ASSESSMENT OF STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GHANA's ASUTIFI DISTRICT – BRONG AHAFO

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DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that, this submission is my own work towards the Master of Science in Development Planning and Management and that to the best of my knowledge, it contain no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any degree of the university except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.
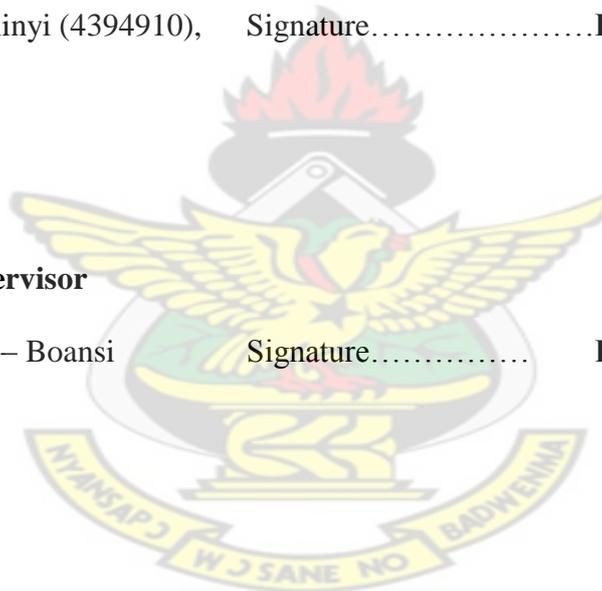
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ABSTRACT

This research assesses Poverty Alleviation Strategies and agriculture development, the case of smallholder famers in Asutifi District. The emphasis on this study is smallholder farmers who are the majority, and account for more than 60% of the total workforce in the study area and more than 50% at the national level. The group mentioned is the poorest among these in the poor countrywide as well as at district level. The formulation and implementation of Poverty Reduction Strategies need to involve different stakeholders in a given community including smallholder famers. The focus question to the study was, if Poverty Reduction Strategies do involve all stakeholders in its formulation, implementation and evaluation why this group is lagging behind?

Participatory research methodology was the important tool to find the information and the target population was used as a center for the entire process. Case study method was employed and the research was carried out in a natural setting. The research revealed that there was no strategy that was directly focusing on smallholder famers in the district. Also poor functional institutional and managerial framework at the grass root level were the main cause that hinder the formulation and implementation of strategies that will result in bring about tangible outcomes at grass root level.

It is proposed that real poverty reduction will only be sustainable when the views of the beneficiaries are incorporated into decision-making at micro level which will enhance capacity building and bring about change and diversified micro-economic activities among smallholder farmers. The foundation will make the wholly macro-economic strategies to be adequate in addressing smallholder famer needs.

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ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

BWIs — BRETTON WOOD INSTITUTIONS

CCTs — CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFERS

DA — DISTRICT ASSEMBLY

EU — EUROPEAN UNION

DMTP — DISTRICT MEDIUM TERM PLAN

ERP — ENOMIC RECOVERY PROGRAM

FAO — FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION

GSS — GHANA STATISTICAL SERVICE

GLSS5 — GHANA LIVING STANDARD SURVEY 5

GDP — GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

HIPC — HEAVILY INDEBTED POOR COUNTRIES INITIATIVES

MDG — MILLENIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

MTEF — MEDIUM TERM EXPENDITURE FRAMEWORK

MOFA — MINISTRY OF FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

PRS — POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGY

PSRP — POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGY PAPER

SIF — SOCIAL INVESTMENT FUND

US$ — UNITED STATE DOLLAR

UNDP — UNITED NATION DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

MTEF — MEDIUM TERM EXPENDITURE FRAMEWORK

NDPC — NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNNG COMMISSION

SAP — STRUCTURAL ADJUSTENT PROGRAM

CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

Historically, poverty reduction has been largely as a result of economic growth. The industrial revolution led to high economic growth and eliminated mass poverty, specifically in the developed world (World Bank, 1999). Currently, three-quarters of the world's poor live in developing countries and depend primarily on agriculture for their livelihoods and overall well-being and in less diversified economies (World Population Report, 2005). Among them, 2.1 billion live on less than US$ 2 a day and 880 million on less than US$ 1. Subsistence farming is primarily their means of livelihood (World Development Report, 2008) and generally are socially, politically and economically deprived.

In addition, it has been noted that in these developing countries, poverty persists because of many interlinked factors. According to Joint Donor Platform in Rural Development (2003) these include, but are not limited to:

i.   Policies that directly or indirectly favour productive or large-scale farmers over less productive or smallholder farmers and urban centres over rural areas.

ii.   Insufficient recognition of the role played by subsistence and reproductive labour.

iii.   Lack of commitment on the part of policy makers, donors, and implementers to ensuring gender equity in all areas of rural development, particularly in terms of property and inheritance rights and

iv.   Inadequate compensation for agricultural labour (World Bank, 2003).

The aforementioned issues merited the formation of poverty reduction strategies as a development concern for developing world. The Bretton Wood Institutions (BWIs) cites that empowering the poor at the heart of fighting poverty, and it is argued that agriculture development and poverty reduction should have a central place in the overall national growth and development agenda in the developing world (FAO, 2008). To come up with sound and result oriented plans, a comprehensive country based strategy for poverty reduction – the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) was introduced by the BWIs, to help developing countries develop and implement better strategies to fight poverty (Ashford, 2007). The approach has five core principles that poverty reduction strategies should addresses and they include:

i.   They should be country – driven, promoting national ownership of strategies through broad based participation of civil society.

ii.   Result oriented and focused on outcome that will benefit the poor.

iii.   Comprehensive in recognizing the multi-dimensional nature of poverty.

iv.   Partnership oriented, involving coordinated participation of development partners, (Government, domestic stakeholder, and external donors), and

v.   Based on long term perspective for poverty reduction.

In addition, the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers are expected to have a summary of public priority action over a three-year horizon. They are the country micro-economic framework, the overall public expenditure program (capital and recurrent) with its allocation to key areas, being key policy action, institutional reforms and targets. The

implementation of the strategy should also be linked with the annual budget circle that is the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) of a given country (Pörtner, 2002).

Ghana, like many developing countries, is mentioned to be the first African country to attain its independence and among those with the highest GDP per capita in Africa with diverse and rich resource base (Aryeetey, 2007). Its domestic economy continues to revolve around, subsistence agriculture, accounting for 35% of its GDP and employing 55% of the work force, mainly small landholders - peasant farmers (World Fact Book, 2010).

Since the end of the colonial period, Ghana has gone through several stages of its governance and development policies. It started with the euphoria of independence centered on charismatic leaders, the struggle to establish a functioning independence state, often along socialist principles, through to the transition period to unpopular tyrants, coup and military rule, and finally the hard transition to democracy (Fuso, 2009). Under the path of socialism model, a seven-year plan for national reconstruction and development was formulated, with the thought of powered by through restructuring the economy from a few primary products towards a more value added products and diversified economy under state control (Vordzorgbe, 2001). As a result, massive infrastructure projects were a predominant thinking at that time, shaped by theories such as Walt Rostow's take off model. However these projects proved ruinously expensive, and many were not completed (Fuso, 2009).

According to Appia Kubi (2007), under the military rule, the Ghanaian economic policies were veered widely from left to right. At this time, the country was neither in

favour of Marxist theory (socialism) nor in favour of free market. He argues that, there were crises in the health and education sectors. Agricultural productivity was also low coupled with deteriorating basic infrastructure.

Ghana reformed its economy again in 1980, by adopting the Economic Recovery Program (ERP) with a neo-liberal agenda and removal of subsidies dictated by the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (Khor, 2006). According to Agyeman (2007), the ERP was largely effective in restoring macroeconomic balances through 1980 – 1990, but the benefits did not seem to have accrued to those at the bottom of the pile, majority of them being the peasant farmers. He further observed that the major structure of the economy remained unchanged in terms of dependency on a few primary exports, low agricultural technology and low poverty reduction concerns. It was noted however, that the ERP sought to put much emphasis on laying the foundations for long-term growth, the parameters of which were yet to be articulated. Thus, poverty remained high at 52% in the 1990s (Vordzorgbe and Ben, 2001).

As a result, Ghana introduced democratic reforms. From the reforms, the country managed to remedy its economic malaise, and managed to benefit from the debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiatives (HIPC) in exchange for commitment on democracy, human rights and anti-corruption efforts (Ghana Economic Bulletin, 2008). This was the time when Ghana revived its development policies and witnessed the initiation of series of development plans and policy frameworks. It began with a human development strategy for Ghana in 1991, and proceeded on to the Vision 2020 in 1995 (Fosu, 2009). All these were aimed at improving the life of the poor by

involving them to solve their own problems. This led Ghana to adopt the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PSRP), which was a comprehensive strategy, and also captured the concern of all relevant stakeholders in a decentralized, democratic and consultative manner. It also embraced institutional issues in planning and plan implementation (Ghana Economic Bulletin, 2008).

The first Ghana Poverty Reduction strategy (GPRS I) and second Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) were implemented from 2002 to 2005 and 2006 to 2009 respectively. Currently there is the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda, which is to span from 2010 to 2013. The economic progress of Ghana has been reported annually in many districts, sectors and national documents including the Annual Progress Report of the GPRS I, GPRS II (National Development Planning Commission, 2010) and the 2008 Ghana Millennium Development Goal Report. From the documents, it can be observed that there is no doubt that the performance of the Ghanaian economy in the last decade has been distinctly different from that of the three decades before as it has experienced successive increases in the growth rates from 5% in 2001, to about 7.3% in 2009 (Ghana Economic Bulletin, 2010).

Certainly, continuity and consistency in planning and plan implementation could have played a major role (National Development Planning Commission, 2010). The structural change of the economy might be a contributing factor as well. This can be seen from the continuous diminishing in percentage share of agriculture sectors and a growing share of services sector to GDP as can be seen in Table 1. Between 1970s and 2006, the agricultural sector was the major contributor to the GDP but this has been taken over by the service sector.

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of GDP by Sectors from 1970- 2010

YEAR	SECTOR		
	Agriculture	Industrial	Service
1970-1986	52	12	36
1987-1995	40	14	44
1996-2000	40	27	33
2000-2006	38.8	28.8	32.9
2007- 2010*	35.6	28.3	36.1
Labour force contribution as at 2010*	**55.5**	**15.5**	**29**

Source: Compiled from- Ghana Statistical Services reports (2000 2010)
*provisional

Development reports show that, the strong persistent economic growth halved the poverty rate in Ghana. The growth halved the proportion of the population below the country's poverty line from approximately 52% at the beginning of the 1991 to 39.5% in 1999 and down to 28.6% in 2006 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008). According to Ghana Statistical Service (2011), the country has already achieved its target of attaining a middle-income country by 2015 as was scheduled in GPRS II. This makes Ghana well ahead of schedule in achieving the Millennium Development Goal 1 (MDG 1) of halving the proportion of people suffering from extreme poverty and hunger (World Bank, 2008).

In spite of this success, differences between regions and within districts remain (National Development Planning Commission, 2010). The most affected group is crop farmers who account for about 60% of those who are below the poverty line. The second hot spot is 25-30% of the workers in the informal economy (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Since independence to date, Ghana has made major progress in attainment and consolidation of growth and poverty reduction through some reforms. Due to these reforms, the country has experienced impressive gains and stable growth performance from 5% since to 7.3 in 2009 (Ghana Economic Bulletin, 2009). There was also a consistent reduction in the rate of inflation from 20% in 1994 to 9.38% in October 2010 (GSS, 2011).

Despite the macroeconomic achievements following the policy reforms in Ghana, poverty is still widespread in the country, and particularly in rural areas. This suggests that reduction in poverty is likely to be experienced mostly by only those who are close to the poverty line. The poor including farmers, however, did not experience much improvement in their standard of living because they are incapable of taking advantage of existing opportunities. They are experiencing low productivity and poorly functioning markets for agricultural outputs, inaccessibility to technologies and inputs such as, fertilizer and improved seed which would increase farm yields. Only a small proportion of farmers have access to irrigation. Land ownership and land security are regulated by complex systems that vary widely. Many farmers lack rural infrastructure and equipment for storing, processing and marketing their products. As a result, this group of population fall under food insecurity and their livelihood are more vulnerable. They have limited access to basic social services like safe water, roads that are accessible all year round, electricity and telephone services that can help them to have access to information.

In spite of the decline in GDP contribution and existing problems, agriculture still plays an important role in the socio-economic development of Ghana. It contributes to food

security, providing raw material for local industries, generating foreign exchange and providing employment and income for most of the population, hence contributing to poverty reduction (NDPC, 2010). If poverty reduction strategies captured the concerns of all relevant stakeholders in a decentralized, democratic and consultative manner, why is the poverty incidence skewed towards crop farmers?

In view of this, the study focuses on finding out whether the governments' strategies toward poverty alleviation accommodate the interests of smallholder farmers.

1.3   Research Questions

The study sought to find answers to the following research questions based on the problem statement:

1. What are the strategies in place to promote smallholder farmers in the district?
2. Who are the stakeholders in promoting the agriculture sector in the economy?
3. Who are the beneficiaries of these strategies?
4. What progress has been made so far?
5. What are the issues to be resolved in promoting small holder farmers in the district? and
6. What are the possible measures to be taken to improve upon the existing strategies?

1.4   Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study was to assess the strategies for poverty alleviation especially among smallholder farmers in Asutifi District and specifically achieve the following:

1. Establish the strategies/plans put in place to facilitate the operation of small scale holder famers in Asutifi District.
2. Find out whether stakeholders are involved in promoting the growth of the agriculture sector.
3. Evaluate the projects/programmes initiated to promote small holder famers and
4. To recommend measures in improving upon existing strategies on small farmer holders development.

1.5   Significance of the study

With an increasing understanding, appreciation, and possibly admiration of the contribution of smallholder farmers in the economy of Ghana since independence, strategies have been in place to boost the development of the sector. The success of any strategy may also depend on whether correct target groups have been involved, in this case, small holder farmers. This study is trying to come out with issues that hinder the development of the sector with focus on smallholder famers.

Most importantly the study, the literature and the outcome of the researched are going to explain the fragile nature of the sector in relation to environmental issues and economic shocks. By studying the practices and local knowledge matters in solving these

problems, the research is adding literature on how smallholder farmers perceive the strategies in place to bring about socio-economic development among the poor.

The issues found in this research will draw attention to planners and policy makers to see the need to incorporate the noted obstacles and the successes in the reformulation of strategies and plans.

1.6 Organization of the Report

The study is organized under five main chapters. The first chapters, which is the introduction deals with the background of the study, statement of the problem, rationale for the study, research questions, study objectives, significance of the study and organization of the study. The focus of chapter two is the review of literature, relevant to the research. It deals with the theoretical and practical experiences on strategies in place to alleviate poverty. The third chapter discusses the research methods employed in the study. The chapter also looks at the study design and approach, study population, sampling technique and sampling size, data collection technique and tools, data handling and analysis.

Chapter four provides information on the results and analysis of the data from the results. Chapter five which is also the final chapter is devoted to the conclusion and recommendation based on the research.

CHAPTER TWO

OVERVIEW OF POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIES AND

SMALL HOLDER FARMERS

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one presented the background information of the problem and the objectives of the study. This section of the report contains the definition of basic terms used in this research, the evolution of poverty reduction strategies, the dimension of poverty, theories guiding the research and conceptual framework, efforts in place for to alleviate poverty and its impact on smallholder farmers.

