

MIGRATION: COMMUNITY CONSEQUENCES AND INDIVIDUAL  
MIGRANT

EXPERIENCES IN AGBOGBLOSHIE

KNUST

BY

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## DECLARATION

I, Yajalin Ebotui John, do hereby declare that this thesis is my own submission towards the Master of Philosophy in Development Studies and, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the university or any institution of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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## ABSTRACT

Development disparities between the three northern regions of Ghana and their southern counterparts remain an issue of grave concern since independence. The colonial administration promoted the northern sector as a labour basket for the rich southern cocoa and timber industry and mineral resources. Undoubtedly, this situation resulted in seasonal and sometimes permanent migration of young people from the three northern regions to the southern sector. Though the north-south migration in the country has received much scholarly attention with respect to the causes and patterns of these movements, it is yet to be critically examined in terms of its effects on the socioeconomic well-being of migrants and their dependants. Thus, the thesis investigates how migration affects migrants' well-being.

The main objective of the study is to determine the effects of migration on the well-being of migrants and their dependants in Agbogbloshie. The specific objectives are to examine the effects of migration on the income, education, housing and employment conditions of migrants; to determine the effects of migrants' absence on their households in their areas of origin, to gain insight into the migration decision making process of these young migrants and to explore the experiences of migrants in terms of the challenges and successes from migrants perspective.

A mixed research design involving both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis was used in finding answers to the research questions. The study found that the determinants of well-being; income, education, employment, health, and housing have improved for migrants after migration. The survey results revealed that migrants lived in congested and unhygienic environments, whilst the work they engaged in posed a lot of risks such as carrying very heavy loads and maneuvering between vehicles. On the consequences of migration on source communities, the study found that migration had a mixed effect on Yendi Municipality. Remittances were cited as the main positive effect on migrants' households since it served as a source of additional income that cushioned relatives in the lean season (June-July). Some of the negative effects included the return of migrants with diseases and loss of moral values on the part of the returned migrants. The study recommends that the development gap between the northern and the southern part of the country be bridged so as to limit migration.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMA	Accra Metropolitan Assembly
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FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
IOM	International Organization for Migration
HT	Harris-Todaro
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
JHS	Junior High School
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
ODA	Official Development Assistance
SHS	Senior High School
WASSCE	West African Secondary School Certificate Examination
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UN-DESA Affairs	United Nations Department of Economics and Social
USA	United States of America
WB	World Bank

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1.0 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 Overview of migration**

Migration is a topic that every individual has an opinion about whether a politician, artisan or the newspaper vendor on the street, partly because the issues of migration are in the news every day. People are also interested in migration issues because they affect all aspects of lives ranging from socio-economic, cultural to political. The consequences of migration could be direct or indirect on everybody and both sending and recipient communities are affected by this in diverse ways. This makes the analysis of migration very relevant and complex as well (Hagen-Zanker, 2010).

Migration is defined broadly as a permanent or temporary change of residence irrespective of the distance of the move or the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act across administrative or political boarder (International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2005). According to Malmberg (1997), migration is a dynamic concept and should be defined within the context of distance and time. In the case of international migration, one has to cross a state's border. The measurement of international migration as opposed to other forms of mobility like tourism is usually pegged at one year in the recipient country (Malmberg, 1997; Cwerner, 2001; King, 2013). In the case of temporal migration, the migrants eventually return to their countries of origin, whilst permanent migrants may only pay visits to their home countries. In a given country, a number of migration typologies may exist: urban-urban migration, rural-urban migration, rural-rural migration, urban-rural migration and these could be seasonal, temporal or permanent.

Migration therefore involves a temporal or permanent change of residence from one geographical location to another. Flowing from the above, migration can be categorized into the following types: internal versus external migration; voluntary versus involuntary migration and permanent versus temporal migration (King, 2013). In this study, migration is used to mean those movements which occur in a given country usually from the rural areas to the urban centers. Specifically, the movement of people from the three northern regions in Ghana to Agbogbloshie is the focus of this study. These movements could be permanent or temporal, voluntary or involuntary. Who then is a migrant in Agbogbloshie?

This study adopts the definition offered by Ghana Statistical Service (GSS). According to GSS (2012), an internal migrant refers to an individual who leaves his or her place of residence in a geographical location to another place beyond six months.

Ever since the seminal work of Ravenstein (Grigg, 1977), scholars from the disciplines of Economics, Geography, Demography, Anthropology, Sociology and recently Development Economics have explored various aspects of migration. Many have addressed the issue in relation to the rationale for migrating (Sjaastad, 1962; Todaro, 1969; Lucas and Stark, 1985), migration patterns (Lee, 1966), the determinants of migration (Caldwell, 1968) and still others have looked at the welfare impacts of these population movements (Falaris, 1987; Litchfield and Waddington, 2003; BoakyeYiadom, 2008). Also, the role of migrant remittances in poverty reduction and economic development has been extensively explored (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2005; Rosenzweig, 2005; Skeldon, 2008). It is not surprising that Simmons, Diaz-Briquets and Laquian wrote four decades ago that:

The movement of people in developing countries has been intensively studied, and in recent years the results of these studies have been thoroughly reviewed. One needs good justification for preparing yet another review... (Simmons et al, 1977: p5)

The abundance of research in the field of migration has mainly focused on mobility between countries usually the movement of people from developing countries to developed countries. This is due to the perceived importance of the issue by richer countries with significant attention on international remittances sent by migrants to developing countries (Kapur, 2003; Ratha, 2003; Skeldon, 2008). In 2006, a report by the United Nations (UN) on International Migration and Development aptly captured the growing interest in migration and its role in economic development in the following words:

The potential for migrants to help transform their native countries has captured the imaginations of national and local authorities, international institutions and the private sector. There is an emerging consensus that countries can co-operate to create triple wins for migration, for their countries of origin and for the societies that receive them (UN, 2006, p6).

In the ensuing discussion, I explore the general question of why people migrate from a theoretical point of view.

### **1.1.1 What drives migration?**



Early scholars such as Ravenstein (1885), Lee (1966), Todaro (1969), Caldwell, (1969) and Grigg (1977) have all explored the question why people migrate? While migration is as old as humanity itself, theories and empirical generalizations about migration are fairly new.

As far back as a century ago, Ravenstein pioneered in providing what he termed “laws of migration.” Ravenstein’s “laws” can be organized into three: reasons for migrating, distance and characteristics of migrants. In Ravenstein’s opinion, the main cause of migration is economic. People move in response to differences in economic opportunities that exist in different locations. For spatial dimension, most migrants prefer cities that are not far from them and those who prefer longer distances do so to large commercial centres. In terms of characteristics, young people and mostly women are more likely to migrate in Ravenstein’s opinion (Grigg, 1977). A detailed discussion of these laws and their relevance in contemporary times is in chapter two.

Again, early scholars such as Zipf (1946) used the physical concept of gravity to explain migration as a function of the size of the origin and destination population and predicted migration flows to be inversely related to distance (Zipf, 1946). The cause of migration is therefore related to man’s natural desire to move to other areas.

In his famous “push-pull” model, Lee (1966) saw migration as a result of attractive and repellent forces within an environment. A prospective migrant weighs between the attractive and repellent forces represented by pluses (+’s) and minuses (-’s) respectively within the area of origin and the area of destination and then makes a decision. For Lee such a decision is not completely rational since information about the area of destination is perceived.

Similarly, Harris-Todaro (1970) described rural-urban migration as a gambling decision that potential migrants make taking into account their rural incomes and expected urban incomes. Under this model, migrants are assumed to be rational decision makers who consider the various labour market opportunities available to them in the rural and urban sectors and choose the one that maximizes their expected gains from migration (see Todaro and Smith, 2012).

In the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) developed in the 1980s, migration is seen as a household decision and includes a more complete explanation for migration flows (Stark, 1991). The fundamental premise of this theory is that migration is an investment decision by a household to gain economic benefit in the long term.

Apart from these theories, there are numerous empirical findings in different countries as to why people migrate. For example, Ellis (2000) has argued that migration is a response to a number of causes which varies across individuals and households over time. Instead of the pull-push dichotomy, the determinant of migration is related to seasonality, risk, labour markets, credit markets, asset strategies and coping behaviour. These considerations constitute distinct but overlapping forces that influence migration. Extrahousehold variables, such as rural services and the proximity of developed urban centres may influence these key considerations in various ways. For instance, developed urban centres may provide employment opportunities for supplementing farm income (Bilsborrow et al, 1987); infrastructure could enhance market participation by reducing transaction costs thereby improving rural incomes (Renkow et al, 2004) while credit provision could address an important source of market failure (Wouterse, 2010).

As argued by Massey (1990), most of the factors that cause an initial migration could be very different from those that make migration to continue. It has been established that, migration becomes common in communities that have a successful pioneer migration as more people imitate current migrants and being helped by them until migration becomes self-sustaining. A detail of these theories as well as consequences of migration on communities would be discussed in the literature review in chapter two.

Internal mobility in Ghana has a long history and scholars over the years have explored extensively the causes, patterns and effects of these movements (Caldwell, 1968; Nabila, 1985; Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005; Awumbila, 2007; Hashim, 2007). In spite of the plethora of literature on internal migration in Ghana, the question of how migration affects the socio-economic well-being of migrants and their households is yet to be fully explored. Quartey (2006) and Boakye-Yiadom (2008) shed some light on this question relying solely on secondary data from Ghana Living Standard Surveys. They found that; the estimates of migration gains show different mean welfare impacts on two types of in-migrants. Although some urban-to-rural in-migrants derived welfare gains

from migrating, urban-to-rural migration generally had a negative impact on the welfare of in-migrants. In the case of rural-to-urban migration, migration enhanced considerably the welfare of in-migrants. However, the actors involved in the process of migration and the experiences of these actors from their own perspective are yet to be fully covered.

This study contributes to the scholarly discourse on the subject by exploring the effects of migration on the socio-economic well-being of migrants from the migrants' perspectives and experiences. The focus of the thesis is therefore to determine how migration affects internal migrants from northern Ghana living in Agbogbloshie. By so doing the thesis seeks to fill the gap in the migration literature in Ghana. Before a detailed presentation of the problem statement, the concept of well-being needs clarification as it is viewed differently by different scholars.

### **1.1.2 Defining socio-economic well-being of migrants**

Well-being is a slippery concept and there is no universally accepted definition of what the concept is. In the same vein, how to measure well-being is highly subjective though some key variable clearly stand out. Moreover, the term well-being is synonymous with quality of life; happiness and life satisfaction (see Diener et al, 2003; Diener, 2009; Nowok et al, 2011).

The New Economics Foundation (2008) sees well-being as that dynamic state which enables an individual to build his or her potential, work productively, develop strong and positive relationship with other people and above all contribute to his or her community. Well-being is enhanced when one is able to accomplish his or personal goals and a sense of purpose in society. According to Naess (1999), well-being is defined as an individual's view, opinion and experience of how well he or she lives.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2011) argues that when measuring well-being, income and wealth are the main variables that stand out.

These are acquired through work or remittances from relatives and friends.

From the perspective of the World Bank, the measurement of well-being includes variables such as: income, consumption, health, education and assets ownership. In many of the cases



however, the World Bank has focused on the income and consumption dimension and only casually referred to the other dimensions (Coudouel et al, 2002; World Bank, 2011).

Flowing from the above, the key variables emerging from the definitions of “well-being” are incomes of individuals, health status, housing and educational aspirations of individuals. In this study, well-being is used to mean the individual perception of how well he or she is within the context of his or her incomes, health status and educational aspirations.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Ghana like many developing countries, suffer from the problem of uneven development and distribution of basic social amenities between rural and urban areas. Facilities for higher education, quality health care, major sports and entertainment facilities, telecommunication and the modern economy are all concentrated in the regional capital cities (Caldwell, 1969; Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Anarfi et al, 2003). This dualism and disparities in development were inherited from the colonial administration. For example, the British colonial government saw that the southern forest region had the country’s strongest potential for development and accordingly promoted the northern savannah largely as a major source of labour for southern industries and agriculture (Caldwell, 1969; Nabila, 1985; Anarfi et al, 2003; Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008).

After more than five decades of political independence and implementation of numerous rural development programmes by different governments, the problem of uneven development still persists especially between the southern part of the country and the three northern regions. Undoubtedly, this situation has resulted in seasonal and sometimes permanent migration of young people from the three northern regions to the southern sector in search of jobs (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008).

Analyses of Ghana’s population censuses since 1960 confirm the above assertion. The censuses results have revealed that the three northern regions have largely been net outmigration areas. In the 1960 population census, the Northern, Upper East and Upper West regions had a net out migration of –157,055. In 1970, the three regions recorded a net out-migration of – 33,719. In 1984 however, while there was a net gain of 10,716 for the Northern Region, the Upper East and Upper West suffered a net loss of 20,762 and 3,083



persons respectively. By 2000, all the three regions were affected by large volumes of net losses of population, which stood at 139,216 for the Northern Region, 201,532 for the Upper East Region and 191,653 for the Upper West Region. With the exception of the Northern region in 1984, the three northern regions have consistently suffered net losses of population to the southern regions (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2005; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005). This shows a clear migration stream between the north and south of Ghana and therefore paints the three northern regions as net out-migration areas with respect to inter-regional migration within Ghana.

In recent times, a new trend of migration stream has emerged, dominated by females. Most of them are below the ages of 18 and they move independently from the three northern regions of the country to Accra, Kumasi and Takoradi to engage in head portering (Agarwal et al, 1994; Apt, 1997; Opare, 2003; Tanle, 2003). A survey conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service in 2008 revealed that majority of migrant workers especially head porters working in Accra hail from the three northern regions with women representing 47 percent against 37 percent of men while 16 percent were from other regions in Ghana and neighbouring countries (GSS, 2008).

The rationale for migrating and the decision making process of these migrants have been thoroughly explored over the years (Caldwell, 1968; Nabila, 1985; Opare, 2003; Tanle, 2003; Anarfi et al, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008; Kwankye et al, 2007). The main finding emerging from these studies on these migrants is that, in most cases migrants themselves were the ones deciding to migrate. Evidence suggest that "push factors", that is moving away from the vagaries of rural living and then "pull factors" such as western industry, commerce, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and bright lights of the urban areas are the causes of most rural-urban migration. The building of better roads and transportation systems has only served to facilitate migration from the rural areas to urban centres (Caldwell, 1969; Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Nabila, 1985; Opare, 2003; Tanle, 2003; Anarfi et al, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008 and Kwankye et al, 2007).

Even though the north-south migration in Ghana has received much scholarly attention with regards to the causes, patterns and the decision making process, it is yet to be critically examined in terms of the effects of such movements on the socio-economic well-being of

these migrants and their dependants. Thus, the study investigates how migration affects migrants' incomes, education, employment and housing in Agbogbloshie.

Also, the study examines the consequences of migrants' absence from home within the household level and by extension on the communities. The challenges and success stories of these migrants are equally examined.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The main research question in this study is:

- ❖ What are the effects of migration on the socio-economic well-being of migrants and their dependants in Agbogbloshie?

The specific questions are:

- ❖ How does migration from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie affect the incomes, education, housing and employment conditions of migrants?
- ❖ What factors influence migration from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie?
- ❖ What are the consequences of migration on donor households and communities?
- ❖ What are the benefits and problems encountered by migrants in Agbogbloshie?

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The main research objective of this study is to:

- ❖ Determine the socio-economic effects of migration on the well-being of migrants and their dependants in Agbogbloshie.

The specific objectives are:

- ❖ To determine the effect of migration on the incomes, education, housing and employment conditions of migrants.
- ❖ To examine the factors behind migration from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie.
- ❖ To determine the effect of migrants' absence on their households in their areas of origin.

- ❖ To gain insight into the migration decision making process of these young migrants.
- ❖ To explore the experiences of migrants in terms of the challenges and successes from migrants perspective.

### **1.5 Argument of the thesis**

The main argument of this thesis is that migration from the three northern regions to Agbogbloshie has significant impact on the socio-economic well-being of migrants and their dependants in the light of their incomes, education, housing and health conditions. Compared with the causes of these movements, much is less known about the implications of migration for the general subjective well-being of the actors involved; whether migration from the three Northern regions to Agbogbloshie improves migrants' incomes, education, health status and employment opportunities are crucial questions that are generally left unexplored. The study argues that the effects of these movements on the incomes, education, housing and health are largely the motivations for subsequent migration or return migration. This is relevant in the context of the growing interest in using well-being measures to evaluate progress of societies.

This study also advances the argument that, migration from the three northern regions to Agbogbloshie is an investment strategy in which households allow members of their families to engage in to reap long term benefits. The literature largely points to push and pull factors as the key determinants of migration flow between the three northern regions and the southern sector. However, a comprehensive research to trace these migrants to their households and communities to validate this assertion is largely missing in the literature. In this research, the author will not only interview the migrants in Agbogbloshie but will trace some of them to their communities to validate their responses from their households. In the process, the effects of migration from the perspective of the communities and households will be explored into detail. This will be a source of information to triangulate the responses from the migrants in Agbogbloshie.



## **1.6 Justification of the study**

Studies on migration in Ghana and its potential role in poverty reduction have rather concentrated on international migration. However, internal migration and its effects on migrants' well-being remain unaccounted for, though internal migration is equally important. Similarly, policies directed towards migration in Ghana are centered on international migration (see Billsborrow, 1992; Anarfi et al, 2003). The literature available on migration within Ghana also tends to concentrate on urban destinations and urbanization issues, with inadequate attention being paid to the sending areas and the effects of migration on migrants' well-being (Anderson, 2001; Dugbazah, 2007).

This study contributes to the scholarly discourse on internal migration in Ghana with the aim of augmenting the existing literature in the area of the consequences of migration and its effects on the well-being of migrants.

Also, the study seeks to explore the conditions under which migrants in Agbogbloshie live as well as the experiences they go through. This will inform policy makers on alternative ways of dealing with the issues arising in Agbogbloshie. In-depth understanding of the concerns, circumstances, strategies, and actual conditions from the perspective of internal migrants will help the government and civil society organizations to design policies that can confront the problems ensuing from these mass migrations.

Furthermore, understanding the migrants' motivation, causes, trends and consequences will help in developing strategies aimed at minimizing the ill effects of these flows and maximizing the benefits that may follow.

## **1.7 Scope of the study**

The study was conducted in two areas; Agbogbloshie in Accra Metropolis and Yendi Municipality in Northern region. Agbogbloshie is the most populous slum in Accra with inhabitants from all the three northern regions of Ghana (Housing the Masses, 2009; Lartey and Blatyne, 2011; Ankrah, 2011). The area is about 31.3 hectares and less than a kilometre from the Central Business District (CBD) of Accra. An enumeration exercise led by "Housing the Masses" and submitted to "People's Dialogue Ghana" found the population of Agbogbloshie to be over 79,000 (Housing the Masses, 2009). The 2010



Population and Housing Census did not fully capture the area as the official population figure waivered around 45000 (Bain, 2011).

The choice of Agbogbloshie was based on the fact that the settlement is a home to most of the migrants from northern Ghana to Accra. The proportion of northerners in that settlement is close to 80% with 60% of them from northern region alone (Housing the Masses, 2009).

Yendi Municipality is the capital of the Dagbon Kingdom. Yendi Municipality was chosen because majority of the migrants living in Agbogbloshie made up of Konkombas and Dagombas came from Yendi and its environment.

### **1.8 The Structure of the thesis**

The thesis is organized into five chapters: Chapter one provides an overview of migration, the statement of the problem and defines the concept of socio-economic wellbeing. It also outlines the questions the study seeks to answer, the objectives and the justification for the study.

Chapter two reviews the literature on migration over the years. The key topics discussed here are theories of migration, empirical findings on the consequences of migration, internal migration in Ghana and the conceptual framework.

Chapter three is in two sections: The first section provides brief information about the study areas: Agbogbloshie and Yendi Municipality. The second section deals with the research methodology used in carrying out the study including research design, sampling techniques, data sources and mode of analysis.

Chapter four provides answers to the research questions. These include data analysis and presentation on the causes of migration, the socio-economic effects of migration on migrants' well-being as well as the experiences of the migrants.

The summary of findings, recommendations and conclusion remarks constitute chapter five.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2.0 THE DYNAMICS OF MIGRATION

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant theories and empirical literature on migration. The aim of the chapter is to examine past and present issues regarding the factors or motives behind migration, the decision making process and the characteristics of migrants. Also, empirical literature with regards to the consequences of migration and internal migration in Ghana are reviewed. The chapter concludes with a conceptual framework linking the variables and actors involved in rural-urban migration in Ghana.

#### 2.2 Theoretical review

The absence of a comprehensive theory to capture all aspects of migration remains an issue of grave concern for scholars in the field of migration. There have been numerous calls for such a theory and attempts have equally been made to construct such a general theory (see Lee, 1966; Grigg 1977; Massey et al, 1998; Zelinsky, 1971; De Haas, 2010). Among the many difficulties that scholars face in an attempt to theorize on the phenomenon are the diversity and complexity of migration as well as the difficulty of separating migration from other socio-economic and political processes. Many have therefore concluded that there will probably never be a general theory on migration (see Salt, 1987; De Haas, 2010; King, 2012). Others have also concluded that migration is only weakly theorized (see Arango, 2004).

The theories of migration can be categorized according to the level they focus on. Microlevel theories focus on individual migration decisions, whereas macro-level theories look at aggregate migration trends at the national level and examine these trends with macrolevel explanations. There is also a third level known as the “meso-level” in which the decision to migrate is a function of the household or community level and can explain both causes and perpetuation of migration (see Hagen-Zanker, 2010). These are presented in table 2.1

**Table 2. 1 Theories of migration defined by level of analysis**

<b>Micro-level</b>	<b>Me-so level</b>	<b>Macro-level</b>
Migration cause: Individual values/ desires/ Expectancies e.g. improving survival, wealth etc.	Migration cause/ perpetuation: Collectives/ social networks e.g. social ties	Migration cause/ perpetuation: Macro-level opportunity Structure e.g. economic structure (income and employment opportunities differentials)
Main theories: -Ravenstein’s laws - Lee’s push/pull theory -Neoclassical micro migration -Bright light theory -Zipf’s Gravity model -Lewis dual	Main theories: - Social capital theory - Institutional theory - Network theory - Cumulative causation - New Economics of Labour Migration -Sjaastad human investment theory	Main theories: - Neoclassical macro migration theory - Migration as a system - Dual labour market theory - World systems theory - Mobility Transition

Source: Hagen-Zanker, 2010.

