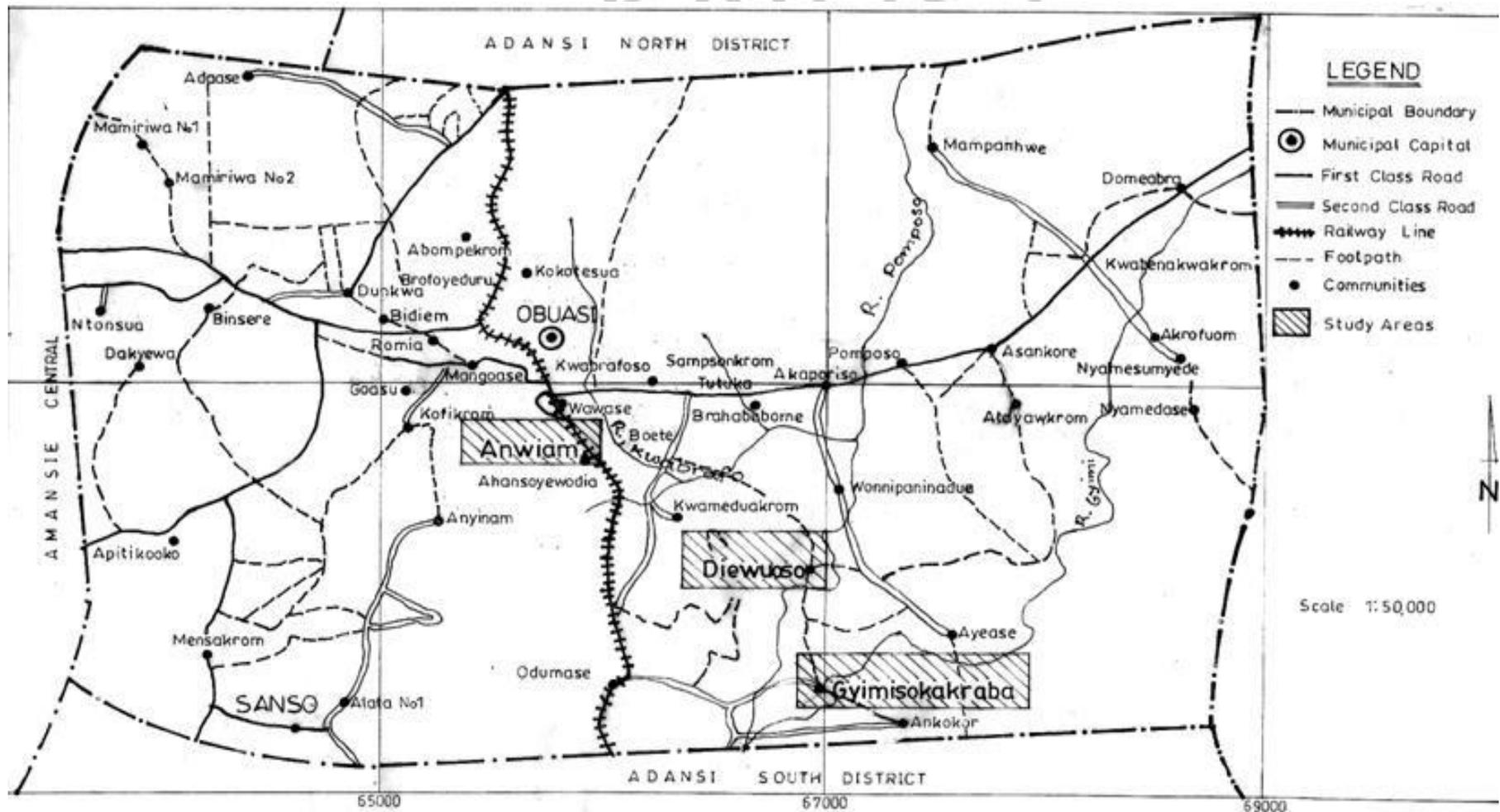


Figure 3.2: Map of Obuasi Municipality showing the location of the communities
 Source: MPO, Obuasi Municipal Assembly, 2014

31
KNUST



3.2.2 Demographics

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census Report released by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), Obuasi Municipal has a total population of 168,641 of which 81,015 are male and 87,626 are female. Out of the total of 143,644 persons live in the urban localities while 24,997 persons live in the rural localities.

3.3 Economic Activities

3.3.1 Mining

Mining and its related activities are the mainstay of the Municipal economy. The municipality is rich in gold and the mining industry is operated by Anglo-Gold Ashanti. The sector used to have a workforce of 22,000 in the early 1990s but the figure has reduced to 4500 as at the year 2014 due to restructuring and retrenchment exercise. Some of the other major industrial activities in the municipality are forest/wood based and related industries, blacksmithing and metal based industries, construction and quarrying based industries, mining and allied industries and agro-based industries. Blacksmithing and metal-based industries have sprung up in the municipality. Used metal scraps from the AngloGold Ashanti are salvaged by scrap dealers for the manufacturing of farm implements and equipments.

Out of the economically active population of 107,374 in the Municipality, 90.1 percent are employed while 0.9 percent are unemployed. A broad spectrum of economic and financial services exists in the municipality to facilitate business activities.

3.3.2 Agricultural Activities

The Municipality can be demarcated into three agro-ecological zones each of which specific agric-programmes could be prescribed. The land is suited for the cultivation of economic tree crops namely cocoa, coffee, oil palm, citrus as well as staple foods such as plantain, banana, cassava, yams, vegetables, pineapple, cocoyam, maize, seed production, crop trials. Other crops cultivated in certain parts of the municipality are rice and sugar cane.

3.4 Profile of the Asunafo North Municipality

3.4.1 Background

Asunafo North Municipality is one of the twenty-seven (27) districts in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana. The Municipal was created when the then Asunafo District was

divided into two in 2004. The Legislative Instrument that established the Municipal Assembly is LI 1873 of 2008.

3.4.2 Location and size

The Asunafo North Municipality shares boundaries with Asutifi District in the northeast, Dormaa Municipality in the north-west and Juaboso-Bia and Sefwi-Wiawso Districts in the Western Region in the south-west border, and Asunafo South District in the Brong Ahafo Region in the south-eastern border. The total land size of the Municipality is 1,412.0 km² with 578.63 km² largely covered by forest reserves. The municipal area forms about 3.5 percent of the regional land area of 40,095sq km.

3.4.3 Demographics

The population of the Municipality is 124,685 from the 2010 Population and Housing Census Report released by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012). Of the total population, there are more males 62,854 (50.4%) than females 61,831(49.6%).

3.4.4 Household Size by type of locality

The Municipality has a total household population of 123,134, of which 62.3 percent is located in the rural areas. There are 27,232 households with an average household size of 4.6 as per the 2010 Population and Housing Census Report (GSS, 2012). In terms of locality, 59.5 percent of the households reside in the rural areas with rural average household size being 4.8 which is higher than the urban (4.3) that constitute 40.5 percent of the total number of households in the Municipality. The Municipality household size (4.6) is however higher than the regional average (4.4).

3.4.5 Economy

The Asunafo North Municipality is predominantly agrarian. Agriculture activities in the municipality are centred mainly on crop production. The predominant farming system is mixed cropping. The major food crops cultivated include maize, cassava, plantain, cocoyam, yams and vegetables whilst cocoa and cashew are the major cash crops produced which enhances employment opportunities in the municipality and productivity in the country in general. The Municipality has diverse industry such as the Mim Cashew Brandy Processing Factory, small-scale palm oil extraction, soap making, Batik Tie and Dye industries and the like. The Municipality also has a Wednesday market which serves as a major revenue source for the Asunafo North Municipal Assembly.

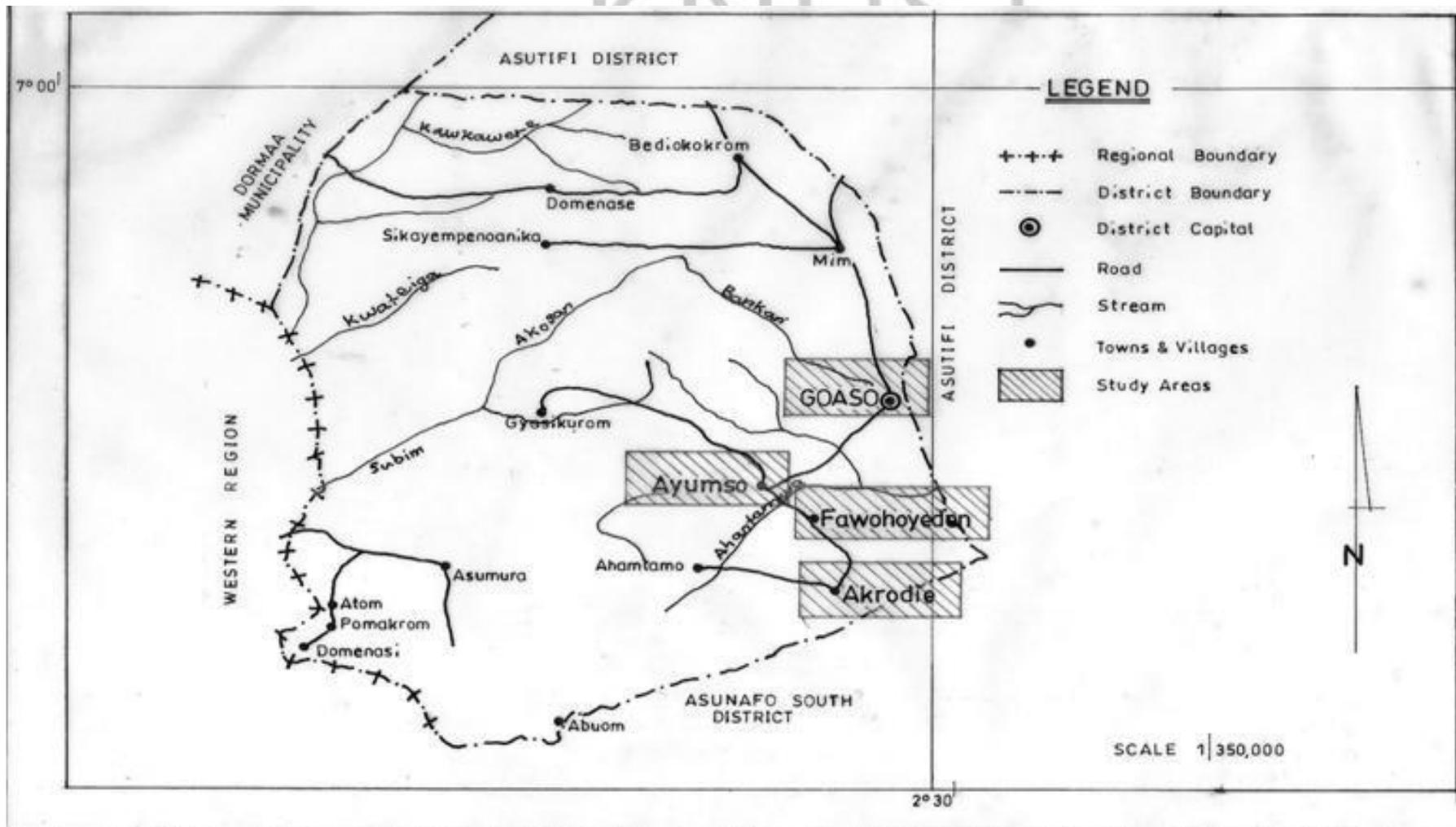


Figure 3.3: Map of Asunafo North Municipality
 Source: MPO, Asunafo Municipal Assembly, 2014

34 KNUST



3.5 Methodology

3.5.1 Research Design

The case study research approach was used for the study. This approach allows for investigation and understanding the dynamics of the phenomenon. The case study research approach like other research strategies is a way of investigating an empirical topic by following a set of pre-specified procedures. It involves the collection, recording and analysis of a single case or a number of cases which may be either quantitative or qualitative, or both (Babbie, 2007). It is designed to bring out the details of a research from the viewpoints of research informants by using multiple sources of data (Yin, 2003). Again, the intimacy of fieldwork relationships associated with case studies brings the greatest advantage (David and Sutton, 2004), and made the approach a very appropriate one employed for the study. It provided opportunity for studying the unit of analysis in depth and detail, and in context and holistically: in the case of a Municipal capital (intermediate centre) and its adjoining rural communities. This comes into context when a town and its adjoining rural communities exist in a symbiotic relationship, and neither can be addressed without the other.

In this study, the case, thus the two Municipalities serve as the phenomenon as well as the context studied (Intermediate centres/towns, and rural-urban interaction). The two selected cases are: Obuasi, in the Obuasi Municipality of the Ashanti Region and Goaso, also in the Asunafo North Municipality of the Brong Ahafo Region. The main reasons for selecting these Municipal capitals are that of bringing regional balance to the study and of ascertaining either functional differences or similarities or balances in these geographical areas as a mining town (Obuasi) and an agrarian town (Goaso). Additionally, the selection process was also motivated by the researcher's familiarity and previous knowledge of the two Municipalities as well-fitting into the objectives the study sought to achieve.

It was assumed that perceptions on the developmental role of the Municipal capitals, and the frequency of spatial interactions with these centres and their rural communities might be influenced by the location of respondents. As a result, the three selected rural communities interviewed in each Municipality were selected to cover all parts of the districts (from relatively nearer to and relatively farther from the Municipal capitals). The three sites selected in the Obuasi Municipality were; Anwiam (relatively nearer), Diewuoso (relatively middle) and Gyimisokakraba (relatively farther). Those of Asunafo North (Goaso) were: Ayumso (relatively nearer), Fawohoyeden (relatively middle) and

Akrodie (relatively farther). According to Kumekpor (2002), case studies are multi-perspectival analyses requiring that researchers consider not just the voice and perspective of the actors, but also the relevant groups of actors and the interactions between them. This further motivated the use of the case study approach.

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques

Pursuing the objectives of the study, the researcher adopted mainly the non-probability sampling technique. The non-probability sampling made use of purposive sampling. By this technique, specific units were selected for study due to their unique characteristics. The purposive sampling method was employed in the selection of the two urban zones (intermediate centres); Obuasi and Goaso, and their respective rural communities. In selecting these two Municipal capitals, and their respective rural areas, the choice was rather about selecting cases of some typicality which offer opportunities to learn and possibly theorize about the roles and functions of intermediate urban centres in their effects on rural development within the context of Ghana's rural development process.

This was necessary to enable the researcher have a „fair“ view of Intermediate centres in terms of their functions, in however way that necessitated their creation, and in this case; as a mining town and agrarian town. In addition, the two selected Municipal capitals and their respective rural communities share a number of commonalities, such as similar cultural make up, environment, socio-demographic characteristics thereby allowing a fair degree of comparative analyses. The three respective rural communities which were also purposively selected within these two different zones were based on the similar demographic characteristics that qualify them as being rural and again, based on their relative distances to the intermediate centre (Municipal Capitals), household populations and location in relation to the Municipal capital. Fifty (50) household heads were sampled from each community to aid the analysis and comparison of the two case study areas.

Again, the purposive sampling technique was also used to sample the institutions and the people interviewed which included the Planning Officers and the Municipal Coordinating Directors in the respective Municipal Assemblies, the Directors in the Municipal Agriculture, Health and Education Directorates at the various decentralized areas. In administering these methods on the field, individual household heads or their representatives were selected using the purposive sampling techniques from the various rural communities in the municipalities. The approach as advocated by the known proponents of the strategy, especially Yin (1994) was considered and chosen because the

selection of the cases was based on the presence or absence of the respondent at the time of data collection and their willingness to participate in the study (Saunders, 2007; Black, 2009).

3.5.3 Sample Size Determination

The sample size for the three respective rural communities was determined by the mathematical formula as propounded by Miller and Brewer (2003), $n = \frac{N}{1 + (N(\delta^2))}$ Where:

n is the sample size, N is the sample frame and (δ) is the sampling error allowed, and 1, a constant. The household population sizes of the various rural communities were sourced from the District Medium-Term Plans and Population and Housing Census 2010 report of the Ghana Statistical Service. Using a confidence level of 92 percent, the sample size for the Goaso's case was approximately 156 household heads for the three rural communities and that of Obuasi's case was 157. For the purposes of comparison between the two case study areas, the two samples were rounded up to 150 respondents for each one of the case study areas.

This was further subjected in proportions to secure proportions of the household heads to be interviewed in each rural community; the three communities of Obuasi respondents were arrived at as follows; Anwiam, 56.2, Diewuoso, 52.8 and Gyimisokakraba, 47.9.

That of Goaso's case had respondents as follows; Ayumso, 54.6, Fawohoyeden, 49.9 and Akrodie, 51.4. For the purposes of analysis and comparison of these two cases and their respective rural communities, the rural communities were rather given an equal sample size and representation of 50 each as presented, in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Municipalities and Rural communities

Municipality	Communities	Household Population	Cummulative Household Population	Proportional Sample Size adopted
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	601	601	50
	Diewuoso	564	1165	50
	Gyimisokakraba	513	1678	50
	Total	1678		150
Asunafo North Municipality	Ayumso	624	624	50
	Fawohoyeden	571	1195	50
	Akrodie	587	1782	50
		1782		150

Source; Author's construct from field survey, 2014

3.5.4 Data Required, Sources and Collection Tools

Primary and Secondary data were sourced as much as practicable for the study. Relevant literature was reviewed from the secondary sources to support or otherwise refute arguments and conclusions given by other researchers on the subject under investigation. The secondary data were sourced from the 2010 Population and Housing Census report released by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), District Medium Term Plans (DMTDPs) for both Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities, other development journals and publications, articles and data available on the internet were also employed to provide a deeper understanding of the key concepts, components and elements of both intermediate centres and rural development.