2.2 Eradicating poverty is moral and ethical imperative

According to United Nation (2010), eradication of poverty is a moral and ethical imperative, rooted in the principles governing the United Nations. To live a life free from poverty and hunger is one of the human rights and fundamental freedoms enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 25 (1) of the Declaration states that everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services. This right is further reaffirmed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (World Bank, 2001). This implied that Government and individual have obligations in poverty alleviation (Davy, 2010).

Global poverty is essentially rural. Approximately 75% of the world's poor reside in rural areas, and at current trends, the global percentage of the poor in rural areas will not fall below 50% before 2035 (Ravallion, 2000; Alderman, 2000; World Bank, (2002). Since reducing poverty is still mostly a rural development issue, and for most of the rural poor farming or farm labor is the livelihood source (World Bank, 2008). The implication is that, for poor countries, the role of agriculture in poverty reduction cannot be overemphasized.

According to FAO (2009), poverty is the principal cause of hunger and undernourishment. Therefore, it is argued that agriculture development and poverty reduction should have a central place on the overall national growth and development agenda in the developing world (FAO, 2008). Poverty is a violation of elementary absolute standards of social justice (United Nations, 2010). Social justice emphasizes core principles of non-discrimination and equality, including equal entitlement to fulfillment through exercise of civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights (ibid).

These principles necessarily give rise to a set of socio-economic priorities that direct the focus of policy to issues of vulnerability, discrimination and segregated development. Social justice requires that everyone should have a minimal standard of living, and that people living in poverty should receive assistance when they lack the means to livelihood that affirm. Poverty is multi-dimensional, extending beyond simply low levels of income (World Development Report, 2009). Similarly, rural poverty has many dimensions. Issues such as lack of opportunity, low capabilities, security and empowerment have to be addressed. Interventions that have the objective of alleviating

rural poverty will necessarily also have to be multi-dimensional in order to bring about human worth and dignity (ibid).

One articulation of the multi-dimensional nature of poverty is the Human Security Framework. The Human Security Framework is largely influenced by the works of Amartya Sen from the year 1980s (Sen, 1981). This framework has been operationalized in the World Bank Framework for action to reduce poverty (World Development Report, 2001) and it discusses the need for action in three equally important areas namely:

i. *Promoting opportunity and access.*

The key in expanding economic opportunity is to help build up their assets. There can be assets in the form of ownership of land (or access to land), infrastructure (market and road facilities), technology and financial services. Assets can also be human capabilities like education and health which have intrinsic human value and can be viewed as investments in their income generating capacity.

ii. *Security*

Enhancing security for poor people means reducing their vulnerability to such risks as ill health, economic shocks, natural disasters and helping them cope with adverse shocks when they do occur, in order for them to have functional security and

iii. *Empowerment*

Empowerment means enhancing the capacity of people to influence state institutions that affect their lives by strengthening participation in political processes. This requires removing barriers which are political, legal, and social – (from that of the people and the government) that work against improved participation of particular groups.

According to the United Nation (2006) poverty has various manifestations, including: lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods, hunger and malnutrition, ill health, limited or lack of access to education and other basic services, increased morbidity and mortality from illness, homelessness and inadequate housing, unsafe environments, and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life.

In line with the manifestation of poverty, the World Bank (2002) explains the framework for action that leads to effectively reduce poverty. The areas to be focused therefore must be complex and its scope for action must rely on the three areas – Opportunity, Empowerment and security because of their causal complementarities (see Figure 1)

In the view of the above literature, it can be argued that empowerment is all about providing ability to an individual or groups of individuals to function "beings and doings". On the other end, participation is about using the ability gained during the empowerment process, this denotes a person's opportunity and ability to generate

valuable outcomes valuable in and of itself –which will imply security to a person's well being.

Figure 1: Poverty Reduction Strategy framework

Analysis of nature of Poverty

Identifying poverty reduction objective

Definition of strategy for poverty reduction
- Macroeconomic policies
- Governance
- Sector-specific policies and programs
- Costing and funding

Implementing policies and programs

Annual review of outcomes and impact

Participatory process including actors such as:
- Central government
- Ministries and inter ministerial groups
- Parliaments /representative bodies
- The public, including the poor
- Civil society groups
- External donors and technical

OPPORTUNITY

EMPOWERMENT

SECURITY

Source: World Bank 2002

2.3 Characteristics of smallholder famers

Peasants are subsistence smallholder farmers who own not more than three hectares of land (FAO, 2002). In this study, the word peasant and smallholder farmers have been used interchangeably. The size and composition of the family is important to its output. Production is low when the family is young and vice versa (Chayanov, 1925 in Pentronella, 2005).

In order to understand who smallholder farmers are, there is a need to understand the theory of peasant, who are sometimes known as smallholder famers and why are they important to poverty policy formulation and implementation. Peasant political theory look at larger social processes within which peasant production occurs. This theory is well explained by Petronella Nyakundi in her paper "Rural Kenya's Peasantry and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper". The argument is that, there are special circumstances for peasants, and these are often misunderstood and overlooked. These special conditions must be addressed for effective policy making. This group of the population may also be involved in seasonal trade and seasonal wage labour. They own land as their means of production and this feature has set them apart from other rural groups who own only their labour, which they sell/exchange for wages. Peasant production is aimed at subsistence, or home consumption with little surplus sold to markets.

Peasants are not fully connected to the market economy as their means of production is not purchased on the market, and only a proportion of the produce is sold. These markets are also often not uniform and reflect unique circumstances in each location and may be dominated by some economic agents (Ellis, 1993). In such a system, peasant production is used mainly for subsistence and only little of their produce is exchanged in the market

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when the need arises for other manufactured goods. Peasants do not depend on the market for survival and thus can choose to participate or withdraw without severe consequences.

According to Ellis (1993), peasant production is risky and thus, peasants' choice to remain partially connected to the markets must be seen as a way to minimize risks that come with market dependence. This theory strikes a common chord with Marxian theory of production. The perception is that peasant production is located within a dominant production mode; that is capitalism, whose forces continue to diminish peasant production. Unequal distribution of assets and profits within this system creates a class system of - owners of means of production and, workers who only own their labour. Through primitive accumulation, productive resources such as land, tools, machinery and so forth, are taken away from producers and are concentrated in the hands of a few. These few form the powerful bourgeoisie, who control assets and therefore, the production process. They exploit the workers' labour by remunerations that are less than the actual value of labour. These are social relations of production (Karl Marx's, 1867 in Petronella, 2005).

Through concentration of assets and the skewed distribution of resources, capitalism causes the richer to get richer while the poor become more poorer, the concept is well analyzed by Benjamin Davy in his paper, "The poor and land: poverty, property and Planning – one world, different spaces". Davy uses Adam Smith idea of space of wealth "great property" and "great inequality" in term of inclusion and exclusion. According to Davy (2009), rich people are included in the spaces of wealth in many ways. They could be land owners or elites who know how to access valuable resources or may be able to

pay entrance fee. Space of poverty are residual spaces where the poor are exposed to great inequality, as the poor has no access to space of wealth, in which Sen and Davy term this accessibility to opportunities (Davy, 2008).

Davy (2009) explains a theoretical approach to planning with a sense of opportunities and boundaries searches for legitimate cases of excluding the poor, and for threshold limits when the poor must be included, unless planning violates fundamental values. According to Adam Smith the profit accumulated by capitalism (grate property) is reinvested back into production creating even larger enterprises while the poor are forced into a viscous cycle of survival. Policy makers and Planner need to understand both issues in order to balance the opportunities for both rich and poor (Davy, 2009).

2.4 Efforts on poverty reduction strategies and small farm holders

Almost no country has managed a rapid rise from poverty without increasing agricultural productivity (Bill and Mellinda Gates Foundation, 2008). In the 1940s through to the 1970s, countries, donors, and scientists embraced efforts to increase the crop yields of farmers in the developing world. The resulting green revolution in some areas showed both positive and negative impacts. In successful areas, the size of farm cultivated doubled and this helped to save hundreds of millions of lives. The negative impact included environmental damage and increased inequity (ibid). The failure can also be attributed to the treatment of information delivery as a matter of course by most developing countries and governments. As often happens, agricultural information is not integrated with other development programs to address the numerous related problems that face smallholder farmers. Information is thus an essential ingredient in agricultural development programs (Ozawa, 2007).

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According to Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (2008), empowering poor people, should go hand in hand with opening up the link to market for their produce, increase their capacity to produce and diversify their activities (protecting them from natural environment) by the use of science and technology, and that all these can be done through working with wide range of partners to enhance the complete agricultural value chain, and learning from the past, particularly the successes and challenges can be a base for development. It has been noted that the key initiative which aims at improving the life of peasant farmers includes the following:

i.   *Links to markets*

Farmers increase their incomes by selling what they grow, but getting crops to markets can be a formidable task in areas where transportation is arduous, infra-structure is challenging, and information about the pricing and conditions of markets are scarce. Therefore, it is argued that linking farmers to new and existing markets is critical. The value chain system should help farmers to have access to information that will support their decision-making and choice of market (Sein; 2002, Bill and Mellinda Gates Foundation, 2008).

ii.   *Farmer productivity*

A successful harvest depends upon a complex combination of factors, including quality seeds, fertilizers, irrigation systems, and soil health strategies, as well as locally relevant water and crop management practices. Empowering poor farmers to get access to improved inputs is a key feature. In addition training them and

providing support networks enable them to make better choices and improve their productivity while protecting natural resources with the consideration of the principle of indigenous knowledge (Warren, 1991, Bill and Mellinda Gates Foundation).

iii.   *Science and technology*

Exploring the development of a diverse range of crops that can thrive in different soil types and that can be resistant to drought, disease, and pests is an important initiative (Sein, 2002) These can be done by employing range of tools and techniques, from traditional breeding to the newest biotechnologies, in the search for solutions that will help small farmers (Bill and Mellinda Gates Foundation, 2008).

iv.   *Data, research, and policy analysis*

Better information enriches all efforts to improve the plight of small farmers (Vermeulen, 2010). Therefore, the need to have institutions that collect data, conduct research, and analysis policies related to agricultural development. This is critical in evaluating the impact of various approaches, getting accurate information to small farmers, and assessing the effects of national and International strategies for poverty alleviation (Vermeulen, 2010, Bill and Mellinda Gates Foundation, 2008).

Issues and problems facing smallholder famers have been identified, effort to solve the problems are in place. According to United Nation (2009), programmes aimed ostensibly at poverty reduction in developing countries, mainly focuses in the following;

i. *Microfinance*

It seeks to address the credit needs of people living in poverty. However, in terms of poverty reduction, two key questions have been raised, the first is the extent to which microfinance has made a lasting difference in bringing households out of poverty on a permanent basis, while the second, is the extent to which microfinance programmes reach the core poor and not just the better off among the poor. Evidence from Hulme and Mosley (1996), on the impact of microfinance on poverty revealed that poor households do not benefit from microfinance and that it is only non-poor borrowers who do well with microfinance and enjoy significant positive impacts.

ii. *Conditional cash transfers (CCTs)*

This is used as a means of addressing aspects of poverty where cash grants are provided to poor and disadvantaged people on condition that they make specific commitments, such as sending their children to school and having regular health check-ups (Unites Nation, 2009). These transfers are therefore often designed as a mix of cash transfers and service provision, emphasizing strong linkages with the labour market and intra-household responsibilities. Studies have shown that, conditional cash transfers improve outcomes related to health, nutrition and

education. For example education enrolment in Mexico has been significant (de Brauw and Hoddinott, 2008). Evaluations of the cash-for-relief programme in Ethiopia which addressed crop failures, also established that beneficiaries used the cash grand to pay off debts, restore land productivity and help regenerate livelihoods (Standing, 2007).

iii.   *Unconditional and universal transfer*

These are the grants offered to limit acute poverty and hardship in emergency situations. These programmes are typically implemented together with material-based (in kind) aid, such as food aid, but go beyond the immediate consumption goals of commodity transfers to enhancing livelihoods and longer term incomes (United Nation, 2009) . The cash-for-relief programme in Ethiopia, in response to insufficient rainfall in 2002 and 2003, provided small cash grants over a period of three to six months directly to the most vulnerable households (ibid). Evaluations of this project found that the cash grants were successful in regenerating the livelihoods of people living in affected communities. It was observed that the grants had been used not only for consumption, but also for reducing debts and improving land productivity. According to Brandstetter, (2004), the programme also restored basic infrastructure, thereby ensuring the sustainability of the affected communities.

There are strong links between poverty and lack of property, as people living in poverty not only lack income, but are also without the assets needed to generate income. Land is a critical asset, particularly for the rural poor, as it provides a means of livelihood, and the landless are often among the world's poorest (Markelova, 2007) In India, for example, over 30% of the landless and near landless live in poverty, (Meinzen-Dick, Kameri-Mbote and Markelova, 2007).

The links between poverty and lack of property often prompt calls for land reforms, with transfers from large landlords to the landless. Such land reforms, however, require commitment by the State to withstand resistance from powerful landed owners. Land can also be used as collateral for loans for investment, or sold to raise capital for investment in an income generating activity (de Soto, 2000). According to de Soto, (2000), the world's poor are sitting on a huge amount of potential capital, but are hindered by bureaucracies. For example, in Haiti, individuals must take 176 bureaucratic steps over an average of 19 years to own land legally. Thus, de Soto (2000) has argued that assigning property rights would give people living in poverty access to credit, thereby ending the capitalist apartheid allegedly so prevalent in the developing world.

However, formalizing land titles suffers from impediments similar to those experienced along the microfinance route to poverty reduction. In the absence of an expanding economy, new landowners will not be able to expand their capabilities (United Nations, 2009). They often lack the education and

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entrepreneurial skills needed to undertake business activities with borrowed money. They are risk-averse and more worried about failing and hence losing their asset (land) used as collateral (ibid).

v. Governance reforms and poverty

Since the late 1990s, government reforms have been taken as one of the strategy and precondition for poverty reduction (Alan, 2002).Thus, the dominant "good governance" paradigm identifies a series of capabilities necessary for a market-friendly State (ibid). These include capabilities to protect stable property rights, enforce the rule of law, effectively implement anti-corruption policies and achieve government accountability (United Nation, 2009). Many of these capabilities are clearly desirable as ends in themselves. But in the good governance framework, these capabilities are identified as preconditions for sustained growth, as they are supposed to ensure that markets will be efficient and less subject to market failures. Additionally, pro-poor good governance reforms are supposed to enhance the scale and efficiency of service delivery to people living in poverty (ibid).

The East Asian experience perhaps is the most successful example of rapid poverty reduction in the modern era. Thirty years ago, poverty incidence looked very different. Broad-based economic growth in populous countries like China and Indonesia has substantially reduced rates of absolute poverty. In Indonesia, for example, the fraction of the population below the poverty line fell from 58% to 11% between 1972 and 2002, and in Brazil the fraction fell from 50% to 13% between 1970 and 2000 (World Bank 2006).

Similarly, China boasts reductions in rural poverty from 31% to 7% between 1988 and 2005, a decrease by 195 million people. These changes have left a growing concentration of world poverty in slow-growth areas of South Asia and Africa. This confirms that countries with a more equal distribution of assets and income can grow faster than countries with a higher degree of inequality (United Nation, 2003). Higher productivity among smallholders, significant human capital investments, scale economies linked to larger domestic markets and greater political stability are just some of the factors suggested to account for poverty alleviation in East Asia, the fact that greater equality coincided with faster growth (Khan, 2007).

In Africa, much of the failure can be attributed to the adapted transformation approach to agriculture which is characterized by the introduction of a wide variety of large scale farming and processing technologies (Ozawa, 2007). It is however gratifying to note that there is now a shift in emphasis from the big scale transformation approach to the small scale improvement strategy approach which is attuned to African age-long farm practice (Ozawa, 2007). According to Ozawa (2007), experience from Nigeria shows that smallholder farmers seldom feel the impact of agricultural innovations either because they have no access to such vital information or because it is poorly disseminated. The information provided is exclusively focused on policy makers, researchers, and those who manage policy decisions with scant attention paid to the information needs of the targeted beneficiaries of the policy decisions.