The study reviews those theories that are relevant to rural urban migration: Ravenstein's laws of migration, Zipf's gravity model of migration, Lewis dual sector model, Bright light theory, Lee's push-pull theory, Sjaastad human investment theory, Harris-Todaro model of migration, New Economics of Labour migration model, Crawford value expectancy theory, Network migration theory and Mabogunje's system theory

### **2.3 Ravenstein's laws of migration**

It has become routine for any study on migration to acknowledge, if not pay homage to Ravenstein's "laws of migration" (see Grigg, 1977). Ravenstein's first paper on migration was published in a Geographical Magazine using the British population census but a later and better known article appeared in the Statistical Journal in 1889 after compiling data from more than twenty different countries which he titled "The Laws of Migration." These laws comprised a number of principles explaining the causes of migration, the consequences of migration and the characteristics of migrants. The laws are summarized below.

1. Migrants prefer shorter distances but those going on longer distances make it to industrial centres of commerce.
2. Rural-urban migration is the most dominant in all forms of migration.
3. Migrants always constitute a greater proportion in the growth of commercial cities than natural population growth.
4. Migration increases along with the development of industry, commerce and transport.
5. Each migration stream produces a counter stream.
6. Women are more likely to migrate than men in shorter distances but men are majority in international migration.
7. Migration is mainly caused by economic factors.

Law 1 is similar to Newton's gravity model in Physics. The law simply states that the volume of movement between two places is directly proportional to the product of their masses (that is populations) and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them whiles Laws 2 and 3 talk about rural-urban migration and its effects on urbanization.



Historically, this has been the main form of population change in most countries of the world. Law 4 looks at migration and its effects on development. Law 5 discusses out-migration and return migration. Law 6 describes the gender aspect of migration. Finally, law 7 states a fundamental cause of most forms of migration.

As a pioneer in modern day migration studies, Ravenstein's laws have formed the cornerstone of geographical thoughts on migration (White and Woods, 1980).

Ravenstein's usage of the term "law" has been criticised by many scholars. For example, after Ravenstein's presentation, Noel Humphreys pointed out that migration was rather distinguished for its lawlessness rather than having any definite law (see Lee, 1966).

More recently, Samers (2010) has described the laws as „economically deterministic“, “methodologically individualistic” and “dreadfully antiquated”. Law 1 which talks about distance in migration process for example has become obsolete due to technological advancement.

In spite of the weaknesses labelled against Ravenstein's theory, his laws are still relevant in the 21<sup>st</sup> century in explaining the causes and consequence of rural-urban migration in most developing countries (see Todaro, 1976; Lall et al, 2006). Law 6 which talks about female and male migration is very relevant for this study. Recent surveys and studies in Ghana show that female migration has increased with respect to north-south migration (see Tanle, 2003, Opare, 2003; Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2008; Kwankye, 2010).

However, the improvement in technology and road networks has rendered some of the laws obsolete. For example, law one which talks about distance of migration is no longer applicable with improved transport systems.

## **2.4 Zipf's Gravity model of migration**

In 1946, Zipf opined that the volume of migration between two places is directly proportional to the product of the populations of the origin and destination and inversely proportional to the distance between the two (see Bodvarsson and Van den-Berg, 2013). Thus, it can be represented mathematically as:  $P(1) P(2)/D$  where  $P(1)$  is origin's population,  $P(2)$  is destination's population, and  $D$  represents the distance between the

origin and the destination (Bodvarsson and Van den-Berg, 2013). This came to be known as the gravity model of migration. The gravity model of migration is an application of Newton's law of gravity predicting the level of attraction between two bodies. In applying Newton's law, Zipf treated mass as the population of a place and distance as miles between two places. Zipf's intuition was that distance is a good proxy for the costs of migration. Secondly, the gravity model effectively hypothesizes that the greater the volume of migration, the higher are the populations of the origin and destination communities. According to Heide (1963), Zipf's model is important in migration literature for the following three reasons:

- ❖ The expenses and difficulty of travelling influence the decision to migrate
- ❖ The wish of migrants to maintain contacts either for personal or business with the region one leaves behind determines where and how long a migrant goes.
- ❖ The fact that information concerning opportunities is easier to be accessed by regions at shorter distances leads migrants to go shorter distances.

The gravity model of migration has received very little attention in migration studies (Bodvarsson and Van den-Berg, 2013). The model does not consider motives of migration neither does it take into consideration the cost and expenses involved in migration, all that is emphasized in the model is distance between regions. The improvement in transportation systems has reduced the distance factor in migration.

Hence, this model is not so much useful in analyzing internal migration.

## **2.5 The Lewis Dual Sector model:**

Dualism is a situation in which two distinct conditions (one favourable and the other not) are in coexistence in one society: for example, extreme poverty and affluence, modern and traditional economic sectors, growth and stagnation (see Lewis, 1954; Ranis, 2004; Todaro and Smith, 2012). Dualism is characterized by the following:

- 1) Two sets of conditions, of which one is "superior" and other "inferior," coexist in a given space.

2. Such phenomena are chronic and could be eliminated only by conscious efforts. For example, wealth and poverty is not simply a historical phenomenon that will be rectified by itself in time unless conscious efforts are made to redeem the situation.

Lewis (1954) attributed dualism to be the main cause of rural-urban migration in developing countries. He argued that there is excess labour in the rural sector and relocating the labour to the urban centres through migration will not affect productivity in the rural areas. On the other hand, the urban sector has a high demand for labour because of industries which produce in high quantities and even offer higher than the rural areas.

Lewis' assumption was that agricultural sectors in developing countries was based on hoe and cutlass and therefore had surplus labour whereas the industrial sector was assumed to be technologically advanced with high levels of investment operating in an urban environment (Lewis, 1954; Todaro, 1969; Ranis, 2004).

To some extent, dualism seems to be the main cause of north-south migration, as many of the youth move from northern Ghana to the southern sector in search of greener pastures (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Anarfi et al, 2003, Kwankye, 2011).

## **2.6 The Bright Light Theory**

In the 1950s, attempts were made to integrate a variety of causes of labour migration which resulted in the "bright lights" theory. Leading proponents of this theory were Gulliver and Mitchell. In their view, the movement of migrants to the cities could no longer be explained solely in terms of economic opportunities but also in terms of sociopolitical factors. The theoretical approach Gulliver and Mitchell proposed is based on the distinction between the necessary and sufficient conditions for labour migration. The theory emphasizes that economic factor though a necessary condition may not be the deciding factor for migration (Gulliver, 1955; Mitchell, 1959; Adepaju, 1985). The rate of rural-urban migration should be seen as a result of aggregate of economic, social and political rather than purely economic conditions alone.

Although this perspective acknowledges socio-political factors as important determinants of migration, it is silent on the cost of migration at both the origin and destination. Also,

the theory does not explain the fact that the necessary and sufficient conditions for migration can impact differently on male and female potential migrants.

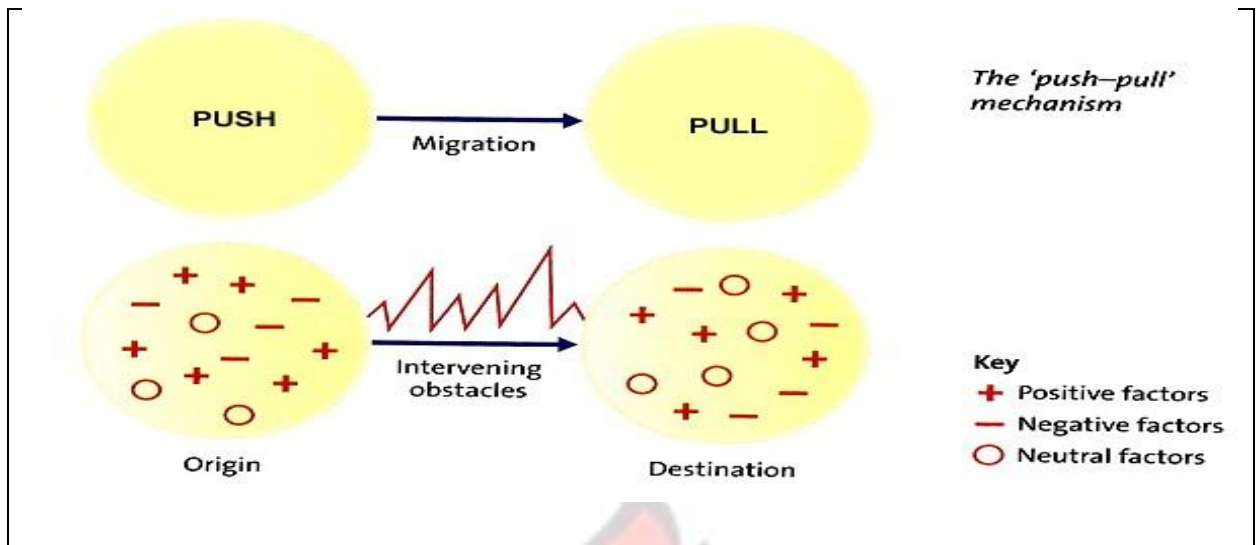
The bright light theory to a very large extent is relevant in explaining the contemporary north-south migration in Ghana. Studies conducted on migration from Northern Ghana to the Southern sector found that young adults are attracted to the cities because of certain amenities they would not find in their areas of origin (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Awumbila, 2007; Hashim, 2007).

## **2.7 Lee's Push-Pull Theory of Migration**

Lee (1966) put forward a theory that explained migration as a consequence of factors pertaining to places of origin and destinations. For Lee, migration is a decision that an individual or family makes which could be rational or irrational and for every act of migration, the following elements are present: origin, intervening obstacles and destination. The decision to migrate is influenced by four factors: a) factors pertaining to the area of origin b) factors associated with the area of destination c) intervening obstacles and d) personal factors. Figure 2.1 is an illustration of the first three factors which interact to influence persons to migrate or not to.

The area of origin and destination are plus (+) and minus (-) signs as well as zeros (0s). In every area, there are numerous factors which act to retain, attract or repel people from that area. Factors which attract or retain people in a particular geographical location are symbolized by the pluses (+'s). However, factors which act to repel people from a particular area are represented by minuses (-'s). There are others within the area of origin and destination to which people are essentially indifferent represented by zeros (0s).





**Figure 2. 1 Factors in origin, destination and intervening obstacles in migration**

Source: Lee, 1966.

In between the push and pull ends are intervening obstacles. Potential migrants react differently to the sets of +’s and –’s at both origin and destination but most of these factors affect most people similarly while others do not. For example a nice weather is attractive while a bad weather is repulsive.

Lee’s push factor causing migration is quite similar to Lewis’ dual sector model of migration in the sense that in both models people move from an agrarian sector to the industrialized centers whereas his economic conditions luring people into cities is also similar to Ravenstein’s claim that the main cause of migration is economic.

In applying the model, scholars assumed that various environmental, demographic and economic factors determine migration decisions. So far, the push-pull model has attempted to incorporate most of the factors that play a role in migration decision-making (Bauer and Zimmermann, 1998).

However, concerns have been raised as to whether the push-pull framework is of much analytical use and whether it can be called a theory at all. This pessimistic view is on the basis that the model is rather a descriptive model in which the different factors playing a

role in migration decisions are enumerated in a relatively arbitrary manner (see De Haas, 2010).

This model so far explains to a very large extent the kind of migration stream between the three northern regions and to Accra or Agbogbloshie. Most of the current migrants are young adults and studies have shown that odd cultural practices like forced marriages and female genital mutilation are serving as some of the push factors that drive these young adults from their communities. At the same time, attraction of urban wages and amenities serve as pull factors drawing these young migrants into the city (Agarwal et al, 1997; Tanle, 2003; Opare, 2003; Yeboah, 2008).

## 2.8 Sjaastad Human Investment theory

Sjaastad (1962) viewed migration as an investment decision. For Sjaastad, the migration decision is a function of an individual's expected costs and returns over time. The benefits could be both monetary and non-monetary components. The non-monetary benefits may include change in psychic returns because of locational preferences.

Similarly, monetary costs include costs of transportation and disposal of property before embarking on the move.

Sjaastad's assumption is that individuals are rational decision makers who want to maximize long term benefits over their productive life and can at least compute their net real income streams in the present place of residence as well as in all possible destinations. For any potential migrant, suppose the present value of the migration generated net gain is given by:

$$PV_m(t) = \int_0^T [W_{mt} - W_{nt}]e^{-pt}dt - C_m$$

Where

$W_{mt}$ : represents anticipated welfare at  $m$ th prospective destination locality at time  $t$

$W_{nt}$ : represents anticipated welfare at origin locality at time  $t$

$C_m$ : denotes a one-time cost of migrating to a locality  $m$

$T$ : duration of migration status

$P$ : implicit discount rate

The individual will not migrate if  $PV_m \leq 0$  for all  $m$

The individual migrates if there exists an  $m$  for which  $PV_m \geq 0$  and where this condition is satisfied by more than one prospective destination, the individual selects the destination that yields maximum  $PV_m$  (Boakye- Yiadom and McKenzie, 2006).

The above assumption is not realistic since “perfect information” is not always the case as noted by Lee (1966). Usually, information about areas of destination is always perceived and based on the network of a prospective migrant.

The model was propounded in the light of Western countries where most citizens are educated and are able to access information about the job market and even calculate their net returns in a given timeline. In the case of migrants moving to Accra from the northern regions, this theory may not be relevant. Even though prospective migrants might have some information about wages in the southern sector of the country, they may not be able to calculate how much exactly they may be earning since a lot of the migrants find themselves in the informal sector where daily wages fluctuate. As a result, this theory is not applicable to the case under study

## **2.9 The Harris-Todaro model of migration**

The Harris-Todaro model was propounded to explain the prevalence of rural-urban migration in developing countries despite high unemployment rates in cities. Building on the works of early scholars like Ravenstein, Harris and Todaro see migration as an economic activity, which for the individual migrant could be a rational decision despite the existence of urban unemployment (Harris and Todaro, 1970). They argued that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected income rather than actual earnings (Harris and Todaro, 1970). Potential migrants take into account the various labour market opportunities available in both the rural and urban sectors and choose the one that maximizes their expected gains from migration.

According to Todaro (1980), the model can be summarized as follows:

1. Migration is a rational decision taking into account expected benefits mostly financial by individuals within the labour market.
2. The decision is more of a gamble that is the probability of successfully obtaining employment in the urban modern sector.
3. The probability of obtaining an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate.

The Harris-Todaro model has been criticized as theoretically simplistic (Lall et al, 2006). According to Lall et al, the criticism levelled against Harris and Todaro can be summarized as follows:

- (1) The model is static whereas migration trends changes over time.
- (2) The model has not taken into account the probable heterogeneity of migrants and risk which could dampen migration incentives and render the Harris-Todaro paradox even less likely to occur.

The Harris-Todaro model assumes that urban workers are either employed in the manufacturing sector or unemployed; this makes it difficult for the model to be applied to north-south migration in Ghana. A number of micro studies have shown that a lot of migrants are in the informal sector not necessarily in industries or the formal sector (Agarwal et al, 2003; Tanle, 2003, Yeboah, 2008; Kwankye, 2011).

## **2.10 The New Economics of Labour Migration Model**

Oded Stark was the leading proponent of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) model (Stark, 1991). There are two main strands of the NELM. The first is to recognize that, the decision to migrate including where to go and to do what are family decisions and not an individual decision (King, 2012). Sometimes, the scale of the decision to migrate goes beyond the nuclear setting to the extended families and wider communal groups (Massey et al, 1998).

The second aspect of the NELM theory is that, the decision to migrate is not only about wages maximization but for risk aversion and income diversification. For poor sending



communities where there are market failures (example: crop failure due to drought or hurricane, or sudden unemployment) which cannot be compensated by savings, insurance or credit (because none of these are available), one surest way to diversify is through migration.

The NELM theory focuses on income diversification rather than wages differentials between two spatial areas. Families try to spread their members to other geographical areas for surety rather than income maximization.

So far, this is the only theory that predicts return of migrants. In the discussion of the pull–push models and the Harris-Todaro model, migrants only return as a result of miscalculation of the balance of costs and benefits in migration; hence returns are movements of failure. On the other hand, returnees are considered a success in the NELM theory. These are people who have achieved their target in migrating and then return home with their accumulated savings, perhaps to be used as an investment (Cassarino, 2004).

The NELM theory is relevant to this study since there is evidence that some families in the northern regions of Ghana send family members to the south in order to remit in times of economic hardship (Tanle, 2003; Songsore, 2003; Opare, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008).

However, the NELM theory has been criticized for being too restrictive to only the supply side of labour migration, and suits only to the poor rural settings but studies have shown that it is not only the poor who migrate (see Arango, 2004; Skeldon, 2008). Moreover, the theory assumes that relationships within poor families are harmonious and does not take into account the frictions and conflicts that might exist. Finally, the theory does not account for situations where the whole family decides to migrate (King, 2012).

### **2.11 The Crawford's value.expectancy model**

In the value.expectancy model, the motivation to migrate is based on not just economic consideration but on several aspirations depending on the potential migrant involved (see,

Crawford, 1973). Crawford's value expectancy model is a cognitive model in which a potential migrant considers a number of variables which are specific goals; for example, wealth or autonomy before the decision is made to migrate.

The values and expectations are dependent on individuals and households involved (example, educational levels) and societal norms. The values that individuals aspire to achieve in a new destination may not necessarily be economic, for example, security or self-actualization can also be important to potential migrants. Migration depends on the strength of migration intentions, indirect influences of individual and societal factors and modifying effects of constraints and facilitators (Hagen-Zanker, 2008).

Crawford's model is similar to Lee's push-pull theory and it is relevant in considering migration beyond economic reasons to a broader societal and individual aspiration of potential migrants. In terms of its application to north-south migration in Ghana, the model is relevant in that migrants consider other factors such as freedom and acquisition of quality education which are the motivating factors for migrating (See Kwankye, 2011; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008).

## **2.12 Zelinsky's Migration, transitions and development theory**

In 1971, Zelinsky tried to show how migration patterns were related to different stages in the modernization process within the context of Rostow's (1960) stages of growth model (see Zelinsky, 1971). The stages of migration are expressed below:

1. The pre-modern traditional society had very limited movements which were local in nature. For example, movements ranged from going to marry or to marketing agricultural produce.
2. Early transitional society involved a lot of rural-urban migration; emigration to attractive foreign destinations for settlement and colonization.
3. Late transitional society: massive reduction of both rural-urban migration and growth in various kinds of circulation, for example, commuting.

4. Advanced society: increase migration from one city to the other leading to the dwindling of rural-urban migration.
5. Future super advanced society: better communication leading to limited migration of all forms.

The model has been criticized for backward-looking, depicting an outmoded conceptualization of development which applied only to the historical experience of the advanced countries (see King, 2012).

Even though Zelinsky's model is still relevant for developed countries in terms of interurban migration, this model is least relevant to developing countries and for that matter the north-south migration in Ghana.

### **2.13 Network migration theory**

Migration networks are simply the relationships that exist between migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in places of origin and destination through bonds of kinship and friendship (Massey et al, 1993). These social bonds and the feeling of being part of one community justifies why migrants sends money and other goods to non-migrants. The network theory is important, in that it clearly makes reference to remittances which classical and neo-classical theories have not incorporated into the migration process (see Djajic, 1986; Taylor, 1999).

Waldorf (1998) revealed that migration network often leads to unintended perpetuation of migration irrespective of its original causes. The facilitating role of family and friends networks makes migration difficult for governments to control. Network connections are a form of social capital that people draw upon to gain access to employment abroad (Massey et al, 1993).

For some, migration networks rank amongst the most important explanatory factors for migration (see Arango, 2004). Migration networks are considered a form of social capital stretched across migrant space and therefore facilitate the likelihood of international movement because they provide information which lowers the costs and risks of migration

(Massey et al, 1998). Indeed, in Charles Tilly's memorable phrase, "it is not people who migrate but networks" (Tilly, 1990).

In spite of appealing nature of this theory, Klaver (1997) has pointed out that the network theory fails to show the internal and external structures that facilitates migration. There is that tendency to give credit to the important facilitating role of migrant networks without showing their relative weight vis-à-vis other facilitating and constraining factors affecting migration.

Migration from northern Ghana to Agboghloshie is partly sustained by the strong networks that have been built between migrants and non-migrants. Accommodation in Accra is expensive; however, migrants are able to secure accommodation in Agboghloshie at a cheaper price through group rooms rentals. It is not surprising to see a group of fifteen to twenty female migrants from the same area living in one room in Agboghloshie. These strong links and networks help perpetuate migration between the three northern regions to Agboghloshie

#### **2.14 Mabogunje systems theory of migration**

The system theory of migration was designed by the Geographer Akin Mabogunje to give answers to the causes, the decision making processes, the implications and ramifications of rural-urban migration from the African perspective (Mabogunje, 1970).

A number of elements interacting in a complex manner and have defined relationship is what is termed a system (Mabogunje, 1970). Basically, migration system theory is a set of areas connected through the flow and counter flows of people, goods, services and information which tend to alter or perpetuate migration between the places.

The system theory is similar to the network theory but there are clear differences between the two. The network theory centers on the relations between migrants, former migrants and non-migrants whereas the systems theory encompasses all the structural processes within which migration takes place. The system theory examines the decision making processes through to the adjustment mechanisms that migrant adopt in the destination areas.

The system theory of migration is characterized by the following elements:



1. The system is located within an environment guided by economic conditions, government policy, and the availability of transport and communications.
2. The energy travelling through the system is the migrant.
3. There are control subsystems which determine, for instance, who goes and who stays.
4. Adjustment mechanisms reacting to the departure and arrival of migrants, both in the village and in the urban context.
5. Feedback loops, such as information flows and return visits, which calibrate the system either to continue and expand (positive feedback) or to diminish and close down (negative feedback).

The system theory gives a comprehensive framework for studying migration through its multiple analytical focuses on structure, linkage and process. It is regarded as a potentially scientific approach (its rigour deriving from general systems theory) and flexible in scale and ideology, ranging from village migration systems (Mabogunje, 1970; King, 2012).

However, the system theory fails to explain the wider structural factors which lead to migration. The theory has not incorporated the analyses of wider economic factors. Therefore, the systems theory, though extremely useful for analyzing continuance and autonomy of migration, the theory to providing a complete and coherent analysis of the entire process of the beginning of migration, its motives, causes, consequences and the nature of migrant community.

The available literature on north-south migration in Ghana seems to suggest a migration pattern similar to the “system theory” of migration. There exist some forms of social network in which earlier migrants turn to feed potential migrants with information that perpetuate migration (Tanle, 2003; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005).