The primary data on the other hand were obtained directly from respondents of the Municipal Assemblies, Education, Health, and Agriculture Directorates in the various Municipalities through face-to face interview with the use of interview Guide, and individuals in the rural communities through direct observation and administration of questionnaires. Respondent triangulation was also resorted to, to validate the data collected from the field as well. The term triangulation refers to „the practice of employing several tools (instruments) within the same research design“ (Kreuger, et al 2006; Bush, 2002:145) and suggests that data could be collected from; at least, two sources before it can be validated.

The Table 3.2 below gives a summary of the levels; the personnel whom data required for the study were collected from, the kind of data collected, and the mode by which the data were collected. The levels were in two categories; the Municipal capitals which serve as the Intermediate centres and the rural communities at the respective Municipalities. Considering the objectives of the study and the kind of data required to achieve the set objectives, respondents were identified at each of the levels where the use of face-to-face interviews and the administration of questionnaires were resorted to as the modes of data collection.

Table 3.2: Data required and Sources

LEVEL	Source of Data	Data required	Mode of collection
-------	----------------	---------------	--------------------

MUNICIPAL CAPITAL (INTERMEDIATE CENTRE)	Asunafo North-Municipal Assembly; Planning Officer/ Coordinating Director/ Health, Education, and Agric Directorates.	Establishing the level of Economic, Social, Financial and Administrative infrastructure available at Goaso.	Interview Guide See: (Appendices 1,3,4, and 5)
MUNICIPAL CAPITAL (INTERMEDIATE CENTRE)	Obuasi Municipal Assembly; Planning Officer/ Coordinating Director/ Health, Education, and Agric Directorates.	Establishing the level of Economic, Social, Financial and Administrative infrastructure available at Obuasi.	Interview Guide See: (Appendices 1,3,4, and 5)
MUNICIPAL CAPITAL (INTERMEDIATE CENTRE)	Asunafo North-Municipal Assembly; Planning Officer/ Coordinating Director/ Health, Education, and Agric Directorates/ Households	Examining the functional roles of the Goaso Township ➤ Economic functions ➤ Social functions ➤ Administrative roles ➤ Financial roles	Interview Guide/ Household Questionnaire (Appendices 1,3,4, and 5)
MUNICIPAL CAPITAL (INTERMEDIATE CENTRE)	Obuasi Municipal Assembly; Planning Officer/ Coordinating Director/ Health, Education, and Agric Directorates/ Households	Examining the functional roles of the Obuasi Township ➤ Economic functions ➤ Social functions ➤ Administrative roles ➤ Financial roles	Interview Guide/ Household Questionnaire (Appendices 1,3,4, and 5)
RURAL COMMUNITIES	Household Heads at Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie communities.	Examining levels of Spatial interaction between Goaso and the Rural Communities	Household Questionnaires/ Face-to-face interview
RURAL COMMUNITIES	Household Heads at Anwiam, Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba communities.	Examining levels of Spatial interaction between Obuasi and the Rural Communities	Household Questionnaires/ Face-to-face interview
RURAL COMMUNITIES	Household Heads at Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie communities.	Effects of interaction on the development of the Rural communities	Household Questionnaires/ Face-to-face interview (Appendix 2)
RURAL COMMUNITIES	Household Heads at Anwiam, Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba communities.	Effects of interaction on the development of the Rural communities	Household Questionnaires/ face-to-face interview (Appendix 2)

Source; Author's Construct, 2014

The use of same language (often English) in the case of interviews and discussions with the officials in the various institutions, and Ghanaian Akan language (Twi) often for the other respondents was very helpful. As Patton (1980) notes, using the precise language of research participants is an important way to record participants' own understanding of their experiences. The use of interview guides and tape recording of participants' responses (especially key respondents interviews), and later transcription of responses allowed the analysis of responses to be carried out without major omissions. The tape recording done, with the permission of these respondents was particularly useful in maintaining the accuracy of information given and allowed free flow of information during interviews. Again, it also reduced the extent to which respondents' answers could be misinterpreted in both words and context, and thus allowed effective utilization of such information in the analyses and the report writing.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

The primary data for the study that were collected through interviews with key informants like the Municipal Chief Directors, Municipal Planning Officers and other Heads of Departments from the respective Municipalities for the study with the help of the field interview guides, interview transcripts and recorded audiotapes which aided analyses of the qualitative data. The data collection exercise took the researcher approximately three months with the help of two field assistance who were carefully trained and prepared, prior to the exercise, with the objectives of the study in mind. The interview transcriptions, though time-consuming and energy-sapping, were carried out single-handedly by the author (researcher). Lægran (2004) noted that interview transcription allows the researcher to live through once again the interviews he or she has earlier conducted. It also helps in the analyses by allowing the researcher to sort out what is more relevant and put comments and quotations in their right context since he or she is able to recall voices and sights of the interview informants, and the interview sites.

With the research questions of the study as a guide and transcribed interviews, the relevant data from the various interview data sources were sorted out and categorized to identify similarities and differences. This process helped identify the missing links and contradictions in the data from the various research informants. These contradictions and missing links were resolved, to a large extent, by consulting previous publications and secondary data sources. The whole process of the analyses had involved grouping and regrouping of themes with the aim of identifying key factors affecting the outcomes. The

researcher employed Descriptive Statistics to summarize quantitative data in the use of maps, tables, graphs, and charts to present the gathered data. . Qualitative data were also analyzed when interpretation was given, inferences drawn and cross references made with secondary data and information from other institutions. This helped to validate and check information provided by various institutions. Analytical tool such as Cross– Tabulation was also used. In essence, the study resorted to the use of both qualitative and quantitative analytical tools for analyses and presentation of the analyzed information.

3.7 Summary

The chapter has given an account of the case study approach used and its rationale, the context in which data were gathered, and some of the factors which have impacted on the way analyses were done, information constructed, and research findings produced. In all instances, it has involved the putting together of information gathered from administered household questionnaires, small-scale but in-depth interviews carried out in the field, and the use of secondary information to arrive at conclusions within the context of the available time and resources for the study.



CHAPTER FOUR

FUNCTIONAL ROLES AND LEVEL OF INTERACTION OF INTERMEDIATE CENTRES

4.1 Introduction

The chapter basically covers the analyses and discussions of the data collected on the field in the context of the stated objectives and the study's chosen research questions. The analyses and discussions were consequently presented in tables and charts to ease the appreciation of the discussion.

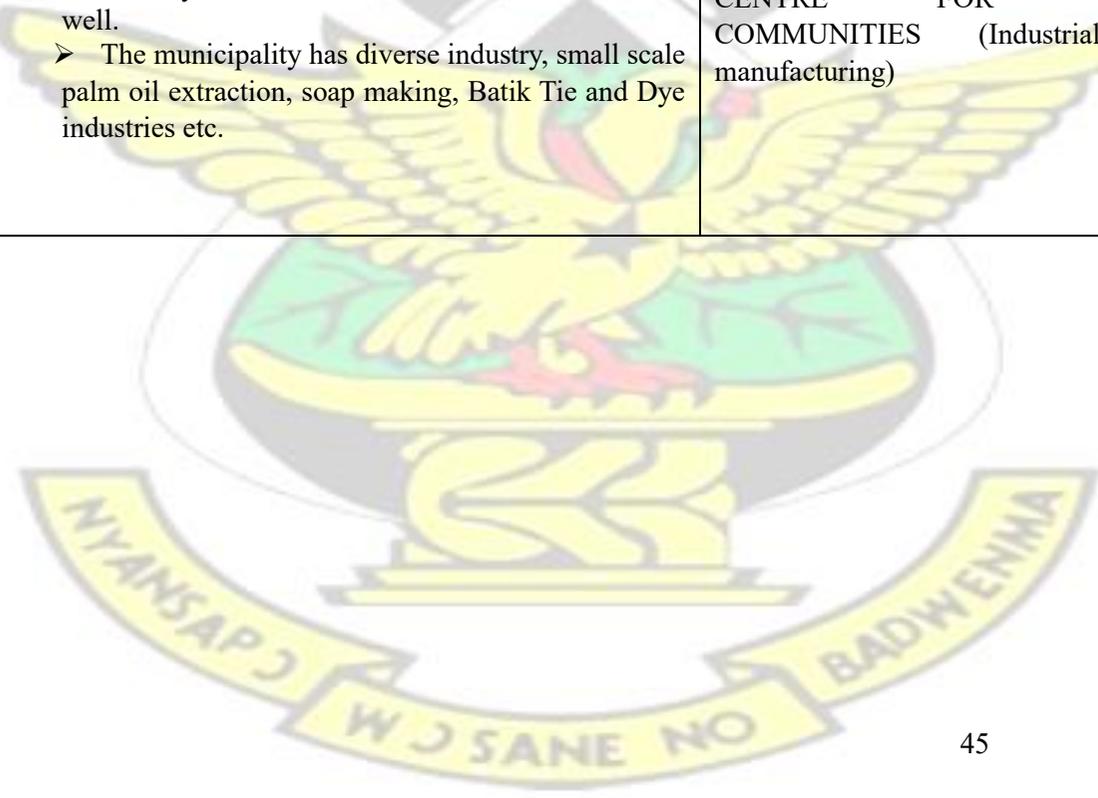
4.2 Infrastructure and Functional Roles of Intermediate Centres

4.2.1 The Structure of the Economy in Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities In the Obuasi Municipality, the Service and Commerce sector take the lead in terms of employment. This is followed by Mining/Industry and lastly, Agriculture. The service sector which includes transport, telecommunication, banking, insurance, finance, trading and mining support activities engages about 40% of the working population while Mining/Industry employs about 35% and Agriculture engaging 25% and mainly at the rural communities of the Municipality.

The Asunafo North Municipality is predominantly agrarian. Agriculture activities in the municipality are centred mainly on crop production. The predominant farming system is mixed cropping. The major food crops cultivated include maize, cassava, plantain, cocoyam, yams and vegetables whilst cocoa and cashew are the major cash crops produced which enhances employment opportunities in the municipality and productivity in the country in general. The municipality has diverse industry such as the Mim cashew brandy processing factory, small scale palm oil extraction, soap making, Batik Tie and Dye industries among others. The Municipality also has every Wednesday as a major market day which serves as a major revenue source for the Assembly.

Table 4.1: Level of Infrastructure Available at Goaso and Obuasi Township

LEVEL OF INFRASTRUCTURE AVAILABLE AT GOASO TO PLAY THE ROLE	FUNCTIONAL ROLES PLAYED BY AN INTERMEDIATE CENTRE	LEVEL OF INFRASTRUCTURE AVAILABLE AT OBUASI TO PLAY THE ROLE
<p>The Municipality is connected to four main mobile telecommunication services, namely Vodafone, Tigo, Airtel, and MTN</p>	<p>TRANSPORTATION CENTRE OFFERING TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION SERVICES</p>	<p>There is only one (1) post office located in Obuasi Central and four (4) mobile telecommunication services operating in the municipality, which are; Vodafone, Tigo, Airtel, and MTN Also, there are a number of internet cafés operating.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The Asunafo North Municipality is predominantly agrarian. Agriculture activities in the municipality are centred mainly on crop production. The Municipality as a big market centre at Goaso. ➤ The municipality also has a Market Centre in Goaso and a specialized market day which is Wednesday which serves the rural communities as well. ➤ The municipality has diverse industry, small scale palm oil extraction, soap making, Batik Tie and Dye industries etc. 	<p>OFFERING ECONOMIC SERVICES ACTING AS MARKET CENTRE FOR RURAL COMMUNITIES ACTING AS AGRO-PROCESSING CENTRE FOR RURAL COMMUNITIES (Industrial and manufacturing)</p>	<p>The market centres existing in the Obuasi municipality;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Obuasi Central Market ❖ Obuasi Central Market ❖ Tutuka Market ❖ Boete Market ❖ Wawase Market ❖ Anyinam Market ❖ Gausu Market <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Gari Processing Plants ➤ Palm oil extracting plants ➤ Citrus processing plant



<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ The Municipality is connected to the National electricity grid.➤ The municipality has about 370km motorable roads out of which 127 km roads are tarred and 243km roads untarred connecting the major towns and farming centres.	<p>TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ The Municipality is connected to the national grid with Electricity. The highest consumer of electricity in the Municipality is AGA Mine which gets its power directly from Akosombo hence have access to efficient power supply.➤ There are 228km of roads in the Municipality consisting 80km of urban roads and 148km of feeder roads with greater percentage in a poor shape.➤ The Municipality is linked by two (2) major roads. One connects from Kumasi through the Municipality to Central Region and the Western Region and the other, connects through the Obuasi Township to Central Region and Greater Accra Region.➤ These major roads are traversed by minor roads which connects the main road that runs through the Municipality
--	---------------------------------	---



<p>The municipality can boast of a number of financial institutions such as;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Agricultural Development Bank, ✓ Ghana Commercial Bank, ✓ Asutifi and Ahafo Community Banks. <p>➤ Additionally, microfinance institutions such as; First allied Savings and Loans Company, Sinapi Aba Trust, Supernick Savings and Loans Company and RIMDA Microfinance Company.</p> <p>➤ The following insurance companies are non-banking financial institutions in the municipality; The Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT), Vanguard Assurance Company, State Insurance Company and the Star Assurance Company.</p>	<p>FINANCIAL SERVICES</p> <p>OFFERING SAVINGS AND CREDIT OPPORTUNITY FOR RURAL POPULATION</p>	<p>There are eleven (11) reputable financial institutions, six (6) insurance companies and a number of micro credit institutions are in the municipality. Some are;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ghana Commercial Bank • Agricultural Development Bank • Adanse Rural Bank • Odotobri Rural Bank • National Investment Bank • Standard Chartered Bank • Multi Credit Financial Services • First Allied • Bayport Financial Services • Barclays Bank • Opportunity International
<p>Asunafo North Municipal Assembly and its Decentralized Departments of the Municipal Assembly</p> <p>The Municipal Agriculture Directorate operating from Goaso. The current Extension-farmer ratio is 1:1350.</p>	<p>ADMINISTRATIVE CENTRE</p> <p>OFFERING ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES AND ACTING AS IMPLEMENTERS OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES</p>	<p>➤ Obuasi Municipal Assembly (OMA) and its decentralized Departments</p> <p>➤ Municipal Agriculture Directorate - There are twenty-four (24) extension officers in the Municipality who are operating in five (5) operational stations namely; Kwabenakwa, Akaporiso, Obuasi Central, Kunka and Sanso. The current extension-farmer ratio is 1:1500.</p>

<p>EDUCATION</p> <p>There are a number of educational facilities such as;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Kindergarten (42), ➤ Primary (88), ➤ Junior High School (20), ➤ Senior High School (2), and Vocational School (3). <p>There is a midwifery training school, located in Goaso to train midwives</p>	<p>OFFERING SOCIAL SERVICES</p> <p>Education</p>	<p>EDUCATION</p> <p>There is no tertiary institution in the Municipality; There are however thirty-four (34) public KGs, fifty-nine (59) primary schools, thirty-five (35) JHS and eight (7) SHS/Vocational.</p> <p>Public Senior High Schools:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Obuasi Senior High Technical School 2. Christ The King Senior High school
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The municipality has a Government hospital at Goaso. • Maternity Home • Health Centre 	<p>Health</p>	<p>Private Senior High Schools:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fr Murphy Senior High School • St Margaret Senior High School • Just Love Senior High School <p>Vocational Schools</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keneve’s Vocational Institute • Just Love Vocational Institute <p>Technical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adansi Technical Institute <p>HEALTH</p> <p>There are twenty-two (22) health facilities in the Municipality which consist of :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hospital (7) • Maternity Home(4) • Health Centre(2) • Clinic(8) • CHPS centre (1)

Source; Author’s Construct from field survey, 2014

4.3 INTERACTION TYPE - HEALTH 4.4 Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Cases

The availability and access to healthcare facilities at the rural settings are of no meager importance to the human development of the rural citizenry. According to the survey conducted in the Obuasi Municipality, only three respondents representing 6.0 percent from Anwiam community could have access to healthcare within their rural community. All the other respondents both at the Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba communities respectively do access similar service outside of their communities, with greater percentage of 92 and 88 respondents at the Gymisokakraba and Diewoso communities respectively indicating the District Capital as the place they commute to whenever they want to access healthcare. On the hand only a few, for example, 16 percent from the Anwiam community could travel beyond the Municipal Capital (Obuasi) to access a higher order service in Kumasi, owing to the fact that such services are not rendered by the facilities in the Municipal capital.

Table 4.2: Access to healthcare by rural communities in the Obuasi Municipality

Municipality	Rural communities	From nearby locality	%	From Municipal Capital	%	From Kumasi	%	Total
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	7	14	35	70	8	16	50
	Diewuoso	0	0	44	88	6	12	50
	Gyimisokakraba	0	0	46	92	4	8	50
Total		7	4.7	125	83.3	18	12	150

Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

Relatively, respondents from all the three communities, Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie in the Asunafo North Municipality did indicate that there is the presence of at least a health facility within their own communities. Some of these respondents however added the nature of services dispensed at those health centres also motivate them to consider elsewhere where better services could be accessed, and indicated that there are occasions where they access the Municipal capital's Health Facility. Respondents, about 35 in number representing 70 percent from Ayumso community, 34, also representing 68 percent from Fawohoyeden and 31, representing 62 percent from Ayumso did indicate that they access healthcare at the Hospital in the Municipal capital because of the quality of healthcare received during such visits.