2.5 Small farm holder in Malawi - a success story of the Voucher system

Malawi, like other sub-Saharan African countries, has tried government intervention before, sometimes with considerable success. But the 1980s witnessed the drive for

structural reform, which led to a sharp withdrawal of government from the agricultural sector, ended most of the support programmes (Mwale, 2010). When they were tried in the late 1990s, they tended to be too small in scale and too short-lived to make a difference. The policy of the Malawian Government had always been to increase productivity but it failed in the past because of inadequate commitment and a shortage of leadership (Mwale, 2010). With renewed interest, however, an increased agricultural productivity was seen as an engine of wider growth.

Malawi adopted several programmes to promote the socio-economic and political life of the poor. Over 80% of the population in Malawi derives their livelihoods from agriculture with majority being subsistence farmers, with an average farm size of less than half a hectare dependent on rain (Kondweran, 2009). The adoption of the agriculture subsididy named the Voucher System has made Malawi to be pioneers of Green Revolution in Africa, widely acclaimed as champion of the smallholder famer (best practice) (Mwale, 2010) in defiance of the ideological inclinations of international donors and financial institutions (Kondweran, 2009). About half of the country's subsistence farmers receive vouchers which provide deep discounts on high quality maize seeds and fertilizer. Aided by a succession of favorable rainy seasons, the strategy has brought about a dramatic recovery to poor famers. Bumper harvests enabled Malawi to navigate a path through the international food and fuel price crisis of 2008 resulting in very few households requiring food aid in the mentioned period (ibid).

The vouchers system does reduce the cost of fertilizer and hybrid seed by two-thirds of the actual price. To encourage the production of cash crops, the smallholder famers have the choice of tobacco or maize fertilizer, and after the first year nitrogen-fixing legume

seeds are added to the choice as participants are encouraged to consider the fertility of their soil with the help from extension officer from both public and private sectors.

The selection of beneficiaries involves officials from different segment of the community, key range from the local government, village chiefs, police and religious leaders (Mwale, 2010).

Village meeting are convened at which the poorest households are identified by the villagers themselves, unlike earlier schemes where a package of seed and fertilizer was given away. The farmers contribute a certain amount of the cost themselves. Farmers are instructed in new sowing techniques, and local radio broadcasts are used to remind them of when to sow and when to apply fertilizer. The government now starts distributing vouchers for pesticides to improve the quality of stored maize, as well as building communal silos and regional storage depots (Kondweran, 2009).

Each year, about a third of those who have received support graduate from the programme to make room for others Currently, about half of Malawi's farmers have benefited. The scheme, initially viewed with skepticism by external donors, now has widespread support from the European Union, and World Bank, and the Department for International Development gives logistical help (Mwale, 2010).

As a result Malawi has been noted to be one of the few countries to have surpassed the agreement reached among ministers at the 2003 Maputo African heads of State and government conference. The agreement involves a minimum budget allocation of 10 per cent for agriculture, by allocating as much as 16% to the sector (ibid). The government

has managed to increase budget allocation to agriculture from 6% to 11% in 2002/2003 to 2010/11 respectively, continuing a rare record of commitment on this scale in Africa (Kondweran, 2009)

2.6 Small holder farmers and modernized agriculture in Ghana

Ghana has adopted pro – poor strategies to ensure equitable distribution of resources among the population. This has come into being after detailed analysis of the country situation and consultative process by involving different stakeholders. The Agriculture sector has been recognized as a key sector to rural development and poverty reduction. Numbers of Development agenda and sector targets are clearly outlined in three key strategic documents of Ghana: the Vision 2020, Ghana Shared Growth and the Food and Agriculture Development Policy (FASDEP) which includes all NEPAD agreement that seeks to promote agriculture led growth.

The goal of the Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Development Strategy (AAGDS) is to increase agricultural growth from 4% to 6% over the period, 2001−2010.The two areas of focus are: the promotion of agricultural intensification in high potential areas using small-scale irrigation and modern inputs and development of appropriate policy, research and dissemination of technologies to enhance adoption of improved methods of production, trade-led policies and export diversification (MOFA, 2009).

Based on these general directions, the strategic areas of the AAGDS in the promotion of selected products through improved access to markets, development and improved access to technology for sustainable natural resource management, improved access to agricultural financial services, improved rural infrastructure, and, enhanced human

resource and institutional capacity. The strategies were subsequently translated in Poverty Reduction papers of the country (MOFA, 2009, National Development Planning Commission, 2010).

According to Ghana's first PRSP prepared between 2002 and 2005, the agricultural growth rate was to increase from 4.1% in 2002 to 4.8% in 2004. The medium term priority for the agriculture sector was to modernize the sector as an integral part of rural development. This implied creating the necessary environment to develop rural agribusiness enterprises (farming and value addition). In addition to actions to enhance research, extension, credit, market access and production infrastructure (such as irrigation and roads), agro-processing enterprises were to be established to enhance value addition (MOFA, 2009).

Farmer organizations were to be developed and supported to enhance their capacity to access and deliver services to members. The preparation of GPRSII (2006–2009) was guided by practical lessons and experiences drawn from the preparation and implementation of GPRSI. The second GPRS places emphasis on growth-inducing policies and programs for wealth creation and poverty reduction. The agriculture sector goals as specified in the GPRSII were to achieve an agricultural growth rate of 6–8% per annum over the next 4 years with crops and livestock leading the growth at an average annual growth rate of 6%; forestry logging, and fisheries growing at 5% per year and the cocoa sub-sector remaining robust in support the of other sectors. In the short-term, the strategy for agriculture-led growth was to promote export-led growth by diversifying the country's agriculture from the traditional cocoa and timber to especially cereals and

other cash crops, including mangoes, papaya, pineapples, cashew nuts and vegetables (MOFA, 2009)

Intervention areas for modernizing agriculture as specified in the GPRS II were: reform of land acquisition and property rights, accelerating provision of irrigation infrastructure, enhancing access to credit and inputs for agriculture, promoting selective crop development, improving access to mechanized agriculture, increasing access to extension services, provision of infrastructure for aquaculture and restoration of degraded environment (ibid). However, growth in agriculture alone cannot bring about the well being of people. Combined growth across agricultural and non-agricultural sectors pointed a necessary engine for Ghana to achieve its stated goal of a better Ghana.
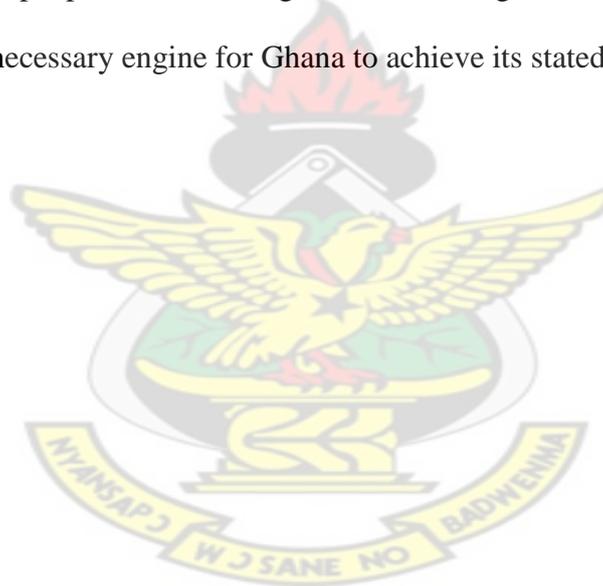
CHAPTER THREE

THE STUDY APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter one and two of the study presented an overview of the study as well as the relevant literature which provides the theoretical framework for the study. This chapter describes the methodology used to conduct the research. It explains the research design applied, sample and sampling procedures adopted in selecting the sample, instrumentation used in data collection, analysis and data presentation. It as well explains some limitations encountered during the study.

3.2 Scope of the study

Geographically, the study was carried out the in Asutifi District of Brong Ahafo Region which is shown by Figure 2. Contextually, the study concentrated in assessing the implementation of Poverty Reduction Strategies in the district, with emphasis on the agriculture sector and specifically smallholders' farmer (crop famers) involvement. The research was conducted for the period of six month from November, 2010 to April, 2011.

Figure 2: Study area Asutifi District
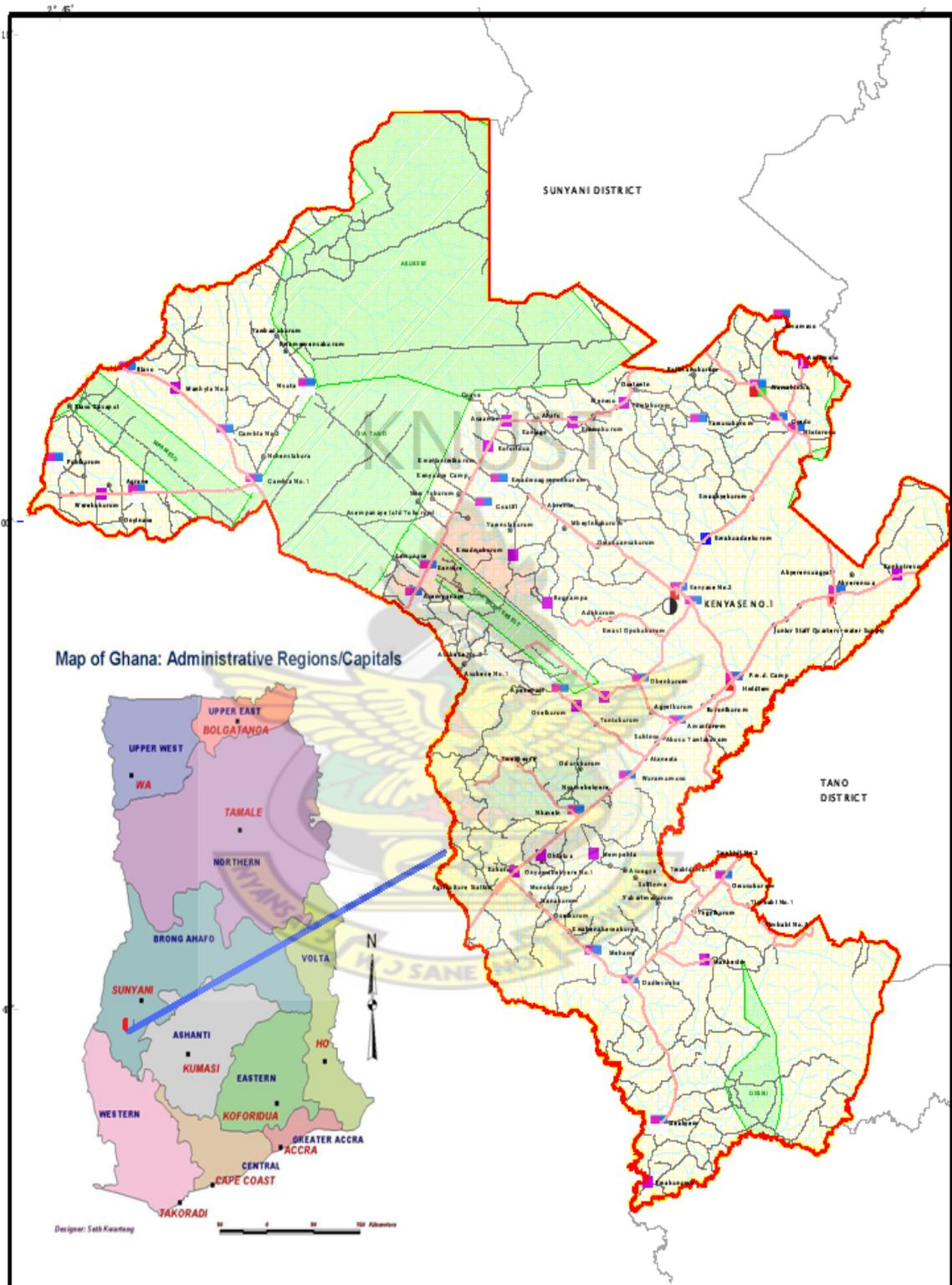
Source: Asutifi Didtrct, (2011)

3.3   **Research approach and design**

Participatory research approach was employed, in which the affected populations were used as the center to the entire process. Participatory Research was chosen for two main reasons. Firstly, it is the main method used in the preparation of the Ghana Poverty reduction strategies and therefore the process simplified the understanding of what is prevailing in a collaborative manner by involving the relevant stakeholders. Secondly, the principles of participatory research were employed in collecting data from different levels of stakeholders. The situation was helpful in facilitating collaborative learning process.

These research tools were employed because, they are acceptable to be used in all phases of rural appraisal and research planning. For reasons of efficiency and project sustainability and politically imperative, it is the tool used in project planning. The strength of PRA is that it can empower local people to take decisions and be responsible for planning development and research activities, which should lead to greater community involvement and sustainability of research/development activities (Bhandari, 2003, Chamber, 1990). Some of the PRA tools that were employed include: Venn diagram, activity actor matrix and preferences matrixes.

Cross sectional design was applied in this study. This method is often known as survey research (Chris, 2004). The method allowed the use of probabilistic and non probability sampling technique, and therefore the selected sample represents the study population to a known degree of precision. The design also allowed the researcher to use other instruments other than questionnaires in the process of data collected (Chamber, 1990). Under cross sectional, case study methods were employed, and that the research was

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carried out in its natural setting. This helped the researcher to have a more in-depth study of a small number of sampled units, selected as representative of the population (Chamber, 1994). From these individuals, data were collected to help answer research questions of interest. Because of the intensity of data collection from each case, the researcher had little control over the events. Case study method is strong in external validity; therefore it allows the extrapolation of the research results to general populations with similar characteristics (Chris, 2004).

3.4 Sample frame

Sampling involves selecting representatives from a given population. For this study, Sample frame was the lists of small farm holder from the four zones see (Table 2), and therefore the unit of analysis for this research was small farm holders and the institutional framework in place to support small farm holder's development.

Table 2: MOFA – District operational area and zones

Zone names	Operational areas
Kenyasi	Kenyasi No.1,Kenyasi No.2,Goamu-camp, Obengkrom
Gambia	Gambia No.1, Gambia No.2, Kensere, Mahame, Dadiesoaba, Siechem
Ntotroso	Ntotroso,Wamahinso
Hwidiem	Hwidiem, Nkasiem,Woromuso, Acherensua

Source: MOFA – Asutifi District

3.4.1 Sample size determination

Mathematical approach was used, with 91% level of confidence (0.09 level significant), that the sample was true representation of the population studied. The sample of 123 household (smallholder famers) out of 21,590 registered small holder farmers were

selected. This sample was drawn from the five operational areas. The zones: Kenyasi, Gambia, Ntotroso and Hwidiem were used to determine the distribution of five operational areas out of sixteen operational areas that were in the District.

Sample size determination using Mathematical method

$n = N/N (\alpha)^2$ *Where by N= Sample frame = 21,590 Registered small holder farmers*

α = *Level of significant = 0.09 (91% level of confidence)*

n= Sample size……21,590/ 21,590 $(0.09)^2$ = 123 (Sample size)

3.4.2   Sample selection and distribution

Non Probability sampling

For the non probability sampling approach the purposive sampling procedure was used to select smallholder farmers (crop farmers) as the unit of analysis, because the objective of the study focuses on their operations. Other key informant such as the District Assembly and non small scale farm holders were purposively selected to ascertain some of the information in relation to formulation and implementation of poverty reduction strategies in the District.