### **2.15 The Core periphery model**

In the 1990s, the core periphery model was developed in Economic Geography to explain why certain areas tend to develop faster than others. Leading proponent of this theory was

Paul Krugman. Krugman (1991) argues that certain places have both geographical and human advantages and develop to become the core while others lack both thereby becoming the periphery. The core areas attract investments leading to industrialization and net migration gain, while the periphery may lack investment and suffer outmigration. In the core periphery model, migration naturally occurs because the core turns to attract labour force from the periphery by virtue of its advantage in natural resources or physical endowments.

The core-periphery model has been criticized for not lending itself very easily to robust empirical testing as it is not analytically solvable (Forslid, 1999; Pekkala, 2000) and has therefore stimulated very little empirical work.

The core periphery model is similar to the dualistic model developed by Lewis (1954) who sees migration as a result of coexistence of Agricultural economy and an industrial sector. The north south migration in Ghana could be seen as structural differences between the three northern regions and their southern counterparts. As argued by Twumasi Ankrah (1995), the southern sector of the country possesses natural endowments such as Timber and Cocoa which developed as the core while the three northern regions turn to be the periphery leading to migration of people to the southern part.

The study adopts a combination of the pull-push theories and the Mabogunje system model as the theoretical framework for this study. The Pull-push theory and the system theory of migration presented by Mabogunje so far capture to a very large extent the kind of migration taking place between the three northern regions to the southern parts of the country. This is elaborated later in this chapter in the conceptual framework as in figure 2.4

#### **2.16.1 Community Consequences of migration: a review of the literature**

In the 1960s and 1970s, there were pessimistic views about the effects of migration especially on source communities. This pessimism was inspired by the fact that International migration leads to brain drain thus, depriving the source communities their “best and brightest” workforce (UN, 2006).

However, the recent years have witnessed a growing interest in migration and its potential role in development. The focus of international thinking has shifted from a predominantly negative view of the link between migration and development (Castles and Wise, 2007). Studies have shown that the consequences of migration are mixed. It has advantages and disadvantages for both sending and host communities (see Jones, 1998; Kapur, 2003; Ratha, 2003; Skeldon, 2008; De Haas, 2010).

### **2.16.2 The consequences of migration on sending countries**

Between the 1950s and the late 1980s, there was a general impression that international migration do not promote local development and leads to stagnation and brain drain as donor countries lost their “best and brightest” of workforce to recipient countries (Massey et al, 1998). Studies have shown that, it is usually “the best and brightest” that migrate (see Ellerman, 2003). For example, it was estimated in the year 2000 that over 65 000 African-born physicians and 70 000 African-born professional nurses were working in developed countries. They accounted for one-fifth of African doctors and one-tenth of African nurses in the world (Michael et al, 2007). With the exodus of teachers, nurses, doctors and engineers, their absence affects the quality of service delivery in sending communities. Today, there are still proponents of this view and they argue that emigration of the highly skilled persons to a large extent has negative consequences for countries of origin as they lose the people most likely to be able to generate development.

A study conducted in the Philippines revealed that about 10 percent of its population was working and living abroad as a result of high levels of unemployment at home (Bach, 2003). Highly skilled emigration of such magnitude can result in brain drain (a decrease in human capital stock). Brain drain can cripple the delivery of key services, especially in education and health care.

There is evidence in Ghana pointing to the effects of international migration on the economy as a whole (Anarfi et al, 2000; 2003; Owusu, 2000; Kabki, 2007). Health professionals leaving the country have been extensively explored with regards to the causes and consequences of such exodus (Adepoju, 2002; Mensah et al, 2005). These studies found a net loss of human capital, acute shortage of staff leading to widening of Doctor to Patients ratio.



However, the late 1990s witnessed a new surge of interest (Newland, 2007) in migration and its potential in promoting economic development in countries of origin. The question that obviously arises is: why the new interest?

The renewed interest in migration and development is inspired by the rapid growth of remittances to less-developed countries (see Ghosh, 2006; World Bank, 2005). As observed by Kapur (2004), there is a growing belief that remittances can help transform the economies of developing countries and has become a force to reckon with as against Official Development Assistance.

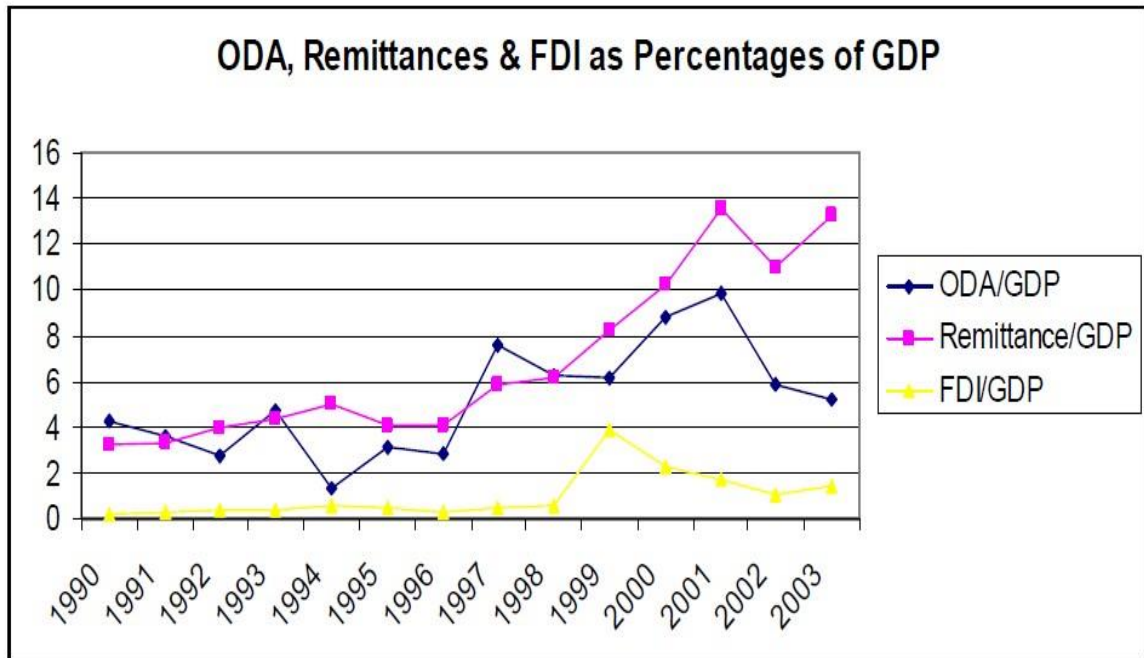
In a number of countries, inflows of international remittances have outgrown external aid or Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) (Ratha and Shaw, 2007; World Bank, 2011; Rosenzweig, 2005; Taylor, 2006). It is on record that many international migrants now remit significantly on the average today than in the past. Studies have found that close to 70% (\$372 billion) of remittances go to developing countries (World Bank, 2011).

Srivastava (2003) reported that the number of Indian migrants overseas accounted for less than 1% of the total workforce and therefore had little direct impact on the national labour market. Remittances were the main benefits of external migration, providing scarce foreign exchange and scope for higher levels of savings and investments. He noted that remittances over the past 30 years financed much of India's balance of trade deficit and drastically reduced the current account deficit.

In Ghana, studies have revealed that migrants' remittance has exceeded Official Development Assistance (ODA) in Ghana as shown in the figure 2.4.



**Figure 2. 2 Shares of ODA, Remittances & FDI to GDP**



Source: Bank of Ghana, 2005.

In a recent survey conducted across five countries, Gibson and McKenzie (2010) found higher benefits of high-skilled migration for citizens of high emigration countries. Migrants were the ones benefiting the most through massive gains in income and improvement in their human capital. Relatives and source areas also benefited through remittances sent by migrants. They also found that migrants engage in knowledge transfer in terms of helping others learn about study and work opportunities abroad, but do not frequently advise their local governments or businesses in their home countries.

It can be concluded that migration benefits source countries through remittances migrants send home, knowledge and skills transfer when migrants return either temporary or on permanent basis. The IOM in 2006 also reported that migrants help in reducing unemployment and underemployment; and increased levels of local entrepreneurship through new opportunities for the private sector in their home countries (IOM, 2006). In addition, the report cited migrants contribution to modernization, democratization and respect for human rights, whether from abroad or upon return.

## **2. 16.3 The consequences of migration on host countries**

George Borjas is one of the researchers at the forefront of the debate over the general implications of immigration on the economy of receiving countries. Through his studies across decades, he concluded that immigration has a net positive economic effect on host countries, but such effects are very minimal (see Borjas, 1987; 1994; 2001a; 2001b; 2003; and 2006).

The positive effects of immigration include; immigrants taking up jobs that are difficult and avoided by natives. These jobs are usually known as the “3Ds”: dirty, dangerous, and difficult. Studies have found that many of the jobs filled by immigrants do not generally attract native workers. Yet, the economies of developed countries are dependent on these manual labour and service sector jobs such as construction workers, custodians and home health care workers. Having immigrant labour fill these odd jobs frees native workers to take up jobs on the next rung of the ladder (Borjas, 2003).

Secondly, skilled immigrants (and even many unskilled immigrants) tend to be entrepreneurial. Immigrants have had a disproportionate role in innovation and technology and have fuelled growth of new businesses. Half of Silicon Valley start-ups were founded by immigrants, including Yahoo, eBay and Google.

Also, studies conducted in developed countries have revealed that many of them are currently struggling demographically to maintain their population levels and age structures. With low fertility and longer life spans, many developed countries are in danger of developing skewed dependency ratios in the future (number of people in the workforce to the number of people too young or too old to work). Immigrants are an answer to this dilemma, as they are usually of working and childbearing age. They keep the population growing, boosting the dependency ratio in a favourable direction (Friedberg and Hunt, 1995; Card, 2005).

On the negative side, research has found that native-workers are usually disadvantaged because of cheap labour of immigrants. However, most experts believe that this is generally not significant in terms of unemployment rates; rarely do immigrants “steal jobs” from native workers; they are more likely to “steal jobs” from each other with newly arrived immigrants taking jobs from those already in the labour market. Yet, there is some level

of negative effect on native wages, mostly among unskilled workers (particularly those without a high school diploma), as immigrant wages drive down the value of labour in lower pay grades where workers are plentiful (Borjas, 2006; Cortes, 2008).

Also, security concerns are associated with immigration when porous borders are conceivably able to facilitate the transport of enemies of the state and radical ideologies. Major terrorist events occurring in destination countries, such as the US and UK, carried out by foreign nationals and/or 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> generation immigrants feed this fear (IOM, 2006, Autor, 2010).

Host nations are adversely affected when internal conflicts within the home countries follow immigrants to their new homes. The violence that accompanies rivalries between different Italian “mafia” families in the USA or between Russian exiles in the UK creates criminal and public safety concerns for host nations (Ghosh, 2006).

In conclusion, migration has positive consequences on destination countries through macro-economic benefits such as mitigation of labour shortages, enrichment of human capital and the job opportunities and wealth which result from migrant entrepreneurial activities. These are factors which can increase the flexibility and productivity of the economy and contribute to growth (Newland et al, 2007).

The above discussion is centered on mobility between countries and it is evidently clear that international migration has both positive and negative consequences on both sending and recipient countries, but can the same thing be said of internal migration?

#### **2.16.4 Rural –Urban migration and its consequences on communities**

Evidence suggests that internal migration exceeds international migration in terms of numbers and this has been established in many countries across the globe. For example, close to 120 million people were estimated to have migrated internally in China alone in 2001 against a mere 458,000 people migrating internationally for work (Ping, 2003; Meng and Zhang, 2013).



Similarly, it is on record that close to 4.3 million people migrated internally in the five years before the 1999 census in Vietnam whereas the number of international migrants was less than 300,000 (see Anh et al, 2003). Also, internal migrants in India run into millions while international migration is just a fraction of that (Srivastava and Sasikumar, 2003). There are references to the importance of internal labour migration and remittances in many other countries, including; Bangladesh (Afsar, 2003); Pakistan (Gazdar, 2003); Vietnam (Anh et al, 2003); Mongolia (Tsogtsaikhan, 2003) and SubSaharan Africa (Bryceson et al, 2003). It is however difficult to measure the quantum of remittances sent within countries. For example, Bell and Muhidin (2009) estimated that there were about 740 million internal migrants worldwide using the 2000-2001 round of censuses and that internal migration is the most significant process that influences the pattern of human settlement across much of the world.

#### **2.16.5 The negative consequences of rural-urban migration on urban centre**

The most visible negative consequence of rural-urban migration on urban centres is the unprecedented rate of urbanization leading to the development of slums and shanty towns mostly in developing countries (UN, 2006). In 2008, a survey of city community leaders from 19 Chinese cities on attitudes towards rural migrants suggests that urban residents and local governments are more concerned with rural migrants' social impact than their labour market impact. Among the 787 urban community heads surveyed, 87 percent agreed that rural migrant threatens the safety and security of local communities. Furthermore, 67 percent of community heads believed that most of the serious crimes were committed by rural migrants. About 59 percent of heads believed rural migrants put pressure on social services and city infrastructure which is much greater than the proportion indicating that rural migrants may take jobs away from urban workers; which only accounted for 23 percent of community heads. From urban residents' point of view, it seems that rural-urban migration is a major source of city crime and congestion in public infrastructure (Meng and Zhang, 2010).

According to the United Nations report on world urbanization in 2006, Sub-Saharan Africa is the world's most rapidly urbanizing region and almost all of this growth has been in



slums where new city residents face overcrowding, inadequate housing and lack of water and sanitation (UN, 2006; Todaro and Smith, 2012). In Western Asia as well, most of the urban growth is occurring in slums. The rapid expansion of urban areas in Southern and Eastern Asia is creating cities of unprecedented size and complexity and new challenges for providing a decent environment for the poor. The report identified rural-urban migration as chiefly responsible for the explosion in urban shantytowns though it recognizes population growth as one of the causal factors in the urbanization process.

The unchecked urbanization of the developing world is placing a strain on infrastructure and public health and threatens social stability. Shantytowns and slum settlements represent over one-third of developing country urban residences due to rural urban migration (Todaro and Smith, 2012).

#### **2.16.6 Positive consequences of rural-urban migration**

Even though the picture painted above shows a rather negative consequence of rural urban migration on urban centres especially in developing countries, there are instances where rural migrants contribute to the economic growth of a country. For instance, migrant workers have provided various goods and services at lower prices in China and this has led many scholars to assert that without rural migrants, there would not be Beijing (Zhao, 2000; 2003; Woo, 1998; Meng, 2000; Gong et al, 2008).

Also, migrants from the northern parts of Ghana in the early 1960s and 1970s contributed positively to the economic growth of the country. For example, migrants contributed to the development of the cocoa and mining industries in southern Ghana. It also led to many migrants acquiring and indeed owning lands on lease for the cultivation of cash crops. The impact of such earlier movements from northern part to the southern part of Ghana has therefore been positive (Caldwell, 1969; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005).

#### **2.16.7 The consequences of rural-urban migration on rural communities**

Some scholars had hypothesized that rural-urban migration especially, where male adults dominate the migration stream could lead to the depletion of household labour and this could worsen poverty levels in rural communities. Empirical research in Bangladesh found that out-migration of men had negative effects on Agriculture in villages (Irfan, 1986). In

Nepal (Bal-Kumar, 2003), similar results were found as studies showed a worsening of poverty in hilly areas as a result of the outmigration of young males. This has occurred mainly where out-migration is male dominated and also where remittances have been so low that the households are unable to hire in labour or invest in other income generating assets. In situations where remittances are more substantial and compensate for labour depletion, the effects of male out-migration do not appear to have a lasting negative impact on the economy of the sending area. For example, Yang's research in areas of high out-migration in China shows that total grain output in several locations declined by less than 2 percent while household disposable income increased by 16 percent as a result of migration.

Evidence from Nigeria shows both negative and positive effects of rural-urban migration on rural communities. Ajaero and Onokala (2013) have reported that in south eastern Nigeria, rural-urban migrants contribute significantly towards the development of their rural communities through monetary remittances and the involvement of the rural-urban migrants in community development projects.

### **2.17 Internal Migration in Ghana**

Among the many types of population mobility within the country, rural-urban migration has been identified as the most dominant (Addo, 1968; Caldwell, 1968; De Graft-Johnson, 1974; Arthur, 1991; Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Awumbila et al, 2008).

Rural-urban migration in Ghana is attributed to push-pull factors. In the pre-colonial era, migration was primarily a response to economic factors that is individual or groups moving from place to place in search of fertile lands and security (Addo, 1971; Wyllie, 1977; Boahen, 1975; Addae-Mensah, 1983). The introduction of cocoa in the late nineteenth century increased migration in the country especially north-south migration. Men dominated the migration stream at the time (Nabila, 1975, Songsore, 2003). The effects of such earlier movements had positive effects on the migrants and the communities they joined. Migrants introduced new skills into the economic life of the receiving areas and sometimes by opening up the possibility of profitable investment in the areas where they lived (Nabila, 1975; Addae-Mensah, 1983).

Today, there is a new trend in the north-south migration in Ghana whereby the migrants are dominated by females commonly known as the “Kayayei” most of them below the ages of eighteen (Agarwal, 1997; Hashim, 2007; Opare, 2003; Tanle, 2003). The term “Kayayei” is from a Hausa word “kaya” meaning load and „yoo” (female in Ga language of Greater Accra region of Ghana) „Kayayoo” meaning a female porter (the plural is „kayayei”). Today, Kayayei or Kayayoo refers to head portering mostly engaged in by female migrants from the northern part of Ghana in the commercial cities of Accra, Kumasi and Takoradi (Tanle, 2003; Songsore, 2003; Opare, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005).

Contrary to earlier studies that identified women as associational migrators mostly moving with their male partners therefore making them dependants, young females in the current migration flow tend to be autonomous migrants who migrate despite the fact that there may be no family member at the destination area. Studies have revealed that most of the young migrants took the decision to migrate (see Adepoju, 2004; Wiredu, 2004; Anarfi et al, 2006; Whitehead et al, 2007). The main reason cited by these young migrants for migrating was economic and the desire to enhance their living standards (Opare, 2003; Tanle, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008; Adepoju, 2004; Wiredu, 2004; Anarfi et al, 2006; Whitehead et al, 2007).

## **2.18 The Conceptual framework**

In the review of the migration literature, two main issues have been discussed namely the reasons behind migration and the distance involved. A number of models for explaining the reasons people move have been formulated and no single one of them fully capture the entire conditions under which migration occurs. The study adopts a combination of these models to explain the migration flows between the three northern regions to Agbogbloshie. These include Lee’s push-pull model (1966), the Harris-Todaro model (1970) and the Mabogunje’s system theory (1970).

Migration from the three northern regions to Agbogbloshie is caused by the differences in the opportunities between the northern sector of the country and the southern sector of the country. Within the framework, the northern parts of the country are often viewed as rural



though there are pockets of urbanized and industrialized towns whereas the southern part of the country is seen as urbanized or industrialized though with pockets of rural areas. Potential migrants who are mostly the youth take the decision to migrate due to push factors which may include low wages, awkward social norms such as forced marriages and absence of quality education which tends to push most of them into the cities in the south. Evidence suggests that push factors are phenomenal in the decision making process of these migrants (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Tanle, 2003; Songsoore, 2003; Opare, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008). In the urban centres, high wages, quality education and availability of other infrastructure and social amenities serve as pull factors that lure the youth into these urban areas. This satisfies Lee's theory that migration from rural areas to urban centres is a response to push- pull factors (Lee, 1966).

As noted by Harris and Todaro (1970), push and pull factors are not enough for a prospective migrant to move. Harris and Todaro postulated that migration is primarily an economic activity and a prospective migrant is assumed to be a rational decision maker who considers the differences in rural and expected urban income and if the latter exceeds the former a decision is made, taken into account risks and other monetary cost. Migrants are aware of urban unemployment so the point to note is that the decision of a migrant is based on expected urban income rather than actual. Within this framework, migration is selective; that is it is mostly the youth with some level of education who migrate. Migrants from the three northern regions into the southern sector of the country take into account the probability of getting an urban job or self-employment and this influence them to migrate.

The systemic theory of migration put up by Mabogunje (1970) is similar to the push-pull theory and the Harris-Todaro model (1970). As shown in figure 2.1, the system model first identifies a potential migrant who is being encouraged to migrate by stimuli from the environment in the rural setting which could be termed as push factors.

Within the systems framework, attention is focused not only on the migrant but also on the various institutions (sub-systems) and the social, economic, and other relationships (adjustment mechanisms) which are an integral part of the process of the migrant's transformation. The two important sub-systems as shown in the framework in figure 2.1 are the rural and the urban control sub-systems. A control sub-system is one which oversees the operation of the general system and determines when and how to increase or decrease

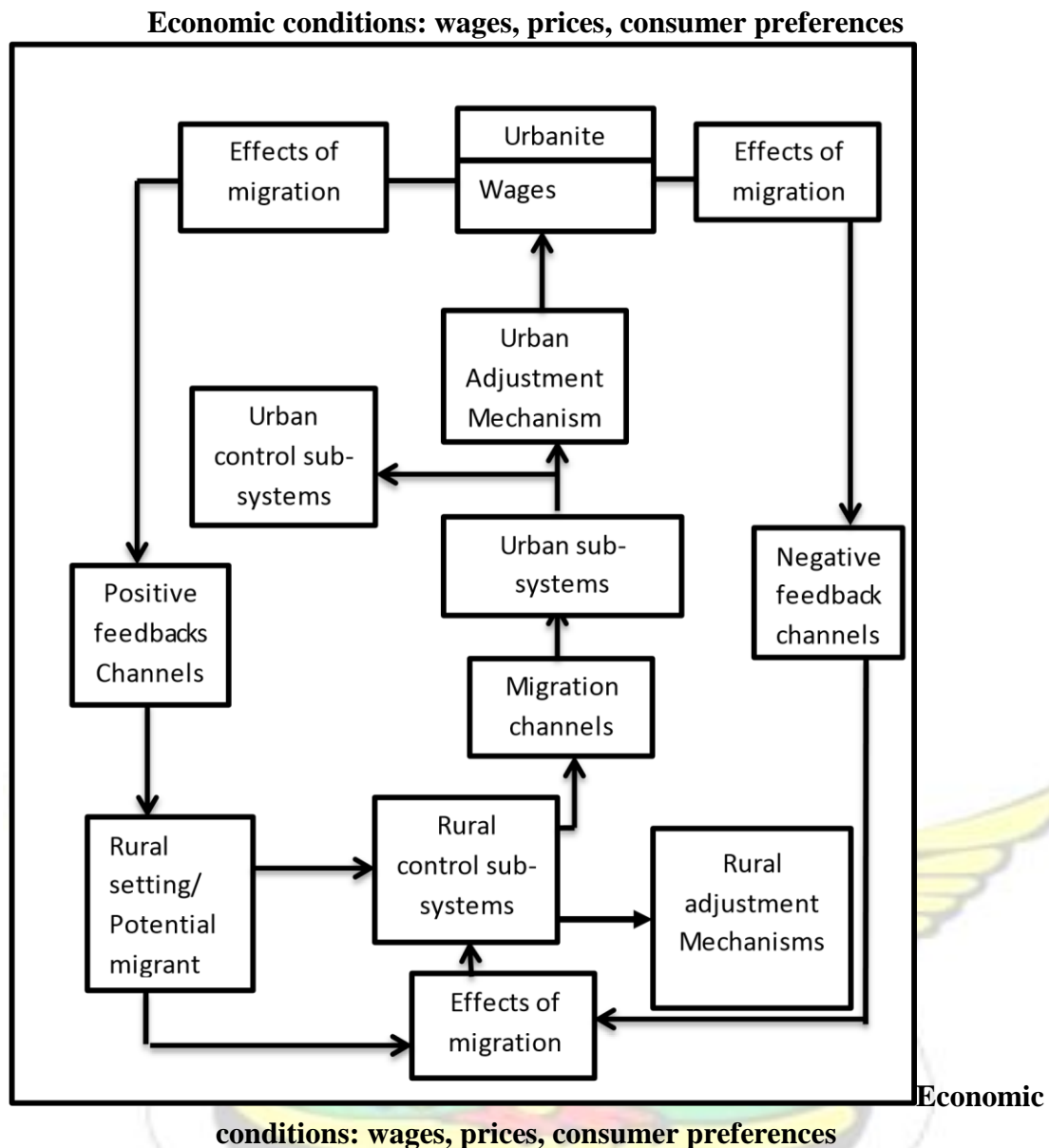


the amount of flow in the system. In the rural areas, a true control sub-system is the family, both nuclear and extended. The family holds back potential migrants until they are old enough to undertake any move and even when they are of age the family still plays a role.