Table 4.3: Access to healthcare by rural communities in the Asunafo North

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Yes	%	No	%	Total

Asunafo North Municipality	Ayumso	35	70	15	30	50
	Fawohoyeden	34	68	16	32	50
	Akrodie	31	62	19	38	50
Total		100	66.7	50	33.3	150

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.5 Frequency of Interaction in the access of Healthcare

A total of 125 respondents from all the three communities in the Obuasi Municipality indicated that they access healthcare at the Municipal capital but when asked how often such services are accessed, a greater portion of the respondents from Diwuoso community constituting 61.4 percent conceded that the health facility could be accessed between two and three times a week. Relatively 39.1 percent and 27.3 percent from Gyimisokakraba and Diwuoso respectively frequent the facility at the Municipal capital at least once a week. This picture also gives the impression that the communities relatively closer to the Municipal capital do access its health facility very frequently than the communities farther away from it as could be inferred from the frequency of interaction existing between Diwuoso and Obuasi capital, and Gyimisokakraba and Obuasi capital in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Frequency of access of Health centres at Obuasi and Goaso Township

Name of Municipality	Name of Community	very often	%	often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	13	37.1	14	40	8	22.9	35	28
	Diwuoso	27	61.4	12	27.3	5	11.4	44	35.2
	Gyimisokakraba	18	39.1	18	39.1	10	21.7	46	36.8
Total		58	46.4	44	35.2	23	18.4	125	100
Name of Municipality	Name of community	Very often	%	Often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	3	8.6	24	68.6	8	22.9	35	35
	Fawohoyeden	1	2.9	17	50	16	47.1	34	34
	Akrodie	1	3.2	12	38.7	18	58.1	31	31
Total		5	5	53	53	42	42	100	100

Source; Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

Comparatively, the respondents who have been accessing the Municipal Capital's health facility in the Asunafo North Municipality did indicate the frequency of access to the facility at Goaso. The survey revealed that a greater percentage of these respondents from Ayumso especially, constituting 68.6 percent frequent the facility as often as once every

week. This is as a result of the proximity of the community to the Municipal capital. Respondents could easily embark on a return trip to the capital to access the facility. Unlike the respondents from Ayumso, those from Akrodie community would seldom frequent the Hospital at the municipal capital because of the relatively longer distance they would have to cover in accessing the facility. According to Table 4.4, about 18 respondents constituting 58.1 percent did indicate that they seldom visit the capital's facility.

4.6 Interaction Type - Education

4.6.1 Formal Education

The level of literacy is an important indicator in measuring either the level of human development or under development of a particular geographical area. The availability of infrastructure to play such a role is of very relevance to the achievement of such an indicator. The survey in the Obuasi Municipality revealed that there are quite a number of the infrastructural provisions at the Basic and JHS level of education in the rural communities, however, the same provision could not be said of Senior High School level. A recorded total number of 27 respondents constituting 18 percent of the overall sample of the three rural communities indicated that they still have some members of their household accessing education at the Municipal capital.

Table 4.5 give details of only two respondents representing 10.5% from Anwiam community having their wards accessing JHS education at the capital, and this is as a result of its proximity to the Municipal capital. None of the other communities had any pupil accessing JHS education at the capital because they could access such education from those communities. All the other respondents from the Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba indicated that their wards only access the second cycle education, and mentioned Obuasi Secondary and Technical School, and St Margaret Senior High School (a private SHS) as the schools being attended by their wards. The Obuasi Municipality could not boast of the presence of any Tertiary institution and respondents who had any ward at this level of the educational ladder access such education outside of the Municipality and thereby travel to Kumasi especially for the services.

Table 4.5: Type of Schools accessed in Obuasi Capital

Name of Community	JHS	%	SHS	%	Tertiary	%	Total	%
Anwiam	2	10.5	17	89.5	0	0	19	70.4
Diewuoso	0	0	5	100	0	0	5	18.5

Gyimisokakraba	0	0	3	100	0	0	3	11.1
Total	2	7.4	25	92.6	0	0	27	100

Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

Comparatively, there is also another level of interaction existing in the form of some respondents from the various communities surveyed from the Asunafo North Municipality having their wards and some members of their household accessing formal education from the Municipal Capital, Goaso. A total of 24 respondents from all the three communities constituting 13 from Ayumso, five from Fawohoyeden and six from Akrodie cited as having their wards accessing formal education at the Municipal capital.

On the type of education usually accessed by the wards of these respondents, nine respondents representing 69.2 percent from the Ayumso community cited their wards as accessing the Senior High School (SHS) education. It further indicated that three are in the boarding school and six always go as day-students, and this is as a result of the proximity of the community to the Municipal capital. Relatively, four respondents representing 66.7 percent from the Akrodie community cited as having wards at the tertiary education in the capital, that is, the Nursing and Midwifery College of Health. Other respondents, one each, from the Ayumso and the Fawohoyeden communities further indicated that they have wards, taking up a Professional Course in the Municipal capital. This implies that the Municipal capital takes up a role and a function of providing education servicing its surrounding communities.

Table 4.6: Type of schools attended at Goaso by rural communities

Name of Municipality	Name of community	SHS	%	Tertiary	%	other, specify	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	9	69.2	3	23.1	1	7.7	13	54.2
	Fawohoyeden	2		2	40	1	20	5	20.8
	Akrodie	2	4	4	66.7	0	0	6	25
			0						
			3						
			3.3						
Total		13	54.2	9	37.5	2	8.3	24	100

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.6.2 Informal Education

Relative to the above is whether or not the Obuasi Municipal Capital offers any form of informal training to the rural communities. Only 10 respondents representing 20 percent of the total respondents at Anwiam community and four percent of respondents of

Gyimisokakraba had ever accessed informal training. The training received involved the training of its participants in poultry keeping, fertilizer application among other things by the rural farmers. The training was sponsored by the Community Relations Department of the AngloGold Ghana Limited. No respondent had ever accessed any form of training from Diewuoso.

On the other hand, the study further revealed from the Asunafo North Municipality that there were a number of respondents who have at certain point in time accessed an informal kind of education or training from the Municipal Capital. Respondents numbering, 20, in all, and representing only, 13.3 percent of the sample from all three communities, did indicate as having benefited from a kind of training usually organized by the Business Advisory Centre of the Municipal Assembly. These trainings have been so organized to equip the rural folks with technical knowledge on how to process some of their farm produce and to market the processed goods to maximize their livelihood.

According to the study, 11 respondents, representing 22 percent from Ayumso, four respondents also representing eight percent from Fawohoyeden, and five respondents representing 10 percent from Akrodie community indicated that they have been beneficiaries of such kind of informal trainings before. The training ranges from the processing cassava into starch, extraction of palm oil and palm kernel oil, processing of cassava and plantain into knead fufu products, soap and butter making from oil palm, and the like.

4.7 Interaction Type - Economic

4.7.1 Market Centre

The survey revealed that the Market centre at the Municipal capital provides a chunk of the rural citizenry a market space where the farm produce of the rural farmers are marketed and farm inputs and other manufactured products bought by the rural folks. The study revealed that 46 respondents representing 92 percent from Diewuoso, for example, indicating that the Market Centre at the Municipal capital indeed offers a marketing centre for their rural community. Additionally, 88 percent and 86 percent of respondents from Gyimisokakraba and Anwiam respectively also agreed to such an assertion. On the other hand the respondents who do not access the Municipal capital's Market centre proposed that because of the larger Market they always have access to in Kumasi they rather will prefer to trade in Kumasi to the Municipal capital.

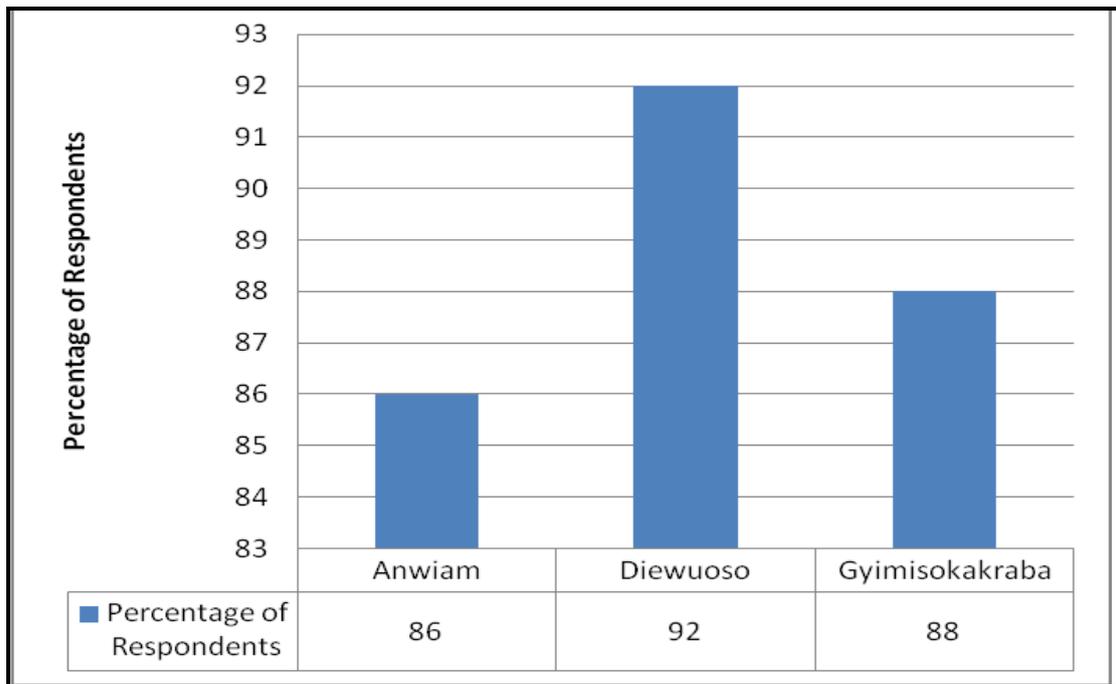


Figure 4.1: Respondents from Rural Communities who access Market from Obuasi
Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

In the Asunafo North Municipality, the study discovered from all the three communities, Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie that the Municipal Capital offer a relatively market space where their produce are sold and other inputs for further production by these rural people are purchased. The Municipality has every Wednesday of every week as a market day where traders, from Sunyani, the regional capital and Kumasi, who trade in varied goods patronize and display their wares. Traders from the city and towns come with all forms of manufactured commodities and the rural farmers also come with their farm produce. The city traders most often buy foodstuffs during the market days and the rural citizenry patronize the manufactured commodities.

Figure 4.2 paints the picture that the Ayumso community alone recorded a higher number of 48 respondents representing 96 percent indicating that the municipal capital provides enough marketing space for them. The Akrodie and Fawohoyeden communities recorded 94 percent and 84 percent respectively affirming that the municipal capital provides that marketing centre. The respondents who indicated otherwise and constituted only four percent from Ayumso, 16 percent from Fawohoyeden and six percent from Akrodie said they either consider a market at nearby town like Mim or would bypass and go to Sunyani where their produce could readily be bought.

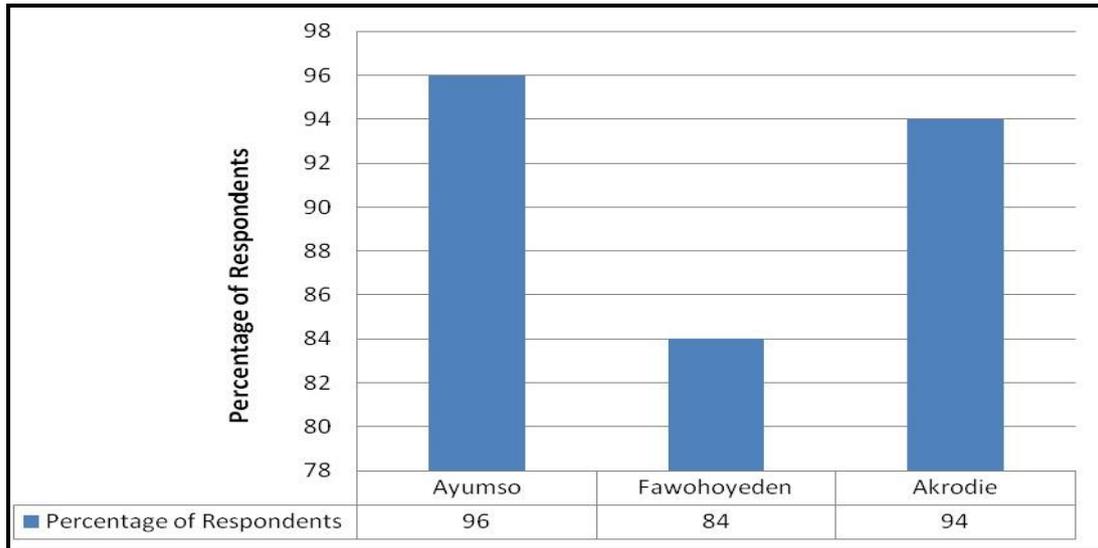


Figure 4.2: Percentage of respondents from rural communities who access the Goaso Market

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.7.2 Frequency of Access to the Obuasi Market

Respondents from the various rural communities in the Obuasi Municipality who indicated that they access the Municipal Capital Market were further asked to rate how often they do so. It was indicated from the respondents of Gyimisokakraba community alone that a greater percentage of 58.8 access the market very frequently and gave a range of between two and three times every week. This is as a result of the fact that there is no specialized market days at the Municipal capital and that produce could be sent to the market and goods bought from the same, on any day as they so wish to access the market. They as well indicated that patronage has always been for their own good.

The survey further revealed from the Asunafo North Municipality that the number of respondents who access the market facility in the Municipal capital doing so at various levels of frequency which ranges from very often to seldom. Out of the total number of 48 respondents who indicated that they benefit from the municipal capital's market space, 35 representing a greater percentage of 70.8 from Ayumso, access the market very frequently that is, about two times, within a week. These respondents, apart from the specialized days for the market on Wednesdays, do access the market at least once on other weekly days. There was similar reflection from Fawohoyeden, where 23 respondents representing 54.8 percent and Akrodie, 53.2 percent also indicating that they access the market very frequently. Not too many a number of the respondents were recorded for the seldom, because at least percentages like 44.7 for Akrodie, 40.5 for Fawohoyeden and 29.2 for

Ayumso did indicate that they access the market at the Municipal capital at least every week during the specialized weekly market days.

Table 4.7: Frequency of access of the Obuasi and Goaso market by the rural communities

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Very often	%	Often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	21	48.8	18	41.9	4	9.3	43	32.3
	Diewuoso	23	50	20	43.5	3	6.5	46	34.6
	Gyimisokakraba	25	56.8	19	43.2	0	0	44	33.1
Total	Total	69	51.9	57	42.9	7	5.3	133	100
Name of Municipality	Name of community	very often	%	Often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	34	70.8	14	29.2	0	0	48	35
	Fawohoyeden	23	54.8	17	40.5	2	4.76	42	30.7
	Akrodie	25	53.2	21	44.7	1	2.13	47	34.3
Total		82	59.9	52	38	3	2.19	137	100

Source; Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

Commodities Traded in and their Availability

The primary produces that are basically traded in at the Obuasi Municipal capital by the rural folks are foodstuffs. Respondents from the various rural communities indicated that as they sell out their farm produce at the market to the urban citizenry, they in turn purchase farm inputs like cutlasses, seeds for cultivation, fertilizers and other production assets back to their rural communities. When the respondents were asked whether they are able to access their production assets and farm inputs from the Municipal Capital Market, 39 respondents representing 78 percent from Anwiam, 46 respondents also representing 92 percent from Diewuoso and 47 respondents representing 94 percent from Gyimisokakraba, responded in the affirmative.

On the issue of readily availability of these farm produce normally purchased from the municipal capital, a greater percentage of 80.9 respondents from Gyimisokakraba indicated that they are available, with still 76.9 percent and 73.9 percent from Anwiam and Diewuoso respectively agreeing to same. Other commodities often purchased apart from these production assets and farm inputs are manufactured goods or consumables from the Municipal capital market. In other words, where as the urban traders normally purchase foodstuffs from the rural traders, the rural traders in turn purchase their farm inputs and other manufactured commodities from the municipal capital market. Only a few of the rural folks buy other items other than the ones indicated and stated items such as smoked fishes and salt, and the like, also from the Municipal capital.

Urban traders on the other hand at certain times go to the rural communities where mainly items like foodstuffs, cocoa seeds and oil palm are bought from the rural folks at their door steps. A greater number of 49 respondents representing 98 percent, and 47 respondents also representing 94 percent from Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba respectively confirmed that there have been occasions where these urban traders have bought produce from them.

Comparatively, the study revealed from the Asunafo North Municipality that there are different kinds of items traded in, by both urban traders and rural traders. The rural people often commute to Goaso to market their farm produce like cassava, plantain, yam, citrus and other poultry products. Again they also market other items processed by themselves like palm oil, gari, the locally brewed gin and starch among others. These products are most often patronized by the urban dwellers whereas the rural dwellers in themselves make purchases of inputs that seek to further the course of production like; fertilizers, cutlasses, and other Agro-chemicals. Respondents totaling 134 from all the three communities sampled indicated that they access their farm inputs from Goaso.