Probability sampling

In order to have a good distribution and to avoid bias in the sample, the four area zones - Kenyasi, Gambia, Ntotroso and Hwidiem were classified as strata.   Proportional

sampling procedure was employed to get five operational areas out of the sixteen operational areas in the District and is as follows:

Kenyasi: - (4/16) x 5 = 1. 25 - Kenyasi was represented by 1 operational area

Gambia: - (6/16) x5=1.875 - Gambia was represented by 2 operational areas

Ntotroso:- (2/16) x 5 = 0.625 - Ntotroso was represented by 1 operational area

Hwidiem:- (4/16) x 5 = 1.25 - Hwidiem was represented by 1 operational area

Simple random sampling procedure was employed to select the calculated representative operational areas from each zone. Having the number of small holder farmers from each operational area, proportional sampling method has been employed to get the number of representative from each selected operational area as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Operational areas and sample Distribution

Zone	Operational area /No of registered smallholder farmers	Proportional selected sample from each operational area
Kenyasi	Kenyasi II = 985 Farmers	(985/5463) x 123= 22
Gambia	Nkerensere = 1176 Farmers	(1176/5463)x123= 26
	Mehame = 830 Farmers	(830/5463)x123 = 19
Ntontroso	Wamahinso = 1610 Farmers	(1610/5463)x123= 36
Hwidiem	Hwidiem = 862 Farmers	(862/5463)x123 = 20
	Total = 5463 Farmers	**123**

Source: Researcher construction (2011)

Figure 3: Sampled operational areas

Source: Asutifi District

Having the number of respondents to be interviewed from the selected operational areas (Figure 3), systematic sampling procedure was applied to select individual respondents.

Systematic sampling method was used in determining the representatives (households) to be interviewed from the each operational area by using the following formula:-

K=N/n   where K = K is the Kth respondent to be interviewed after the first sample unit, which was selected by the use of simple random sampling.

 N = Sample frame and n= Sample size.

3.4.3   Study Variables and Type of data

Based on the objectives, research issues and questions of the study, the following variables and data types listed in Table 4 were selected for the study.

KNUST

Table 4: Identified variables, type of data to be collected and sources of data

Variable	Type of data	Sources of data
Age	Individual information	Farmers
Sex and marital status	Individual information in relation to gender	Farmers
Income	Economic gain	Farmers
Residence	Social information	Farmers
Community needs	Community aspiration in poverty reduction (dimensions of poverty)	Farmers
Socio-economic activity performed	Type of job performed per year	Farmers Institutions eg NGO,FBO and CBO
Number of projects	Strategies available for the formulation of projects Types of job performed by different stakeholders per year	Farmers District Assembly Institution (NGO,FBO and CBO)
Type of stakeholders involved	Institutions and activities they perform in the study area	All stakeholders according to the formulated project
Resource ownership	Type of property rights in place	District Assembly, Household, Chiefs
Stakeholder contribution to the project	Institutions that are available and activities they perform in the study area	Farmers District Assembly Institutions (NGO, FBO and CBO)
Community perception on poverty	Awareness of poverty reduction Strategies	focus group Farmers

Source: Researcher construction (2011)

3.5   **Instrumentation of data collection**

Primary data was collected from the field of study to compliment secondary data collected from public libraries and archives. These tools were emphasized especially in discussions with the smallholder farmers and government officials. Smallholder farmers were identified using the district records. Structured, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were used to get information from respondents government officials (District Assembly) and farmers on the procedures that were employed to come up with the identified projects.

The Venn diagram and activity actor matrix were used to show the existing relationships between communities and different government departments and other stakeholders. These methods were particularly important in finding out whether the process of formulating PRSP had been fully participatory and who were involved in the process. The Venn Diagram also was used to show functionality and institutions relation in policy decisions from local population, that is, when used with the farmers, it shaded light on how close they felt to institutions and how much interaction they have with these institutions, thus, pointing to their roles in policy making.

Interviews with key informants, extension workers were also conducted to find out how PRSP is derived in the district. Also this method was used often in gathering basic information about the community, the government structure, relations within the village and so forth. An individual interview was also held with the district staff to find out how community views were collected in that district during PRSP formulation.

The focus group discussions were conducted to determine the local perspective of poverty, that is, on what the community perceived as poverty. This was an important tool that allowed a free discussion that helped to steer the issues that were brought up. For instance, once a famer had agreed on local poverty parameters, they discussed the causes and solutions to the issues. This was helpful in identifying the need of small scale holder farmers.

By using these participatory methods, it was important and possible to create an atmosphere of co-learning, where the farmers, through the methods they were able to clarify their thoughts through discussions with each other and in their explanations to the researcher. The methods were inclusive to all participants, and all were encouraged to participate and take a leading role.

Data search included past policy documents in the development sector. Development plans and policy documents of pre 1990 and post-1990 to date were examined, as these are the critical periods of participatory work in Ghana and show differences and similarities in policymaking. Pre-1990 policy lacks in participatory methods and was designed to promote sustainable development while post 1990 marks a shift to participation that captured the concerns of all relevant stakeholders in a decentralized, democratic and consultative manner and poverty reduction as additional goals. Comparison of these policy periods and with the PRSP gives alert the trend, contradictions or replications that exist and that might hinder the success of PRSP efforts.

3.6 Data processing and analysis

Both descriptive analysis and statistical analysis such as measures of central tendency mean, average and standard deviation were used to analyze the research findings based on the research questions. The results are presented in charts, tables, graphs and text form. During the process of analysis, the collected information underwent three stages of analysis.

Coding and data interpretation

Data were edited. Also, under this process the answers provided from the questionnaires have been be classified in terms of the research questions and objectives. This has been done carefully to ensure that all responses collected were taken into consideration.

The tools that has been used to collect data in this research, have allowed the application of both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Each technique applied had its way of analyzing the data gathered. The analysis conducted was based on the purpose and the scope of the study. Data and information has been arranged according to sub-topic or research objectives. All edited and coded data have been transformed, analyzed and interpreted into usable format in terms of Tables, Charts and percentages. These results were explained in text form (descriptive format).

3.7 Limitation of the study

It was difficult to carry out discussions using PR tools with district officials, and it was only possible to carry out three interviews with the district staff. This was primarily

because of a lack of time and willing staff. Also it was difficult to carry out some interview with Newmont Ghana Mining Limited and Micro financial Organizations working in the district. This was because of the bureaucratic procedures to be followed to allow researchers to interview any resource person in these organizations. The procedures were followed but in vain. Limited resources and time did not allow for rescheduling of these interviews.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

An overview of the study, literature and methodology guiding the study has been clearly described in chapter one to three. This chapter discusses the profile of the district, analysis and the findings of the study. It explains the strategies in place to facilitate the operation of smallholder farmers in the district and show stakeholder involvement in plan formulation and implementation, and the evaluation of some programmes and project implemented to facilitate the operation and development of smallholder farmers. The final part of this chapter includes the conclusion and suggested recommendations.

4.2 District Profile

Asutifi District was created in 1988 out of the Colonial Ahafo Region and is classified by the Ministry of Local Government as deprived (GLSS5, 2008). The district economy is mostly agrarian and like a normal deprived district, Agriculture is in the hands of peasant farmers who still depend on rudimentary methods for production (Asutifi District MTDP, 2010). As a result, output is low, soil is fast depleting and environmental degradation is setting in to disturb the once ecologically balanced semi-deciduous forest (ibid). With the upsurge of mining activities in the district, access to land is now limited in the Mining affected Communities compounding already existing poverty levels.

The district is one of the nineteen (19) districts in Brong Ahafo and is located between latitudes 6°40' and 7°15' North and Longitudes 2°15' and 2°45' West. It shares

boundaries with Sunyani district to the north, Tano South district to the north east, Dormaa district to North west, Asunafo north and south districts in the South West and Ahafo Ano South and North Districts (Ashanti Region) in the south east (Refer to Figure 4).

Figure 4: Asutifi District Assembly Location map
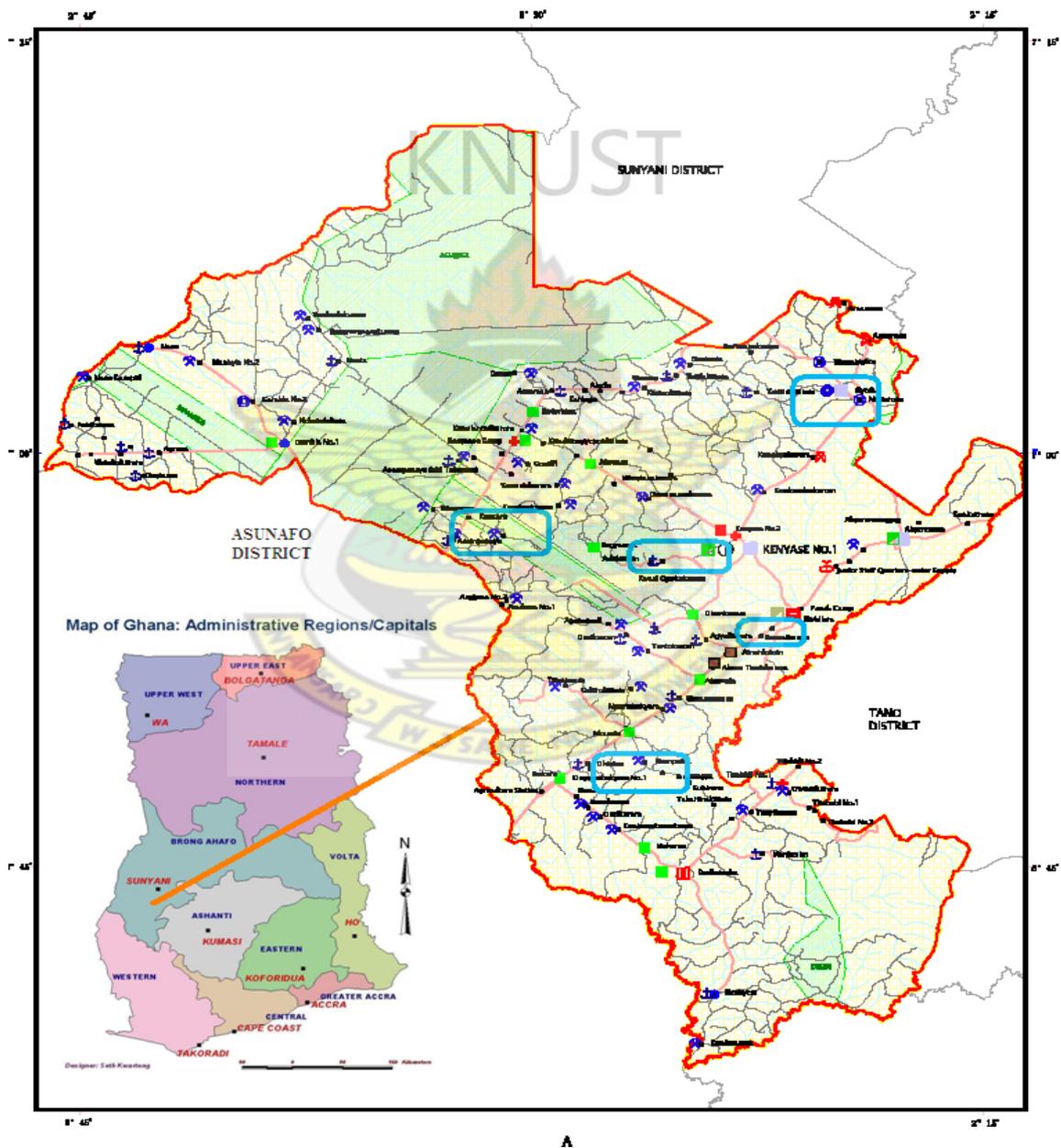
Source Asutifi District Assembly (2011)

With a total land surface area of 1500 sq.km, the district is one of the smallest in the Brong Ahafo Region and has a total of 117 settlements located in 9 area councils. The district also has and four paramouncies, namely: Kenyasi No.1 Kenyasi No.2, Hwidiem and Acherensua. Kenyasi is the district capital and is about 50km from Sunyani, the regional capital of Brong Ahafo (Asutifi District Profile, 2010).

Topographically, the district lies within the forest dissected plateau physiographic region with average height of about 700 feet above sea level. The district is drained by Tano River and its many tributaries which include Nsubin, Goa and Ntotro rivers exhibiting a dendentric pattern. These fast flowing rivers have cut up the plateau surface giving rise to the dissected nature of the plateau.

The district is marked by precambrain rocks of birimain and dahomeyan formations. The birimian formations are known to be the gold bearing rocks. Currently gold is being mined in the area. Newmont Ghana Gold Limited is a mining company operating in the area. These areas include Kenyasi No. 1 & 2, Ntotroso, Gyedu-Wamahinso and other smaller communities. However other exploration activities are on-going in other communities within the district. Diamond has been discovered in Wamahinso. There is also a widespread deposit of sand and clay in the district (DMTP, 2010).

The district lies within the wet semi-equatorial zone marked by double rainfall maxima with a mean annual rainfall ranging between 125cm and 200cm. The first rainy season is from May to July (maximum) and the second rainy season is from September to October (minimum). There is a sharp dry season between the two rainy seasons the main one coming between November and March. Relative humidity is generally high ranging between 75% to 80% during the two rainy seasons and 70% to 80% during the rest of the

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year. The major crops cultivated in the district include cassava, maize, cocoyam, oil palm, cocoa, vegetables legumes and plantain. A study conducted in the sub-region by the Soil Research Institute of Kumasi in 1980, shows the district has variety of soil type that suits the growth of different crops as described in Table 5.

Table 5: Soil and Crop suitability

SOIL TYPE	SUITABLE CROPS	AREAS FOUND
Kumasi Association	Tree crops such as cocoa, coffee, citrus, oil palm and pear as well as maize, legumes, cassava, plantain and cocoyam	South East of the district around Asikasu.
Asuansi-Kumasi/ Offin Association	Not suitable for mechanized cultivation. Good for semi-perennial food crops like Plantain	Nsuta, Agrave and Gambia No.1.
Hwidiem Association	Good for the cultivation of food crops such as plantain, cassava and oil palm.	Occur along the Goaso-Tepa major road around Nkaseim, Bronikrom, Hwidiem and extending to Kenyasi.
Akumadan-Bekwae/Oda Complex Association;	Suitable for a wide range of arable crops including maize, cassava, plantain, cocoyam and vegetables.	occur around Werekokrom, Biaso and Atwidie, Kensere and Goatifi among others
The Batia Associations	Support the same crops as Akumadan-Bekwai/Oda complex association but needs proper management	Twabidi, Mankesim and Tenso fall within this soil zone.
Bediesi Sutawa-Bejua Compound Association	Have little Agronomic values but recommended for forest reserves and wildlife conservation	within the Asukese Forest Reserve
Birim-Awaham/Chechewere Kakum Association	Recommended for vegetables, legumes, rice and sugar cane	They occur along the banks of the Tano River with settlements like Sienchem, Mehame, Ntotroso

Source: Soil Research Institute (1980)

District administrative Institutions

The District has a total of 9 area councils and 117 communities which generally exhibit rural characteristics, with exception of Kenyasi No. 2, Hwediem, Acherensua, Nkaseim, Kenyasi No. 1, Dadiesoaba, Gambia No. 2, Ntotroso, Mehame and Wamanhinso, (Asutifi District MTP, 2010). For better administration, operation and management of development projects and programmes ten decentralized departments namely: Central Administration Department, Finance Department, Education, Youth and Sports Department, District Health Department, Agriculture Department, Physical Planning Department, Social Welfare and Community Development Department, Department of Trade and Industry, Disaster Prevention Department and Fire Service Department were used. In addition four traditional paramouncies exist in the district. There are also six divisional chiefs at Ntotroso, Gyedu, Wamanhinso, Nkaseim, Mehame and Dadiesoaba.