Another control sub-system is the village. Its role is not often direct but is obvious in either a positive or negative way in the various activities which it sponsors or encourages. Thus, a village community which attempts to improve its economic conditions for instance, through co-operative farming or marketing, may discourage, at least in the short-run, permanent migration. On the other hand, a village community which puts emphasis on social betterment, for example, through education, may inadvertently stimulate migration to the city through training the younger generation to be more enlightened and more highly motivated.

**Figure 2.3 Conceptual framework explaining rural-urban migration in Ghana**





**Environment Economic conditions: wages, prices, consumer preferences**

Source: adapted from Mabogunje, 1970.

Evidence suggests that north-south migration in Ghana during the 1960s was dominated by male adults with females only as associational migrants. This trend has changed as females now dominate the north south migration in Ghana (Nabila, 1975; Songsore; 2003; Tanle, 2003; Boakye-Yiadom and McKay, 2006; Awumbila et al, 2008). The broad implications of this is that, the sub-control systems at the rural areas either the family or the village community now tends to encourage migration of both sexes or serves as push factors driving these young adults in to the southern sector of the country.

The urban control sub-system operates at the other end of the migrant's trajectory to encourage or discourage migrants of being absorbed into the urban environment. Absorption at this level is of two kinds: residential and occupational. In the case of northsouth migration in Ghana, studies have shown that many of the young adults who find themselves in cities sleep in lorry terminals and slums and do not necessarily seek accommodation (Agarwal, 1997; Hashim, 2007; Opare, 2003).

The framework also identifies feedback loops or information flow channels which either encourage or discourage subsequent migrations. Evidence suggests that migration networks play an important role in recent migrations from the northern part of Ghana to the south. The information that migrants relate back to their rural areas or places of origin and returned migrants help contribute to the migration process (Mabogunje, 1970, Tanle, 2003 Yeboah, 2008; Anarfi and Kwankye, 2005). This can amplify migration or discourage migration. If the information from a particular city dwells at length on the negative side (consequences) of urban life, on the difficulties of getting jobs, of finding a place to live and on the general hostility of people, the effect of this negative feedback will slow down further migration from the village to this city. By contrast, favourable or positive feedback will encourage migration and will produce a situation of almost organized migratory flows from particular villages to some particular towns.

## **2.19 Summary**

This chapter has discussed theories of migration especially theories pertaining to ruralurban migration. These ranged from Ravenstein's laws of migration formulated in the 1880s to some of the theories and models developed during the last three decades. In all, these theories state that environmental factors and differences in income in the rural and urban areas are key determinants of migration. In other words, economic factors as well as push and pull factors play a key role in rural urban migration.

The chapter also reviewed empirical literature with regards to the consequences of migration on both source and recipient communities. Internal migration within Ghana was reviewed within the context of causes and characteristics of migrants.

The conceptual framework analyzing migration from northern Ghana to the southern sector was the final section of this chapter. The push-pull theory of Lee (1966), Harris-Todaro model (1970) and the Mabogunje system theory (1970) were used in explaining the migration flows between the three northern regions to the southern sector of the country. This will serve as the basis of the analysis on migration from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie.

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### **CHAPTER THREE**

## **3.0 THE STUDY AREAS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses two main issues: a brief profile of the study areas and the research methodology. The study areas are Agbogbloshie in Accra and Yendi Municipality in the Northern region of Ghana. In the methodology, the primary focus is on the research design, the study population, sampling techniques, data collection procedures and methods of data analysis. The ensuing section provides an overview of the study areas.

#### **3.1.1 Agbogbloshie: a brief profile**

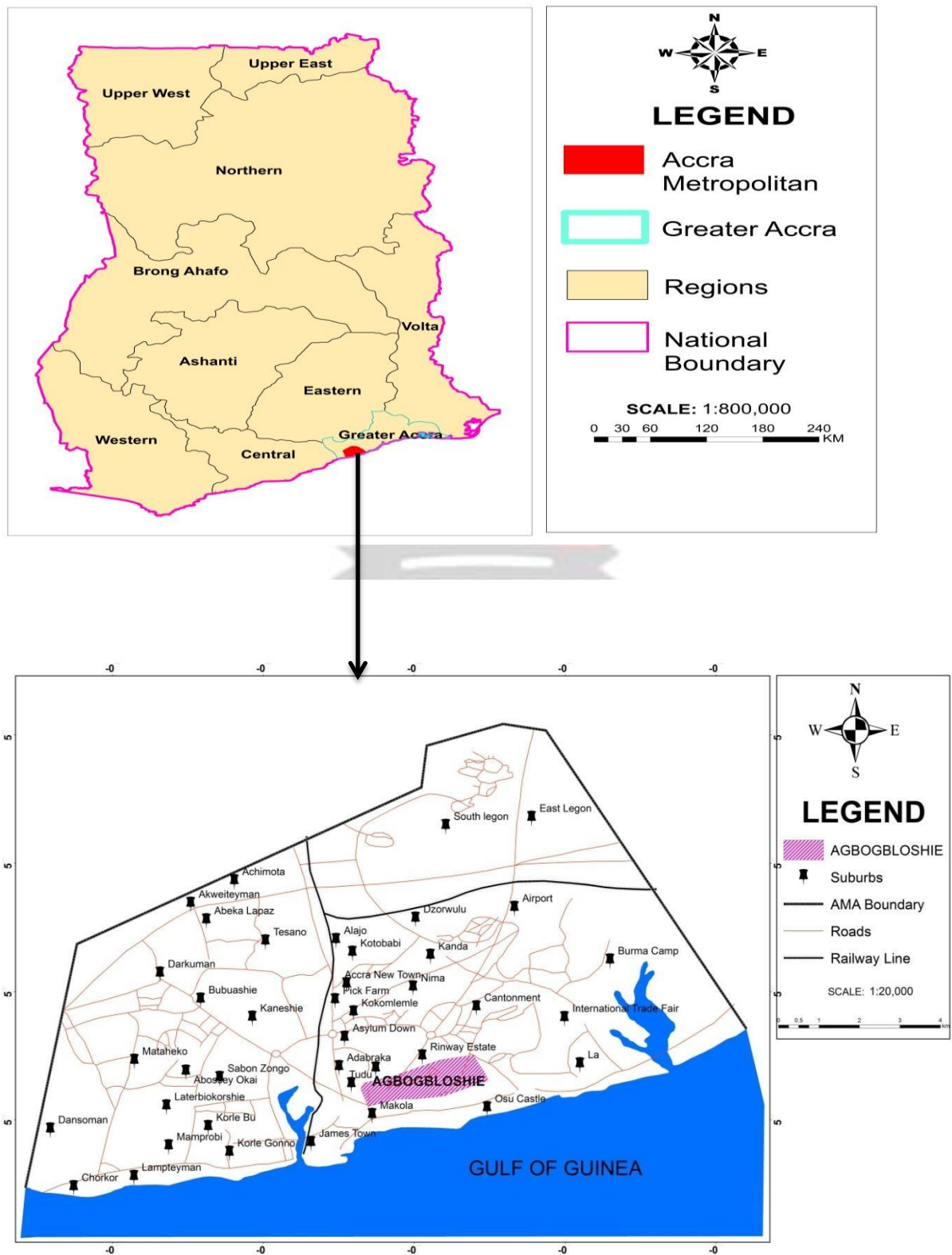
The area under study is known by different names: It is called Agbogbloshie or Old Fadama and is located in the heart of Accra, the capital town of Ghana. It is the largest slum in Accra (Bain, 2011). Agbogbloshie residents come from every region of Ghana as well as neighbouring West African Countries (Housing the Masses, 2009). The origin of the settlement can be traced back to the Non-aligned Movement Conference of 1991. There was a decongestion exercise in Accra in preparation for the conference. This was to address what was seen at the time as the major problem of hawkers (COHRE, 2004). The City



Council removed many of these hawkers to the edge of Agbogbloshie, adjacent to the Abossey Okai main road, in what was intended to be a temporary move. The 1994 conflicts in the northern part of the country between the Konkomba, Nanumba and Dagomba peoples also contributed to the growth of the area. Many fleeing this conflict came to Accra and chose Agbogbloshie as a home because of the yam market. For a detail historical development of this settlement see the work of COHRE (2004).

Today, the size of the settlement is about 31.3 hectares and less than a kilometer from the central business district (CBD) of Accra, with an estimated population of 79,000 (Housing the Masses, 2009; Farouk and Owusu, 2012; Owusu, 2012). The settlement is located north of the Accra Railway Head office and is situated along the old Timber market Road. The settlement stretches along the Odaw River and Korle Lagoon (Owusu, 2013). The map of Ghana showing Accra and the study area is shown in figure 3.1.





**Figure 3. 1 Map of Ghana showing Accra and the study Area: Agbogbloshe**

Source: GIS, 2014.

In terms of sex composition, 50.01 percent of the total populations of Agbogbloshie are males with 49.99 percent being females. According to Housing the Masses (2009), Agbogbloshie has a high population of working age of about 91 percent. Table 3.1 gives the regional composition of the people in Agbogbloshie. According to the table, Northern region has the highest number of inhabitants being 65.9 percent with the lowest being migrants from Western region as they constituted only 0.8 percent of the entire population (Housing the Masses, 2009).

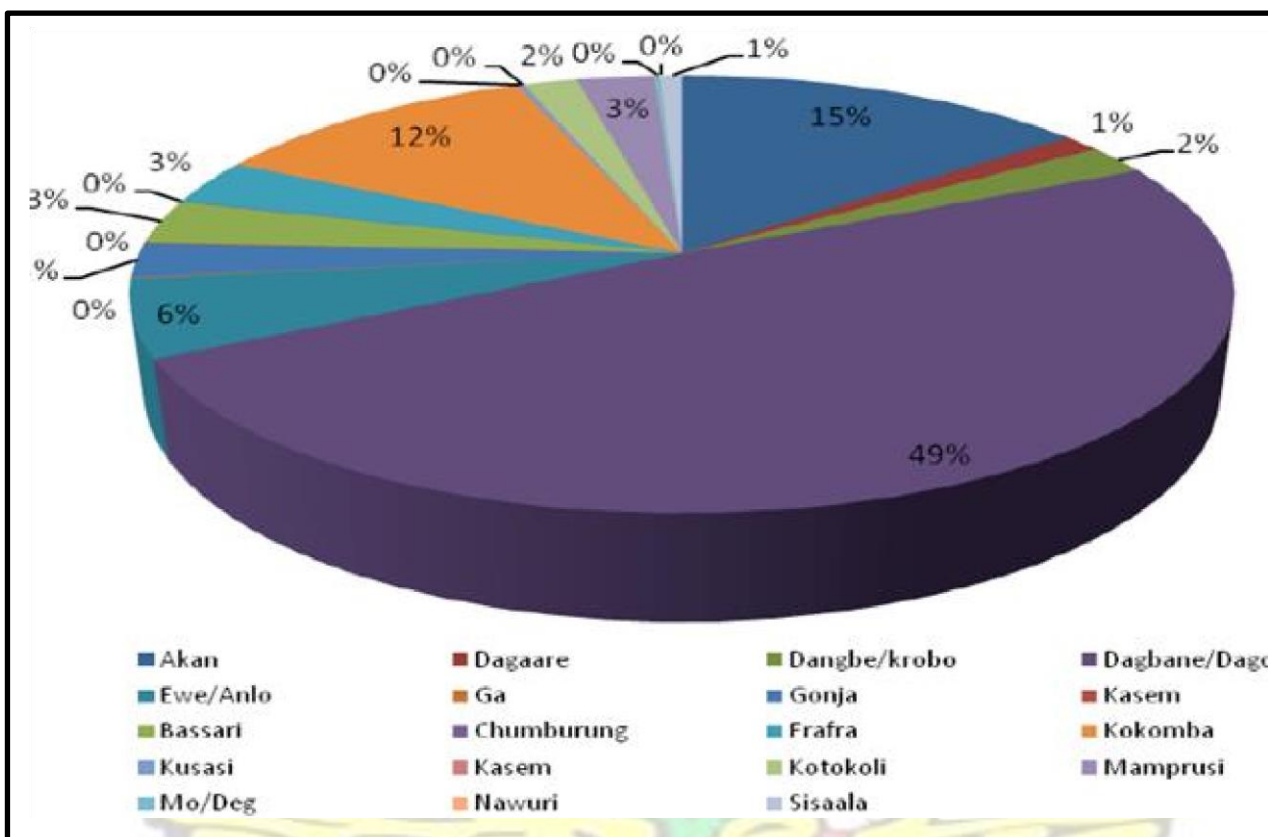
**Table 3.1 the regional composition of the people in Agbogbloshie**

<b>Regional composition of inhabitants of Agbogbloshie</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Northern region	65.9
Greater Accra region	1
Ashanti region	4.3
Brong Ahafo region	2.3
Central region	2.1
Eastern region	5.3
Upper East region	3.7
Upper West region	2.8
Volta region	10.6
Western region	0.8
Total	98.8

Note: Foreigners constitute 1.2 percent of the population

Source: Housing the Masses, 2009

In terms of ethnic composition, Dagombas formed almost half of the total population of the community. The second largest tribe is the Akan, followed by the Kokombas, Ewes, Baasares and the Mamprusis. This is shown in figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.2: Composition of inhabitants of Agbogbloshie according to Ethnic groups**

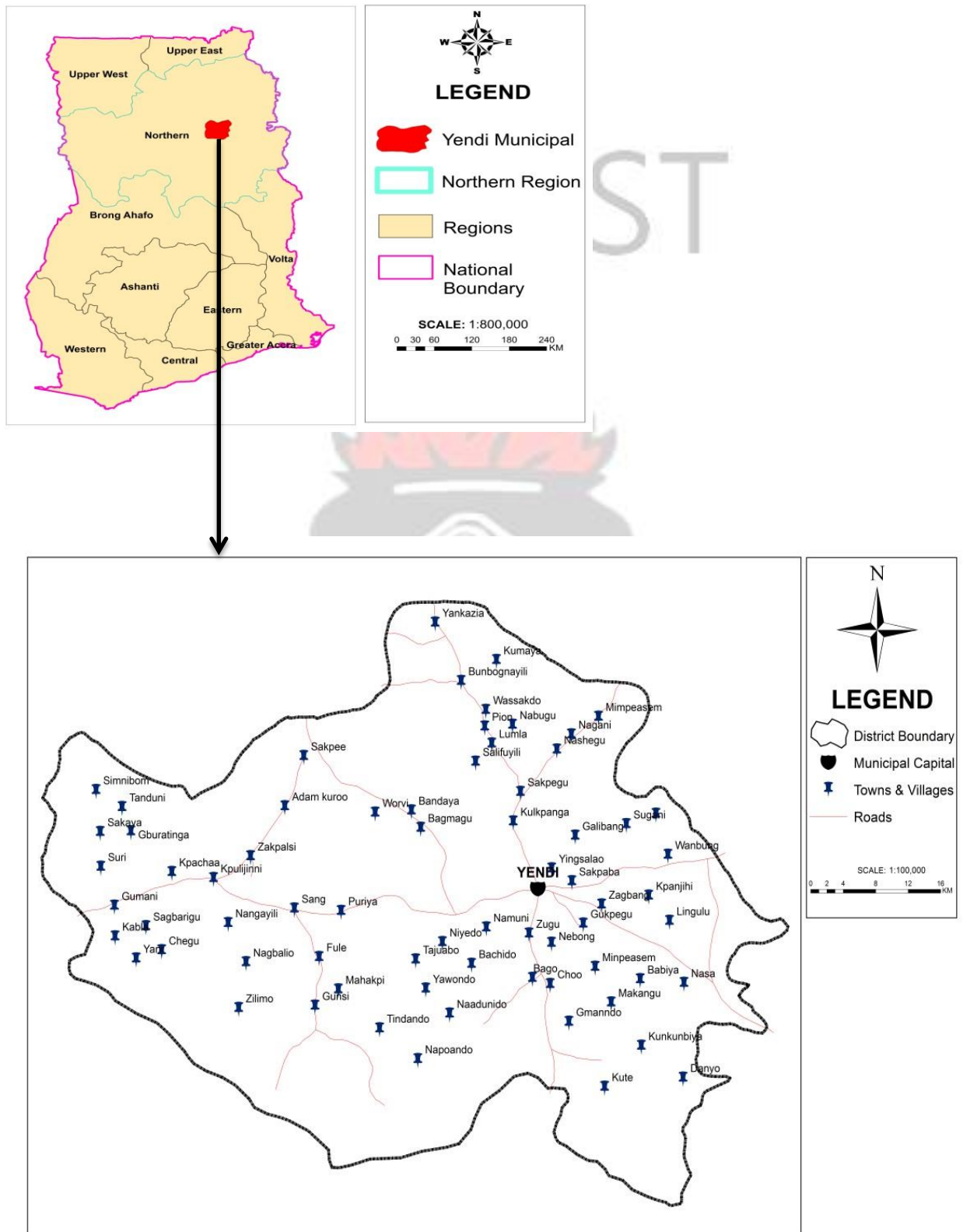
Source: Housing the Masses, 2009.

The choice of Agbogbloshie as the study area was informed by the fact that the settlement is a home to most of the migrants from the three northern regions of Ghana to Accra. As shown in table 3.1, the proportion of northerners in that settlement is over 70 percent with about 66 percent of them coming from the northern region alone (Housing the Masses, 2009).

Besides, the settlement is located in the centre of Accra close to the Central Business District and most migrants who work as “Kayayei”, petty traders and scrap dealers prefer to stay here to be close to their workplace. This makes Agbogbloshie a prime location for one to conduct a study on migration.



### 3.1. 2 Yendi Municipality



**Figure 3. 3: Map of Ghana showing Yendi Municipality.**

Source: GIS, 2014.

Yendi is the traditional capital of the Dagbon Kingdom and also the administrative capital of the Municipality. The Yendi Municipality shares boundaries with eight other districts; to the east with Saboba District, Zabzugu District and Tatale/ Sangule District, to the south with Nanumba and East Gonja to the West with Tamale Metropolitan and Savelugu/Nanton Municipal and to the north with Gushiegu District. Figure 3.2 is the map of Ghana showing Yendi Township.

The motivation for tracing the migrants to Yendi was the large number of migrants coming from this area. As seen in figure 3.4, most of the migrants from the Northern region were mainly Dagombas and Konkombas and Yendi was the place where I could have access to both ethnic groups. Also, the pockets of conflicts that have occurred in this area have contributed to the movement of Konkombas and Dagombas to this location (see COHRE, 2004).

Above all, the demographic characteristics of the sampled migrants in Agbogbloshie was quite similar to those in Yendi Municipal area and since the study sought to compare the conditions of migrants and non-migrants, Yendi Municipality was appropriate for the study.

### **3.2 The research methodology**

Research methodology is a process of systematically solving a research problem. According to Kothari (2004), research methodology is a science of studying how research is done scientifically. The assumptions underlying various techniques and the criteria by which a researcher decides that certain techniques and procedures will be applicable to certain problems and others will not are explored in research methodology.

### **3.3 Research Design**

A research design is a blue print or detailed plan for how a research study is to be completed; that is, operationalizing variables so they can be measured, selecting a sample of interest to study, collecting data to be used as a basis for testing hypotheses and analyzing the results (Tyler, 1993 cited in Anastas, 2000).

In this study, the mixed method research design was adopted. Mixed method research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and “mixing” or integrating both

quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of the research problem (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Creswell, 2005; Ivankova et al, 2006). The rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is on the grounds that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient by themselves to capture the trends and details of a situation (Green et al, 1989; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The mixed-methods sequential explanatory design was used in this study. This involves collecting and analyzing first quantitative and then qualitative data in two consecutive phases within one study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Creswell et al, 2003). The study first gathered quantifiable data in relation to the causes of migration. Quantitative techniques such as binomial test, independent t –test were used to compare the conditions of migrants and non-migrants. The ordered logistic regression was then used to determine the relationship between migration and migrants’ well-being while the qualitative approach allowed for in-depth interviews and probes into migrants’ life experiences.

The study placed much weight on the quantitative approach since it allowed for a wider coverage in terms of the respondents and close to 80 percent of the data collection and analysis was done quantitatively.

”

### **3.4 Target Population of the study areas**

All items or subjects in any field of inquiry constitute a universe or population (Kothari, 2004). Two areas were targeted in this study: Agbogbloshie in Accra and Yendi municipality in Northern region. Agbogbloshie settlement has inhabitants from all the three northern regions with an estimated population of 79,000 and that of Yendi municipality is 199,592 (GSS, 2012; Bain, 2011).

### **3.5 Sampling design**

A sample design is a road map or definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It refers to the technique or the procedure the researcher adopts in selecting items for the sample (Kothari, 2004). The non-probability sampling technique was used in obtaining the sample for this study.