On the issue of whether those commodities needed by the rural population are readily available or not, greater percentages of respondents, for instance, 84.1 from Ayumso community, 75.0 from Fawohoyeden community and 76.1 from Akrodie community, all indicated that those production assets and inputs are readily available. Other respondents who indicated non availability further said they would have to travel to places such as either Kumasi or Sunyani but often times discouraged by the long distance and higher lorry fares to wait until they become available at Goaso.

As the rural dwellers commute to the capital, Goaso, to access manufactured products, the urban traders would in turn commute to the rural communities to access foodstuffs and this was confirmed in the study where 84 percent from Ayumso, 92 percent from Fawohoyeden and 94 percent from Akrodie all citing that urban traders do come into their communities to trade with them.

4.7.3 Motivation to Trade at the Municipal Capitals

Respondents from the various communities surveyed in the Obuasi Municipality cited some reasons as the driving force motivating them to trade at the Municipal capital and not at any other market centre within the municipality like Tutuka Market, Boete Market, Wawase Market, Anyinam Market and Gausu Market. Respondents constituting 60 percent out of the total respondents from Anwiam community for example cited the

proximity of their community to the Municipal capital as the reason behind the patronage of the Municipal capital's market centre. Relatively, 60 percent and 50 percent of respondents from Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba respectively also cited availability both in terms of buyers of their farm produce and the commodities they intend buy from the Municipal capital's market. Only 6 percent of respondents from Gyimisokakraba had other reason to give and did indicate that when they travel to Goaso, their produce are bought in a relatively appreciable price than what same produce would have been sold for in a nearby locality.

Table 4.8: Motivation to trade in Obuasi and Goaso by rural communities

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Proximity to the market	%	Lower prices	%	Availability of Buyers /goods	%	Others	%	Total
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	30	60	0	0	20	40	0	0	50
	Diewuoso	11	22	8	16	30	60	1	2	50
	Gyimisokakraba	15	30	7	14	25	50	3	6	50
Total		56	37.3	15	10	75	50	4	2.7	150
Name of Municipality	Name of community	Proximity to the market	%	Lower prices	%	Availability of Buyers /goods	%	Others	%	Total
Asunafo North	Ayumso	32	64	0	0	18	36	0	0	50
	Fawohoyeden	8	16	10	20	30	60	2	4	50
	Akrodie	1	2	10	20	31	62	8	16	50
Total		41	27.3	20	13.3	79	52.7	10	6.7	150

Source; Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

On the other hand, respondents from all the three communities in the Asunafo North Municipality did indicate that they are motivated by one thing or the other to trade at the Municipal capital. Such motivations range from proximity to the market, lower prices of goods bought, to the availability of either Buyers of produce or goods bought.

As an example, 32 respondents from Ayumso representing 64 percent, by virtue of the community's location to the municipal capital, did indicate that they are motivated by proximity to regularly access the capital's market. The Akrodie community which is located relatively farther away from the capital also had 62 percent respondents rather indicating that they are motivated by availability of buyers for their farm produce and items needed by them could easily be accessed. There are other respondents, that constituted 16 percent from Akrodie and four percent from Fawohoyeden who indicated that they rather lured by how big the weekly market is.

4.7.4 Availability of Agro-Processing Enterprises and frequency of access

Processing of Agriculture Products is very essential in the development of Agriculture in rural communities. The availability of such infrastructure is a major boost to agriculture development and hence improving livelihood of the people with Agric as their primary occupation. The Obuasi Municipality could only count a few of such agro-processing outlets in the capital but even with the few existing ones, they are very small in their scale of operation. Examples are the processing plants for citrus, cassava starch, gari, powder and chips. There is also small manufacturing plant for the production of ceramic Products in a piecemeal basis by various individuals.

Only 27 respondents representing 18 percent of the total sample from all the three communities were aware of the presence of any of such agro-processing plants in the Municipal capital. These respondents, 10 representing 71.4 percent from Gyimisokakraba especially had either personally accessed the facility or sold to them, or have had operators of such facility buying from them, for their agro-processing production. The survey revealed that only three respondents representing 50% out of the percentage who indicated that they have ever accessed the agro-processing enterprises in the Municipal capital have done so, as often as once a week, and that is within a season of either cassava or citrus harvesting. At the Gyimisokakraba community 60 percent of same respondents who have ever accessed the facility indicated that they do so once in a while because they are disadvantaged by distance from their community to the Municipal capital and secondly, they are more apt at selling the produce often than processing it in the Municipal Capital.

Table 4.9 : Frequency of access of Obuasi and Goaso agro-processing enterprises

Name of Municipality	Name Of Community	Very often	%	Often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Diewuoso	0	0	3	50	3	50	6	37.5
	Gyimisokakraba	0	0	4	40	6	60	10	62.5
Total	Total	0	0	7	43.8	9	56.3	16	100
Name of Municipality	Name of community	very often	%	Often	%	Seldom	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	6	26.1	14	60.9	3	13	23	37.1
	Fawohoyeden	4	18.2	15	68.2	3	13.6	22	35.5
	Akrodie	3	17.6	12	70.6	2	11.8	17	27.4
Total		13	21	41	66.1	8	12.9	62	100

Source: Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

Agro-processing Enterprises play an important role as a facilitator to development at the grassroots levels. The survey discovered from the Asunafo North Municipality that a relatively good number of respondents from all the three communities are aware of the presence one agro-processing centre or another. Ayumso and the Fawohoyeden communities for example, recorded 60 percent each of their respondents indicating that they are aware of a processing centre at the municipal capital. It is only in the Akrodie community where 52 percent denied knowledge of the presence of any Agro-processing centre at Goaso.

Relatively, out of the total of 84 respondents who had indicated knowledge of the presence of Agro-processing enterprises, 23 respondents representing 76.7 from Ayumso community alone had ever patronized in terms of either selling produce to them to be processed or personally accessing usage. Other respondents, that is, 22 representing 73.3 percent and 17, also representing 70.8 percent from Fawohoyeden and Akrodie communities respectively, all fell within the category of people who have ever accessed the Agro-processing enterprises at Goaso.

The survey however revealed from the Asunafo North Municipality that the rate of frequency of those respondents who indicated that they have ever patronized the Agroprocessing enterprises Goaso before. From Table 4.9, six respondents representing 26.1 percent from Ayumso community did indicate that they access the Municipal capital's Agro-processing Enterprises very frequently as two or more times within a week. Respondents from Fawohoyeden and Akrodie communities had 18.2 and 17.6 percentages respectively of respondents who do access the Processing centres very frequently. These respondents were also in the kind occupation where the frequent access to the processing facilities is of importance to. They are those into starch extraction from cassava and plantain, palm oil extraction and the like. Relatively quite higher percentages from all the three communities, Ayumso, 60.9, Fawohoyeden 68.8 and Akrodie, 70.6, all access the Agro-processing Enterprises as often as once every week. This however implies that Goaso is living up to the function as a processing hub for its surrounding rural communities.

4.7.5 Interaction Type - Administrative

Governmental policies targeted at improving rural livelihood at the grassroots levels are usually spearheaded and implemented by the various Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs). These Administrative sectors therefore perform responsibilities

and provide a level of services which aim at improving livelihood. It was revealed from the study that only four percent of respondents from Gyimisokakraba had ever accessed and taken delivery of any form of support from the Municipal Assembly in Obuasi. Conversely, 44 percent of respondents from Anwiam had ever received support in terms of distribution of farm implements and inputs.

Again, the survey revealed that the activities of Agricultural Extension officers to improve agricultural output in the municipality are still on the lower side. The Table 4.10 shows that only 26 respondents out of the total respondents from all the three communities conceded that they have ever attained any form of services or inputs. Only 16 respondents representing 32 percent from the Anwiam community and six respondents also representing 12 percent from Diewuoso had ever benefited from the services of Agriculture Extension Officers, and those were training of rural farmers in fertilization application and distribution of improved seeds for cultivation. The Municipal Agriculture Directorate indicated that the Municipality runs short of the number of Extension Officers as the current Extension Officer to Farmers ratio alone is 1:1,500 in the Municipality.

Table 4.10: Access to Extension Services by Obuasi and Asunafo North rural communities

Municipality	Name of community	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	16	32	34	68	50
	Diewuoso	6	12	44	88	50
	Gyimisokakraba	4	8	46	92	50
Total		26	17.3	124	82.7	150
Name of Municipality	Name of community	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Asunafo North	Ayumso	29	58	21	42	50
	Fawohoyeden	26	52	24	48	50
	Akrodie	26	52	24	48	50
Total		81	54	69	46	150

Source: Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

Comparatively, it was discovered from the study that with the exception of Akrodie, the other two communities have had more than half of their respondents ever obtaining a measure of support from the Municipal Assembly especially. This support was in the form of either distributing farm puts or providing training on how to improve yield of crop production. Some of the respondents did indicate that they have ever been beneficiaries of the Government policy on cocoa mass spraying and free fertilization application. Some of them also indicated the Quality Control Division of the Ghana Cocoa Board as having provided training services for cocoa farmers in their communities. Ayumso and

Fawohoyeden communities, for example, recorded 54 percent each of the respondents benefiting from the services rendered by the Administrative sector. Only 21 respondents representing 42 percent from the Akrodie community did indicate as having benefited from same.

The study also revealed the effort the extension officers in the Municipality are doing to improve Agriculture. Though the Municipal Director of Agriculture had revealed that the municipality still runs short of the number of Extension Officers, the few available are putting in much effort to improve poultry and crop yield in the municipality. Ayumso community alone had 29 respondents representing 58 percent benefiting from the activities of Extension officers. Fawohoyeden and Akrodie Communities recorded 52 percent each of their respondents also being beneficiaries of the extension services in the Municipality.

It was further discovered from the survey that 21 respondents representing 14 percent of all the sampled from the three communities commended the efforts in terms of skill training that the Business Advisory Centre (BAC) in the municipality are doing to equip them with the technical skills in the processing of their farm produce and the marketing of the processed products. This they indicated that it has encouraged them to produce more with the hope that the BAC would assist them to identify other market opportunities, as they have currently been doing.

4.7.6 Interaction Type - Financial Services

In the Obuasi Municipality, the survey revealed that about 24 percent of respondents from Anwiam, 10 percent from Diewuoso and six percent from Gyimisokakraba, are in some transactions with some financial institutions, thus they either save with them or have ever accessed credit facility from them.

Relatively, the survey again revealed the rural dwellers do interact with the urban settlement in the area of accessing financial services as well. By virtue of the concentration of some of the financial institutions at the Municipal capital, some of the rural dwellers could only access some of the services only by commuting to the places where they could be accessed. According to the study, a greater percentage of 27 respondents representing 54 percent from the Ayumso community indicated that they save money with a financial institution or have ever accessed credit facility from them.

4.7.7 Type of Financial Institutions and Location

The survey also revealed from the Obuasi Municipality that the respondents who indicated that they are in dealings with financial institutions mentioned those such as the Credit Unions/Microfinance, Saving and Loans, Rural Banks and other Susu groups. With the exception of about four respondents representing 33.3 percent in Anwian who indicated that the Susu groups they transact with are either in their locality or a nearby locality but the rest from the other communities like Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba all indicated that those financial institutions they transact with are in the Municipal Capital and any time they so wish to transact with such institutions, they rather commute to the Obuasi capital.

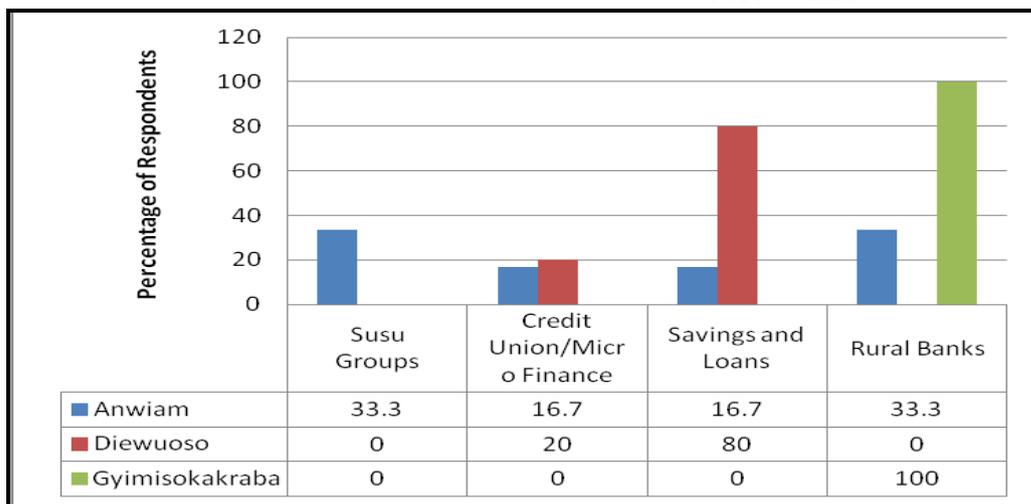


Figure 4.3: Type of Financial Institution respondents transact with
 Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

Comparatively, respondents from Asunafo North Municipality who indicated that they are in one transaction or another with a financial institution constituted 72 and representing 48 percent of the total respondents sampled for the study. With only five respondents representing 13.3 percent at Ayumso who indicated that their financial institutions were located at Mim town, all the other respondents from the various rural communities did indicate that those financial institutions they are in transaction with are located at Goaso, the Municipal capital. Respondents would then have to commute to the Municipal capital at all times when it becomes necessary for them to access such services. Figure 4.4 give details of the types of financial institutions accessed by the rural communities.

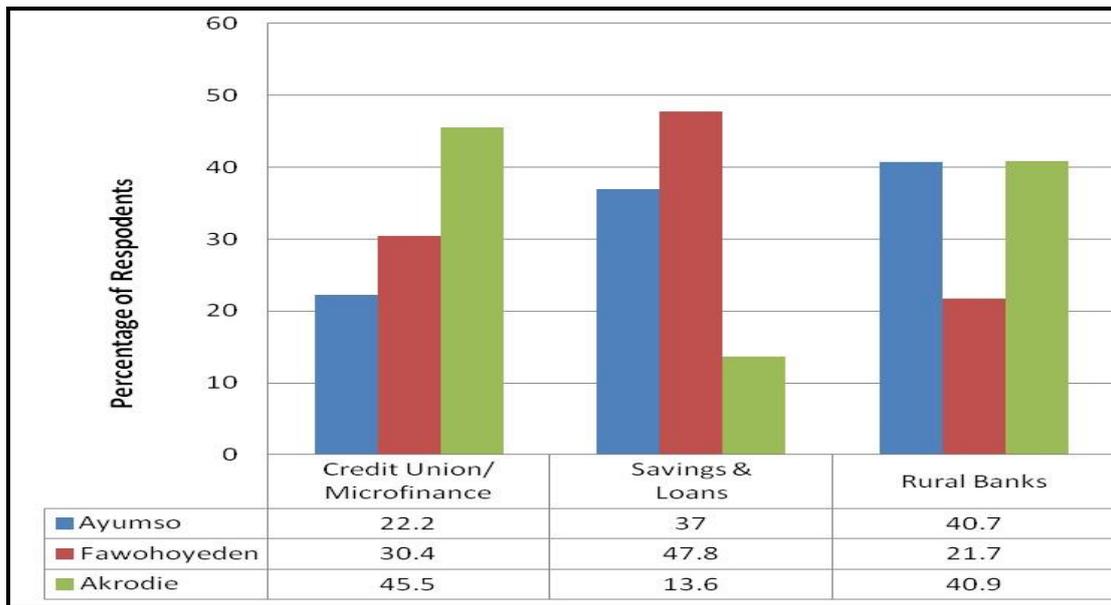


Figure 4.4: Types of Financial Institutions Respondents Transact with at Goaso

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.8 Overall flow levels between the Capital and Rural Communities

In the Obuasi Municipality, the study revealed in all the three rural communities that the respondents commute to the Municipal Capital to undertake one activity or another. Diewuoso community alone had 31 respondents constituting 62 percent commuting to the Municipal capital every week to undertake some transactions. Anwiam and Gyimisokakraba communities also have more than a half of the respondents interviewed, thus 56 percent for each of those communities journeying to the capital for their transactions. Other respondents rather indicated that would travel to the municipal capital once in awhile to undertake similar activities, with exception from the Anwiam community where 34 percent of respondents cited that they rather take a trip to Obuasi capital on a daily basis, and gave the proximity of their community to Obuasi as the major reason why they do embark on such trips.