Demographic Characteristics

The population of Asutifi district was estimated to be about 84,475 in 2000 (GSS, 2000). The national population census of 1984 and 2000, revealed an increase from 54,891 in 1984 to 84,475 in 2000 giving a population growth rate of 2.8% per annum. This growth rate is quite low compared with the national average of 3.0% for the same period. The low population growth was attributed to the absence of job opportunities to attract immigrants who were generally settler farmers. However the advent of mining, the district has realized an influx of large numbers of people coming in to settle. The population of the district has therefore increased significantly. Currently, the population

of the district is estimated to be 114,029 in the year 2010 and 117,502 in 2011. Table 6

shows the age – sex structure and distribution.

Table 6: Age – sex structure distribution

Age	Male		Female		%Total Population
	NO.	%	NO.	%	
0 -14	1690	20	1730	20.4	40.4
15-64	2340	27.2	2255	27.6	54.8
65+	190	2.5	270	2.3	4.8
TOTAL	4220	49.7	4255	50.3	100

Source: Compiled from Asutifi District profile 2010

From the Table, it can be seen that about 50.3% of the estimated population are females,

this percentage is quite low compared with the national Figure of 51.5%. In addition

large a large proportion of the population (54.8%) falls within the working age group and

predominant subsistence farmers (66.7) (Asutifi District MTP, 2010).

Economic structure of the district

The economic structure of the economy in the district has been remarkably described

based on the number of people employed in the sector. Table 7 provides the employment

distribution by sector in the district.

Table 7: Sectoral distribution of employment in the district

Economic activities	% Sectoral employment
Farming	66.7
Small- scale Industries	3
Service	27.1
Mining/Others	3.2
Total	100

Source: Asutifi District MTP (2010)

From Table 7, it can be observed that Agriculture (farming) account for 66.7% of all employment in the district which is more than the national Figure of 55% of the total work force. Aside agriculture, other major sectors identified were Service which employs 27%, mining sector 3.2 % and small scale industry 3%.

4.3   Field Result and Discussion

This part starts by looking at the background of respondents, and further discusses the results from the review of plans, smallholder farmers' questionnaire, focus group discussion and key informant interview under the various research objectives.

4.3.1   Gender of respondents

During the analysis it was found that, out of 123 respondents, 86% were males while 14% were female this is illustrated by Figure 5 below.

Figure 5: Sample distributions by sex
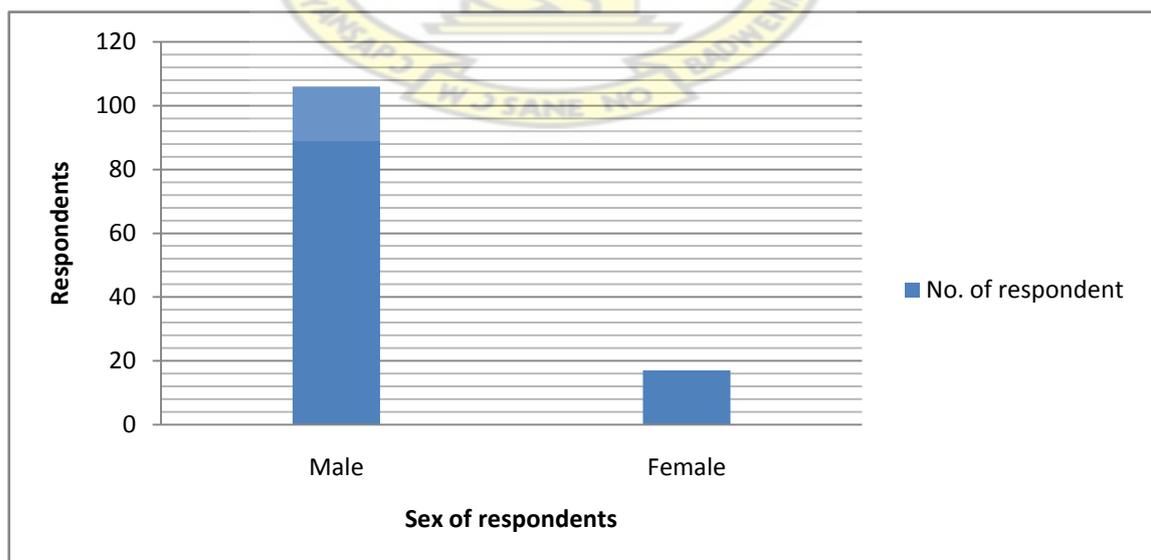
Source: Field results (2011)

Looking at the district profile, Table 6: age - sex structure distribution, about 50.3% of the population in the district were women. The sample shows that only few women (14%) were registered as smallholder farmers in the district, and therefore there is the probability that those who are not registered are not benefiting from implemented district agriculture programs. The age of respondents were ranging from 23 – 68. Majority of respondents (70%) were between 23 – 59 years old. Another 30% fell between 60 – 68 years old.

The sample also shows that, majority (82 %) of respondents were married, while only 8% were single. The percentages of divorced and widowed respondents were 1 and 2 respectively, and 5 out of 14 women were mentioned to be household heads. The mean household size was 7 persons which were found to be high compared to the national mean household size of 4 (GLSS5, 2008). The monthly average incomes of respondents were found to be 77 Ghana Cedis (Table 6), which was generally low compared to the national minimum average wage per month 93 Ghana Cedis (GLSS5, 2008).

Figure 6 Communities Monthly Average Income
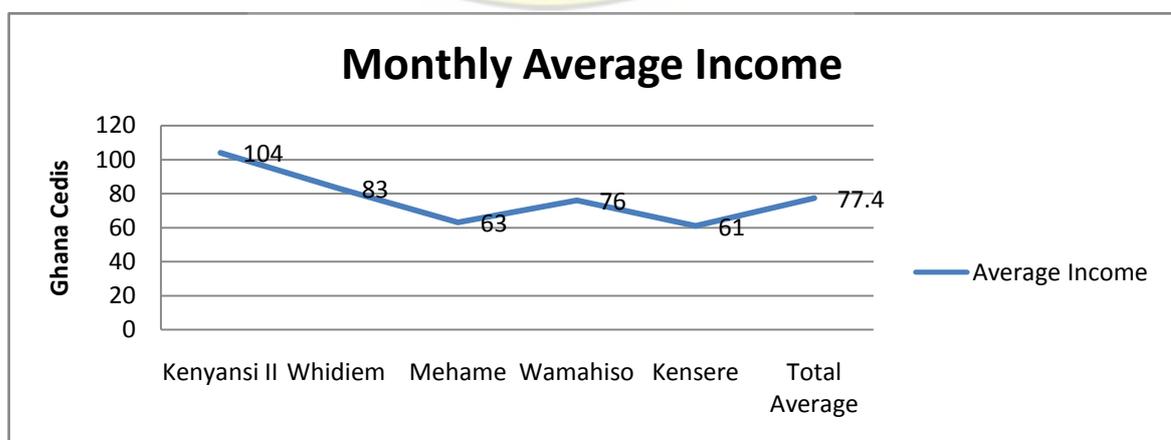
Source: Field survey, 2011

4.3.2 Level of Education of Respondents

Education plays a crucial role in every economy. As a form of human capital also it can have direct or indirect effect on socio-economic status of any individual. In view of this the educational background of respondents was looked at the respondents who have completed either basic level or Junior High School (JHS) amounting to 63% and about 11% percent were Senior High School or vocational graduates. Only 6 % of respondents had some form of tertiary education whilst 20 % were illiterates.

4.4 **Strategies/plans to facilitate smallholder farmer's activities**

4.4.1 Agriculture development in 1980's –late 1990's

Looking at the district development reports, from the 1980s to date, the district has implemented different national policies and programmes ranging from Economic Recovery Program 1984-1986, Decentralization (1988) to Poverty Reduction (1995). The reports indicate that agricultural growth was primarily driven by the natural environment and cash crops (cocoa production). A review of the reports revealed that the needs of beneficiaries were not taken into consideration and that decisions were centralized due to the fact that resources to implement the programmes were from the central government. Weather conditions and land expansion was as well a major focus in increasing agricultural production, rather than increase productivity.

Agricultural production and productivity was heavily reliant on rain-fed agriculture. The low level of agricultural productivity in the district was attributed to low soil fertility, which was partly due to limited use of fertilizers. Improved seed use was also limited, as well as the application of agro chemicals such as insecticides. On-farm production

intensity was constrained by reliance on family labour in the absence of mechanized equipment or services. Poor access to inputs and financial services were the root causes of the low adoption of modern inputs where as access problems were in turn linked to poor quality of rural road infrastructure. Inadequate storage infrastructure also was a limit to access market.

During this time it was noticed that very little real development took place and that the programmes were not necessarily for poverty reduction but rather for economic growth of the country (District MOFA Development Report, 2005).

Evidence from the field discussion with district MOFA officials revealed that, the failure of the previous policies was due to non involvement as well as government inability to efficiently allocate and manage its resources.

It was clear from the discussion that the district now does prepare its development strategies and plans under the decentralized planning system within planning guidelines derived from the overall national policies and strategic framework.

4.4.2 Poverty reduction Strategy in Asutifi District from 2002 – 2009

The district has implemented different projects and programme since 2002. There was district specific Medium Term Plans prepared at district level in line with the National Poverty Reduction Strategy. and from the period 1980 – 1990 the levels of involvement were insignificant. The review from district implementation reports reveal that, from 2002 to date the plans are driven from the consultations with stakeholders in various

communities, discussions on what they viewed as problems and the proposed solutions and prioritizing action to curb poverty levels.

Plan period 2002 – 2005

This is the time when the district did prepare its first Medium Term Plan with the mission of facilitating improvement in the living standard of people through the formation and harnessing the resources for the provision of the needed infrastructure and services to the communities. There were a number of strategies that were in place at the plan period. Some of the strategies that were identified in relation to agriculture sector were:
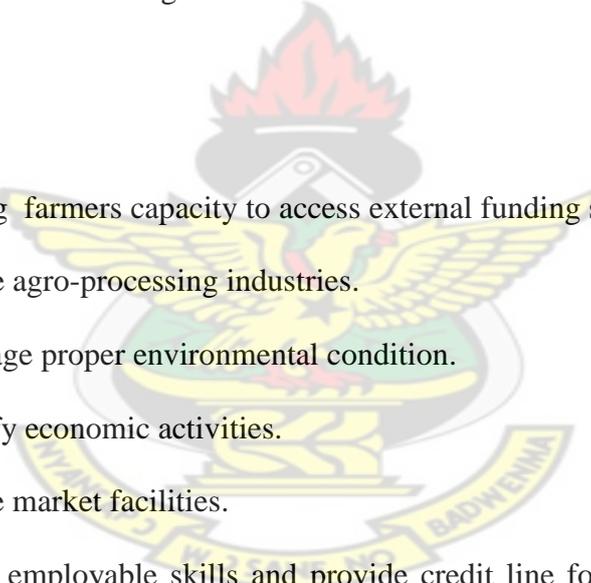
i.   Building farmers capacity to access external funding sources.

ii.   Promote agro-processing industries.

iii.   Encourage proper environmental condition.

iv.   Diversify economic activities.

v.   Improve market facilities.

vi.   Provide employable skills and provide credit line for small scale industries and

vii.   Provide financial facilities to the vulnerable.

Plan period 2006 -2009

This was the plan that was built upon the foundation of the 2002-2005 DMTP. There were a number of strategies that were in place to deal with the overall goal of improving

livelihoods in the district through increased citizenry participation, Public-private sector partnership, food security and employment generation activities. Some strategies were noted to focus directly on promoting the development of the agriculture sector and hence improve the standard of living of the poor. The strategies are:

i. Increase agricultural productivity and facilitate marketing linkages.

ii. Promote production, processing and marketing of agricultural produce in the district and

iii. Promote rural enterprise and private sector development in the district.

There were other supportive strategies that were in place for the two consecutive plan periods which were none agriculture related. Agriculture alone cannot improve the standard of living of the poor; the need for integrative approach was taken into consideration during plan formulation. The strategies that were in place to complement agriculture sector among others were:

i. Improve provision and access to basic social services (education, water and health).

ii. Enhance easy transportation of goods and persons and

iii. Diversify agriculture practices.

Analyzing the strategies, they were not directly focusing on smallholder farmers in the district, but in one way or the other, smallholder farmers were said to be benefitting from the strategies, as they were involved in plan formulation and implementation. The strategies were outlined based on identified problems within the district. Also, it was

realized that agriculture department was not having a departmental plan, and therefore the activities were conducted based on the directives and resources available from the District Assembly and central government (MOFA).

The study tried to identify specific projects and programmes in line with different stakeholders who were involved in the implementation of the projects/programmes.

4.5 Stakeholder involvement

The analysis shows that for the two consecutive plan period the district have implemented their strategies, number of programmes and projects based on the mentioned strategies were identified. The programmes can be categorized into five. These are:

i.   Agriculture and rural development programmes.

ii.   Institutional Strengthening & Capacity Building programes.

iii. Infrastructure for social and human development programes.

iv.   Natural Resource Management programmes.

v.   Service and Commerce development programmes.

In order to have detailed analysis of stakeholder involvement to ensure optimum benefits and effective co-ordination of the development activities, development actors and institutions in relation to the programmes and project were involved as identified in Table 8.

Table 8: Development actors working in Asutifi District

Agriculture and rural development programmes	
Development actor/stakeholder	**Project that were involved in**
District Assembly, ACTION AID, Community Based Rural Development Project (CBRDP), Newmont Ghana Gold Mine	Food Security through the support on grain banks to store excess harvest for use during the hunger period and Training farmers in modern agronomic practices. To enhance farm and non-farm activities to increase the income of beneficiaries Assisting rural enterprises to properly manage and provide ready market for agricultural produce for processing for value addition and increased shelf. Increase employment (skilled and unskilled labour), factories and cottage industries, credit facilities and market stall
Institutional strengthening & capacity building programes	
District Assembly, ACTION AID, Community Based Rural Development Project (CBRDP), Newmont Ghana Gold Mine	To Support to Capacity building (Women's right, building capacities in the communities, CSO's and government departments. To enhance the ability of the poor to press for their rights, enhance government responsiveness to these demands and to build a strong local institution for sustainable development. To build and strengthen the capacity of rural communities, and enhance their quality of life by improving their productive assets and support to strengthen capacities of local government institution in furtherance of the PRS
Infrastructure for social and human development programmes	
District Assembly (DA), Newmont Ghana Gold Mine Community, Based Rural Development Project (CBRDP) and Social Investment Fund (SIF), European Union ACTION AID	Infrastructure construction including water, electricity, roads, health facilities, schools, toilets facilities and incinerators, Education on HIV/AIDS, REFLECT approach to adult literacy.
Natural resource Management programmes	
District Assembly, Community, Based Rural Development Project (CBRDP)	Environmental governance and integrated management of land and water resources.
Service and Commerce development programmes	
GSM mobile services, FM stations EcoBank , Agricultural Development Bank (ADB), Ghana Commercial Bank, Tano Rural Bank , Tano Agya Rural Bank, Asutifi Rural Bank and Ahafo Community Bank .	Telecommunication Services community based information Financial Services

Source: Extracted from the DMTP 2002 -2009

The greater involvement of other stakeholders other than the government was giving hope to the district to achieve its mission of - facilitating improvement in the living standard of the people through the formation and harnessing of resources for the provision of the needed infrastructure and services. According to District official reports, there was notable development in agriculture sector compared to the past two decade. This development was interpreted by the existence of other stakeholders in the district who supported the efforts of the government in solving people's problems, which resulted in the increase in the number of projects implemented in the district in a wider spatial coverage.