The non-probability sampling is a sampling procedure which does not allow each member of a given population the chance of being selected (Catherine, 2002; Kothari, 2004). Under non-probability sampling, researchers of an inquiry purposively choose particular units of the universe for constituting a sample on the basis that the small mass that they so select out of a huge one will be typical or representative of the whole (Kothari, 2004; Kumar, 2005).

In this study, the purposive sampling technique was employed in selecting respondents from the three northern regions in Agbogbloshie. The reason for using this method was to get migrants from the three northern regions who are residing in Agbogbloshie. Since there are foreigners and even natives of Accra who reside in Agbogbloshie, using random sampling was not possible.

The purposive sampling was achieved using the snowball approach. It is a sampling technique in which a researcher identifies a prospective respondent who then suggests someone with the same characteristics or who might be appropriate for the study (Thompson, 2002).

The researcher first identified migrants from the three northern regions through key informants and these migrants in turn led the researcher to other participants to make up the sample size.

### **3.6 Determination of the sample size**

The sample size was selected from the population of Agbogbloshie and Yendi. Within the population of Agbogbloshie, a sample frame consisting of migrants from the three northern regions was determined. The estimated population of the inhabitants from the three northern regions in Agbogbloshie is 56,880 representing 72 percent (Housing the Masses, 2009). Using a sample frame of 56,880 and a 95 percent confidence level, the sample size for Agbogbloshie was 398 using the formula below;

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N \cdot a}$$



Where  $n$  = sample size,  $N$  = sample frame,  $\alpha$  = margin of error,  $1$  = constant

In Yendi, a sample size of 301 respondents of the similar age structure with their counterpart migrants in Agboglobshie was chosen. This was done to compare nonmigrants opinions on migration and living conditions with migrants' views and living conditions. In all the study used a total sample size of 699.

Eight of the respondents interviewed in Agboglobshie were traced to their relatives in Yendi municipality based on their unique stories. The choice of Yendi municipality was also based on the fact that Northern region constituted the highest population (65.9 percent) in the community of Agboglobshie, while Dagombas and Konkombas both living in Yendi were the ethnic groups with greater proportions of the population of the Northern region (Housing the Masses, 2009).

### **3.7 Data collection and analysis under the quantitative approach**

Levine (1996) defined quantitative data analysis as a body of methods that help to describe facts, detect patterns, develop explanations and test hypothesis. Data for the quantitative approach of the study was drawn from primary sources. The main source of the primary data under this approach was structured questionnaire administered to the 398 migrants in Agboglobshie and 301 non-migrants in Yendi.

### **3.8 Instruments for data collection**

The instruments used for data collection under the quantitative approach were structured questionnaires. There were two separate questionnaires: one for migrants in Agboglobshie and the other for non-migrants in Yendi Municipality. The questionnaire used in Agboglobshie was close-ended and grouped into five categories (see Appendix A). The demographic characteristics of respondents covering the age, marital status, religion, educational level and occupation of respondents constituted category A.

Category B covered questions on migration patterns, migration networks and history. Other questions under this category included age of respondents as at the time of migration, date of migration, place of origin, source of information, activity engaged in and estimation of income per day. Questions on the motives and expectations of migration formed category

C. It also contained questions pertaining to reasons behind migration, occupation before migration, financial situation at the time of migration and expected gains at destination. Category D covered socio-economic conditions of migrants. The questions under this category were the initial support obtained from relatives or friends on arrival at the destination, duration of stay at the destination, remittances to household members and benefits derived at the destination. In category E, questions on the experiences of migrants and their general perceptions on north-south migration in Ghana were asked.

The structured questionnaire administered to the 301 non-migrants in Yendi was made up of five categories. In category A, questions on the demographic characteristics of respondents were asked. Housing and living conditions of respondents constituted category B. Category C contained questions on health such as accessibility to health facilities by respondents. In category D, questions relating to respondent's economic status were asked. The questions included: the main economic activity of the respondent, how much the respondents earned and whether the respondents saved some of their income. In category E, respondents were asked whether they had ever migrated to Agbogbloshie or intended to do so. Respondents were also asked to indicate from a list of options on their opinion about those who migrate to the south and Agbogbloshie in particular. Furthermore, respondents were asked to indicate their opinion on the effects of migration on their communities and their general impression about migrating from Yendi to Agbogbloshie.

It should be indicated here that, most of the respondents in both Agbogbloshie and the Yendi municipality worked in the informal sector. In this sector, most workers are not paid monthly salaries. In order to get the monthly earning of respondents in this category, the researcher asked respondents to indicate their daily wages or weekly earnings. When the daily wages were provided a mean was taken and multiplied by 30 days to get their mean monthly income. In the case of farmers, the whole season earnings was taken and then divided by 12 months to get their monthly earning. In cases that individuals could not tell how much they earned in a month or year or season, their expenditure was used as a proxy to determine their incomes.

### **3.9 Pre-test of questionnaires**

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire in Abinchi, a community in Kumasi with similar characteristics as Agbogbloshie and administered the instrument on them. This enabled the researcher to understand the clarity, the scope and depth of data to be collected. It also assisted in finding out whether the instruments needed some revision to meet the research objectives and seeking appropriate answers to the research questions in order to address the research problem (Arthur & Nazroo, 2003). The questionnaire was revised and made clearer for data collection as a result of the experience from the pretest.

### **3.10 Mode of administering the questionnaires**

The questionnaire was designed in the English language but Dagbani, Likpakpaan, Mampruli and Twi were the local dialects used in administering the questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered through face-to-face interviews. The use of the face-to-face interview was as a result of the fact that most of the research participants could neither read nor write. This method allowed the researcher to explain questions that participants could not have understood in his absence. As observed by Williams (2008), face-to-face method of administering questionnaires is advantageous in cases where there is the need to clarify doubts in the minds of respondents where they perceive a question as unclear.

In Agbogbloshie, the questionnaires were administered usually in the evenings after migrants had returned from work. In Yendi, the administration of the structured questionnaire was done in the evening when respondents had returned from work and had enough time to respond to the questionnaires.

### **3.11 The techniques for quantitative data analysis**

The data was analyzed using the Predictive Analytic Software (PASW), version 20.0 and Stata 12.0. The quantitative data analyses employed descriptive statistics using percentages, tables, cross tabulations, charts, averages, rankings and average rankings. A number of statistical tests were done to test key research questions.

The binomial test was used to determine if the educational levels of the respondents socio-economic well-being had improved after migration by comparing the educational levels of



the migrants and non- migrants. The income levels of migrants and nonmigrants were also compared. The independent t- test was then used to determine whether the migrants' income levels improved after migration or not while the ordered logit regression model was used to test the effect of migration on status of migrants' socio- economic well-being.

### 3.12 The binomial test

The binomial test uses two distributions to decide whether the outcome of an experiment in which we count the number of times one of two alternatives has occurred is significant (Neil, 2007). The binomial test is useful in determining if the proportion of people in one of two categories is different from a specified amount.

The study sought to compare the socio-economic conditions of migrants in Agbogbloshie and non-migrants in Yendi municipality. It is on this basis that this research used the binomial test to determine some socio-economic effects of migration on well-being of migrants in Agbogbloshie compared to non -migrants in Yendi municipality.

The t – test was used to compare the means of incomes of migrants and non-migrants in order to test the hypothesis that income of migrants is greater than that of non-migrants;

H<sub>0</sub>: Mean (diff) = 0

H<sub>1</sub>: Mean (diff) > 0

The null hypothesis H<sub>0</sub> states that there is no statistical difference between the mean income of migrants and the mean income of non-migrants. That is the study postulates that the income of migrants did not improve after migrating. The alternative hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> states that there is a statistical difference between the mean income of migrants and the mean income of non-migrants. Thus, the alternative hypothesis holds that income of migrants after migration are greater relative to non-migrants, which means that migration would have improved well-being of migrants in terms of income compared to nonmigrants.

The t-test was used because the two means to be compared (income of migrants and income of non-migrants) have independent samples from different populations (migrants and non-migrants). The *t*-test follows the normal distribution of zero mean difference and a constant variance.



### 3.13 The ordered logit model

Ordered logit is an econometric model that is used to estimate discrete choice models with an ordinal outcome. In econometric modeling, when an outcome of measure is of qualitative nature or takes on qualitative response, the discrete choice model (logit or probit) is used to estimate it. The logit or probit models model's the probabilities of each qualitative outcome conditional on the independent variables following the normal or the logit distribution (Stock and Watson, 2007).

Logit models can either be binary, ordered or multinomial following the nature of the outcome variable. Ordered logistic model is used when the outcome variable has ordered responses that are unobservable, as with migrants' well-being status. The ordered logistic model is appropriate to measure migrants' well-being due to its ability to identify statistically significant relationship between the explanatory variables and the dependent variable. It also discerns unequal differences between ordinal categories in the dependent variable (Green, 2002; Agresti, 2002).

The ordered logistic model is expressed below and it follows the procedures of Greene and Hensher (2009) and Agresti (2002):

$$Y_i = j \text{ if } \mu_{j-1} < Y_i^* \leq \mu_j \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, J \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where the structural model is given by

$$Y_i^* = X_i\beta + \varepsilon, \varepsilon_i \sim L[0, \pi^2/3], i = 1, \dots, n \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

and  $\mu_0 = -\infty, \mu_j \leq \mu_{j+1}, \mu_m = \infty$ . Given that the error term is logistically distributed, the probability of observing a particular value of is given by:

$$P(Y_i = j|x) = P(\mu_{j-1} < Y_i^* \leq \mu_j | x)$$

$$P(Y_i = j|x) = P(\mu_{j-1} < X_i\beta + \varepsilon \leq \mu_j | x)$$

$$P(Y_i = j|x) = P(\varepsilon < \mu_j - X_i\beta | x) - P(\varepsilon < \mu_{j-1} - X_i\beta | x)$$

$$P(Y_i = j|x) = F(\mu_j - X_i\beta) - F(\mu_{j-1} - X_i\beta), \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, J \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

Further suppose that while we cannot observe  $Y_i^*$ , we instead can only observe the categories of response:

$$Y_i = 0 \text{ if } \mu_{-1} < Y_i^* < \mu_1,$$

$$Y_i = 1 \text{ if } \mu_0 < Y_i^* < \mu_1,$$

$$Y_i = 2 \text{ if } \mu_1 < Y_i^* < \mu_2$$

$$Y_i = \dots$$

$$Y_i = J \text{ if } \mu_{j-1} < Y_i^* < \mu_j.$$

The ordered logistic technique therefore uses the observations on  $Y_i$ , which are a form of censored data on  $Y_i^*$ , to fit the parameter vector. The variable  $Y_i^*$  is a continuous, unmeasured latent variable whose values determine what the observed ordinal variable  $Y_i$  (migrants well - being) equals. The continuous latent variable has various thresholds points. In the ordered logistic model,  $Y_i^* = j$  is the observed discrete outcome whereas  $\beta$  is the vector of estimated parameters and  $X_i$  is the vector of explanatory variables.  $\varepsilon$  is the error term which is assumed to be logistically distributed (zero mean and non-constant variance) with the logistic distribution function denoted by  $F(\bullet)$ . The estimated threshold parameters are the  $\mu_j$  (in which  $\mu_j > \mu_{j-1}$  for positive probabilities) and  $n$  is the number of observations.

The threshold parameters (cut points) are used to differentiate the adjacent levels of the response variable (migrants' well - being), where a threshold is referred to as points on the latent variable, continuous unobservable mechanism/phenomena that result in the different observed values on the proxy variable.

STATA 11.0 was used to estimate the parameters of the specified ordered logit model for migrants well – being specified bellow;

$$Y_i^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \beta_7 X_7 + \beta_8 X_8 + \beta_9 X_9 + \varepsilon_i$$

For  $Y_i^*$  = ordered dependent variable (migrants well – being status) coded as 0, 1, 2, (worsen, remain same, improved).

$X_1$  = Age variable in number of years.

$X_2$  = dummy variable for sex ( $X_2 = 1$  for male, and 0 otherwise).

$X_3$  = dummy variable for primary education ( $X_3 = 1$  if respondent has primary education, and 0 if otherwise).

$X_4$  = dummy variable for JHS education ( $X_4 = 1$  if respondent has JHS education, and 0 if otherwise).

$X_5$  = dummy variable for secondary education ( $X_5 = 1$  if respondent has secondary education, and 0 if otherwise).

$X_6$  = dummy variable for vocational education ( $X_6 = 1$  if respondent has vocational education, and 0 if otherwise).

$X_7$  = dummy variable for teacher/nursing training college ( $X_7 = 1$  if respondent has teacher/nursing training college, 0 if otherwise).

$X_8$  = dummy variable for tertiary education ( $X_8 = 1$  if respondent has tertiary education, and 0 if otherwise).

$X_9$  = income variable for respondent in Ghana cedis.

### **3.14 The qualitative approach**

The study used a multiple case analysis in the qualitative approach in looking at migrants' experiences. According to Yin (1984), case study is an empirical inquiry that explores a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the precincts between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. Denzin and Lincoln offered a very broad definition which is useful for this study. According to them;

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive materials, practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, conversations, interviews, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative research study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomenon in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; p3).

This approach is useful because the analysis strives for in-depth understanding of issues. Also, qualitative research is based on assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of theoretical lens and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2007). Furthermore, qualitative research helps a researcher to focus on the explanations or accounts provided by the respondent.

The multiple case design was adopted in this study to enable the researcher probe into migrants' experiences which could not be captured in the quantitative approach. This was done through probing and follow-up questions.



### **3.15 Identifying cases and data analysis**

The study identified eight unique cases from the 398 sample used in the quantitative approach for detail analyses. These eight individuals were comprised of four males and four females. The small number was to enable effective and detail exploration of migrants' life experiences. Apart from this criterion, those selected were willing to be traced back to their homes in the Yendi Municipality. The eight migrants provided names and contacts of family members to be contacted in Yendi Municipality.

### **3.16 Data collection**

In this approach, semi-structured interview guides were used as the instruments for data collection. The semi-structured interview guides for migrants in Agbogbloshie and nonmigrants in Yendi are attached in appendices C and D respectively. The semi-structured interview guide for the eight migrants in Agbogbloshie was made up of five categories. Category A contained questions pertaining to the demographic characteristics of the migrants including names, age, sex, marital status and educational attainment. Category B entailed questions relating to residential type, facilities available such as water and toilets and the impression of the migrants on their accommodation in general. Category C dealt with health matters such as whether migrants had insurance or not and whether migrants have to access health facilities when they are sick. The causes of migration and the employment status of migrants constituted category D. Category D also contained questions relating to remittances sent by migrants to non-migrants in Yendi Municipality. Finally category E contained questions on migrants' opinion about migration and migrant experiences.

The semi-structured interview guide used in Yendi Municipality was made up of five Categories, with category A containing questions about the demographic characteristics of respondents. Housing and living conditions of respondents constituted category B. Category C contained questions on health issues that is accessibility to health facilities by respondents and whether respondents had subscribed to the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). In category D, questions relating to respondent's relationship with migrants and effects of migration on the household were asked. Category E contained questions on the effects of migration on the community in general and the respondents view of migration in general.



The mode of collecting the data was through in-depth interviews. In-depth interview is described as a conversation between a researcher and research participant (Lofland and Lofland, 1995).

The interviews were conducted in an informal and unstructured manner usually in the evenings when migrants returned from work. The migrants were asked to choose a location and time that was convenient for the researcher to interact with them. With regards to migrants' relatives in Yendi, in-depth interviews were used. As observed by Twumasi, (1986), interviews are suitable methods for gathering data from rural and illiterate population especially if the researcher understands the language of the people he/she is researching into.

The participants consent were sought and the views they expressed in the course of the interaction were recorded and was later transcribed and organized into themes for analysis. Moreover, face-to-face interview allows for the interviewer to probe further and to clarify statements from respondents that might not be clear.

The researcher also observed keenly in the data collection process and compared the responses of the respondents with what the researcher could see.

### **3.17 Analysis of qualitative data**

The recorded information from the field was stored in different media for safe keeping and analysis. The data was first transcribed from Dagbani and Likpakpaan into English with the aid of Microsoft word. The Analytical Framework developed by the UK National Centre for Social Research (Richie, 2003) was used as a guide in the analysis of the data.

The first step in the analysis by the framework is familiarization of oneself with the content of the data collected. This was done by reading and re-reading of the transcribed data to gain insight into the general coverage of the data collected. As noted by Ritchie, Spencer and O'Connor (2003), familiarization is an important process because it is akin to building the foundation structure of the findings. The researcher also took note of recurring themes at this initial stage as he attempts to familiarize with the data.

The second stage of the framework is the development of a conceptual framework.

Ritchie, Spencer and O'Connor (2003) assert that development of the conceptual framework draws on both recurrent themes and issues introduced into the interviews through the interview guide. The recurrent themes were sorted and grouped under smaller number of broader and higher categories or themes placed within the overall framework.

The third stage of the framework is the application of the initial themes identified in the familiarization stage. Next is the sorting of data according to the themes created. At this stage, themes that were similar were brought together. According to Ritchie, Spencer and O'Connor (2003), this stage of thematic data sorting is to allow the researcher to focus on each subject in turn so that the detail and distinctions that lie within can be unpacked.

The final stage of data analysis is the summary of data. This ensures reduction of materials to a manageable size. Ritchie, Spencer and O'Connor (2003) assert that the stage brings the process of distilling the essence of the evidence for representation. It also ensures that the researcher inspects every word of the original material to consider meaning and relevance to the subject under enquiry. It was on the basis of these that themes and sub-themes were developed and discussed and used to back quantitative data.

All quotations are presented verbatim in order to present a true reflection of the voices of the participants. At the end of the analysis, five themes were identified; causes of migration, effects of migration on the well-being of migrants, effects of remittances on migrants households in Yendi, migrants experiences and effects of migration on Yendi Municipality. These were used alongside with the quantitative findings.

### **3.18 Ethical consideration**

This study was conducted in accordance with the Guidelines of the General Research Ethics Board of the University. The researcher sought the consent of the participants through the use of a consent form. Those who could read appended their signatures on the form showing proof of consent while those who could not read verbally accepted to participate in the research when the purpose of the research was explained to them either in Twi, Dagbani and Likpakpaln or in Mampruli.

The researcher also ensured that the identities of the participants were not exposed and could not be traced by any third party. This gave the research participants the confidence to give information without fear. This was achieved by ensuring confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of research participants by the use of pseudonyms and organizing the interviews and discussions with participants at their preferred places where people did not interrupt. Participants were duly informed and their permission sought before their voices were captured by audio during interviews. The researcher sought to avoid any form of plagiarism and duly acknowledged both in text and in references all information taken from other sources.

### **3.19 Limitations of the Study**

In conducting this study, the researcher was confronted with two methodological limitations. 1) The study was limited by the choice of Agbogbloshie a slum located in Accra as a study site. The study was designed to measure the effects of migration on the socio-economic well-being of migrants. This was inspired by the fact that the push-pull theories of migration seems to suggest that urban centres are well off than rural areas leading to migration into cities but what these theories fail to address is the effects of migration on those moving into urban slums like Agbogbloshie. Even though there are similar communities in Greater Accra with migrants, the study could not include them and hence therefore the findings are limited to Agbogbloshie. This implies that the findings cannot be generalized to other communities. In spite of the limited nature of Agbogbloshie as the study area, Agbogbloshie remained a prime choice since the study was not interested in generalizing the findings to other communities instead the researcher was interested in exploring the lived experiences of research participants and also to give a snapshot of how migration affected the well-being of migrants in that community.

2) The study was equally limited by the use of a mixed research design approach. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The motive for this approach was to gather detailed and in-depth information for the study through a qualitative approach and to cover large number of migrants and test the relationship between migration and well-being through the quantitative approach. The quantitative method was limited, in that, the sample size though large was not based on randomized selection but through Snowball.



There was a difficulty in identifying migrants from the three northern regions in that community were, so the researcher had to first identify key informants who also in turn identified people with similar characteristics to form the sample size. This in a way limited the findings to only those respondents who engaged in the study. However, the researcher used the mixed methods because he triangulated findings which assisted in strengthening the weaknesses and enhancing the strengths of the two methods.

The above limitations notwithstanding, the researcher is of the opinion that the adherence to diverse population, multiple data collection and analysis methods, consent, confidentiality and privacy of research participants proved that efforts were made to collect data that was comprehensive, valid, and credible and can be relied on in ascertaining the effects of migration on the well-being of migrants in Agboglobshie.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4.0 PRESENTATION OF DATA, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with the analysis and discussion of findings. The analysis covers the following: the demographic characteristics of migrants and non-migrants in Agboglobshie and Yendi respectively. A brief introduction of eight case studies are also summarized leading to the analysis and discussion of the main findings which include: the causes of migration, the effects of migration on the well-being of migrants, the experiences of migrants in Agboglobshie and the consequences of migration on source communities in Yendi Municipality.

#### **4.2 The demographic characteristics of migrants in Agboglobshie**

Table 4.1 presents a summary of the demographic characteristics of the sampled migrants in Agboglobshie. Out of the 398 respondents interviewed, 325 representing 81 percent of the respondents migrated from the Northern Region, 50 representing 13 percent migrated from the Upper East Region and the remaining 23 representing 6 percent migrated from the



Upper West Region of Ghana. On gender, majority (52 percent) of the interviewed migrants were males, with 48 percent being females.

On marital status, 53 percent of the migrants were not married as at the time of the survey, 39 percent were married, 4 percent were either engaged or cohabitating, 3 percent were divorced and only 1 percent were widowed. In terms of religious affiliation, a larger proportion of the migrants (60 percent) were Christians with 34 percent belonging to the Islamic religion and the remaining 6 percent belonging to African traditional religions. On education, 29 percent of the migrants had secondary level education with 28 percent of the interviewed migrants not having any formal education. Only 19 percent of the migrants had a post-secondary level education.