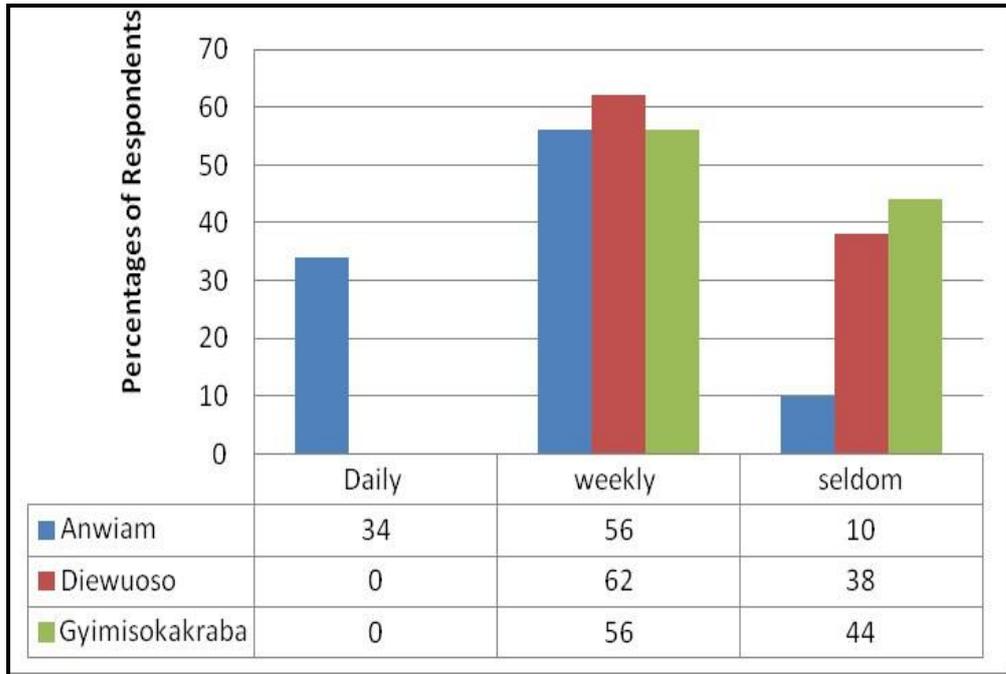


Figure 4.5: Frequency of Interaction with Obuasi Capital
 Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

The activities that have been taking these respondents to the Municipal capital were broadly categorized into Economic, Social, Administrative and others. The Figure 4.6 gives the indication that activities relative to Economic have been taking more of the respondents to the Municipal capital, Obuasi, than the social, administrative and other activities. Respondents from Anwiam community constituting 86 percent, those of Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba also constituting 68 percent and 76 percent respectively, cited that they become more receptive to commute to the municipal capital because of Economic considerations through trading and the like. Only a few indicated that such movement to the municipal capital becomes necessary because of ties they have with other family members there, and they represented percentages of 14, 18 and eight for Anwiam, Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba communities respectively.

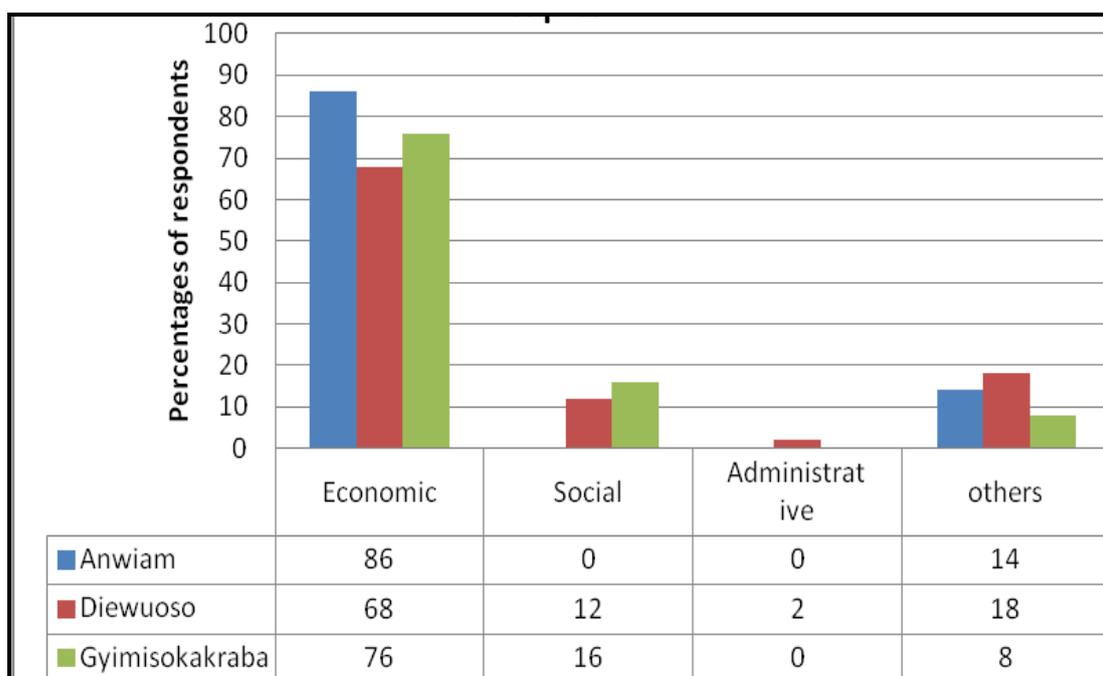


Figure 4.6: Activities Undertaken by Respondents who commute to Obuasi

Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

The study revealed, on the other hand that because of the various linkages existing between the rural communities and Goaso in the Asunafo North Municipality, the rural dwellers normally commute to Goaso to undertake their activities daily, weekly or occasionally. The study further discovered that greater percentages of the respondents, 70 each from the Ayumso and Fawohoyeden communities, are drawn to the municipal capital at least once every week for a form of a transaction or another. Other respondents constituting 24 percent from Ayumso rather indicated that they access the municipal capital on a daily basis and cited that this is possible because of the community's proximity to Goaso. There are some that constitute about 32 percent from Akrodie community and 28 percent from fawohoyeden community that however indicated that they seldom visit Goaso, thus once every two weeks, because of the distance they have to cover to get there.

Table 4.11: Frequency of visit to Goaso Township

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Daily	%	Weekly	%	Seldom	%	Total
Asunafo North	Ayumso	12	24	35	70	3	6	50
	Fawohoyeden	1	2	35	70	14	28	50
	Akrodie	3	6	31	62	16	32	50
Total		16	10.7	101	67.3	33	22	150

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

Among other activities that take the rural dwellers to Goaso in the Asunafo North, some were identified broadly as Economic, Social and the like. The study discovered that the rural dwellers are most often pulled to Goaso to transact activities that are economic related. The Akrodie, Fawohoyeden and Ayumso communities gave credence to this when percentages like 88, 82 and 76 respondents respectively, all indicated that they frequent to the capital because of their desire to undertake economic activities of a kind. Others which include 22 percent from Ayumso community and 10 percent from Akrodie community indicated, other reasons as a place where they access transport to other areas when they are embarking on any other journeys. Only a marginal portion from all the three communities did indicate that they are rather drawn by Social activities or family ties.

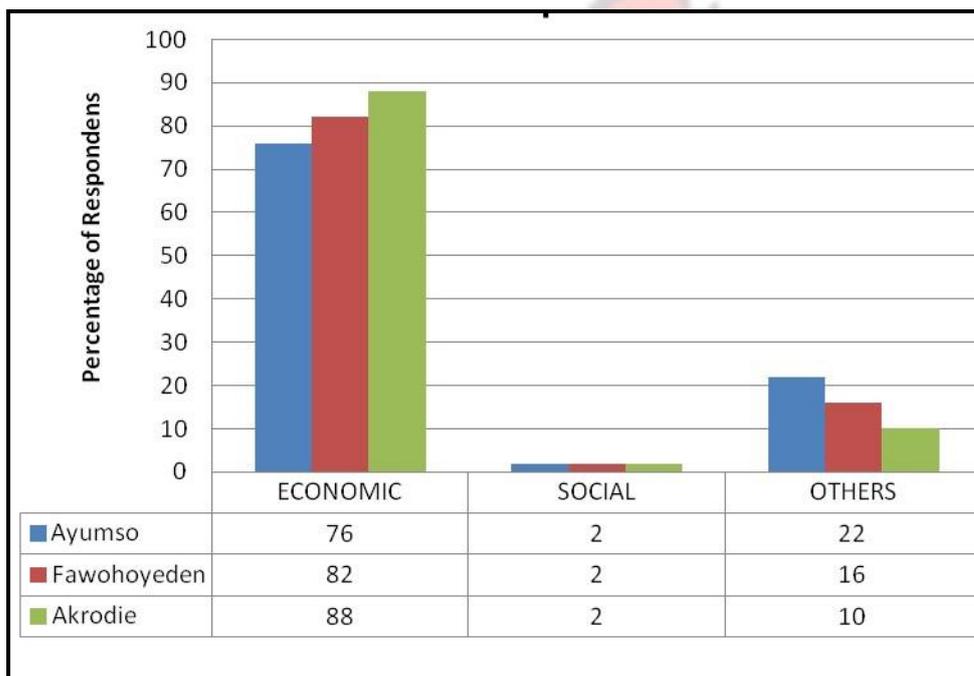


Figure 4.7: Activities undertaken by the Rural communities at Goaso Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.9 Motivation to Commute to the Municipal Capital by rural communities It was revealed from the study that at one point to another all the respondents are motivated by something to embark on such trips to the municipal capital, Table 4.12 indicated that the major motivating factor that drives a chunk of the respondents from all the various communities was availability in terms of the very things that take them to the capital. They gave indication as the availability in the sense of the buyers to purchase their farm produce they take to the market to sell, and the availability of commodities they intend buying from there amongst a host of other economic services accessed from Obuasi. According to Table

4.12 respondents who constituted about 42 percent from Anwiam, 74 percent from Diewuoso and still 88 percent from Gyimisokakraba all cited availability in terms of products they purchase from the capital as the motivating factor behind the interaction they have with the Municipal Capital. Relatively, 34 percent of respondents from Anwiam indicated that they are primarily motivated by the proximity of their community to Obuasi capital.

Table 4.12: Reasons why respondents travel to Obuasi and Goaso for such activities and services

Name of community	Availability	%	Affordability	%	Better quality	%	Proximity	%	Total
Anwiam	21	42	7	14	5	10	17	34	50
Diewuoso	37	74	10	20	0	0	3	6	50
Gyimisokakraba	44	88	4	8	0	0	2	4	50
Total	102	68	21	14	5	3.3	22	14.7	150
Name of community	Availability	%	Affordability	%	Better quality	%	Proximity	%	Total
Ayumso	29	58	5	10	0	0	16	32	50
Fawohoyeden	41	82	3	6	0	0	6	12	50
Akrodie	45	90	3	6	2	4	0	0	50
Total	115	76.7	11	7.3	2	1.3	22	14.7	150

Source: Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

Although, very few and constituted only 7.3 percent of all the respondents from the three communities indicated that they are aware of an alternative town where they can access the services they do access, they are still motivated by the indication above to consider Obuasi capital other than elsewhere. They again added that sometimes the price differentials and convenience they enjoy from the Municipal capital makes the capital a preferred destination to the alternative centres.

Relatively, in the Asunafo North Municipality, the study revealed that respondents that commute to Goaso to undertake various forms of activities are motivated by some drivers such as the availability of the services to be accessed, its affordability, the quality of services to be accessed and proximity. A greater proportion of 45 respondents representing 90 percent only from Akrodie community, together with 82 percent respondents from Fawohoyeden and 58 percent of respondents from Ayumso, all indicated that the services they most often want to access are rather available at the municipal capital. Only about 32 percent of respondents from Ayumso community and 12 percent from Fawohoyeden indicated proximity as a motivating factor and this is as result of the relative proximity of these communities to the Goaso Township.

The respondents further indicated that though there are instances where they could access the services they desire to access at the Mim Township but the drivers indicated above make the Municipal capital to be preferred to that alternative town.

4.10 Challenges Involved in the Interaction

Respondents from all the three communities constituting 86 percent of the total with 34 respondents from Anwiam, 46 respondents from Diewuoso, and 49 respondents from Gyimisokakraba did indicate that there are varied degrees of challenges surrounding their interaction with the Municipal Capital. Such challenges range from poor road network, high lorry fares, difficulty in accessing vehicles and others. From Table 4.13, a percentage as higher as 80.4 of respondents from Diewuoso community did indicate that poor road linking the Municipal capital from their community is a major challenge. This however makes the few available buses that ply that stretch of road charge relatively higher fares which would not have been so if the roads were to be good. On the challenge of difficulty in accessing vehicles, 22 respondents representing 44.9 percent from Gyimisokakraba conceded that as a challenge. The poor nature of the road linking Gyimisokakraba community to Goaso most often deter drivers from plying on that route as often as it should be to carry the rural folks. The few drivers plying on that route, however, do so only to charge relatively higher fares than what is the normal.

Table 4.13: Challenges Obuasi and Goaso rural dwellers faced in commuting

Municipality	Name of community	Poor road network	%	High lorry fares	%	Difficulty in getting vehicles	%	Other	%	Total	%
Obuasi Municipality	Anwiam	17	48.6	8	22.9	3	8.6	7	20	35	26.9
	Diewuoso	37	80.4	7	15.2	2	4.3	0	0	46	35.4
	Gyimisokakraba								1		37.7
Total	Total	68	52.3	28	21.5	22	45	0		49	
Name of Municipality	Name of community	Poor road network	%	High lorry fares	%	Difficulty in accessing vehicles	%	Other	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	4	18.2	9	40.9	9	40.9	0	0	22	23.4
	Fawohoyeden	10	34.5	13	44.8	5	17.2	1	3.4	29	30.85
	Akrodie	16	37.2	16	37.2	9	20.9	2	4.7	43	45.74
Total		30	31.9	38	40.4	23	24.5	3	3.2	94	100

Source: Obuasi and Asunafo North Municipalities Field Survey, 2014

In the Asunafo North Municipality, the kind of interaction existing between the rural communities and Goaso does not come without challenges. Respondents from the three

communities indicated the various levels of challenges they face in commuting to the municipal capital before they can access those services they hope to benefit from. Respondents totaling 94 from all the three communities with 22 representing 44 percent from Ayumso, 29, also representing 58 percent from Fawohoyeden and 43, representing 86 percent citing challenges like high lorry fares, poor road network, difficulty in accessing vehicles to transport them and others. As could be inferred, Table 4.13 gives account of respondents from all the three communities facing the challenge of high lorry fares. As an example, about 40 percent of respondents from Ayumso, 44.8 percent from Fawohoyeden and 37.2 percent agreed to that challenge. There are however respondents constituting 34.5 percent from Fawohoyeden and 37.2 percent from Akrodie also citing poor road network as a challenge. These challenges, as they indicated are hampering the smooth flow of interaction with the Municipal capital which is Goaso.

Direction of Flow and Average Time to commute to the Municipal Capital

The study discovered in the Obuasi Municipality that looking at the nature of interaction that exist between rural communities and Obuasi, the direction of flow from all the three communities were toward Obuasi, the capital, than the other rural communities they are surrounded by. The pulling factors were discovered as the level of infrastructure and the services available at the municipal capital whereas the pushing factors from these communities have been the lack of infrastructure, the desire to market their produce and to access some higher order services by the rural folks that the Municipal capital alone offer by virtue of its function as a Municipal capital.

Table 4.14: Time of flow of interaction between Obuasi and rural communities

Name of community	Before 6:00am	%	6:00am - 8:00am	%	8:00am- 12:00 noon	%	4:00pm- 6:00pm	%	Total
Anwiam	3	6	21	42	21	42	5	10	50
Diewuoso	1	2	31	62	18	36	0	0	50
Gyimisokakraba	7	14	32	64	11	22	0	0	50
Total	11	7.3	84	56	50	33	5	3.3	150

Source; Obuasi Municipality Field Survey, 2014

According to the study a higher density of flow happens between 6:00am and 8:00am with Gyimisokakraba community recording 64 percent, Diewuoso and Anwiam communities also recording 62 and 42 percentages respectively. They do so with the intention of returning on time before night fall. However, about 42 respondents also from Anwiam community commute to the capital between 8:00am and 12:00 noon, and this is as a result of the proximity of that community to the municipal capital. Again, because it takes about

76 percent of the respondents from Awiam relatively less than twenty (20) minutes waiting time to access vehicles to the capital and averagely less than thirty (30) minutes of time spent on the road, they are still able to commute to the capital for their transaction and return before night fall. All the respondents of Gyimisokakraba unlike those of Anwiam, spend averagely between one hour and two hours commuting by road before they can get to the municipal capital and therefore prefer to embark on such trips early morning.

It was discovered from the study that the pattern and the direction of flow of the interaction between the rural communities and the Municipal capital have always been toward the latter. Respondents from all the three communities indicated that they always aim at the municipal capital for activities like the marketing of their farm produce, the purchases of other farm inputs, accessing health care and the like, which cannot be accessed in their nearby communities. They further gave an indication of the time intervals usually such journeys are embarked on. It is only nine respondents, representing 18 percent from Akrodie that gave an indication of usually commuting to the capital before 6:00am, and this is because of the community's relative distance farther away from the Municipal capital, and therefore set off early from their community to get to the capital early for their transactions.

The study revealed that all the return trips the respondents embark on are in the morning and usually before 12:00 noon but the varied time differential such journeys are embarked on are affected by the relative distance of the communities from the capital as seen in Table 4.15. Respondents from Akrodie and Fawohoyeden communities had their highest densities 68 percent and 58 percent respectively commuting between 6:00am and 8:00am, whereas respondents from Ayumso community that is relatively closer had its highest density of 60 percent commuting between 8:00am and 12:00 noon.

Table 4.15: Time interval of interaction flow between Goaso and rural communities

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Before 6:00am	%	6:00am-8:00am	%	8:00am-12:00 noon	%	Total
Asunafo North	Ayumso	0	0	20	40	30	60	50
	Fawohoyeden	0	0	29	58	21	42	50
	Akrodie	9	18	34	68	7	14	50
Total		9	6	83	55.3	58	38.7	150

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

In the Asunafo North Municipality however, the study discovered that respondents from the various communities had different waiting times before vehicles are accessed to the

Municipal capital. Respondents, 21 in number, from the Ayumso community especially and constitute 42 percent indicated that they are able to access vehicles under 10 minutes of waiting time. There are also other respondents constituting 36 percent from Akrodie especially who can spend between 30 minutes and one hour before they can access vehicles to the municipal capital.