Also, the research revealed a number of local institutions and stakeholders who were directly or indirectly involved in ensuring coordination and efficient implementation of programmes and projects at grass root level. The analysis was done based on their roles and their contributions to the projects sustainability in the district. The results are discussed below.

- *The District Assembly*

The role of the District Assembly is to formulate, implement, monitor and evaluate plans, programmes and strategies for effective mobilization of resources and for the overall development of the District.

Other functions of include promoting spatial integration of physical developments and ensuring judicial justice. The District Assembly plays a significant role in promoting the good standard of living of the people as stated in

Local - Government Act 1993 (Act, 462). The District Assembly plays both administrative and legislative role at the local level.

During the discussion with district officials, it was discovered that the role of the District Assembly was not performed effectively because the district was under resourced in terms of human resource requirement and logistics. For instance, the district has only one planner who takes overall charge of the planning activities in the district. Also during focus group discussion with small holder farmers, it was realized that they have never been involved in the formulation of district plans. If there were any projects implemented in their areas by different stakeholders.

- *Executive Committee*

Executive and co-coordinating functions of the Assembly, develop and execute approved plans of the units, area and town councils within the area of authority of the District Assembly. During focus group discussion with district officials it was realized that, the mobilization and coordination role was a problem due to some overlaps and contradictions of the laws, For example, Agriculture, Education, and Health sectors still received directives from the central government on what types of programmes and projects to be implemented at the districts.

- *Area Councils*

Politically, the area councils are the next unit after the District Assembly. They facilitate local level development by discharging functions such as revenue

collection, representing the communities at the District Assembly, during focus group discussion, participants described that, there were polarization in the district. They doubted their representatives, that they did not communicate their problems to the District Assembly.

- *Decentralized Departments*

This departments, perform specialized functions in the district by involving area councils and community members in the plan formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, creation of enabling environment and capacity building for local people so as to attract and sustain private investment in the district as well as harnessing all resource potentials to implement the plan.

It was reviewed that the district has 10 decentralized departments, the reality was these departments were found to be understaffed with poor coordination.For Example, agriculture department did not have planning officer, information officer as well acting as planning officer for the department.

At the grass root level, the department was found to have 16 extension officers who that were working in 117 communities. The ratio of farmer to extension officer was found to be 1:6,500 which was higher than the national standard of 1:1500. This depict the quality of services a small holder farmer in the district gets from the extension officer.

- *Unit Committees*

The Unit Committee is the basic unit at the local level since they are located at the community level. Their roles include mobilization of community members for communal labour, monitoring the activities of the district assembly in their areas of jurisdiction and mobilizing the communities to embark on self-help project initiatives, as enshrined under Section 25 (1) and (2) of the Local Government Act 1993 (Act, 462,).

During the discussion with district officials and small holder farmers in the selected communities, one at a time, it was realized that, Unit Committee is an important coordinating unit under decentralized system, for it coordinated the activities of the communities and the District Assembly.

It was explained that only MOFA as a decentralized department has direct coordination with smallholder farmers in the selected operational areas through extension officers. The unite committee were almost not existing in these communities. This has led to the increased gap for smallholder farmers to be involved in different development activities in their areas.

- *Traditional Authorities (Chiefs***)**

Their functions include enstoolment, distoolment and gazetting. The traditional authorities are the custodian of land in the study communities under the study. Chiefs in the selected communities play an important role in allocating land

within their stool for developmental purposes. At the settlement level, sub-chiefs or village chiefs, in consultation with elders resolve disputes as indicated by the respondents. The responses from questionnaire to traditional leaders show that, they have been involved in several projects.

- *Other development actors*

To support government and district initiatives in promoting socio-economic development, the district has number of stakeholders who supports poverty reduction strategies as it has been highlighted in the previous paragraph. During focus group discussion with smallholder farmers on their perception about other development actors in the district, were found to differ from community to community. In Kensere for example, the community felt neglected by these development actors. The community like Kenyasi II was with positive response to the involvement in the projects initiated by these development actors.

- *Communities*

Their role is to participate in all development projects; harness their locally available resources to bring about development change. During the discussion with extension officers who work close with this group as technical experts, the complaint was that, the communities were passive in the projects implemented for them. The emphasis was on farmer's registration, a programme that started in 2006 in the district. To date there are farmers who are not registered for they do not see the importance of doing so.

For more understanding on how smallholder farmers were involved in different programmes and projects as they are part of community, Venn diagram was applied to find out which institution they worked closely with. During focus group discussion, the groups choose three sizes of spheres to represent the institutions important in their communities. The bigger the circle the more important it is to the community and the smaller circle represented diminishing importance to them and that means the institution was not working with them. The bigger sphere represented smallholder famer in the community. Circles placed closer to the bigger sphere represented more interaction with the community than those placed further from the centre. In this exercise, smallholder farmers identified the stakeholders who were working in their community and how they felt they were involved with these stakeholders. The results from the two operational areas in Kenyasi II and Kensere are explained in Figure 6.

Figure 7: Level of Stakeholders and smallholder farmers' involvement
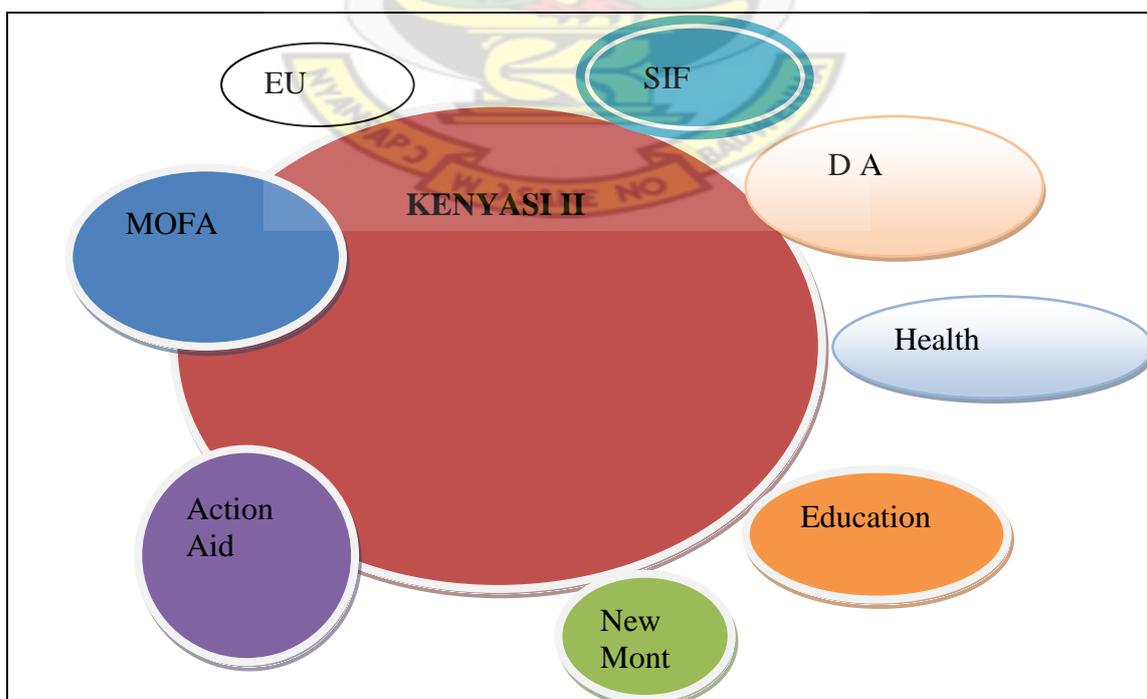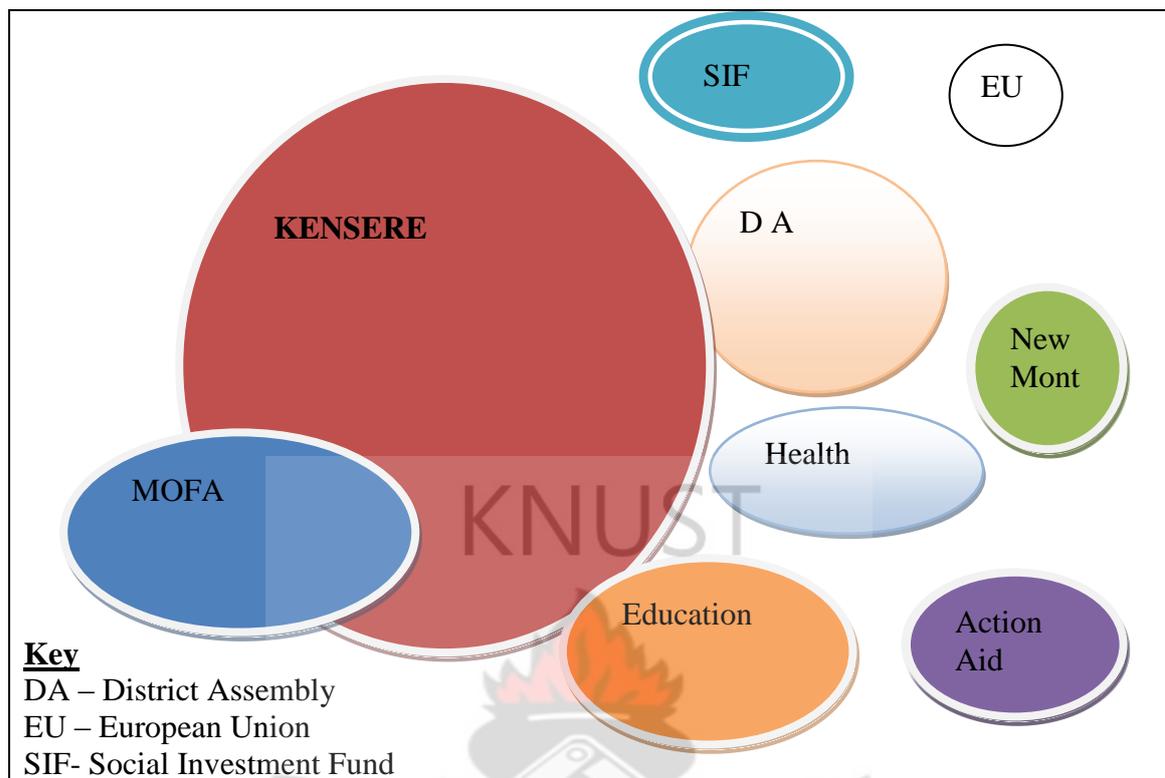
Source: Field survey (2011)

It can be deduced from above explanation that, the district has clear supportive structure for being sensitive to local needs from the grass roots. The roles of each institution show that there was hope for pooling all resources to bring about development in the district. But the institutional analysis revealed that there are issues in each institution, with the major constraints being the poor coordination and the passive nature of the communities. Sub-districts structure of the District Assembly with its decentralized department, Area Councils, and the Unit Committee are named to be in place but were not fully integrated to ensure effective community or grass root participation. The Unit Committee were partially existing which brings a gap between the District Assembly and the communities.

More importantly, there are still inadequate number of personnel with the requisite development planning and management skills and organizational competence to implement the decentralized planning system at the district level. The findings from the field survey and review show projects were not fully coordinated, target beneficiaries were not involved during plan formulation and therefore the implementation was in vain.

4.6 Evaluation of projects/programmes initiated to promote smallholder farmers

Plan preparation and implementation in poverty reduction strategies are building up from the grass root involvement and other stakeholders. This was noted as appropriate mechanism for capacity building, local resources and local knowledge utilization hence they address the very needs of the poor including the smallholder famers and reduce inequality among the groups of population.

The research tried to evaluate the general implementation of strategies that were in place by looking at the projects/programme that were implemented in the district as well as to find out whether smallholder famers were benefiting or involved in these projects including the spatial distribution of this projects.

Smallholder famers' involvement in projects

The result from the study shows to some extent respondents (smallholder famers) were involved and benefiting in at least one of the projects as it is in Figure 7.

Figure 8: Smallholder farmer's involvement in Poverty Reduction projects
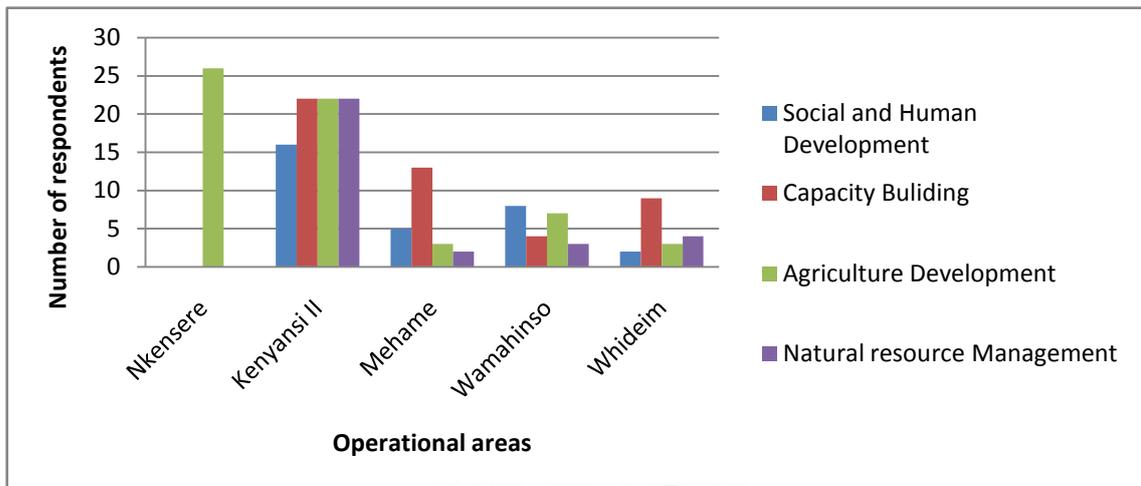
Source: Field survey (2011)

Assessing the rate of involvement in the mentioned projects the results shows that at least 36% out of 123 smallholder farmers who were interviewed, were involved in agriculture development projects, 18% in natural resource management, 18% social and human resource development and 28% in capacity building projects.

Spatial distribution of projects in selected communities

To understand the spatial distribution of the programme/project implemented by different development actors in the district and who were beneficiaries, focus group discussion were conducted in each operational area, using activity actor matrix as a tool to examine, the project small holder famers were involved. Explanation were done if they were/are benefiting from the projects as well as what were the outcome of the projects in the given operational area. Table 9 shows the number of projects that were identified by the selected communities and arranged in sectoral basis.

Table 9: Project Implemented in Selected Operational Areas

Project	OPERATIONAL AREA AND PROJECT OUTPUT				
	Kensere	Kenyasi II	Mehame	Wamahinso	Hwidiem
Food and Agriculture					
Farmers registration	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
Block farm	0	٧	0	0	0
Technical application - farm inputs	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
Soap making	0	٧	0	0	0
Heath sector					
Heath Insurance	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
Existence of heath Infrastructure	0	0	0	0	٧
Water and Sanitation sector					
Bore hole	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
H/Dag well	0	٧	0	0	٧
Pipe system	0	٧	0	0	٧
Education sector					
School feeding	0	٧	0	٧	٧
Get fund (Free book and Uniform primary school pupils)	0	٧	0	0	٧
Scholarship Scheme	0	٧	0	٧	0
Existence of schools infrastructures (at least, JSS)	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
Other Infrastructure					
Rural road	٧	٧	٧	٧	٧
Market	0	٧	0	0	٧
Electricity	0	0	0	0	٧
Telephone communication system	0	٧	0	0	٧
Financial Institutions	0	0	0	0	1
Total No. of projects	6	15	7	8	15

Source: Field survey (2011)

From the mentioned projects, the result shows that, the projects were skewed toward

Kenyasi II and Hwidiem where there were high concentration of projects of about 15

out of 18, while in Kensere there were only 6. To come up with the reasons why the projects were concentrated in Kenyasi II and Hwidiem not Kensere, district official from different departments were engaged in discussion.