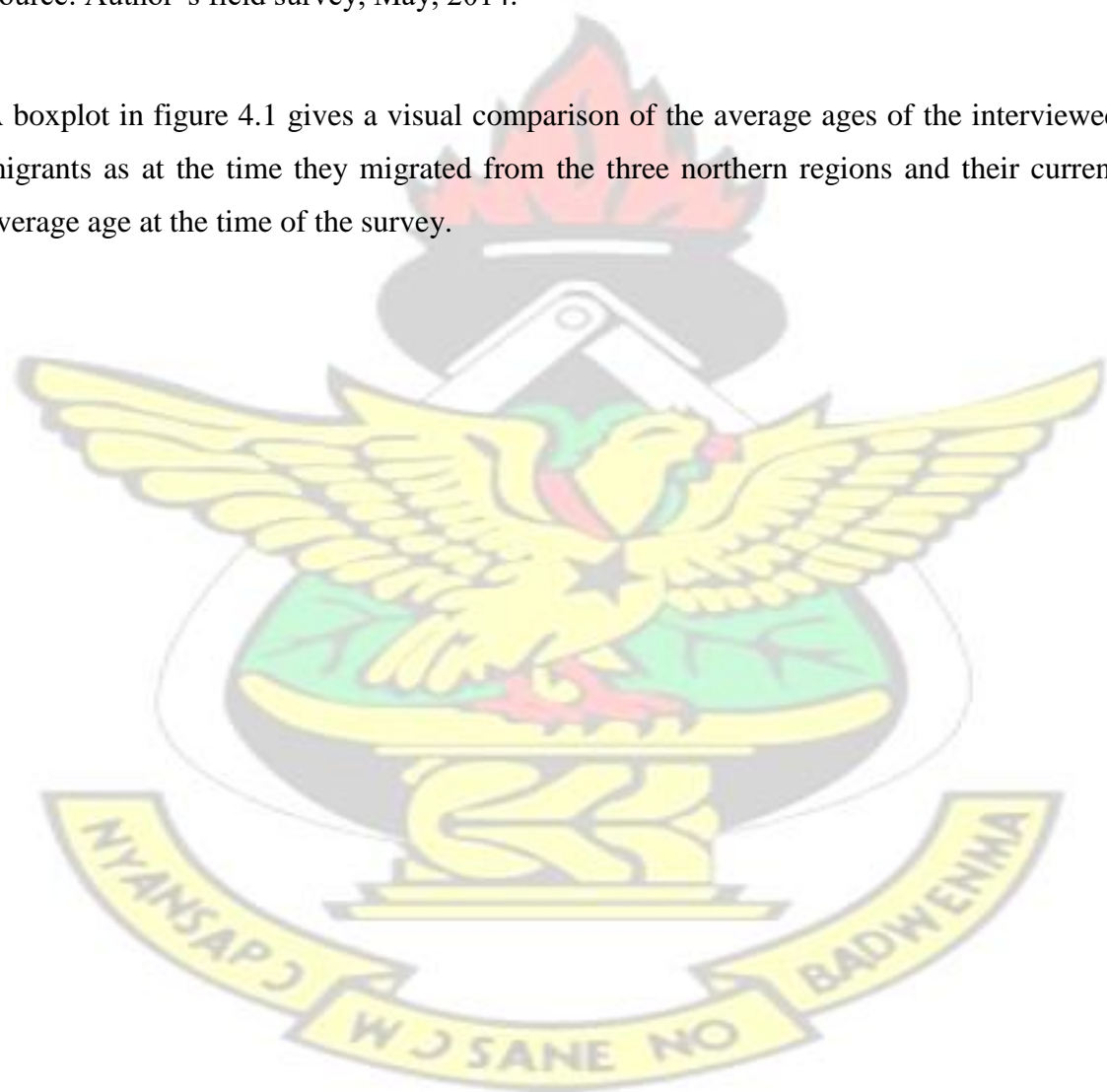
**Table 4. 1: Demographic Characteristics of migrants in Agboglobloshie**

Variables and categories	Frequency	Percentages (%)
<b>Region</b>		
Northern Region	325	81
Upper East Region	50	13
Upper West Region	23	6
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	208	52
Female	190	48
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	211	53
Married	155	39
Engaged/Co-habitation	14	4
Divorced	13	3
Widowed	5	1.
<b>Religion</b>		
Christianity	237	60
Islam	137	34
African Traditional Religion	24	6
<b>Education</b>		
SSCE/WASSCE/A-Level	116	29

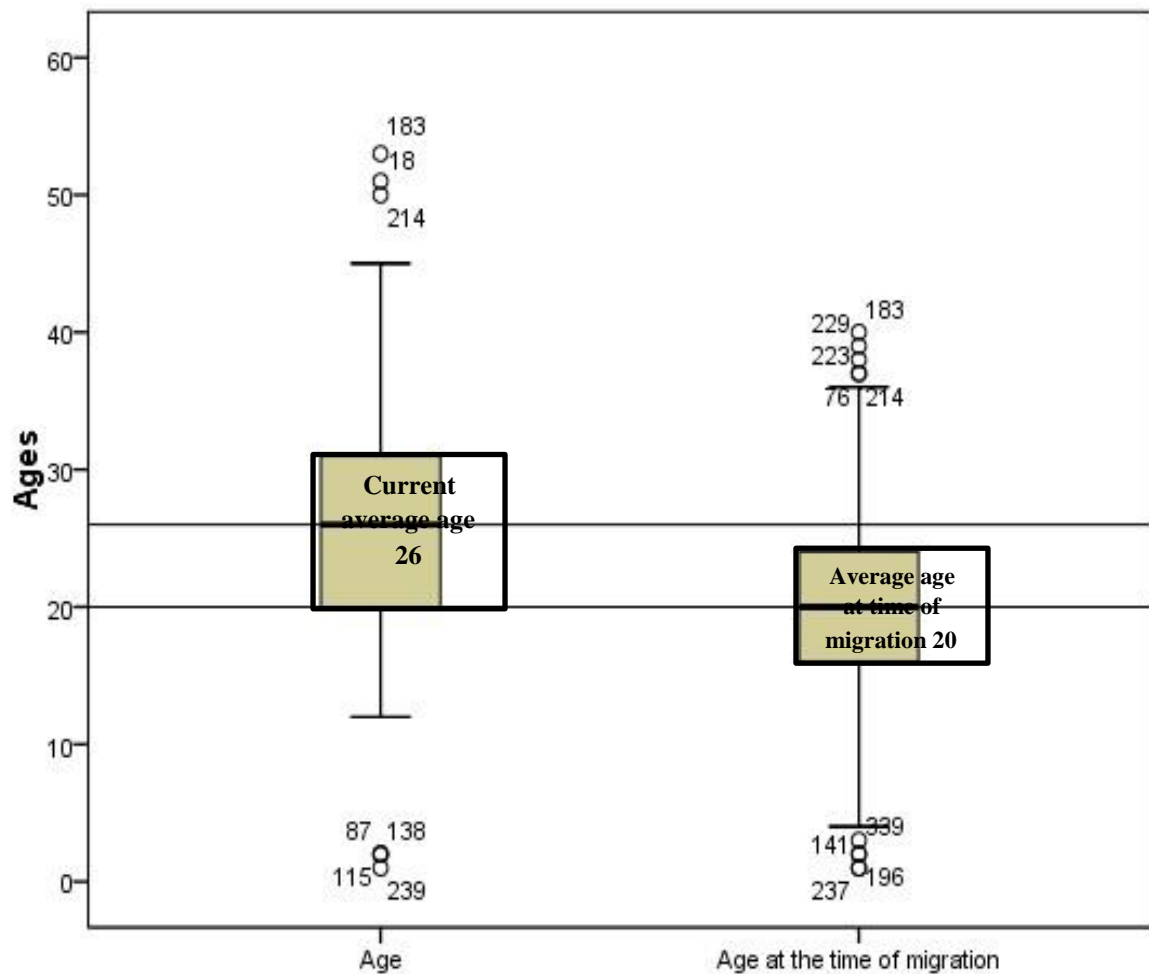
No Formal Education	113	28
Middle/JSS	94	24
Primary	51	13
Training College/Nursing	12	3
Technical/Vocational	7	2
Polytechnic/University	5	1

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

A boxplot in figure 4.1 gives a visual comparison of the average ages of the interviewed migrants as at the time they migrated from the three northern regions and their current average age at the time of the survey.



**Figure 4. 1 A boxplot comparing current average ages of migrants and average age at the time of migration**



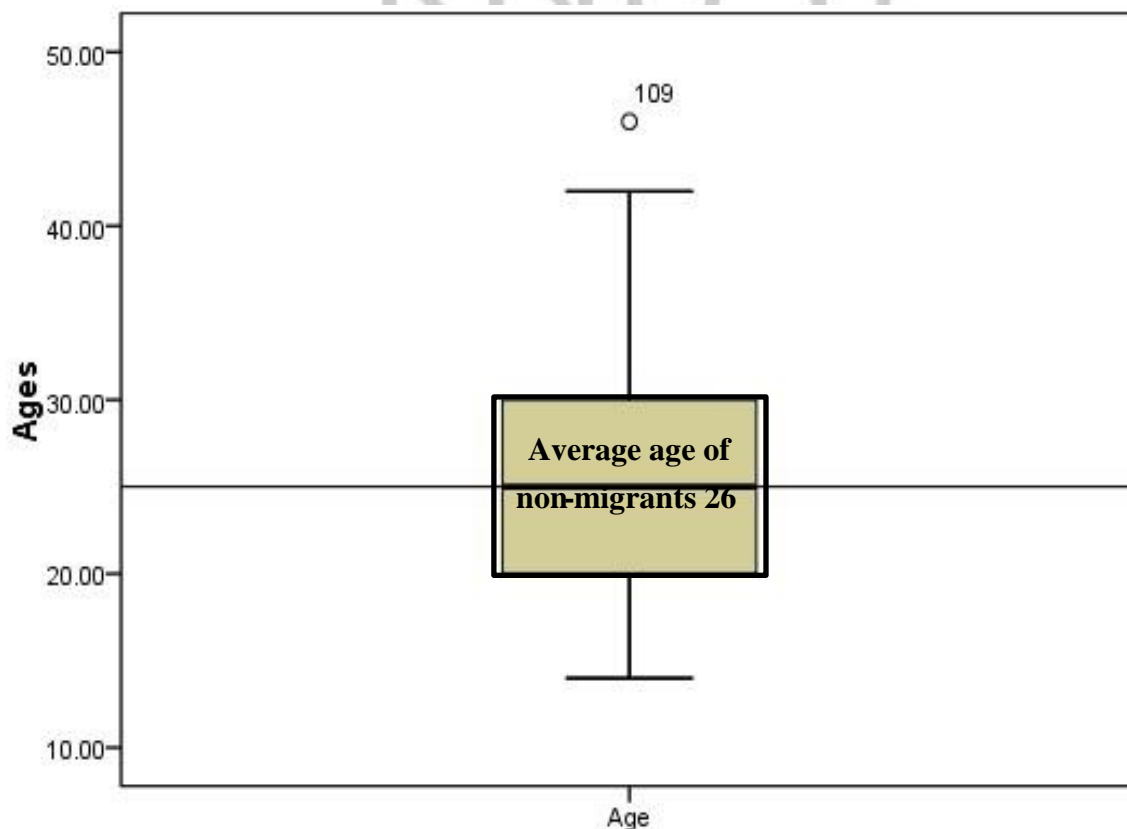
Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The surveyed migrants have an average age of about 26 years with a minimum age of 11 and a maximum age of 53. However, at the time of migration, their average age was about 20 years with a minimum of as low as 1 year and the maximum age of 40. It also shows that most of the migrants were between the ages of 15 to 25 at the time of migration while currently, the migrants are between the ages of 20 to 30 years. This suggests that most of the migrants above the age of 35 might have gone back to their places of origin.

### 4.3 The demographic characteristics of respondents in Yendi

In Yendi Municipality, majority of the respondents fell within the age category of 20 and 30 years with the average age being 26 years. The minimum age at the time of the survey was 14 and the maximum was 46 years. Figure 4.2 shows the distribution of the ages of respondents surveyed in Yendi Municipality.

**Figure 4. 2 A Boxplot of average age of sampled respondents in Yendi**



Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

A detailed demographic characteristic of sampled respondents from Yendi municipality is presented in table 4.2. On marital status, unlike the migrants in Agbogbloshie, majority (45 percent) of the respondents were married despite having almost the same average age of 26 years as their counterparts in Agbogbloshie. About 36 percent of the respondents were never married as at the time of the survey, while 15 percent were divorced and 4 percent were separated.

**Table 4. 2: The demographic characteristics of non-migrants in Yendi**

Variables and Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
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**Marital Status**

Single	143	36
Married	180	45
Divorced	59	15
Separated	15	4

**Religion**

Christianity	110	28.
Islam	225	56
African Traditional Religion	63	16

**Education**

No formal Education	126	32
JSS	92	23
Primary	29	7
SHS	56	14
Tertiary	95	24

**Ethnic Group**

Dagomba	238	60
Frafra	47	12
Konkomba	102	26
Other Ethnic groups	11	2

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Source: Author's field Survey, May, 2014.

Unlike in Agbogbloshie, majority of the respondents in the Yendi survey belonged to the Islamic religion, this was represented by 56 percent of the respondents, followed by Christianity with 28 percent. The remaining 16 percent of the respondents belonged to the Traditional African religions.

A larger proportion of the respondents interviewed had no formal education and this constituted 32 percent of the respondents. About 7 percent had only primary level education, 23 percent had JHS level education, and about 14 percent were having Senior High level education followed by 24 percent having tertiary level education. On the ethnicity of the respondents, majority (60 percent) of the respondents interviewed were

Dagombas, followed by Konkombas who were 26 percent of the respondents, Frafras constituted 12 percent. Thus 98 percent of the respondents belong to the three ethnic groups of Dagomba, Konkombas and Frafra with only 2 percent belonging to other ethnic groups.

#### **4.4 Background of the eight case studies**

A brief background on eight migrants who were traced to their relatives in Yendi Municipality is summarized here. The names used here are pseudonyms for purpose of anonymity and do not portray the true identities of the respondents. The choice of pseudonyms was to ensure that the respondents' right to confidentiality was not compromised.

##### **Box 4.1 The case of David**

David was twenty-eight years old as at the time of the interview. He was a Christian and a Konkomba from Gnani; a suburb in Yendi Municipality. He was living and working in Agboglobshie as a pupil teacher and a trader in yam business. He completed Yendi Senior High School in 2003 and according to him; he passed the Senior Secondary School Examination (SSCE) conducted by the West African Examination Council (WAEC) except Core Mathematics which he failed. David came to Accra in 2008 through the advice of his friends who were living in Agboglobshie.

David said he migrated to Agboglobshie to find work so that he could register and write private WASSCE examination to better his results. At the time of the interview, David had not been able to write his exams but was hopeful of writing the exams in the near future.

In Gnani, David's elder brother Jagri, confirmed the year and reasons behind David's migration. Jagri admitted that he initially opposed David's idea to travel to Agboglobshie but today David is contributing a lot to the family's upkeep through remittances that he sends home.

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

##### **Box 4.2 The case of Zenabu**

Zenabu was from the Dagomba ethnic group. As at the time of the interview, she was 17 years old and hailed from Yendi. She had never been to school and was unmarried. Zenabu was dark in complexion and about five feet tall.

Zenabu was a food vendor (Wakye seller) in Yendi. However, her colleagues who had earlier travelled to Agboglobshie and came back with a lot of clothes convinced her that

Kayayoo (head portorage) business was very rewarding. She decided to follow them to Agbogbloshie in 2012. As at the time of the interview, she was living with 15 other migrants in a single room and each of them paid a weekly rent fee of three Ghana cedis.

Zenabu complained that even though she made some daily savings, the cost of living coupled with frequent fire outbreaks was a serious worry to her. For Zenabu this was a temporary work since she was saving money so she could return as soon as possible.

In Yendi, Lukaya - Zenabu's mother admitted she had received some cooking utensils and money from Zenabu at the beginning of 2013. Zenabu's contribution to the household income was acknowledged by the father Yussif too. However, they wanted Zenabu to come home and marry since her fiancée was always pestering them.

Source Author's field survey, May, 2014

#### **Box 4.3 The case of Nakol**

Nakol was fourteen years old as at the time of the interview. She was about four feet tall, fair in complexion and was not married as at the time of the interview. Nakol is a Konkomba from Likpataab, a village located 5 kilometres away from Yendi Township. Nakol's parents were alive and working as subsistence farmers and their produce was only enough to feed a family of twelve. In 2012, she travelled to Accra with a man who retailed in yam business at the Agbogbloshie market. Since Nakol had never been to school, the man promised to buy her a sewing machine for apprenticeship. Upon arrival, the man refused to buy her the machine and since then she has been working as a bar attendant and a vendor in oranges.

When Nakol's parents were contacted, Niyayegma, the mother said she was not in support of her daughter travelling to Agbogbloshie but before she knew it, Nakol had gone. Apart from rumours of girls becoming wayward at Agbogbloshie, Nakol's mother was concerned about what her daughter might be doing for a living. According to Nakol's mother, they have not received anything from her ever since she left.

In the course of the interview with Nakol at Agbogbloshie, she initially declined to give out her parents' house address, however, when the purpose of the exercise was explained to her, she accepted.

Source Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **Box 4.4 The case of Nyojah**

Nyojah was the next migrant to be interviewed. Nyojah was 35 years old, a Konkomba and had migrated to Agbogbloshie since 1994. He was married with three children. Nyojah was about 5.5 feet tall and fair in complexion. Nyojah had never been to school. He owned a shed and was engaged in yam business.

According to Nyojah, he migrated to Agbogbloshie because of the 1994 Konkomba – Nanumba conflict. His father and mother were living in Banchini, a village located 10 miles



away from Yendi. According to Nyojah, he sends them money on monthly basis for their upkeep especially during “June-July” the lean season.

When Nyojah’s father -Liyab was contacted, he confirmed that Nyojah actually sends money and clothes home. According to Liyab, the son sends fertilizers and money for hiring labour. The family of Nyojah in Banchini was very happy that they have someone like Nyojah in Agbogbloshie.

Source: Author’s field survey, May, 2014.

#### **Box 4.5 The case of Abdul-Rahman**

5. Abdul-Rahman as at the time of the interview was 19 years old, a Dagomba from Yendi. He was about 4 feet tall and was not married. He dropped out of school when he was in form two at the Junior High School. Abdul-Rahman was a scrap dealer.

When asked why he had moved to Agbogbloshie, he said his parents were dead and his uncle whom he was living with decided to take him out of school to farm for him. This made him to run to Accra with some of his friends who had earlier travelled to Agbogbloshie in 2011.

Abdul-Rahman makes an average monthly income of three hundred Ghana cedis from scrap dealings and according to him he saves some for his education in the future. In addition, Abdul- Rahman sends money to his younger sister who is currently in the Junior High School in Yendi.

In a visit to Abdul-Rahman’s uncle (Abukari) in Yendi, he denied taking him out of school. He explained that Abdul Rahman was repeated in class for non-performance and he felt humiliated and was no longer attending school yet would not go to farm. When he persuaded him to help on the farm rather than sitting idle, he ran away. Abukari admitted he received just one hundred Ghana cedis from Abdul-Rahman which was meant for the younger sister.

Source: Author’s field survey, May, 2014

#### **Box 4.6 The case of Munira**

Munira was 24 years old, a Dagomba woman from Yendi. She was married and had one child and had never been to school. Munira was a Kayayoo and her story was slightly different.

Munira was a seasonal migrant. According to her, she engages in Kayayoo business during certain times of the year. She would only come to Accra to engage in the Kayayoo business



during the dry season, after all the farm produce had been harvested and she had nothing doing.

In Yendi, the husband of Munira – Ibrahim explained that his wife Munira travels to Agboghloshie on seasonal basis when there is no farm work to do in the dry season. The seasonal work of Munira as a Kayayoo raked in some income to hire labour, buy fertilizers, pay school fees and hospital bills.

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014

#### **Box 4.7 The case of Latifa**

7) Latifa was 19 years as at the time she was interviewed. She came from Baatinle in Yendi. Latifa was fair in complexion and smallish in size. She was not married and had never been to school. Latifa was very sad because the evening was drawing close and she had to pass the night in an open veranda in front of a store because she could not afford to rent a room. She was exposed to insects and mosquitoes. Rape was another serious threat she complained about.

As I sought to find out why she came to Accra, she shed tears as she narrated the circumstances leading to her migration to Agboghloshie in December 2013. According to her, there was an agreement between a certain trader in cloths and her father for her to be brought to Accra to help her in her retailing shop. As part of the agreement, the trader would be sending the father money every month. However, her hopes were dashed when in Accra; the woman bought her a head pan and introduced her to head portering (Kayayoo) business. She has left the woman's place and now sleeps in the veranda with a friend. Throughout the interview, she wept because of the bad treatment and deceit she had suffered under the woman. Latifa would have loved to return but has no lorry fare.

In Yendi, Razak- Latifa's father was shocked because the woman who took Latifa to Agboghloshie had fooled him. He explained that he was going to send her some money to return home. According to Razak, Latifa's condition has saddened his heart.

Her absence and the condition in which she has found herself gives me sleepless nights; I will sell some yams and then give the money to her to come home (Razak, Participant).

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **Box 4.8 The case of Gmakanbi**

8. Gmakanbi was 20 years old as at the time of the interview. She was fair in complexion and about 4.2 feet tall. She is a Konkomba and came from Nakuri, a village under Yendi Municipality. Even though she had a child, she was not married. She dropped out of school at JHS two. In 2010, she decided to migrate to Agboghloshie with friends.

Gmakanbi's main reason for migrating to Agboglobshie was to make enough money through head portorage to take care of her sick mother in the village. According to her, the mother's sickness was one of the reasons for dropping out of school. Faced with the realities in Agboglobshie, she decided to enter into a relationship with a young man in order to get a sleeping place. This eventually resulted in pregnancy and the young man threw her out. Gmakanbi looked very worried and helpless as she narrated her story to me. She hoped to return to her village after making enough savings. In Nakuri, Gmakanbi's mother (Joeti) confirmed the circumstances that led to the migration of her only daughter to Agboglobshie. According to Joeti, she received money from her daughter on two occasions. However, Joeti wanted her daughter to return to assist her in farming.

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **4.5 Who migrates?**

As already shown in the demographic characteristics of the sampled migrants in table 4.1 and figure 4.1, the survey in Agboglobshie revealed that most of the sampled migrants were between the ages of 20 to 30 years, with an average age of 26 years. The minimum age of the respondents as at the time of the survey was 14 years and the maximum age being 46 years. The results are consistent with the findings of Anarfi et al (2006); Tanle, (2003); Songsore (2003); Opare (2003); Awumbila (2007); Yeboah (2008) and BaahEnumh et al (2012), who found similar age characteristics of migrants in the north-south migration in Ghana. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, studies conducted on north-south migration in Ghana found that male adults between the ages of 30-45 years had the highest propensity to migrate. These adults sometimes migrated with or without their wives to the rich cocoa farms in the south (Caldwell, 1968; Nabila, 1985; TwumasiAnkrah, 1995; Abdul-Korah, 2011). As shown in the survey results this trend has changed as more young adults are now dominating the current flows of the migration stream (Anarfi et al, 2006; Tanle, 2003; Songsore, 2003; Opare, 2003; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008).