According to Table 4.16, averagely, 34 respondents representing 68 percent did indicate that they sometimes spend less than 30 minutes while commuting to Goaso. Respondents who constituted 90 percent from Fawohoyeden community also indicated that they spend averagely between 30 minutes and one hour by road before they could access the Goaso Township. About 62 percent of the respondents from Akrodie community rather painted a picture that puts these respondents also spending averagely between one hour and two hours by road before they can access the municipal capital. This implies that rural dwellers waste so much time in terms of waiting time before vehicles are accessed to the capital, and spend relatively longer time on the road because of the poor road network to communities like Fawohoyeden and Akrodie from the Municipal capital.

Table 4.16: Average time spent on road to Goaso by respondents

Name of Municipality	Name of community	less than 30mins	%	30mins-1hr	%	1hr - 2hrs	%	Total
Asunafo North	Ayumso	34	68	16	32	0	0	50
	Fawohoyeden	1	2	45	90	4	8	50
	Akrodie	0	0	19	38	31	62	50
Total		35	23.3	80	53.3	35	23.3	150

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.11 Effects of Interaction

4.11.1 Effects of the Health Services on Rural Communities

Greater percentages of the respondents from all the three communities who access health care at the Municipal health facility located in the capital indeed indicated that the facility has been helpful. Respondents constituting 85.7 percent from Ayumso, 88.2 percent from Fawohoyeden and 87.1 percent from Akrodie all indicated that the level of benefit they have derived from the health facility has been helpful. Only 2 respondents, each from Ayumso and Fawohoyeden could indicate that the facility has not been that beneficial to them.

Table 4.17: Level of benefit derived from Goaso's Health Facility

Name of Municipality	Name of community	Very helpful	%	Helpful	%	Not helpful	%	Total	%
Asunafo North	Ayumso	3	8.5	30	85.7	2	5.7	35	35
	Fawohoyeden	2	5.8	30	88.2	2	5.9	34	34
	Akrodie	0	0	27	87.1	4	12.9	31	31
Total		5	5	87	87	8	8	100	100

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.12 Effects of Educational Services on Rural Communities

The municipal capital is expected to act as a centre that provides a kind of training that should be helpful to majority of the rural population. According to the study, respondents on whether or not the municipal capital has been of any benefit to them in that wise, 19 respondents representing 38 percent from Ayumso, 11 respondents also representing 22 percent from Fawohoyeden and 14 respondents representing 28 percent cited that capital has been helpful in providing that training. These respondents were individuals whom have been beneficiaries trainings by the Business Advisory Centre located in the capital especially.

Table 4.18: Benefits derived from training offered by Goaso Township

Name of community	Very helpful	%	Helpful	%	Not helpful	%	Don't know	%	Total
Ayumso	1	2	19	38	10	20	20	40	50
Fawohoyeden	1	2	11	22	18	36	20	40	50
Akrodie	0	0	14	28	12	24	24	48	50
Total	2	1.3	44	29.3	40	26.7	64	42.7	150

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.13 Effects of the Agro-Processing Services on Rural Communities

On the benefits derived from the Agro-Processing plants located at the capital, 62 respondents in all from all the three communities sampled; Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie, who have accessed the processing plants at one point in time or another, indicated that the processing plants have been of benefit to them further rated that level of benefits they derive. According to the study, higher percentages of the respondents; 69.6, 81.8 and 82.4 from Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie respectively all indicated simply that it has been beneficial. There were others also constituting 21.7 percent from Ayumso, 13.6 percent from Fawohoyeden and 11.8 percent from Akrodie whom when rating the level of such benefit indicated that it has indeed been very beneficial. Only a few could not rate the level of benefit they derive from the processing plants. This implies that the Agro-

processing plants have in a way been useful to the rural population and improving the livelihood of those who have been patronizing them as seen in Figure

4.8.

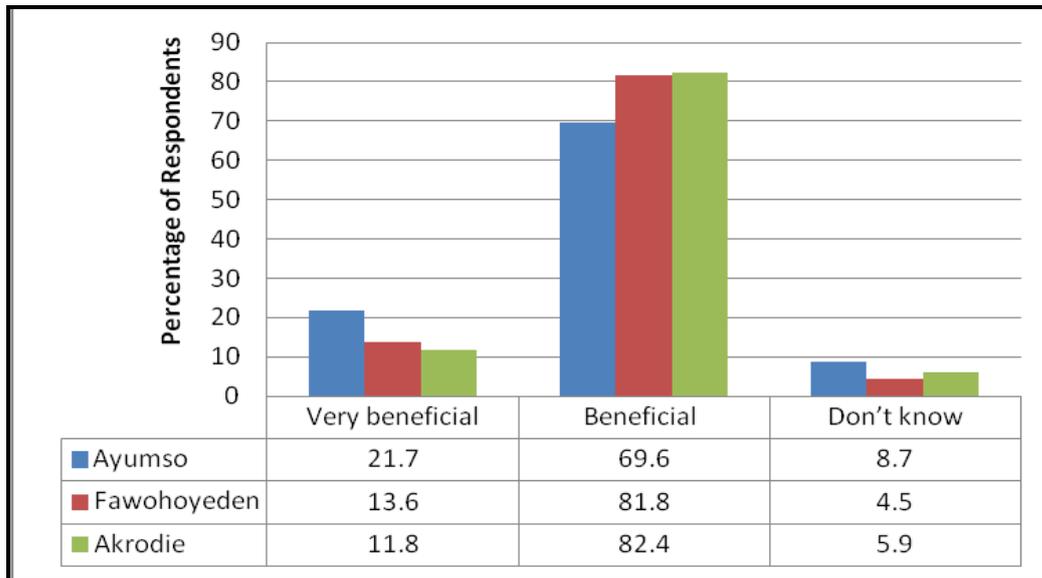


Figure 4.8: Level of benefits derived from Agro-processing plants at Goaso Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.14 Effects of the Administrative Services on Rural Communities

On the efforts that the Agriculture Directorate located at the municipal capital is doing to improve rural agriculture in terms of extension services provision and whether such efforts have improved agriculture production which is the primary occupation for a greater percentage of the respondents, all the three communities recorded an appreciable percentages of 54 respondents from Ayumso, and 52 respondents each from Fawohoyeden and Akrodie. This implies that the extension services are improving agriculture production in the rural communities, though the Agriculture Directorate is challenged in the number of the Extension officers for the Municipality.

4.15 Effects of the Financial Services on Rural Communities

The respondents who indicated that they are in transactions with some financial institutions located in the capital and have accessed credit facility from them before indicated how the funds accessed were put to use. Out of the 27 respondents who indicated that they have accessed credit before, 22 respondents representing 81.5 percent cited that they it was used to support agric production. Other respondents" constituting 78.3 percent from Fawohoyeden and 86.4 percent from Akrodie all indicated that the funds were used to

support agric production. All the respondents who invested in agriculture production with the accessed credit conceded that there has been considerable improvement in their livelihood by such transaction they had with the financial institutions located at the capital. Implying that the presence of these financial institutions has been use to rural livelihood.

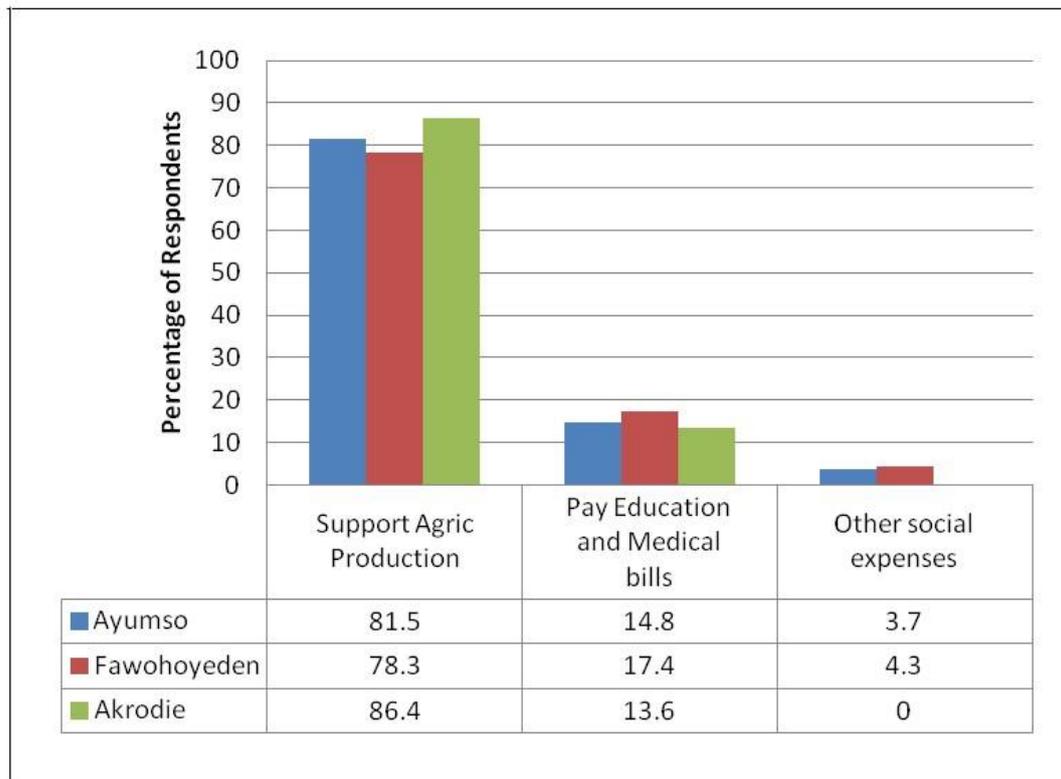


Figure 4.9: Use of credit accessed from financial Institutions

Source: Asunafo North Field Survey, 2014

4.16 Conclusion

The chapter has adequately dealt with the analyses of the various objectives the study sought to achieve. The subsequent chapter would therefore be devoted to summarizing the major findings of the study and make recommendations to guide policy formulations.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERMEDIATE CENTRES FUNCTIONING TO EFFECT RURAL DEVELOPMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights a summary of the key findings of the study bordering on the functions intermediate centres play and the effects they have on rural communities in terms of development; challenges existing between interaction of intermediate centres and rural communities, and provides recommendations on how the linkages existing between the intermediate centres on one hand and rural communities on another hand could be improved.

5.2 Findings

5.2.1 Functional roles of the intermediate centres

The study discovered that the health infrastructure available in the two intermediate centres, Obuasi and Goaso, intended to offer healthcare services on referral basis to the rural communities rather serve the day-to-day health needs of greater percentages of the respondents from all the three rural communities in the respective municipalities. Though there were health facilities available, particularly at Ayumso, Fawohoyeden and Akrodie in the Asunafo North Municipality, the facilities were still not in the best of shapes to serve the rural communities. This implies that respondents from the rural communities would have to commute to the intermediate centre all the time before they could access even the minor healthcare needs.

The study revealed that there were a level of availability of educational infrastructure like JHS and SHS in the intermediate centres offering formal education to the wards within the school going age of the rural population, and this confirms what Owusu (2005) had asserted to, on educational services offered by intermediate centres. However, only Goaso had a tertiary institution, which is the Nursing and Midwifery College of Health. Obuasi, on the other hand had no tertiary institution to serve the formal educational needs of the rural communities. This implies that the respondents from the rural communities who had their wards accessing tertiary education would have no alternative but to travel beyond Obuasi as an intermediate centre for that purpose.

It was again discovered that the presence of market infrastructure at the intermediate centres was helping in its economic function. However, the intermediate centres, expected to serve as the agro-processing points for the rural communities by the availability of basic agro-processing plants had very fewer serving that function. Greater percentages of respondents from the rural communities were not even aware of the few processing plants in existence in the intermediate centre. The implication is that a greater percentage of the respondents in the rural communities are not benefiting from that intended function expected to be played by the intermediate centre.

The study found out that though there was availability of certain administrative infrastructure, their services offered were yet to be benefited fully by the rural communities. The Municipal Assemblies were not doing much to support agriculture which is the primary occupation of greater percentages of the respondents. It was again discovered that the extension services offered the respondents at the rural communities in the respective municipalities were on the lower side. The striking Extension officer to farmer ratio was 1:1500 for Obuasi Municipality and 1:1350 for the Asunafo North Municipality according to their respective Municipal Agriculture Directorates, against the Food and Agriculture Organization's expected ratio of 1:500. This implies that the expected output or yield that would have accrued to farmers if they had had access to extension services would have increased.

The study revealed the concentration of financial institutions at the various intermediate centres; Obuasi and Goaso and offering varied financial services as an expected function of an intermediate centre (Tacoli, 2004), but only small percentages of respondents from the rural communities who are in transactions with them could access credit. The implication is that the greater percentages that are unable to access any form of credit are also unable to expand their farm size and increase the farm yield as well.

5.2.2 Levels of interaction between the Intermediate Centres and the rural communities

The study found out that as per the health services offered by the intermediate centres to all the rural communities in the respective municipalities, there was a

strong health interaction existing between the two levels. This was depicted in the frequency with which the respondents in the rural communities had to access healthcare at the intermediate centre.

The study further discovered that there was not too strong Educational interaction existing between the intermediate centres and their respective rural communities. The informal training centre it was expected to serve was virtually non-existing and the institutions providing the formal education still had challenges with facilities available, especially the Christ the King SHS in Obuasi.

It was revealed from the study that there was a very strong Economic interaction between the intermediate centres and their rural communities in terms of access to the market centre at the former, by the rural respondents, though such interaction is challenged on the part of the rural respondents with poor road network linking the rural communities with the market centres, high lorry fares, long waiting hours to access vehicles and the relatively much longer time spent on the road transport to the capital.

There was not too strong interaction between the intermediate centres and the rural communities in terms of the Administrative services the former offers the latter since the Extension officer to farmer ratio for example, was still very high in both municipalities; 1;1500 for Obuasi and 1:350 for Goaso.

Although there was a concentration of financial institutions in the intermediate centres, but the study could not conclude that there is a strong linkage between them and the rural communities. This is because the number of respondents who were in financial dealings with them and has ever accessed credit facility was very minimal in all of the rural communities in the respective municipalities. The respondents were rather resorting to informal sources of accessing credit which called for some even exchanging their farm produce for the credit.

The study made a discovery in all that there was a very strong economic linkage and interaction between the rural communities and the intermediate centres, precisely because of the presence of market centres. By this they are strongly

motivated by availability of buyers for their produce carried to the market centre and the availability of the commodities they intend purchase from the centre. They therefore risk the challenge of poor road networks that link the rural communities to the intermediate centres, which leads to difficulty in accessing vehicles to the intermediate centres because the drivers are unwilling to ply on that routes, especially on Diewuoso and Gyimisokakraba routes, which intend leads longer waiting minutes and hours to access a vehicle, and having accessed a vehicle, the higher lorry fares and relatively increased average time spent on the road.

5.2.3 Effects of interaction on the development of the rural communities

The healthcare services offered to the rural communities by the intermediate centres has been beneficial to them. This was confirmed when, for example, out of all the respondents from the rural communities in Obuasi, 36.8 percent rated the healthcare services received as very helpful whereas more than half of the respondents also representing 56.8 percent rated it as helpful. The implication is that respondents from the rural communities are having their lives improved by the healthcare services offered by the intermediate centre. Its effects has therefore been positive them.

Though there was a measure of benefits derived by the rural communities from the educational services but only in terms of the infrastructure available providing those services and the number who patronize the services. The rural communities could not confirm that it has entirely been beneficial to them. The implication is that the effects of the educational services provided by the intermediate centres have not had entirely positive effect on the livelihood of these rural communities.

The economic services the intermediate centres offer the rural communities could not be down played. Showing from the motivation the respondents had to access the market centres in particular and the frequency with which they access the market, respondents from the rural communities in the respective municipalities confirmed that the market has had positive effect on their livelihood. But the respondents could not say same for the Agro-processing function the centre was to perform too. With exception of about 84 percent respondents from the communities in Goaso who indicated that it has been beneficial to them, the remaining respondents from the other communities concluded that they were yet to

experience any positive effect from that services expected intermediate centres are to perform.

The administrative services intended to be offered by the intermediate centres to the rural communities are yet to be imparted positively on the livelihood of the rural communities. With the weak linkage the centre has with the rural communities, the rural communities with exception a percentage of 52 from the rural communities in Goaso who had benefited from the services of an Extension Officer indicated that the service has not had any positive effect on their livelihood.

The study revealed that with the exception of the small percentages of the respondents from the various communities who had ever accessed credit facility before and had used it to expand their farm size and improving their production yield. Greater percentages had not benefited from the services of the financial institutions in the intermediate centres. The implication is that they are yet to experience the positive effect of that function that the intermediate centres are expected to perform.

5.3 Recommendations

The data collected from all the rural communities have provided the basis for these policy recommendations which when implemented will improve the livelihood of the people in the rural communities of the respective municipalities.

The Government and the Ministry of Health should take up a responsibility of providing adequate health infrastructure, and this includes stocking the health facilities with experienced healthcare practitioners in the rural communities to provide health services to the rural population, especially the minor healthcare cases. The health infrastructure at the intermediate centres could serve as it is intended to serve; referral point for cases from the rural health posts, to reduce the otherwise pressure put on the facilities at the municipal centre by the rural population.