Officials indicated in the discussion that, looking at population size of the three communities (Kenyasi, 10,058, Hwidiem, 7,386 and Kensere 1,366 population projection, 2010), Kensere, has less population than the two communities. Therefore, it will not be proper to inject resources into areas where the threshold will not sustain the project. A lot of issues were raised concerning health, water and market infrastructure. Political interference was noted as the main factor for the distribution of school feeding programme, Capitation grants distribution as well as scholarship scheme and that there was polarization of communities (see Table 9, project implemented in selected operational areas), no one was aware on the criteria they use to select the schools to benefit from these programmes.

The reult shows that in spite of increasing number of development actors who participate in poverty reduction strategies in the district, threshold population and political interference in a number of projects are still the limiting factors for smallholder farmers (rural communities) to enjoy the services in their vicinity.

The research went further to evaluate what was the outcome of the implemented projects in the selected operational areas, by taking into consideration the strategies and programmes/projects that were implemented. The results from the field were as follows:

4.6.1   Building Farmers capacity to increase farm productivity

The strategy was implemented and that, the output from the implementation of the strategy were ought to be the input for other strategies.

Under this strategy, farmers were registered. About 21,590 smallholder farmers were found to be registered in five sampled operational area. Farmers were registered based on the sizes of farms they own, such that, stallholder farmers were owning two acres and below, and that major crops that were noted to be produced were plantain , citrus, cocoa, cassava, cocoyam, Rice, maize, exotic vegetables (cabbage, carrot), local vegetables (tomatoes, pepper, ginger, garden eggs , okro and soyabeans). Other registered famers were found to be medium scale farmers owning ten acres. But more than two acres of land were used to produce plantain, citrus, cocoa, cassava, cocoayam, rice and maize. Large scale famers owned above ten acres and were producing citrus, oil palm, cocoa, plantain and coffee.

The logic behind having farm registration in the district was to come up with small groups of farmers who can be registered, and easily get capacity building in technical knowledge in groups as well as have the capacity to access other services such as credits. The capacity building could help them to raise their farm produce and get money from the sales of the produce. Also the programme was aimed at assisting them in income generating activities with the purpose of promoting value chain at the district level.

The procedures that were used to register famers were not involving other stakeholders in the communities. Only famers and extension officers (MOFA) were involved in the process. Farmers groups were in place but were not registered. The numbers of

smallholder farm groups that were found in the study area are as follows: - In Kenyasi II, about 17 groups, each group comprised of about 20 people. In Hwidiem there were 12 groups, Mehame 6 groups, Kensere 10 groups, and Wamahinso 5 groups.

By having these groups, the communities do help themselves when they are faced with any problems such as financial support during farming season. This they did through credit provision to any member of the group. It was explained that though these groups existed, they were not very active in some of the communities such as Kensere, Hwidiem and Wamahinso and were limited in term of funds. Many of the groups started off successfully but became disabled when contributing members defaulted in payment. However, they reassembled when tragedy or hard times struck, and contributed in cash and kind.

4.6.2   Promote agro-processing industries and proper environmental conditions

Capacities building in technical knowledge in for the groups were found to be implemented in one of the communities in the district. It has been noticed that there was Block farmer's project that was implemented and that out of the five operational areas, only Kenyasi II smallholder farmers were benefiting from this project. Block farmers as an initiative was a Government project, which was aimed at assisting smallholder farmers to get inputs such as seed (improved variety), fertilizer, agrochemical, technical knowledge through agriculture extension agency. It was also aimed at assisting farmers to learn from one another. The inputs were given to a group during a farming season. It was found to be conditional project and that, the inputs should be returned after harvest.

The precondition was that smallholder famers were supposed to organize themselves from 5 to 10 members, and that they should search for their own land ranging from 5 acres and above. The land was supposed to be taken from their chief, and must be located in the same place. About 7 groups of farmers were registered in this project. These groups were getting technical assistance from extension officers on issues relating to (planting distance, time to weed, how and when to apply fertilizer).

The researcher wanted to find out why other groups did not want to benefit from the project. The results were, there was no trust among group leaders and that the whole system was tedious and that they got only small benefits which were to be shared with group members. they explained that, it was difficult for them to repay the input at time when the weather was not good to get enough yield from the farms. According to the District Coordinator (MOFA), the project was also aiming to increase employment for youth in the district and that out of 64 beneficiaries, 40 were youth.

4.6.3 Diversification of economic activities

The aim of diversification of economic activities was to bring about good standard of living to the majority by creating income generating activities and promote value chain production for the identified population. During focus group discussion with Kenyasi II smallholder famers, it was found that there were income generating activities and that small farmholder self help group called Muslim farmers, got support from UNDP and Action Aid amounting to 65,000 Ghana Cedis and was to be distributed as follows: 25,000 Ghana Cedis to soap making industry and 40,000 Ghana Cedis gari processing

70

industry. This aid was aimed at supporting income generating activities and value chain production in the community as it is illustrated in figure 8.

Figure 9: Soap making industry in Kenyasi II
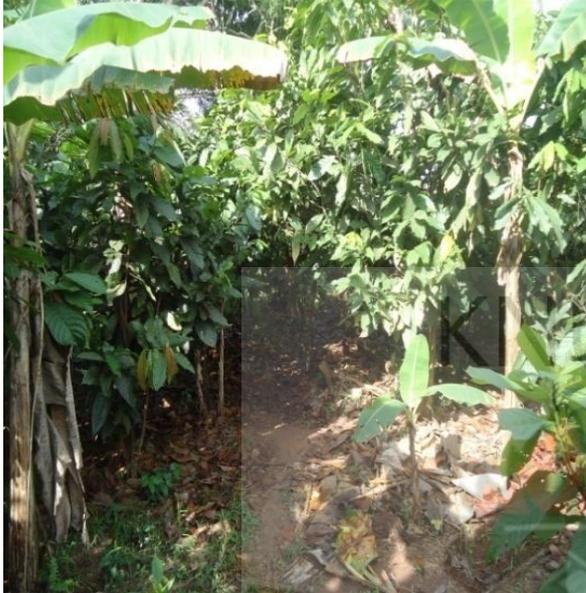
Source: Field survey (2011)

Informal discussion was held with a chairperson of the group, Mr. Mathew Gwamfi with the aim to understand, how the groups were benefiting from the project. He puts the whole issue follows:

"We are really benefiting from the project because before working in groups, we were getting about 4 to 5 sacs of maize per acre but now our yield have increased to between 10 and 12 per acre. It really helps because we are learning how to use the new technology. Also there was this training that we got from Action aid and the District Assembly (Business Advisory Unit) on soap making, now we are competent on it, we are trying to teach others so that they can benefit from this technology because we are using palm oil, ashes from cocoa pods and some leaves from plantain tree which they are all locally produced. The big problem will be the market for the product. As you know, if we increase supply and the demand for our product is not increasing then the price will go down, we will not get anything. Even now we are just getting small money but it at least it helps us in solving our family problems. There are other inputs that we have to mix with, these locally produced material such as perfume and powder which are not locally produced, they are very expensive, the perfume is 350 Ghana Cedis per 15 litres and powder is 32 Ghana Cedis per 50Kg sac. A normal smallholder famer can't manage to buy these inputs unless they work in group and contribute small small. That's why we are working in groups so that we can support each other" (Gwamfi, 2011). The market for the produced soap was explained to be in Asutifi, Kumasi and Accra.

Also in Mehame operational area there were a total of about six self help smallholder farmer groups. Out of them three were active. It was explained that, there were Action aid projects for women capacity building. The main aim of the projects was to capacitate women to access and expand the scope of their economic activities by having income generating activities. Farmers were given training on how to operate a business. After training, there was unconditional support for the groups. The support was in the form of cash and goat. The groups that chose cash were allowed to use the cash in any project they deemed productive. The groups that were supported with goat were given three goats, (two female and one male) to each member group. For the cash project, each member group was given 1,000 Ghana Cedis and was supposed to pay back the cash without interest, so that the money will be given to other groups.

The results show that only goat project that was existing and member groups were enjoying the benefit. The project started with 11 women but now about 20 women are benefiting. This shows that the project has multiplied. It was explained that every member group was having on average 10 goats. During the interview with Daida who was a beneficiary from the project she said that:

"At *first, they gave me three goats, now I have 15 goats, I like my farm because it help me a lot., Before the project, it was hard for me to get even one Cedi per day, but now I'm sure that I have money though not in cash, but any time I need money I can get it by selling my goat"* (Daida, 2011).

The price of a goat was said to vary but ranged from 50 to 150 Ghana Cedis. It depended on when a person ssold his goat. She explained she uses the money to pay different fees for her kids in school. There was no explanation on how the cash project ended.

4.6.4   Enhance easy transportation of goods and persons

The roads from the district center to all operational areas were maintained. The main noted problem explained was, there were poor access roads to the farms, distance ranging from 2 to 3km from the homestead. There was lack of transport facilities to these communities, with exception of Whidiem and Wamahinso where there were Trotro and motorbike making routes from Asutifi which was a district capital to these areas and hence traveling time to the district capital where there was a market was reduced by this means of transport. In Kenyasi II there were few trotro   bus trips. On the average a person was supposed to wait for three hours to get a bus to town. Other means of transport were motorbike and bicycles. Other operational areas such as Kensere had at least one troro trip per day while Mehame had none. Figure 9 below shows the road

condition from Kenyansi 1 the capital town of the district to Kensere which is about 13 km from the capital town of the district.

Figure 10: Road Infrastructure to Kensere

Source: Field survey (2011)

The problem of transportation facilities often meant loss of income from perishable goods which was due to the access market. Hence they rely on middle men who go to buy farm product from these communities and subsequently determine the price. A sale from cocoa production is what is keeping the communities alive. The Ghana Cocoa Board was mentioned to be a -purchasing agency, provides services and buys cocoa from the farmers. It is responsible for providing transport, building collection points in communities, and is closely involved with the farmers who produce cocoa. In spite of the

presence of Cocoa Board, it was found that only Kenyandi II community had storage (collection point).

4.6.5   Land ownership and farm practicing

Reform of land acquisition and property rights, was mentioned to be a priority at national PRSP II, and it was clearly stated in the District Medium Term Plan 2002-2009 as a problem in the district. The study tried to ascertain the situation on type of land ownership among individual smallholder farmers in the district. The finding shows that, on the average, each family has a total of 8 members.

Looking on ownership of land, as it is explained by Figure 10, the findings shows that only 8% of the respondents were having title deed, 54% were either using land that is within a family set up, that means, land passed on from generation to generation of which a member was entitled to. It was explained that in this context, if a family need to increase a portions of land for farming activities, it was done on agreed terms. These include share cropping such as *Abunu* or *Abusa* depending on the type of crop. The *Abunu* was explained as a farming system in which a piece of land is given to a farmer and crops are shared equally between the farmer and landowner. The *Abusa* on the other hand is a farming system in which land is given to a farmer and 1/3 of the crops are shared with the land owner. Here the farmer takes two-thirds of the crops. Food crops were cultivated in the *Abunu* system while cash crops were cultivated in *Abusa* system.

The major farming systems in these communities were mentioned to be land rotation, slash and burn, mixed farming, subsistence farming and mono cropping.

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Figure 11: Smallholder Farm Ownership

	Share crop	Sub lease	Allocation paper	Tittle deed	Lease	Others
■ Wamahinso	12	3	5	3	4	9
■ Nkensere	8	2	3	1	2	10
■ Kenyansi II	4	3	2	4	5	4
■ Whidiem	5	4	2	2	1	6
■ Mehame	6	1	4	0	6	2
■ Total	35	13	16	10	18	31
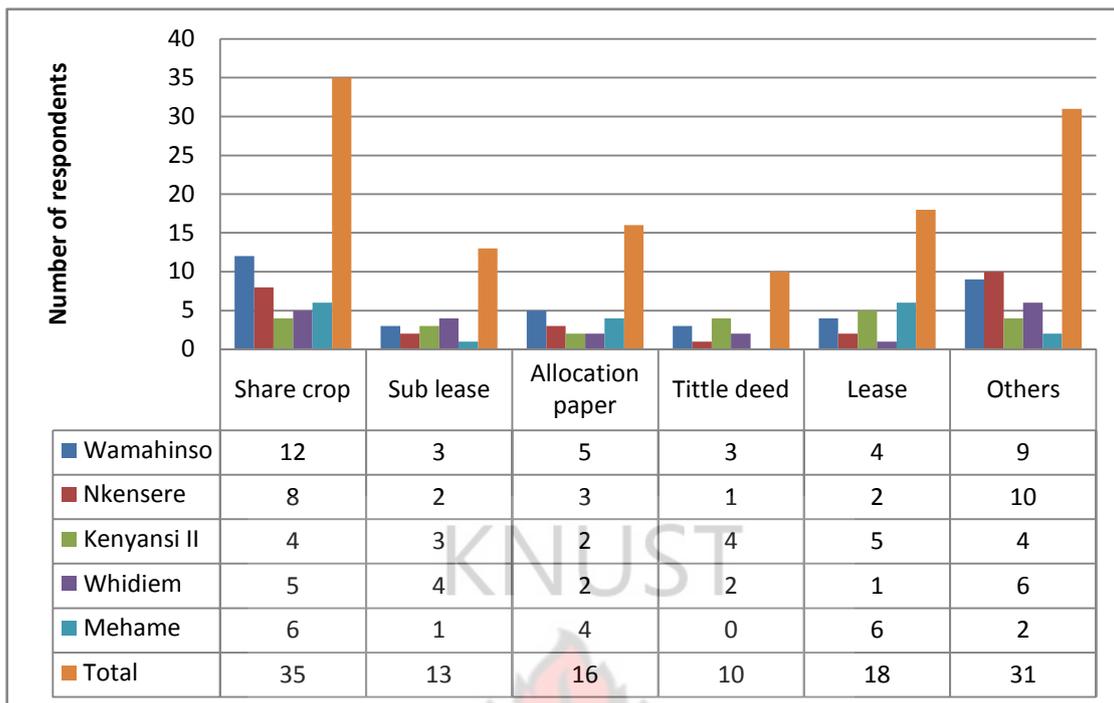
Source: Field survey (2011)

It can be seen that, land was owned through leasehold, sublease, renting or outright purchase. Generally, the family heads are the custodians of the lands. The average farm size of a household was 4 acres.

4.6.6   Financial services

The result from the survey shows that financial organizations were not present in these communities with exception of Whidiem where it was explained that there was microfinance organization (Ahafo Community Bank). However, respondents were not interested to discuss it. The explanation was that, *it is not for us but it has the role for rich people*. The research wanted to get the meaning of rich people based on small holder famers understanding. They argue that they are those people who can easily access everything. Everything means, all socio-economic services including credits from this financial institutions and manage to pay back with interest. To them, it was

explained, they were not able to access this service because the interest rate was very high and they did not have collateral, which was mentioned to be a main criterion to access loan in any financial institution.

Discussion with key informant on some issues relating to market and access to credits revealed that, majority of smallholder famer cannot access any credit and market because there were no farmers' organizations or cooperatives and that if they are there then they are not registered and therefore are informally operating. It was explained that in the earlier years of 1970s to late 1980s, the government laid emphasis on forming farmers' cooperatives and registered them. This was to enable farmers to get loans and organize transport. It was explained that the new system left smallholder famer to work alone (individualism) and that the isolation made majority of smallholder famers losers in every socio-economic aspect and difficult for them to make any progress.