It has been argued that education is a major factor that induces rural-urban migration. For instance, Oberai (1978) found a strong correlation between the propensity to migrate and ones level of education and this has been observed in many developing countries. A contrary observation was made by Adepoju (1995) two decades ago. He observed an

increase in migration of illiterate persons from the rural areas to urban informal sectors which challenged the generality of education as a factor influencing migration. The survey results in Agboglobloshie showed that the propensity to migrate is directly related to educational attainment. The results revealed that majority of the sampled respondents in Agboglobloshie were Senior High School leavers (29 percent) followed by those without formal education (28 percent), Junior High School leavers constituted 24 percent whilst respondents with primary education constituted 13 percent. The remaining 6 percent were migrants with tertiary qualification.

The broad implication of the results is that migration from northern Ghana to Agboglobloshie is selective with illiterates and persons with primary to secondary education more likely to migrate than persons with tertiary qualification.

#### **4.6 Why migrate to Agboglobloshie?**

The main objective of the study was to ascertain how migration affects migrants' wellbeing in Agboglobloshie. To do this, the study first explored the question of why the youth migrate from the three northern regions to the southern parts of the country especially to Agboglobloshie. The responses as shown in table 4.3 indicate that majority (83.67 percent) of the migrants migrated to seek employment. The next important reason for migrating to Agboglobloshie was for education. The results showed that 50.15 percent of the interviewed migrants migrated in order to have access to quality education which are available in the southern part of the country. As shown in table 4.3, the least popular reason for migrating was transfer. That is, only 1.17 percent of the sampled migrants migrated because they were transferred to Agboglobloshie by their employers. Other reasons for migrating were to expand or start up business (39.36 percent), to be free from cultural practices and family restrictions (36.76 percent), to seek modern urban services (31.49 percent), to join relatives and family members who were already in Agboglobloshie (20.12 percent) and finally to seek good climate (10.50 percent). Thus, about 37 percent of the migrants were induced by the need to be free from cultural practices and restrictions such as female circumcision and forced marriages.

**Table 4. 3 Reasons for migrating**

<b>Reasons for migrating</b>	<b>Percentages</b>
For employment	83.67



For education	50.15
To expand business	39.36
To avoid cultural and family restrictions	36.73
To seek modern urban services	34.99
To join immediate relatives	31.49
Family asked me to move	20.12
To seek good climate	10.50
Transfer	1.17

(Note: this was a mutiple response, the total percentage is more than hundred percent)

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The respondents were asked to rank the reasons leading to migration on the scale from 1 to 9 depending on the number of reasons they cited, with one (1) indicating most important and the last number implying the least important. Average rankings for all the reasons have been computed and a value close to one imply very important while a value far from 1 imply less important. The reasons for migrating have been ranked according to their respective average rankings from all the respondents as shown in table 4.4.

The top three reasons for the respondents who cited more than one reason for migrating are to seek employment (1.45), better education (1.75) and to expand or start up new businesses (2.75). The least important reasons however were, migration because of job transfer and also migration just to change ones environment.

**Table 4. 4: The ranking of reasons behind migration in order of importance**

Reasons for migrating	Average Ranking	Ranking in terms of Importance
For employment purposes	1.45	1 (most important)
For education	1.65	2
To expand or open up business	2.75	3
Freedom from cultural and family restrictions	2.85	4
To avoid poverty.	3.00	5



To join immediate relatives and friends	3.07	6
Job Transfer	2.00	7
To seek good climate	3.10	8
For modern urban services and facilities	3.16	9 (least Important)

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Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The in-depth interviews with the eight migrants in Agboghloshie and their families in Yendi revealed similar findings as in the quantitative approach. Push and pull factors were identified as the major causes of migration as many of the responses showed that migrants took the decision to migrate in order to improve their socio-economic conditions. David, one of the participants in the interview had this to say:

I came to Agboghloshie to raise some money so that I could register private November-Examination (NOVDEC) to better my results so as to be able to continue my education. My father has three wives and we are about twenty in the family. The farm work we do in Gnani is only enough for the family to feed on. Ever since I came, I have been buying hoes and cutlasses for the family and sending money to my elder brother especially in the months of June and July to cushion the family against economic hardship (David, participant).

The discussion with David revealed that there was quality extra classes in Accra than in Yendi. Apart from getting access to quality tuition, one could also take up a part-time job which for David was only available in the southern part of the country especially in Accra. Several factors determine why people migrate, when to migrate, how far and where to go. However, the determinants of migration are usually put into two broad categories: “push” factors and “pull” factors (Lee, 1966). Anything within a particular geographical location that turns to serve as a force driving people away or motivating people to leave that location is a push factor while pull factors are forces within an environment that attracts people to that particular geographical location. For example, people may be pushed off by poverty and other natural factors in rural areas to relocate to towns permanently or temporarily. On the other hand, better employment opportunities or the need for better facilities in urban areas may also serve as pull factors encouraging people to move to urban centres. In addition, the decision to migrate may also be influenced by noneconomic factors such as

the need to join relatives, the need to be free from cultural and family restrictions (Mabogunje 1970, Lewis, 1982; Todaro, 1997).

The north- south migration in Ghana is seen as the structural differences in development (Kwankye & Turner, 1997; Awumbila, 2007; Yeboah, 2008). The findings of this study are consistent with this assertion as shown in table 4.3. About 84 percent of the sampled migrants in Agbogbloshie moved in response to seek job opportunities in Accra. This goes to validate Harris and Todaro model of migration which sees migration as a response to wages differentials between two geographical areas (Harris & Todaro, 1970). The findings are also consistent with Ravenstein law of migration; that economic factors are the major causes of migration (see Grigg, 1977). The low wages in migrants' source areas is also serving as a push factor compelling the youth to migrate confirming Lee's push-pull model of migration (1966). About 50 percent of the migrants moved to have access to quality education in Accra thus further buttressing Lee's theoretical model of push-pull factors as the major cause of migration (Lee, 1966).

#### **4.7 Nature of migrants work prior to migration**

The employment situation of migrants prior to migration was one of the issues that the study sought to investigate in relation to respondents' migration. The employment classifications of the respondents before migrating are shown in table 4.5. The responses show that before migrating, most (41.7 percent) of the respondents were engaged in helping their families in the farm. About 26 percent said they were unemployed, 23.9 percent were employed in other sectors with only 5% and 3.2 percent being students and apprentices respectively.

**Table 4. 5 Employment statuses of migrants before migration**

<b>Employment Statuses of migrants before migrating</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Helping family in the farm	166	41.7
Unemployed	104	26.2
Employed	95	23.9
Students	20	5.0

Apprenticeship	13	3.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>398</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

One of the issues that came up in the course of the in-depth interviews had to do with migrants who were helping their relatives in the farms. Such persons are not paid monthly or even yearly but the relatives take care of the person's food and clothes.

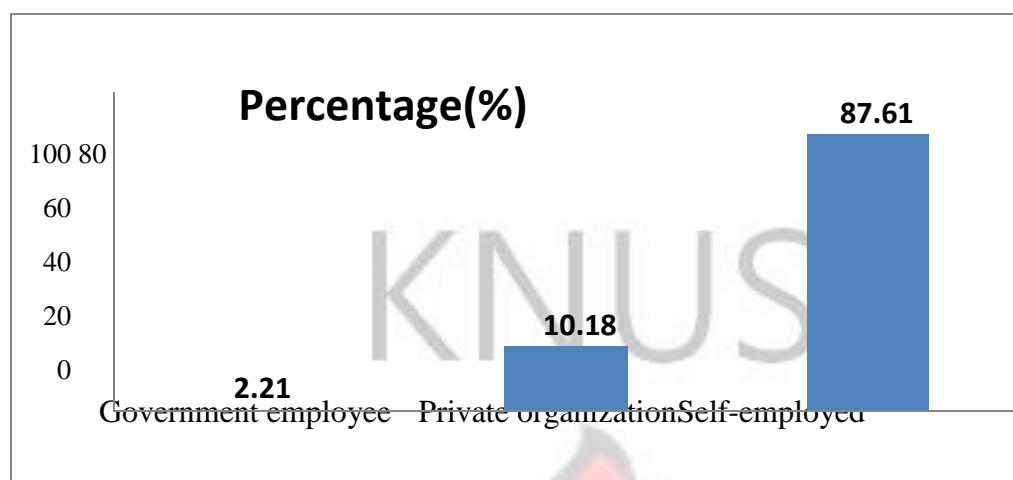
According to Nakol, even though she helps her parents in the farm, she also cultivates her own farm which goes a long way to support her needs.

I used to cultivate groundnut farm every year and when there was enough rains I harvested at least two bags. Besides I used to sell charcoal on every Yendi market day and these were the source of my income (Nakol, a participant).

Such was the case of most respondents who indicated that they were helping their relatives in the farms. There were instances where persons who were dissatisfied with the treatment of relatives decided to migrate without permission from their relatives. An example of such a case was Abdul-Rahman who decided to follow his friends to Agbogloboshie without the approval of his uncle. In many of the cases, wards who were helping their parents or relatives in the farms left for Agbogloboshie because they were earning less as shown in table 4.3.

Still on the nature of the jobs migrants did prior to migration, the study found that most of the respondents (87.6 percent) were self-employed. About 10.2 percent of the migrants were employed by private organizations with only 2.2 percent being government employees. This is plotted in the bar chart in figure 4.3

**Figure 4. 3 Employers of migrants before migration**



Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

As seen in figure 4.3, most of the migrants who left their jobs were self-employed and the main reason for leaving was because they did not make enough money as profits. This finding reiterates earlier results that, the main reason behind migration was to find better living conditions through better jobs. Table 4.6 presents a cross tabulation of employment type of migrants prior to migration and the reasons for leaving the job.

**Table 4. 6 Cross tabulation of employment type and reasons for migrating**

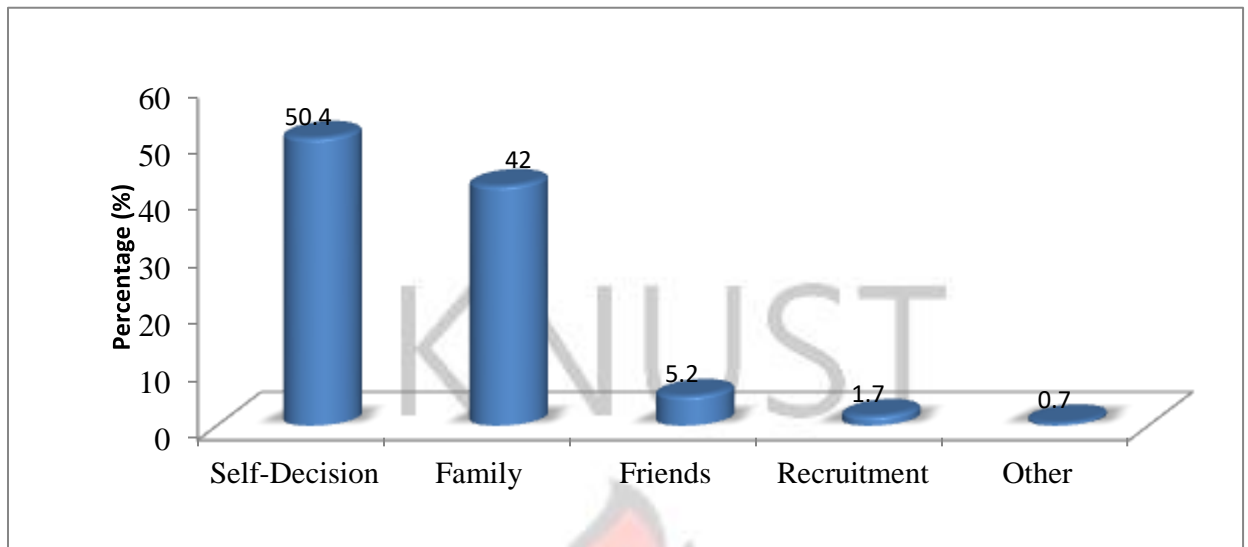
Employment type	Why respondent leave employment				Total
	Low wage	Transfer	To schol	Others	
Govt. employee	3	0	1	0	4
Private organization	11	4	7	0	22
Self-employed	162	2	22	6	192
<b>Total</b>	<b>176</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>218</b>

Source, Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **4.8 The decision making process**

In order to determine the decision making processes of migrants, respondents were asked to indicate how they arrived at the decision to migrate to Agbogbloshie. The results showed that out of the 398 migrants sampled, 50.4 percent of the respondents took the decision without influence. However, 42 percent made the decision in consultation with their families, 5.2 percent moved as a result of influence by friends, 1.7 percent of the respondents were influenced by their employers and 0.7 percent were influenced by other factors as shown in figure 4.4.





**Figure 4. 4 How migrants arrived at the decision to migrate**

Source Author's field survey, May, 2014.

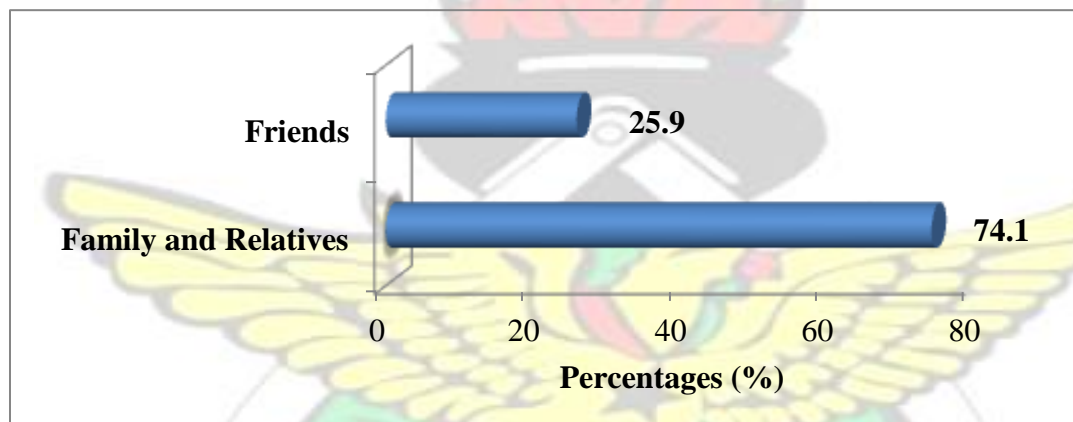
It has been argued that the decision to migrate in Africa is largely a household one and is more complex (Adepoju, 1995; Mabogunje, 1970; Stark, 1991). The survey results in Agbogloboshie found that out of the 398 respondents sampled, 50.4 percent took the decision to migrate on their own. About 42 percent took the decision in consultation with their families as shown in figure 4.4. This study therefore questions the claims that migration in Africa is solely a household decision. The study findings suggest that the trend is changing as majority of the respondents took the decision to migrate without consulting their households. At the same time, the result confirms the New Economics of Labour Migration theory (NELM). The theory sees migration as an investment decision taken within the ambit of the household and for different members of the households (Stark, 1991; King, 2012). The NELM theory further states that the decision to migrate is not only about wages and income maximization but is also about income diversification and risk aversion. Risk reduction is particularly appropriate in poor sending communities where there are market failures (example: crop failure due to drought or hurricane, or sudden unemployment) cannot be compensated by savings, insurance or credit (because none of these are available).

The seasonal migration of Zenabu (one of the eight cases) was a family decision for risk aversion and income maximization. The in-depth interviews also revealed instances where

families encouraged and asked their wards to migrate as was the case of Latifa from Baatinle in Yendi. All that Latifa's father did was to arrange with a trader to take Latifa along to Agboglobshie. For such families, the dry season, usually around ending of November up to sometime in March provided an opportunity to make an extra income through non-farming activities by sending their wards to work as truck pushers, kayayoo and petty trading.

#### 4.9 Whom migrants migrated with and migration networks

The study found that 51 percent of the migrants moved along with either friends or relatives while 49 percent migrated alone to Agboglobshie. Figure 4.5 presents a bar plot of the people that migrants moved along with. The results show that 74.1 percent of migrants moved with family and relatives, whilst 25.9 percent moved with friends.



**Figure 4. 5 Whom migrants migrated with**

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The surveyed results in Agboglobshie further revealed that 36.7 percent of the sampled respondents received food and lodging assistance from friends and relatives upon arrival, 5.8 percent received financial assistance from friends and relatives, 9.3 percent were assisted in finding jobs and 4.4 percent received assistance with information of how to adjust to the new conditions in Agboglobshie. This indicates that migrants have been supporting each other with food, lodging and financial aid thereby making life for new migrants easier. As argued by Massey (1990), network turns to perpetuate migration rather than push or pull factors been responsible for later migration.

#### 4.10 Migrants networks with regards to information

The study sought to know whether migrants acquired information before migrating and if yes, the source of their information. The responses of the migrants are shown in table 4.7

**Table 4. 7: Information acquired about Agboglobloshie prior to migration**

Variable	Categories	Frequency (%)
Acquired Information about Agboglobloshie prior to migration	Yes	53.1
	No	46.9
Acquired information from Whom	Relatives in the South	44.6
	Returned Migrants	31.2
	Friends still in the South	24.2
Information Acquired Prior to migrating	Availability of Jobs	81.3
	High wages	55.6
	Chance of getting married	30.9
	Good conditions of living	46.3
	Others	20.8

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

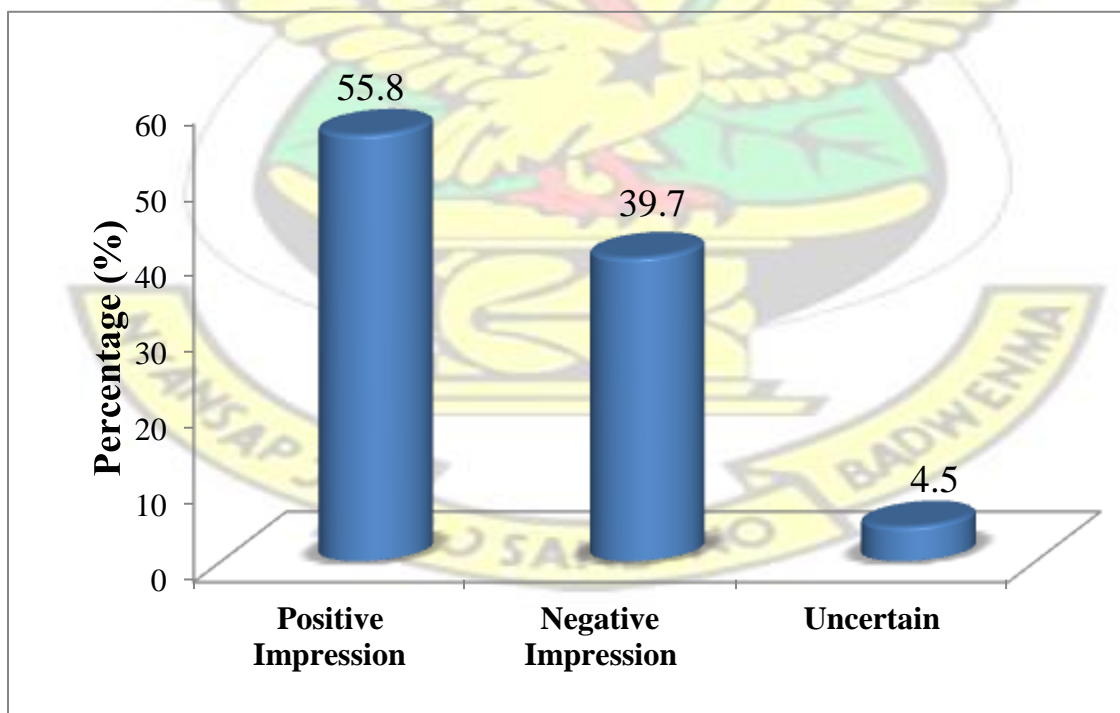
From the table, majority (53 percent) of the respondents acquired information about Agboglobloshie before migrating. The results also showed that 44.6 percent acquired information about Agboglobloshie from relatives who were living in Agboglobloshie, 31.2 percent were informed about the situation in Agboglobloshie by returned migrants, while 24.2 percent were informed by their friends who were already living in Agboglobloshie. Thus, the main source of information that helped migrants in making the decision to migrate to Agboglobloshie were their relatives who reside in Agboglobloshie, returnee migrants and friends who still live in Agboglobloshie.

On the type of information that respondents acquired before they migrated, availability of jobs for migrants to do in Accra was the most important. The responses in table 4.7

showed that about 81 percent of the sampled migrants were interested in knowing if there were jobs in the south that they could do on arrival. Also, 55.6 percent were interested in knowing the relative wages; that is whether the wages they expected to earn in Accra would be higher than what they made in their areas of origin. Some of the respondents were interested in knowing if coming to the south would increase their chances of getting marriage partners. This was especially important to the females, as 80 percent of those interested in such information were females.

In sum, the migrants were interested in the differences in living conditions between Agbogbloshie and their areas of origin. Other areas the migrants made enquiries about before migrating in addition to employment included accommodation and living conditions and health care.

Based on the information migrants received, most of them (55.8percent) arrived at the conclusion that living conditions were better in Agbogbloshie compared to their areas of origin and hence their decision to migrate. However, 39.7 percent of the migrants were given the impression that migrants' life in Agbogbloshie was not easy and was uncomfortable, and yet they decided to migrate anyway. As shown in figure 4.6, about 4.5 percent of the migrants were however uncertain about the conditions in Agbogbloshie.





#### **Figure 4. 6 Migrants impressions about Agbogbloshie before migrating**

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **4.11 Sources of funding for migrants trip**

Considering that most migrants were young adults, the study sought to know how migrants financed the cost of their trip from their areas of origin to Agbogbloshie. Table 4.8 presents the sources of funds that migrants used to migrate to Agbogbloshie.

**Table 4. 8: Source of finance for migrants' trip**

<b>Source of financing the trip to Agbogbloshie</b>	<b>Percentages (%)</b>
Personal savings	54.4
Money from relatives	36.1
From money lenders	1.2
Others	8.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field Survey, May, 2014.

Majority (54.4 percent) of the migrants reported that they financed their journey to Agbogbloshie with their personal savings. The second major source of funding for migrants journey to Agbogbloshie was money from relatives represented by 36.1 percent of the respondents. About 1.2 percent of the migrants borrowed the money they used for the trip, with 8.3 percent obtaining their monies from unspecified sources. Some of the sampled migrants were reluctant in disclosing their sources of funding, hence, the reason for unspecified sources. Thus most of the migrants either paid for their trip with their personal savings or with monies they obtained from their relatives.