Educational services and functions such as those offered by the Senior High Schools (SHS) and tertiary education, and those that offer informal training which tend to benefit livelihood at the rural communities by the intermediate centres should be given a boost and resources channeled in, for the smooth performance of its functions. This is necessary because since the intermediate centres are more often

the first urban place of call by the rural population before the cities, policies to provide model educational structures in the intermediate centres should be given a boost in implementation, and tertiary institutions if possible, also built to absorb the wards of school going age of the rural population thereby helping in the development of the human resource in the rural communities.

The various Municipal Assemblies should team up with the Ministry of Agriculture, and other development partners to pursue a vigorous setting up of agro-processing hubs at the intermediate centres. This is intended to also boost the processing of agriculture produce by the rural farmers and consequently improving the income of the rural population.

The Government through the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development should take adequate measures to resource and equip the various Decentralized departments within the various Municipal and District Assemblies, and monitor them function the way they ought to, to effect the necessary development within their areas of sphere. A number of Agriculture Extension Officers should be trained; adequate logistical support should also be made available for the agriculture extension services programme and duly monitored to dispense the service intended to benefit the rural population.

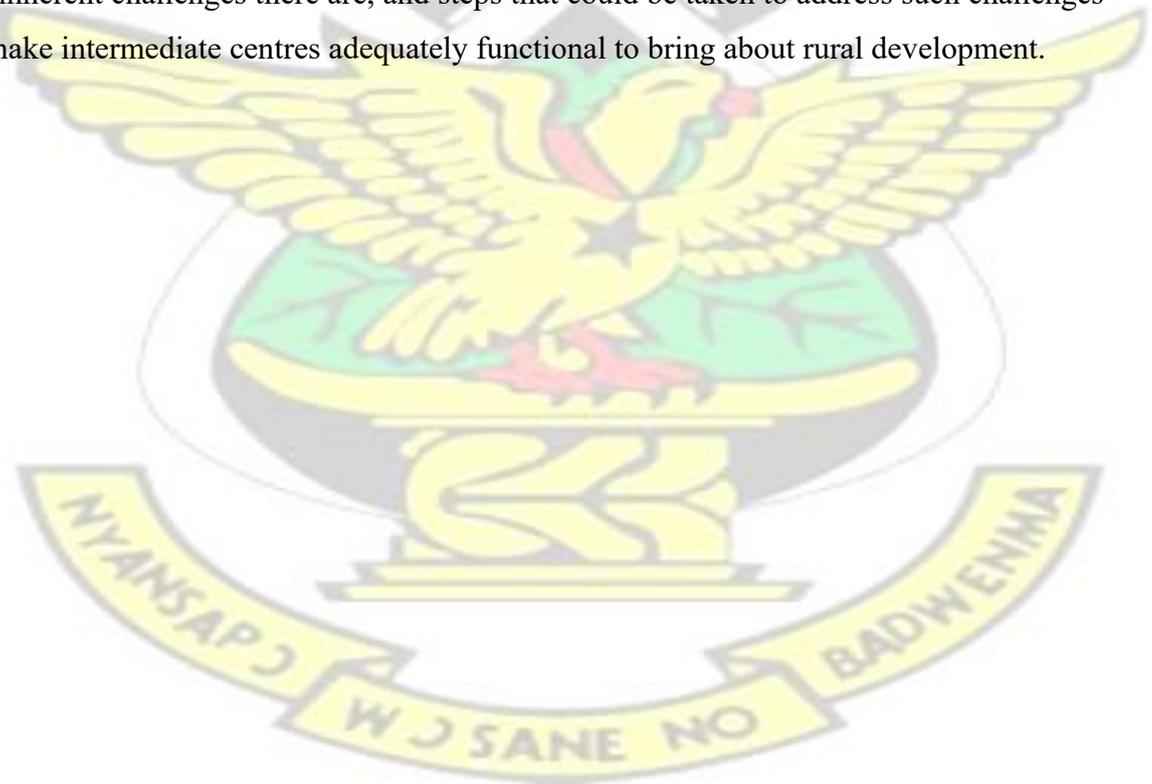
The Bank of Ghana should issue a directive to the Agriculture Development Bank, the various Rural Banks and the credit unions operating in the intermediate centres to embark on a reach out literacy programme at the various rural communities to sensitize the population at the rural communities to enhance their knowledge on how to access credit to improve their agriculture production.

Government and the various Municipal and District Assemblies should take adequate measures to address and remove all bottlenecks with regards to interaction or flow of persons or produce between the rural communities and the intermediate centres since it was found out that communities with strong linkages with their intermediate centres have their livelihood improved than communities with weak linkages. This should rather be in the area of improving road network to and fro the rural communities to boost economic development especially.

5.4 Conclusion

It is not an exaggeration to say that the battle to achieve the global society's stated objectives on development and poverty reduction will be won or lost in the rural areas of the developing countries which Ghana is inclusive. Ghana as a country in her bid to the achievement of her part of the objective, has since seems to be delineating its geographic landscape into additional sub administrative units. The creation of these sub- settlement structures is intended to facilitate development and consequently serving their rural hinterlands with their effects. Years into the practice of Ghana's decentralization policy and processes, the question aptly asked is, has such creation assisted in any way to improve the livelihood of the rural poor and thereby bringing about rural development with their effects?

In this study, a comparison has been made on two of such intermediate centres delineated to propel such development, similarities and differences of their functional roles have been drawn to see whether the intended benefits have been accrued to the rural communities, the inherent challenges there are, and steps that could be taken to address such challenges to make intermediate centres adequately functional to bring about rural development.



REFERENCES

- Asunafo North Municipal Assembly (2014). District Medium Term Development Plan; 2014-2017, MDPO-ANMA.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *The Practice of Social Research* (5th Ed). Wadsworth Publishing Company, United Kingdom
- Baker, J. and Claeson, C-F. (1990). "Introduction" in J. Baker (editor), *Small Town Africa: Studies in Rural-Urban Interaction*, The Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala, pp. 7-34
- Bajracharya, Bhishna Nanda (1995), Promoting small towns for rural development: A view from Nepal, *Asia-Pacific Population Journal*, 10(2), June 1995, pp.27-48.
- Black, K. (2009). *Business Statistics: Contemporary Decision Making*, 6th edition, Jefferson City: John Wiley and Sons.
- Bush, T. (2002). Authenticity-reliability, validity and triangulation. In M. Coleman, M. & A. R. J. Briggs. (Eds.) *Research methods in educational leadership and management* London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd. California: Sage.
- Christaller, W. (1963). Ośrodki centralne w południowych Niemczech [Central Places in Southern Germany], [in:] *Teoria ośrodków centralnych, Przegląd Zagranicznej Literatury Geograficznej*, vol. 1.
- David, M. and Sutton, C. (2004). *Social Research: The Basics*. Sage Publications Ltd, London Development Policy, Westview Press, Boulder, Colorado Economics, 55. (2) (April-June 2000), pp. 99-115.
- Douglass, M. (1998). *Rural-Urban Linkages and Poverty Alleviation: Toward a Policy Framework*, International Workshop on Rural-Urban Linkages, Curitiba, Brazil.
- Ekong, E. E. (2010). *Rural Sociology*. Uyo: Dove Educational Publishers. pp. 380-382.
- Fan, S. and Chan-Kang, C. (2003). Is small beautiful? Farm size, productivity and poverty in Asian agriculture. Plenary paper prepared for the 25th International Conference of Agricultural Economists, 17 July, Durban, South Africa.

- FAO (2009). Poverty in Europe. Available online at <http://www.fao.org/docs /eims/upload/263500/Poverty%20in%20Europe1.pdf> . Accessed on 26/10/2013
- Farvacque-Vitkovic Catherine. (2008) “Development of the Cities of Ghana Challenges, Priorities and Tools” Africa Region Working Paper Series Number 110. Available at the World Bank. <http://www.worldbank.org/afr/wps/index.htm>. Accessed on 23/10/13
- Friedmann, J. and Weaver, C. (1979). Territory and Function: The Evolution of Regional Planning, London: Edward Arnold.
- Gaile, G. L. (1992) “Improving Rural-Urban Linkages through Small Town Marketbased Development.” Third World Planning Review 14, pp 77- 91
- Gannon, C. and Zhi Liu (1997). “Poverty and transport”, TWU-30, World Bank, Washington DC
- Ghana Statistical Service (2002). 2000 Population and Housing Census – Special Report on 20 Largest Localities. Government of Ghana, Accra, Ghana.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2012), “2010 Population and Housing Census Report,” Government of Ghana, Accra, Ghana.
- Gilbert, A. and Gugler, J. (1992) Cities, Poverty and Development: Urbanization in the Third World (Oxford, Oxford University Press)
- Gilbert, A. and Gugler, J. (1992), “Urban and regional systems: a suitable case for treatment?” Cities, Poverty and Development (second edition), Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 224-243
- GRAL/CEDAL (1994) Villes interme´diaires vitalite´ e´conomique et acteurs sociaux. In Proble`mes d., Ame´rique Latine, no. 14, La documentation franc,aise, juillet–septembre, Paris.
- Grosse T. G. (2002). Przegląd koncepcji teoretycznych rozwoju regionalnego [The review of theoretical concepts for regional development], [in:] *Studia Regionalne i Lokalne*. 1(8), pp. 25-48.

- Grzeszczak, J. (1999). Bieguny wzrostu a formy przestrzeni spolaryzowanej [Growth poles versus forms of polarised space]. *Prace Geograficzne* nr 173. IGiPZ PAN, Continuo, Wrocław.
- Gugler, J. (ed.), (1997). *Cities in the Developing World: Issues, Theory, and Policy*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Haggblade, S., Hazell, P. and Reardon, T. (2002). „Strategies for stimulating poverty-alleviating growth in the rural non-farm economy in developing countries”, Washington D.C: International Food Policy Research Institute.
- Hansen, W. and Schulz, B. (1981). Imperialism, Dependency and Social Class. “*African Today*”. 28(3), pp.5-36.
- Hardoy, J. E. and Satterthwaite, D. (1989). *Small and Intermediate Centres, their Role in National and Regional Development in the Third World*. Hodder and Stoughton, London.
- Harriss, B. and Harriss J. (1988), “Generative or parasitic urbanism? Some observations from the recent history of a South Indian market town”, *Journal of Development Studies* 20(3), pp. 82- 101
- Higgins, B. and Savoie, D. (1997). *Regional Development Theories and their Application, Impact on Livelihoods*. New Brunswick, Transaction Publishers Limited, London: IIED.
- Holme, P. (2005) “Core-Periphery Organization of Complex Networks,” *Physical Review E*, 72(4), pp. 46 - 111
- IFAD (2009). Rural Poverty Portal. Available online at <http://www.ruralpovertyportal.org/web/guest/region/home/tags/europe>. Accessed on 13/06/13
- IFAD (2011). Achieving the MDGs: Rural Investment and Enabling Policy, Panel Discussion Paper. Available online at <http://www.ifad.org/events/gc/28/panel/e.pdf>. Accessed on 13/06/13
- Khan, F.K. and Iftikhar, A. (1991). “Urban Problems of Pakistan” A Multiplier Decomposition Technique Applied to Pakistan,” *World Development*. 27(3), pp. 521-

- Kreuger, L. W. and Neuman, W.L. (2006). *Social Work Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Applications*. Pearson Education, Boston.
- Kumekpor, T. K. B. (2002). *Research Methods and Techniques of Social Research*. Sonlife Printing Press and Services, Accra.
- Lægran, A.S. (2004). *Connecting Places: Internet Cafès as Technosocial Spaces*, PhD Thesis, Trondheim: Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU).
- Lipton, M. (1999). *Poverty Reduction in the 21st Century*. In Kochendorfer-Lucius, G. (ed) *Development Issues in the 21st Century*, German Foundation for International Development.
- Lynch, K. (2005). *Rural-urban Interaction in the Developing World*, Routledge, London and New York,
- Malizia E. E. and Feser, E. J. (1999). *Understanding Local Economic Development*. The State University of New Jersey, Center for Urban Policy Research, Rutgers, New Jersey.
- Martinussen, J. (1999). *Society, State and Market: A Guide to Competing Theories of Development*, Zed Books, London.
- McGee, T.G. and Ira M. Robinson (eds.) (2002), *The Mega-urban Regions of Southeast Asia*, UBC Press, Vancouver.
- Mellor, J.W. and Uma, J. L. (1973). "Growth Linkages of the New Food-grains Technologies," *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 28(1) pp. 188-192.
- Miller, R. L. and Brewer, J. D. (2003). *A – Z of Social Research*: SAGE Publication Limited, London.
- MLG&RD (Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development) Ghana (2012): *The Ghana Human Settlement Policy*, MLG&RD, Accra.
- Myrdal, G. (1957). *Economic Theory and Under-developed Region*. Vora and Co. Publishers Pvt Ltd., Bombay.
- Nam, V. H., Sonobe, T. & Otsuka, K. (2010), 'An Inquiry into the development process of village industries: The case of a knitwear cluster in Northern Vietnam', *Journal of Development Studies*, 46(2), pp. 312-330.

- NDPC (2012). Annual Progress Report, Government of Ghana, Accra
- O'Hagan, J.W. (2000). The Economy of Ireland: Policy and Performance of a European Region, Gill and MacMillan, Dublin (Ed.).
- Obuasi Municipal Assembly (2014). District Medium Term Development Plan; 2014-2017, MDPO-OMA.
- Owusu, G. (2005). "The Changing Views on the Role of Small Towns in Rural and Regional Development in sub-Saharan Africa." SPMA/Maney Publications, London.
- Patton, M.Q. (1980). Qualitative Evaluation Methods, Sage Publications, London.
- Pedersen, P.O. (1992). „Small towns in rural development“, in The Courier, January-February, 13(1), pp. 74-75.
- Pedersen, P.O. (1995). „The small towns agents – Their policies and strategies“, in Regional Development Dialogue, 16 (2). pp. 76-84.
- Pedersen, P.O. (2003). The Implications of National-Level Policies on the Development of Small and Intermediate Urban Centres in Eastern and Southern Africa, Institute for International Studies (IIS), Copenhagen.
- Perroux, F. (1958). "La notion de pole de croissance" (The Concept of Growth pole) Economique, Appliqué, nos. 1 and 2.
- Rauch, T., Bartels, M. and Engel, A. (2001). „Regional rural development: A regional response to rural poverty“, Published by GTZ.
- Richardson, H.W. (1981). „National urban development strategies in developing countries“, in Urban Studies, 18(8), pp. 267-283.
- Richardson, H. W. (1987). "Spatial strategies, the settlement pattern, and shelter and services policies", in Lloyd Rodwin, ed., Shelter, Settlement & Development (Winchester, Allen & Unwin), pp. 207-235.
- Rondinelli, D. (1985). Applied Methods of Regional Analysis: The Spatial Dimensions of Development Policy, Westview Press, Boulder, Colorado.

- Rondinelli, D. (1985). *Applied Methods of Regional Analysis: The Spatial Dimensions of Development*, Sage Publications, London.
- Rondinelli, D. A. (1983). *Secondary Cities in Developing Countries: Policies for Diffusing Urbanisation*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hills.
- Rondinelli, D.A. (1984). „Small towns in developing countries: Potential Centres of growth, transformation and integration“, in Kammeier, H.D. and Swan, P.J. (eds.): *Equity With Growth? Planning Perspectives for Small Towns in Developing Countries*, Bangkok: Asian Institute of Technology. pp. 10-48.
- Rronahil L. S. (1987). “ Interdependent Development“ Methune, London,.*Economics*, 55(2) (April-June 2000), pp. 99-115.
- Satterthwaite, D. (2002). *Reducing Urban Poverty: Some Lessons From Experience*, Poverty Reduction in Urban Areas Series Working Paper 11, IIED, London.
- Saunders M. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students (7th edn)*, Pearson Education Limited. England, UK. Pg 356
- Sawant, S.D. and Mhatre, S. (2000). “Urban-rural levels of living in India: trends in disparity and policy implications”, *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics*. 55(2) pp. 99 – 115.
- Shukla, V. (1992) “Rural Non-Farm Employment in India: Issues and Policy,” *Economic and Political Weekly*, 27 (28), July 11, pp. 1477-1488.
- Tacoli, C. (1998). “Rural-urban interactions: a guide to the literature”, *Environment and Urbanization*, 10(1), (April 1998), pp. 147-166
- Tacoli, C. (2003). „The links between urban and rural development“, in *Environment and Urbanization*, 15(1). 1, pp. 3-11.
- Tuerah, N. (1997). *Rural-Urban Linkages and Development: A Case Study of Northwest, Indonesia*, the University of British Columbia, Canada. pp: 43-51.
- UNCHS (Habitat), (1996). *An Urbanizing World: Global Report on Human Settlements*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

- UNDP/UNCHS (1995). Rural–urban linkages: policy guidelines for rural development, paper prepared for the 23rd Meeting of the ACC Sub-committee on Rural Development, UNESCO, Paris, 31 May–2 June 1995
- UN-HABITAT, (2008). State of the World’s Cities 2008/2009: Harmonious Cities, Earthscan: London.
- Van der Leij, Marco, J. and Sanjeev, G. (2009), “Strong Ties in a Small World,” Working Paper.
- Wandschneider, T. (2004). Small rural towns and local economic development: Evidence from two poor states in India. Paper prepared for the International Conference on Local Development, Washington, D.C., 16-18 June.
- Wanmali, S. (1992). “Rural Infrastructure, the Settlement System, and Development of the Regional Economy in Southern India” (Research Report No. 91). International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington D.C.
- Wanmali, S. (2000). “Urban-rural linkages: infrastructure and transport”, paper presented at Science in dialogue: Global dialogue at EXPO 2000, August 15-17, 2000, Hanover.
- World Bank (1990). Poverty: World Development Indicators, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- World Bank (2000). World Development Report, 1999/2000: Entering the 21st Century. The World Bank, Washington DC.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research: Design and methods. Applied Social Research Methods Series 5. Sage Publications, London.
- Yin, R.K. (1994). Case Study Research: Design and Methods (second edition), Sage Publications, London.
- Zhang, J. (2003). “Investment, Investment Efficiency, and Economic Growth in China” Journal of Asian Economics, 14(5), 713-734.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL PLANNING OFFICERS/MCDS

A. INTRODUCTION

The study is being conducted by Daniel Okity –Boamah of the Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to establish the effects that intermediate urban centres have on the Development of their adjoining rural centres. This is purely an academic exercise and any information given would not be disclosed. I therefore appeal to you to answer the following questions as candidly as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

B. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- 1) What is your Position/ Rank?
- 2) What are your responsibilities?