4.6.7   Other social infrastructure

Newmont Ghana Gold mine was mentioned to be a major stake holder in the district, together with Social Investment Fund (SIF), Action Aid, UNDP and European Union, among others. The field discussion shows that with exception of Action Aid and UNDP which were investing in income generating activities for farmer, others were investing in social issues such as construction of health infrastructure, school infrastructure, water and so forth. It was observed that, smallholder famers were not directly involved in the formulation and implementation of these projects, but they were benefiting from it. All farmers were found to be benefiting from health insurance, though health facilities were not located in their communities. On the average, it was mentioned that famers walk 5km to access health facilities.

There was at least a basic school in each community, though school infrastructure was mentioned to be a major issue. Teachers were not also prepared to work in the communities given the difficult environment they worked in.

Looking at Newmont contribution, only Kenyasi II, was benefiting from NADEF. The community was enjoying a water service from the given fund. It was found that, farmers were aware of the fund but did not know how the money was being used. This shows that smallholder famers were not involved in any issue relating to the establishments of NADEF. The only worry these communities had, was to lose their properties including their productive farmlands.

Also it was explained that, there were some development signs in their areas because of the existence of Newmont in the district, but the negative effects were outweighing the positives. It was explained that because of air pollution the communities were cautioned not to continue harvesting rain water, in which it was the alternative source of water for domestic use. Another issue that was noted was the increase in the rate of HIV/AIDS in the district from 0.3% in 2000 to 3% in 2009 as it was explained by the Health District Coordinator.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1   Introduction

This section of the report discusses the summary of the findings of the research based on the analysis done in the previous chapter. Conclusions and recommendations are made based on the findings. The study was conducted, among other things, to establish strategies/plans that were in place to facilitate the operation of smallholder farmers, to identify stakeholders who were working to facilitate the development of smallholder farmers, and to evaluate the project/programmes that were implemented in the district to suite smallholder farmers needs.

5.2   Summary of the findings

5.2.1   Strategies/plans to facilitate the operation of small holder farmers

The strategies that were in place to facilitate the operation of smallholder farmers were agriculture related and non agriculture and they are as follows:

Agriculture related strategies

- Promote agro-processing industries.

- Promote production, processing and marketing of agricultural produce in the district and

- Encourage proper environmental condition among others.

Non agriculture related strategies

- Improve social service provision and access to social services (water, health and education).

- Enhance easy transportation of goods and persons and

- Diversify economic activities.

However, it was found that most of the projects were concentrated in few areas such as Kenyasi and Hwidiem. Threshold population was found to be limiting factors for spatial development of social infrastructure such as health services, water, market and electricity. Smallholder farmers felt not part of poverty reduction strategies in the district. For agriculture relate projects, it was only smallholder farmers in Kenyansi II who were benefiting from the whole process of farm registration and capacity building for farmers through government project.

5.2.2 Stakeholder involvement

The institution and managerial arrangement were found to be in place for mobilization and coordination functions. Different stakeholders were identified to support district initiative to promote the better standard of living for individuals in the district. With the exception of MOFA and Action Aid, none of the stakeholders who were found to be working in the district has direct dealing with projects related to smallholder farmers in the five selected operational area. Smallholder farmers were experiencing the same problems of shortage of market for their farm products, poor accessibility to social services among others.

Some of the stakeholders found working in the district were: Newmont Ghana, Action Aid, Social Investment Fund and UNDP. In spite of the existence of the given supportive structure, the district development implementation report indicated that most of the projects were not successful; there was little involvement of stakeholders in the formulation and implementation process of the projects and strategies, and that this limited involvement creates a gap. Smallholder farmers therefore, felt alienated and marginalized. Problems are exacerbated by a lack of coordination.

Institutional and managerial framework found in the district for the management of district development was almost a reminiscent of former macroeconomic policies. The only difference was the existence of under capacitate decentralized system that was located at the district capital and pro-poor social welfare plans that were implemented at the district with little financial back-up from the central government. This brought confusion among communities on how the government money was spent and distributed among communities in the district. There were no changes in some of the communities, and this brought an increasing level of poverty in their midst.

5.2.3   Outcome and output of programme/project implemented

The Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA) through its decentralized department has put emphasis on increase productivity to farmers. Notable efforts have been done to identify farmers in the district. Technical scientists and extension officers though understaffed have focused on helping farmers on how to apply improved varieties. Agro economic practices, including spacing, timing in planting, weeding, application of fertilizer, herbicides and pesticides have been implemented there by increasing yield. This is the success story in Kenyansi II. The technology has been transferred from one

group to another. The monthly mean incomes of respondents in Kenyansi II were found to be 104 Ghana Cedis (Table 6) as compared to the national minimum average wage per month which is 93 Ghana Cedis (GLSS5, 2008). This shows that if stallholder farmers are involved in planning process, they can make a difference in poverty reduction.

Stakeholder involvement was done at district level, as there were a number of stakeholders at the district level who were involved in implementation of projects than at community level. For example, at Kensere, only MOFA was working with community. If all smallholder famers were involved in the process in the selected communities, the groups would feel empowered to assess their living situation, their needs and find solutions that are local. They can feel responsible to identify outcomes that are in place with emphasis on both technical practices and numerical expression which are a great determinant to measure welfare of any community. For it will determine the market for the produce, credits, input supply, price of the output and input and the quality of production technology will determine the end.

5.3   Recommendations

5.3.1   General Recommendation

Conceptual framework argued in this study should be adopted, in order to allow all stakeholders to be involved. This will bring about equal distribution of opportunities in the communities. Stakeholders should place more emphasis on interventions aiming at improving life of the poor. This should be done by first defining who the poor are and what they do. This will help in monitoring and evaluating the progress and the result of

the project. It become more important during collection of baseline information. The information should be collected from the people or the area intended for intervention.

Empowerment of the poor should not ignore the relationship between the poor and other groups in the community. Strategies to connect smallholder farmers with private sector should be in place. For it has been noted that private sector can make a difference. This explain the fact that empowering the poor means reducing some power from the powerful, in this case development actors have had to improvise alternative ways to contain pressure that may result from those who have their power reduced

5.3.2   Case specific recommendation

i. The focus on mechanization to influence yield per acreage in the district need to have economic focus as well financial and economic profitability of each alternative has to be applied. This can be done, by involving other sectors of the economy, especially research institutions.

ii. Policies should also need to be in place to address the structural change of the economy, so that the structure of the economy cannot be manipulated by the privileged few to suit their interest. The mining activities conducted by New Mont Ghana, for instance, has worried smallholder famers. They are going to lose their productive land and environment. New Mont is now compensating them by providing supplement income in cash for farmers and communities through NADEF, resettlement and livelihood projects for losses. According to the community, the compensation is far outweighed by the benefits famers were getting from their farms and the unpolluted environment they used to leave in.

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iii.   Contradictory policies in decentralized system need to be readdressed so as to give more power to the district to decide on what and where they need to invest. This will solve the real problems of rural population. These will help the district to come up with local goals guided by local discussions at the grass root level. Local projects will be designed according to the will of the locals. In this way, farmers will also have power to affect their own future and feel responsible for development projects. Also there will be an increase in commitment in achieving the identified goals between the government and other stakeholders.

iv.   Policies are also required to redistribute resources across the whole population, especially social welfare policies. Threshold population should not ruin the planning process. This will help to bring equity and decrease the increasing gap between the haves and have-nots. The positive economic growth that is happening in the country is concentrated in a minority population; there is need for its redistribution mainly from urban to rural and from the few rich to majority poor. Such policies may save labour force that is required to keep the smallholder famers alive and sustain production.

5.4   Conclusion

Grass root institutions and managerial capacities do matters in the implementation of any strategy; the government does ignore what is happening at grass root level. The structure of the economy with what is happening at the grass root does not match, the so called target groups are not benefiting. Only named rich people are benefiting. The need to go back to the basics is inevitable, so as to build understanding of rural economies based on meticulous micro economic research. That is, there is the need for change in attitudes to

have local solutions and a genuine will for the government to be the provider of goodwill equally to all. This would address the issue of ownership.

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APPENDICES

TRADITIONAL CHIEFS/COMMUNITY LEADERS

1. Do you partake in decision making with regard to development in your area?
 (a) Yes { } (b) No { }

2. If yes, what decision making process have you been involved in and by whom?

(i)…………………………………………………………………………………………
……

(ii)…………………………………………………………………………………………
…..

(iii)…………………………………………………………………………………………
……

How beneficial was the decision to your area?

(i)…………………………………………………………………………………………
……..

(ii)…………………………………………………………………………………………
…….

3. Have you been involved in taking up local initiatives in the community?(a)Yes { } (b)
No { }

4.   If   yes,   what   activities?
………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
……..

4. Was it beneficial to the community? (a) Yes { } (b) No { }

5. If yes, do you intend to undertake more of such activities? (a) Yes { } (b) No { }

6. If no state reasons why? ....
…………………………………………………………………………………………….

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RESEARCH GUIDE AND QUESTIONNAIRE

ASSESSING STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GHANA ASUTIFI DISTRICT – BRONG AHAFO

QUESTIONNAIRE (MOFA- Field staff)

1. What is the structure of your department?

2. What is the role of the department in Poverty Reduction Strategies, and how did the department get involved?

3. How do you collect views from the field? What happens to these views and how often do you go to the field?

4. Do you think that it is possible to pull up the district expectation with the existing Medium Term Plan? Yes/No…If yes why……..If No what should be done?

5. Do you have farmer groups, youth groups, and village groups that you're working with, Yes/No.? If yes, in which scenario do they work and under what capacity?

6. Are there any other field organizations that you are working with? If yes, who are they and under which scenario?

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING (KNUST)

RESEARCH GUIDE AND QUESTIONNAIRE

ASSESSING STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GHANA's ASUTIFI DISTRICT – BRONG AHAFO

Semi structured questionnaire for government officials (Heads of departments)

1. What is the structure of the ministry or department?

2. What is the role of your office in relation to others?

3. Which department is overall?

4. Which do you work closely with?

5. Are you directly/ indirectly involved in PRSP and how?

6. Is there any strategy in place that is directly focusing on reducing poverty among the poorest in your district? What are the strategies and who/how is it implemented in your department? Is the strategy working? If yes, what are the projects that are implemented under each strategy? Who are the beneficiaries and what are the success stories(Please use attached Table to fill this question)

7. Do you have field staff? If yes, how many?

8. Is there a direct consultation with field staff and what is the procedure?

9. How does the feedback mechanism work in your department?

10. How are projects formulated in your department?

11. How many field projects do you have in your department and who is implementing the projects?

12. Is there any other stakeholders who are involved in the formulation/implementation of projects? Who are they? Mention them, and the project they were or they are involved.

13. Do you think that it is possible to achieve the district expectation with the existing Medium Term Plan? Yes/No…If yes why……..If No what should be done?

PROJECTS EVALUATION FORM (Heads of department)

Strategies.

[   ]

Projects (who are the target group).

[   ]

Implementing Agency (DA or any other organization) and the scenario involved.

[   ]

What are the success stories/progress /outcome of the project?

[   ]

Issues to be resolved and your opinion to resolve them.

[   ]

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RESEARCH GUIDE AND QUESTIONNAIRE

*ASSESSING STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND AGRICULTURE
DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GHANA's
ASUTIFI DISTRICT – BRONG AHAFO*
SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE TO INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENTS (Farmers)

(a) Personal data of respondent
1. Sex: M…………..   F……………
2. Age………………………………
3. Marital   status: Married……………..   Single……………..Widowed…...
   divorced…………………..other………………………………………………
   ………...
4. No. of Children ……………………………………………
5. Home town…………………………………………
6. Educational background (a) Basic level………………..(b) JHS………….(d)
   Tertiary……… other please specify……………..
7. Are   you   an   Indigene? yes/no ………………..If yes where are you
   from……………………If   no   where   are   you   coming
   from…………………………………?
8. How   long   have   you   been   staying
   here………………………………………………?
9. Who is the head of household…………………..?
10. House hold size……………………
(b) **Socio Economic Characteristics of Respondent**

11. Do you have ownership of land? Yes…………. No…………. If yes. How many

    acres ……….indicate type

    (a) Sub lease
    (b) Allocation Paper
    (c) Land title deed
    (d) Lease
    Other……………... From whom did you get the land you are farming?

12. What crops are grown on what season? Why………………………….?
13. What are your sources of income (mark ∨) to a relevant answer
    a) Farming
    b) Galamsey
    c) Business
    d) Others……………………………………please
       specify……………………….
14. How much are you getting per month in each of the economic activity that you
    are performing

Economic activity	Approximate Amount per month (GHC)
Farming	

Galamsey	
Business	
Others	

15. What are the problem you are experiencing when trying to generate your income……………………………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………… ……………………what do you think should be done to resolve the problems?………………………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………… ……………………………………………………………………………… …………………………………

(c) Poverty Reduction Strategies

16. Have you ever been involved by a district or any other organization in plan formulation or implementation? Yes/No , if yes by whom and at what scenario (use the Table below to show your involvement

Scenario	Organization	Capacity/ what was/is your role to the given scenario

17. Was/is the process useful in meeting your expectation yes /no why? Give reasons please.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………

18. Are   you   working   closely   with   the   extension

officer?………………………………………..yes/no, If yes how, explain

please……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………

19. Is there any issue you feel, it will hinder the progress of the implementation of

the designed project/activity that you're doing? yes/No…If yes, what is the issue

and   what   should   be   done   to   resolve   the   issue?
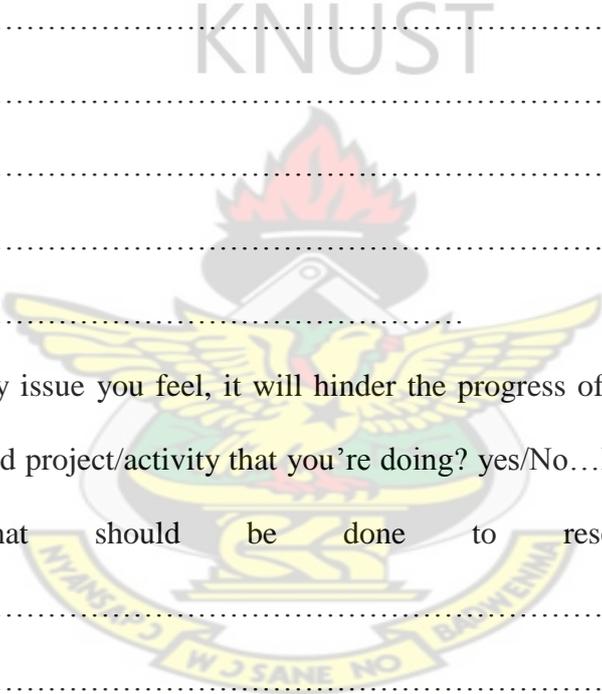
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RESEARCH GUIDE AND QUESTIONNAIRE

ASSESSING STRATEGIES FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT: CASE OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GHANAASUTIFI DISTRICT – BRONG AHAFO
A Guide - Focus groups discussion on awareness, ownership, trust, and commitment

to PRPS **(Needs and expectations)**

1. Are they aware of the PRPS and its plans for the district? Were they consulted in the process? If not are their findings on needs and solutions and those of the PRPS similar and what do they feel about it?

2. Do they work closely with extensions officers and government departments and other stakeholders? What do they think of these?

3. Are there any issues they feel will hinder their progress and that of the PRPS?

4. What solutions do they propose to these problems and how do they feel that they can be more involved in the process and how can they feel more responsible and trust the process?