C. SIZE OF THE ECONOMY AND SECTORAL STRUCTURE

- 3) What Percentage of the people in the Municipality are employed only in the Municipal capital?
- 4) What percentage of the population are employed in the various sectors of the economy?
 - Formal Sector
 - Informal Sector

D. LEVEL OF INFRASTRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONAL ROLES PERFORMED

ECONOMIC SERVICES

- 5) Can you state the number of infrastructure available in the Municipality in terms of the following;
 - a. **Marketing centres**
 - b. **Agro-Processing centres,**
- 6) How many communities in the municipality does the market alone serve?
- 7) Which communities benefit from the influence of the Market?
- 8) How accessible is the market to the communities mentioned above?
- 9) Are there any major market days in this town?
- 10) How will you rate the market contribution to Agricultural Production in the rural communities? Please give reasons to your answer

11) Does the Town effectively function as the Marketing centre of the Municipality?

Please give reasons to your answer

12) Can you mention the types of the Agro-processing centres in this town?

13) Can the number of Agro-Processing centres in the town adequately serve the needs of the adjoining communities?

14) Does the level of processing plants encourage production of agric produce?

15) What other economic function does the town serve the rural communities?

E. SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

(EDUCATION)

16) How many Schools are operating in this town that also serves the rural communities?

- a. ELEMENTARY []
- b. JHS []
- c. SHS []
- d. TERTIARY []
- e. OTHERS []

17) How many of these facilities are privately owned?

(HEALTH)

18) How many health centers are there in this town that also serve as a referral point {centers} for the other rural communities?

- a. CLINIC []
- b. HOSPITAL []
- c. OTHERS []

19) In reference to the above, how many of these facilities are privately owned?

20) Are there any other institutions that offer informal education to the rural communities?

21) Which kind of informal education do they provide?

22) What benefits would you say that the presence of the social infrastructure offer the rural communities?

23) Have rural livelihood improved because of this infrastructure? Please give reasons to your answer

F. ADMINISTRATIVE INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

- 24) Which number of departments offers administrative services in this Municipality?
- 25) Which departments/sectors are they and which services do they offer the rural communities?
- 26) What are some of the Government Policies targeted at improving rural Agriculture and rural development?
- 27) How are those Government policies targeted on rural areas implemented and disseminated?
- 28) What benefits have the Administrative services been to the rural Areas/Communities?

G. FINANCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

- 29) How many financial Institutions are there in this town?
- a. Commercial Banks []
 - b. Rural Banks []
 - c. Savings and Loans []
 - d. Microfinance []
 - e. Credit Unions []
 - f. Others []
- 30) Are some located in the rural communities and how many are they?
- 31) What Services do they offer?
- 32) Do they encourage Savings and access to Loans or Credit Facilities by farmers?

H. TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICES

- 33) How will you rate the level of Technical Infrastructure available in the District; in terms of the following; please give reasons to your answer

Rate Infrastructure	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Poor	Reasons
Improved roads					
Water Supply for processing					
Electricity Supply					

- 34) Does this infrastructure extend to the rural areas or how will you rate their accessibility to the rural communities?

35) Does the level of road, water and electricity supply encourage development of small and medium industries in the rural communities?

I. INTERMEDIATE CENTRE AND THE RURAL COMMUNITIES INTERACTION

36) In what ways do the rural communities influence the development of the town?
Social, Economic, Administrative, etc.

37) In what ways does the urban centre also influence the development of the rural communities? Social, Economic, Administrative, etc

38) Any additional issues, comments, suggestions or clarifications?



**Appendix 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD A.
INTRODUCTION**

The study is being conducted by Daniel Okity –Boamah of the Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to establish the effects that intermediate urban centres have on the Development of their adjoining rural centres. This is purely an academic exercise and any information given would not be disclosed. I therefore appeal to you to answer the following questions as candidly as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

B. INSTRUCTIONS

1. Where alternatives have been provided ring or [√] tick the code number only.
2. For other questions without alternatives, write your answer in the space provided.

DISTRICT [.....]

SETTLEMENT [.....]

C. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number in household.

1. 1 - 3
2. 4 – 6
3. 7 - 9
4. 10 -12
5. 13 and above

2. Sex of Respondent

1. Male
2. Female

3. Age of respondent

1. 10-20
2. 21-30
3. 31-40
4. 41-50
5. 50 and beyond

4. Marital status: Are you now

1. Single
2. Married

3. Divorced
4. Widowed
5. What is the level of literacy you attained?

1. Never
2. Primary school
3. Middle School/ JSS
4. Secondary School
5. Tertiary
6. Other, specify

6. How many Children/dependents of school-going age do you have?

1. 1-2
2. 3- 4
3. 5- 6
4. 7 and above

7. What is your primary (main) occupation?

1. Farming
2. Foodstuff marketing
3. Artisan (e.g mason)
4. Petty trading
5. (farm) Labourer
6. Petty trading
7. Other, specify.....

8. Do you have any other occupation you engage in for which you earn some income? If Yes, Please specify.....

1. Yes 2. No

D. LEVELS OF INTERACTION

(HEALTH)

9. Do you have any healthcare centre in this locality?

1. Yes
2. No

10. If No, where do you usually access healthcare?

1. From Nearby locality
2. From District Capital

- 3. From Kumasi
- 4. Other, specify

11. Please indicate the reason for your answer;

12. Do you at certain times access healthcare in the District capital?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

13. If Yes, how often?

- 1. Very often
- 2. Often
- 3. Seldom

14. How will you rate the level of benefit derived from the District Capital's health facility?

- 1. Very helpful
- 2. Helpful
- 3. Not helpful

15. Please give reasons for your answer.....

E. EDUCATION

16. Do you have children of School-going age going to School at the District Capital?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

17. Which type of Schools do they go to in the District Capital?

- 1. Primary
- 2. JHS
- 3. SHS
- 4. Tertiary
- 5. Others, specify.....

18. Have you ever received any form of informal training/Education from the District Capital before?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

19. If Yes, what form of training/education did you receive? Please specify.....

20. Has the kind of education offered by the District capital been helpful to you?

- 1. Very Helpful
- 2. Helpful
- 3. Not Helpful
- 4. Don't Know

21. Please give reason for your answer above.....

F. ECONOMIC SERVICES

22. Does the District Capital offer a market centre for your farm produce?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

23. If Yes, how often do you access the District Capital's Market?

- 1. Very Often
- 2. Often
- 3. Seldom

2. If No, where do you usually market your farm produce?

- 1. Within this locality
- 2. Nearby locality
- 3. Kumasi
- 4. Others, specify

24. Do you usually obtain your farm inputs from the District capital?
 1. Yes 2. No
25. If Yes, Are these production assets and inputs readily available?
 1. Yes 2. No
26. If Not at the District capital, where do you obtain the production assets and inputs from?
 1. Within the locality 2. Nearby locality 3. Kumasi 4. Others, specify....
27. What else do you get from the District Capital“ Market?
 1. Manufactured commodities 2. Food Stuffs 3. Others, specify.....
28. What motivates you to trade at the District capital?
 1. Proximity to the market 2. Lower prices 3. Availability of Buyers
 4. Others, specify.....
29. Do urban traders come here to buy from you?
 1. Yes 2. No
30. If Yes, what items do they buy from you?
 1. Foodstuffs 2. Manufactured commodities 3. Others, specify.....

G. AGRO-PROCESSING SERVICES

31. Are you aware of any Agro-processing enterprise at the District capital?
 1. Yes 2. No
32. If Yes, Have you ever sold your produce to them, or have they ever bought produce from you?
 1. Yes 2. No
33. Have you personally ever taken your produce for processing at the District Capital before?
 1. Yes 2. No
34. If yes, what type of produce did you send for processing? Please rank them;
 1. Cassava []
 2. Yam []
 3. Plantain []
 4. Oil Palm []
 5. Others, Specify.....
35. How often do you access these processing enterprises in the District Capital?

1. Very Often 2. Often 3. Seldom

36. Have the Agro-processing plants at the District Capital been beneficial to this community in any way?

1. Yes 2. No

37. If Yes, How beneficial has it been to you?

1. Very beneficial 2. Beneficial 3. Don't Know

Please give reason for your answer.....

H. ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES

38. Have you ever obtained any service or input from the Municipal/District Assembly? State the nature of service.

Response	Type of service/ why not
1. Yes	
2. No	

39. Have you ever obtained any service or input from the Extension Services Division of the Municipal Agriculture Office? State the nature of service/ why not?

Response	Type of service/ why not
1. Yes	
2. No	

40. Do you think the Extension Services Division is doing enough to improve agriculture production? How/ Why?

Response	How / Why
1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Don't know (DK)	

41. Are you aware of any other service, any Department at the District capital is rendering to increase Agric production in this community?

1. Yes 2. No

42. If Yes, which department is that and what service have they been rendering?

Response

1. Department	
2. Service	

43. How will you rate the benefits derived from the administrative services to this rural community?

1. Very beneficial 2. Beneficial 3. Not beneficial

I. SOURCES OF CREDIT AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

44. Have you ever accessed credit facility?

1. Yes 2. No

45. If, Yes, what type of financial institution did you access the loan from?

1. Susu Group
2. Credit Union/ Micro Finance
3. Saving and loans
4. Rural Banks
5. Commercial banks

46. In reference to the above, where is this located?

1. In this locality
2. At the District Capital
3. In Kumasi
4. Other, specify

47. What did you use the credit facility accessed for?

1. Consumption
2. Support for Agric Production
3. Education and medical Bills
4. Social Expenses
5. Others, specify.....

48. Would you want to take any loan in the future? Please give reasons for your answer.....

1. Yes 2. No

J. SAVINGS

49. Do you save with any financial institution?

1. Yes

2. No
50. If Yes, state the type of financial institution?
 1. Susu Groups
 2. Credit Union/Micro Finance
 3. Savings and Loans
 4. Rural Bank
 5. Commercial Bank
51. Where is this financial institution located?
 1. In this locality
 2. At the District Capital
 3. In Kumasi
 4. Other, specify

K. SPATIAL INTERACTION

Motivation to go to the District capital

52. . How often do you go to the District capital?
 1. Dail
 2. Weekly
 3. Seldom
53. What activities do you undertake in the District Capital?
 1. Economic
 2. Social
 3. Administrative
 4. Other (specify).....
54. Why do you go to the District Capital for such Activities?
 1. Availability
 2. Affordability
 3. Better Quality
55. Apart from the District Capital, is there an alternative town to access these services?
 1. Yes
 2. No
56. If Yes, why do you still prefer the District capital?
 1. Price differentials
 2. Convenience
 3. Various options
 4. Prestige
57. Are there any challenges in commuting to the District Capital?
 1. Yes
 2. No
58. If Yes, what challenges do you face in commuting to the District Capital and Back?
 1. Poor road network
 2. High lorry fares

3. Difficulty in getting vehicles
4. Others, specify

L. TRIP PATTERNS BETWEEN THE INTERMEDIATE CENTRE AND THE RURAL CENTRE

59. Indicate your trip pattern and the activity that motivates you to travel at the following time.

TIME	PLACE	ACTIVITY
Before 6:00am		
6:00am -8:00am		
8:00am – 12:00 noon		
12:00pm - 4:00pm		
4:00pm - 6:00pm		
6:00pm – 8:00pm		

M. Transportation Costs (Time and Money)

61. What is the waiting time to access transportation?

1. less than 10 mins
2. 10 – 20 mins
3. 20 -30 mins
4. 30mins -1 hr

62. What is the average time spent on the road to the District Capital?

1. less than 30 mins
2. 30 mins - 1hr
3. 1hr- 2hrs
4. more than 2hrs

Appendix 3: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL AGRICULTURE DIRECTOR

A. INTRODUCTION

The study is being conducted by Daniel Okity –Boamah of the Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to establish the effects that intermediate urban centres have on the Development of their adjoining rural centres. This is purely an academic exercise and any information given would not be disclosed. I therefore appeal to you to answer the following questions as candidly as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

B. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- 1) What is your Position/ Rank?
- 2) What are your responsibilities?

C. INTERMEDIATE CENTRE AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT

- 3) Are there any Government policies being implemented in the rural areas to bring about increase in Agric produce?
- 4) If there are, what are they?
- 5) Do you offer any extension services to the rural farmers?
- 6) What type of extension services do you offer them?
- 7) How do the extension officers meet the farmers to offer those services?
- 8) Where do the Rural Farmers market their farm Produce?
- 9) Would you confirm that the market centre in this town offer the best place for the rural farmers to market their produce?
- 10) Where do the rural farmers also obtain their farm inputs for their work?
- 11) Are any of the rural Farmers into mechanized farming in the rural communities and how many are they?
- 12) What other assistance does your outfit offer the rural communities in their Agricultural development?
- 13) Are there enough processing industries to buy farm produce from the rural farmers?
- 14) In what way can you say that the market and the agro-processing centres are of importance to the development of the rural communities?
- 15) Any additional comments, suggestions and clarification? Thank you

Appendix 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS

A. INTRODUCTION

The study is being conducted by Daniel Okity –Boamah of the Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to establish the effects that intermediate urban centres have on the Development of their adjoining rural centres. This is purely an academic exercise and any information given would not be disclosed. I therefore appeal to you to answer the following questions as candidly as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

B. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- 1) What is your Position/ Rank?
- 2) What are your responsibilities?

C. LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE

- 3) Are there any rural communities within this municipality that you can confirm that do not have any educational facility? Can you name these communities please?
- 4) Where do the communities named above usually access their education?
 - a) From Nearby locality
 - b) From the Municipal capital
 - c) From the city
 - d) Others, specify
- 5) Please indicate the reason for your answer;
- 6) What percentage of the people of school-going age from the communities indicated below, can you confirm access education at the municipal capital?
 - a) Anwiam b) Diewuoso c) Gyimisokakraba
 - a) Ayumso b) Fawohoyeden c) Akrodie
- 7) How many Schools are operating in the Municipal capital that also serves the rural communities?
 - f. ELEMENTARY []
 - g. JHS []
 - h. SHS/VOTECH []
 - i. TERTIARY []
 - j. OTHERS []
- 8) How will you rate the frequency with which the rural communities access these educational facilities in the Municipal capital? Please give reasons for your answer.
 - a) Very often b) Often c) Seldom
- 9) How will you rate the level of benefit the rural communities derive from the Municipal capital's educational facilities?
 - a) Very beneficial b) Beneficial c) Not beneficial
- 10) Please can you give reasons for your answer?

- 11) Are there any forms of non-formal education (training) that the municipal capital is known to offer the rural communities, and what are they if any?
- 12) Has that kind of informal training offered by the Municipal capital been helpful to the rural communities?
- a) Very helpful b) Helpful c) Not helpful d) Don't know
- 13) Please give reason for your answer above?
- 14) Any additional comments, suggestions and clarification?

Thank you.

Appendix 5: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUNICIPAL HEALTH DIRECTORS A. INTRODUCTION

The study is being conducted by Daniel Okity –Boamah of the Department of Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology to establish the effects that intermediate urban centres have on the Development of their adjoining rural centres. This is purely an academic exercise and any information given would not be disclosed. I therefore appeal to you to answer the following questions as candidly as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

B. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- 1) What is your Position/ Rank?
- 2) What are your responsibilities?

C. LEVEL OF HEALTH INFRASTRUCTURE

- 3) How many rural communities in this municipality can you confirm do not have any healthcare facilities? Can you name these communities please?
- 4) Where do the communities named above usually access healthcare?
 - a) From Nearby locality
 - b) From the Municipal Capital
 - c) From the city
 - d) Others, specify

- 5) Please indicate the reason for your answer above;

- 6) What percentage of the population in the following rural communities can you confirm access healthcare from the Municipal capital?
 b) Anwiam b) Diewuoso c) Gyimisokakraba
 b) Ayumso b) Fawohoyeden c) Akrodie
- 7) Does the Municipal capital health facility serve as the best referral point {center} for the rural communities within the municipality? Please give reasons for your answer.
- 8) How will you rate the frequency that the rural communities access healthcare in the Municipal capital?
 a) Very often b) Often c) Seldom
- 9) How will you rate the level of benefit the rural communities derive from the Municipal Capital's health facility?
 a) Very beneficial b) beneficial c) Not beneficial
- 10) Please can you give reasons for your answer above?
- 11) What other services can you confirm that the Municipal Capital health facility offer the rural communities in this municipality?
- 12) Any additional comments, suggestions and clarification?

Thank you.