#### **4.12 Assistance received from friends and relatives in Agbogbloshie**

The study also sought to find out how migrants got accommodation and jobs in their new environment. In this regard, the migrants were asked if they had made arrangements in terms of accommodation before arriving in Agbogbloshie. The results showed that 67.3

percent of migrants were staying with their relatives, 28.1 percent were living with their friends, 3.5 percent were staying with their employers and 1.2 percent were staying at unspecified places. Aside from staying with relatives and friends in the early days of migrants' arrival, the migrants received other forms of assistance. For example, 59.7 percent reported that they received food from friends and relatives, 9.5 percent received financial assistance from friends and relatives, 15.2 percent were assisted in finding jobs, 7.1 percent received support to find accommodation and 8.5 percent received assistance with information on how to adjust to the new conditions in Agbogbloshie. The various assistance received by migrants are presented in table 4.9.

**Table 4. 9: Assistance received from friends and relatives on arrival**

Category	Percentage (%)
Food	59.7
Financial aid	9.5
Assistance finding job	15.2
Help accommodation to Rent	7.1
Information on how to adjust to new life	8.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **4.13 Employment status of migrants in Agbogbloshie**

Considering the high unemployment situation in the country, the study sought from sampled respondents what they were doing to cope with the high cost of living in their new environment. The study found that majority (318) of the sampled respondents were employed representing 80 percent as shown in table 4.10. Only 7 percent of the respondents were unemployed whilst 10 percent of the respondents were either students or trainees. The responses further showed that 2% were sick or disabled and 1% of them being house wives.

**Table 4. 10 Employment statuses of migrants in Agbogbloshie**

Employment status of Migrants	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Employed	318	80
Unemployed	28	7
Trainee/Student	40	10
Sick/disabled	8	2
House wife	4	1

<b>Total</b>	<b>398</b>	<b>100.00</b>
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Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### 4.14 The nature of jobs engaged in by migrants

The study further sought to know the nature and type of work that migrants were doing. The employed migrants were asked to indicate the nature of their work or job type. The migrants' responses are presented in table 4.11.

**Table 4. 11 The nature of migrants work**

<b>Job nature</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Security Guard	38	12
Kayayei	89	28
Sales of goods	54	17
Scrap dealer	65	20.4
Cleaners	72	22.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>318</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The responses as shown in table 4.11 revealed that majority of the respondents were working as kayayei (head porters) representing 28 percent; scrap dealers constituted 12 percent of the respondents, security guards were 12 percent whilst 17 percent of the respondents engaged in sale of goods. Also, 22.6 percent of the respondents were engaged in cleaning including sweeping of the streets.

#### 4.15 Migrants remittances

To know how migrants support their households back home, migrants were asked to indicate whether they remit or not and if they do, how often? Out of the 398 respondents, 65 percent said they sent money, food stuffs, clothes and farm implements to their relatives back home.

Concerning the amount of money sent as remittances by the respondents, majority of the respondents representing 43.32 percent, sent less than 100 Ghana cedis as remittances, followed by 41.01 percent, who sent between 100 to 200 Ghana cedis. Only about 5 percent of the respondents sent about 300 to 399 Ghana cedis as remittances to their relatives. This is presented in table 4.12

**Table 4. 12 Migrants remittances**

Remittances	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 100	111	43.32
100 – 199	105	41.01
200 – 299	27	10.60
300 – 399	13	5.07
<b>Total</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

Using the midpoints values, the 65 percent of respondents who sent money to their relatives remitted on average 127.40 Ghana cedis. Majority (48.40 percent) of these migrants send their remittances as and when the need arises, 35.62 percent sent it every month, about 5 percent sent their remittances weekly and 10.96 percent sent their remittances once a year. These are shown in table 4.13.

**Table 4. 13 How often remittances are send**

How often Remittances were sent	Frequency	Percentage (%)



As and when the need arises	122	48.40
Monthly	90	35.62
Weekly	13	5.02
Yearly	28	10.96
<b>Total</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>100</b>

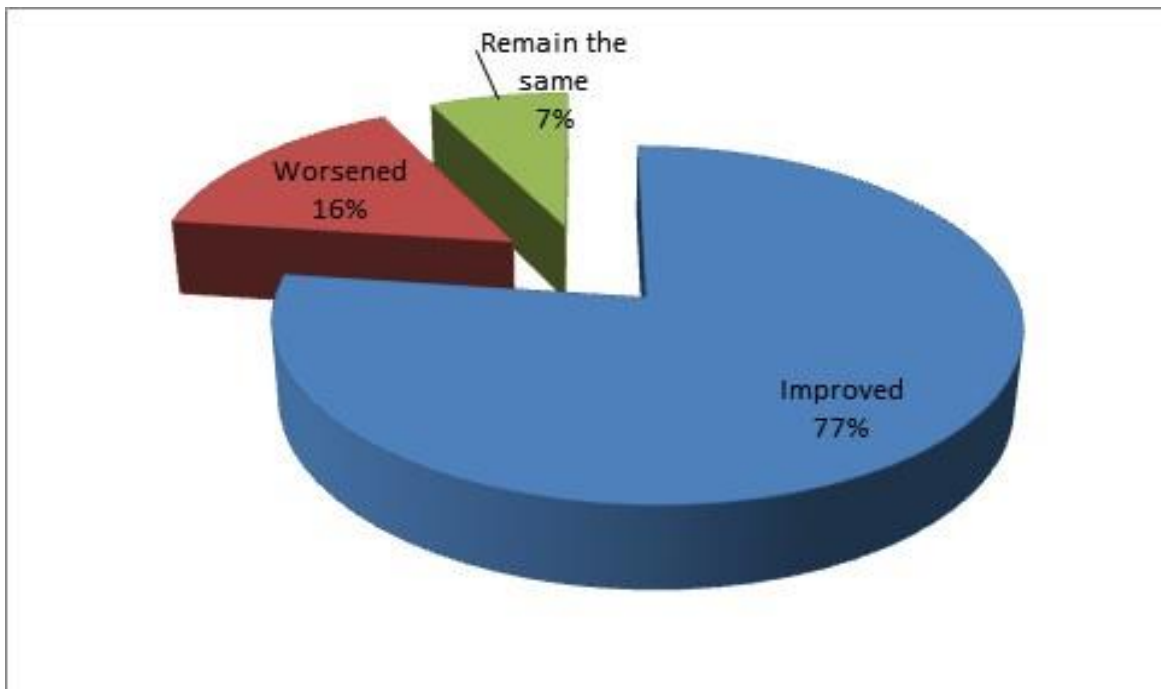
Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The in-depth interviews with the eight migrants revealed that migrants usually save their moneys with Susu keepers not only to avoid it been stolen but also to ensure that they are able to follow the routine of saving moneys either daily, weekly and monthly. The channel through which migrants sent their remittances was usually mobile money transfers.

#### **4.16 The socio-economic conditions of migrants and non-migrants in Yendi**

The study sought to compare the levels of education and incomes of the sampled migrants and the non-migrants in Yendi. The responses of the sampled migrants on whether migrating to Agbogbloshie had improved their access to education are shown in a pie chart in figure 4.7. Most (77 percent) of the respondents said their access to education had improved. On the other hand 16 percent indicated that their access to education in the south had rather worsened whilst the remaining 7 percent claimed their access to education remained the same. This implies that for these 7 percent, migrating to the south had no impact on their education.

**Figure 4. 7 Access to education after migration to the south**



Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### **4.17 Statistical comparison of the education of the migrants and non-migrants**

In order to test if the educational levels of the respondents had improved after migration, the binomial test was used to compare the proportion of the migrant respondents with a given level of education to their counterparts back in Yendi who have not migrated before. The binomial test tests the null hypothesis that, there was no significant difference in the proportion of the migrants and non-migrants who had attained a certain level of education as against the alternative hypothesis specified in table 4.14. Table 4.14 shows that about 28 percent of the migrants had no formal education while about 31 percent of the non-migrants had no formal education. The binomial test result however indicates that statistically there was no significant difference in the proportion of the migrants with no formal education and the proportion of the non-migrants without formal education. A similar result was found for the proportion of the migrant respondents who had Junior High School level education. There was no statistical evidence to support the assertion that more of the migrants had JHS education compared to the non-migrants.

In the case of Senior High School, about 31 percent of the migrants had Senior High School level education compared to about 23.8 percent of the non-migrants. The binomial test

results showed that a greater proportion of the migrants had SHS level education compared to the non-migrants. The situation is similar in the case of Primary education. More of the migrants had primary level education compared to the non-migrants. However, the situation was the reverse in the case of tertiary level education. Most of the non-migrants had tertiary level education compared to the migrants. Thus, the alternative hypothesis that more of the migrants had higher education compared to the non-migrants was rejected. Overall, the result showed that a larger proportion of the migrants had primary and secondary level education compared to the non-migrants but a greater proportion of the non-migrants had higher-level education compared to the migrants.

In sum, what the results imply is that migration is selective. People with tertiary level education in the three northern regions are not likely to migrate to Agbogbloshie while people with primary and Senior High School level education are more likely to migrate to Agbogbloshie.

**Table 4.14: The binomial test of educational level proportions**

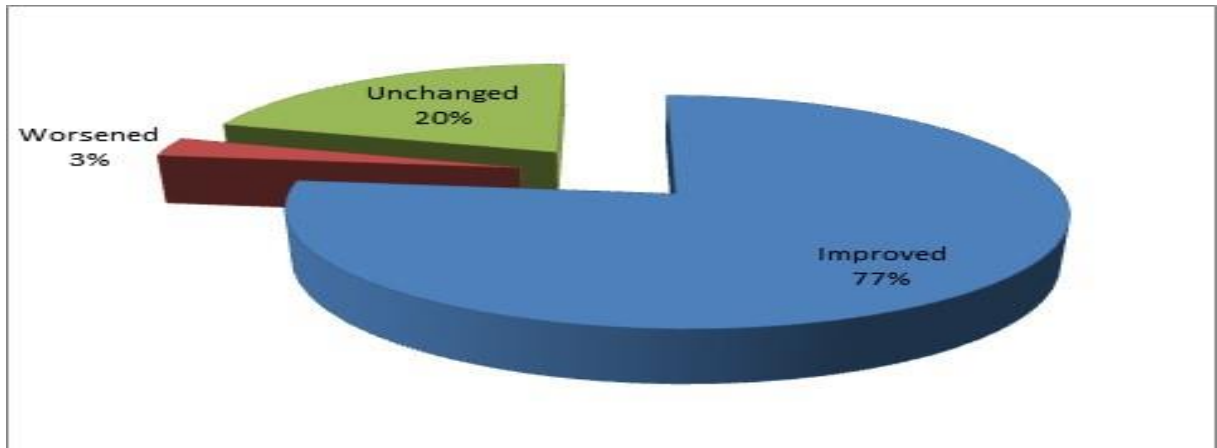
Level of Education	Proportion with Level of Education		P-Values	
	Migrants (S)	Non-migrants (N)	(H0: S > N)	(H1: S < N)
None	0.2836	0.3154	0.905	0.116
Primary	0.1287	0.0738	0.000	0.999
JHS	0.2368	0.2315	0.428	0.621
SHS	0.3099	0.2383	0.001	0.998
Tertiary	0.0409	0.4564	1.000	0.000

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

#### 4.18 Comparison of average income of migrants and non-migrants

The study sought to know from migrants if from their perspective whether their income levels had improved since migrating to Agbogbloshie. Their responses are plotted in figure 4.8. The results indicate that 77 percent of the migrants said their income level had improved, 20 percent of the migrants said their income level remained the same with only 3 percent indicating a reduction in their average income.

**Figure 4. 8 migrants' views on their income level after migration**



Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

A statistical comparison was done using the independent t-test; the results are presented in table 4.15. The descriptive statistics showed that on average a migrant made about 335 Ghana cedis a month while a non-migrant on average made about 195 Ghana cedis a month. The statistical test indicated that the average income for the migrants was statistically different from the average income of the non-migrants. In other words, on average the monthly income of a migrant outweighs the monthly income of the nonmigrant by about 140 Ghana cedis. Thus, the migrants on average made almost twice the amount made by the non-migrants in a month. This makes intuitive sense because as indicated earlier, the main reason for migrating was to get better paying jobs and improve living conditions. That is, the income difference was instrumental in the decision of the migrants to migrate in the first place.

**Table 4. 15 The Independent t-test results**

Income	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Non-migrant	195.143	11.6242	181.577
Migrant	335.049	11.9792	187.121
Null Hypothesis	Mean (diff) = 0	Mean (diff) = 0	Mean (diff) = 0
Alternative Hypo.	Mean (diff) < 0	Mean (diff) $\neq$ 0	Mean (diff) > 0
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000

Note: Mean (diff) = (income of non-migrants – income of migrants)

Source: Authors field survey, May, 2014.



#### 4.19: The ordered logistic regression model

The main objective of this study was to assess how migration affects the socio-economic well-being of migrants. The ordered logit model was used to estimate the effect of migration on the socio-economic well-being of migrants in terms of their income and educational levels.

The regression results are presented in table 4.16. The model estimated well-being as an ordered independent variable, with three options used to rank the status of migrant's wellbeing after migrating. The independent variables determining the income level (wellbeing) were; migrants current age, male as a controlled dummy variable for sex, primary, Middle/JHS, Secondary, Vocational/Technical, Teacher/Nursing training, and Tertiary educations were controlled dummies for level of education, and income of migrants after migrating.

**Table 4.16: The ordered logit results**

Ordered logistic regression		Number of obs	=	258
		LR chi2(9)	=	71.67
		Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = -159.61528		Pseudo R2	=	0.1833
Explanatory variable	Coefficient	Standard errors	P values	
Age	-.0158908	.020485	0.438	
Male	-1.109374	.3691566	0.003	
Primary education	.463817	.6248561	0.458	
JHS education	.6374077	.4799871	0.184	
SHS education	.2613351	.4158478	0.530	
Vocational education	2.640005	1.086505	0.015	
Tertiary education	.9072859	1.085653	0.84	
Employed	-.1317992	1.510335	0.930	
Income	.0060165	.0008842	0.000	
/cut1		-1.118372	.6831465	
		-2.457314	.220571	

/cut2	4.389205	.7811336	2.858211	5.920199
/cut3	4.623924	.7884043	3.07868	6.169168
/cut4	5.116088	.8110075	3.526542	6.705633

Source: Authors field survey, May, 2014.

The results of the logit regression showed that the income of migrants, that is a migrant with vocational education, and being a male are the factors that significantly affect migrants' well-being. These variables had p – values < 0.05. The monthly income which is the main determining variable of well-being (income status) of migrants showed that migration had improved migrants' well-being, as given by the positive coefficient of the income variable. In terms of education migrants with vocational/technical education significantly affected migrants' well-being, and their well-being is said to have improved, given its positive coefficient and a statistical significance level of 0.04.

All the other educational levels do not significantly affect migrants well – being, whilst having tertiary education has shown to worsen well-being. To explain this situation, it implies that such migrants either do not have employment or receive low salaries or their expenditure is too high. The primary, JHS, and secondary education levels showed improvement in well-being.

To probe further into whether migrating to Agbogbloshie had improved the socioeconomic well-being of migrants, the eight migrants were asked to give an account from their own point of view the effects of migration on their well-being in general. From the interviews, it emerged that migration had both positive and negative effects on the migrants. The main positive effect of migration on the lives of migrants as stated by the respondents was the ability to work and earn either on a daily basis, weekly or monthly which for the sampled migrants was far better than the peasant farming they previously engaged in. The interviews further reiterated the previous findings that migrants incomes had improved compared to what they previously earned prior to migration. David, one of the respondents admitted that, while in his father's house he could not boast of earning money daily. However, in Agbogbloshie, he was able to work and save and even send money home. In David's words:

Moving to Agbogbloshie has given me the opportunity to earn money on a daily basis and I decide what to do with it. I save some of it with Susu keepers send the rest to my brother (David, Participant).

According to Munira, she earned higher in Agboglobloshie compared to her previous job in Yendi:

I get a lot of money from the head portorage, I earned twice of what I use to get in Yendi but here, I spend more. I prefer to be here since the earning here is better (Munira, Participant).

Overall, migrants believed they were better off in Agboglobloshie than they were in Yendi as far as their daily income was concerned.

#### **4.20 Does migration improves migrants' well-being?**

Based on the survey results and the in-depth interviews, can it be concluded that migrating to Agboglobloshie improves the socio-economic well-being of migrants? There is a growing belief that internal migration can reduce poverty and improve the well-being of the actors involved and stimulate growth. While the evidence is much clear in situations where economies are growing rapidly as in Asia, other contexts present a more mixed picture especially in African countries (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2004). Afsar (2003) found that, migration has reduced poverty directly and indirectly in Bangladesh as remittances have expanded the area under cultivation and rural labour markets by making land available for tenancy. Similarly, two studies in Thailand by Guest (1998) showed that remittances are an important supplement to household income and have a multiplier effect on the economy with many major items of expenditure such as construction materials and labour being obtained locally. These findings were restricted to recipients of remittances and the cumulative effects of migration on those left behind rather than on the migrants themselves. Similar conclusions were drawn from findings in Bangladesh, China, Vietnam and Philippines (see An et al, 2003). They observed that migration had a potential of reducing poverty

The survey and in-depth interviews conducted in Agboglobloshie demonstrates that the socio-economic well-being of migrants have improved in terms of income and access to education. As shown by the statistical comparison of the income of migrants and nonmigrants in table 4.15, it clearly demonstrates that migration had an enormous impact on migrants' income and thereby improving migrants' well-being. The descriptive statistics showed that on average a migrant made about 335 Ghana cedis a month while a nonmigrant on average made about 195 Ghana cedis a month. The statistical test indicated



that the average income for the migrants was statistically different from the average income of the non-migrants. In other words, on average the monthly income of a migrant outweighs the monthly income of the non-migrant by about 140 Ghana cedis. Thus, the migrants on an average made almost twice the amount made by the non-migrants in a month. Even though the cost of living in Accra is higher compared to that of Yendi, the fact that migrants are able to remit shows that they were better off in terms of incomes than the sample non-migrants in Yendi.

To further triangulate this finding, the study used an ordered logistic regression model to estimate the relationship between migration on one hand and incomes and education on the other hand. The results as shown in table 4.16 implies that the income of migrants, that is a migrant with vocational education and being a male are the factors that significantly affect migrants' well-being. These variables had  $p$  – values  $< 0.05$ . The monthly income which is the main determining variable of well-being (income status) of migrants show that migration had improved migrant's well-being, as given by the positive coefficient of the income variable.

On education, migrants with vocational/technical education have significantly affected migrants' well-being and their well-being is said to have improved, given its positive coefficient and a statistical significance level of 0.04. However, the results also show that having tertiary education has worsened well-being. To explain this situation, it implies that such migrants either do not have employment or receive low salaries or their expenditure is too high. The primary, JHS, and secondary education levels show improvement in well-being.

The conclusion drawn from these findings are that migrants in Agbogbloshie with similar age and educational characteristics as non-migrants in Yendi make more income which improves their well-being than their counterparts in Yendi explaining why most of the youth turn to out-migrate from these areas.

#### **4.21 Migrants Experiences**

The study sought to know from migrants their successes and challenges. The jobs most of the migrants do were kayayei (head porters) hawking and security guards. The migrants were asked to indicate if there were risks associated with their work and challenges at the



places of residence. Majority of the respondents (366) representing 92 percent asserted that their current jobs were risky compared to their jobs back home. The remaining 32 respondents (8 percent) indicated that there was no much risk at their places of work. The respondents were therefore asked to indicate and rank the risks on the scale from 1 to 7 with 1 representing the most risky or most challenging and 7 representing the least risky or least challenging. An average rank has been computed for all the risks and the results presented in table 4.17. The average scores as shown in the table indicates that carrying of heavy loads was most risky for the migrants. Living in poor accommodation was ranked second, getting knocked down by vehicles was ranked third, frequent fire gutting migrants belonging came fourth and finally exposure to miscreants such as thieves and rapists were considered the least challenges on the part of the new life of the migrants in Agbogbloshie.

**Table 4. 17 Ranking of risks associated with Migrants life**

<b>Risks of migrants</b>	<b>Average rankings</b>	<b>Ranks</b>
Carrying heavy loads	2.22	1 most challenging
Poor accommodation	2.34	2
Getting knocked down by vehicles	4.52	3
Frequent fire gutting our belongings	4.72	4
Exposure to rape miscreants such as thieves	5.32	5 least challenging

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

Also, most of the migrants complained about poor accommodation and poor sanitation as there were no gutters and other drainage systems in the area. Most of the migrants were of the opinion that their previous accommodation in places of origin was far better than the wooden structures in which they currently lived. The stench that invaded the nostrils of residents in Agbogbloshie was summed up by Abdul Rahman, one of the participants:

This place is stinky and we are used to it. When I arrived here the first time I could not eat because of the filth around, but with time I soon got used to it (Abdul-Rahman, Participant).

Frequent fires gutting down the wooden structures and the belongings of respondents was equally worrisome. The respondents underscored the fact that miscreants sometimes start fires in order to use the opportunity to loot goods.

Despite all the risks, majority of the respondents considered their migration to Agbogbloshie as successful. As a result 64 percent of the respondents said they had been able to achieve their aim of migrating to Agbogbloshie. Some of the aims they accomplished were being able to purchase personal items (43 percent), repaid debts (24 percent), saved some money (43 percent), finance children's education (64 percent) and send money back home to relatives (87 percent). For most of these migrants, migration had given them the exposure to other means of livelihood apart from the traditional occupation of peasant farming which most of them were previously engaged in. However, about 36 percent of the sampled respondents indicated that they were not able to achieve their aim of migrating mainly because they were not able to save, finance their children's education and unable to send money back home.

#### 4.22 Merits and demerits of migration from migrants perspective

The migrants were asked to indicate and rank the merits and demerits of migrating from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie on the scale from 1 to 7 with 1 being most important and 7 being least important. Their responses were presented with their respective ranks in table 4.18.

**Table 4. 18: The rankings of merits and demerits of migration from migrants' perspective**

Merits	Rank	Demerits	Rank
Acquisition of wealth	1.5	Sexual harassment	1.9
Provide for family back home	2.2	Difficult working conditions	2.3
Personal freedom	2.3	Loss of migrant service back home	2.4
Freedom from culture restrictions	2.5	Language barrier	2.5
To get money for marriage	2.5	Living in poor accommodation	2.9
To get married	3.1	Loss of moral value	3.0
Save money for trading back home	3.8	Difficulty in getting married	3.6

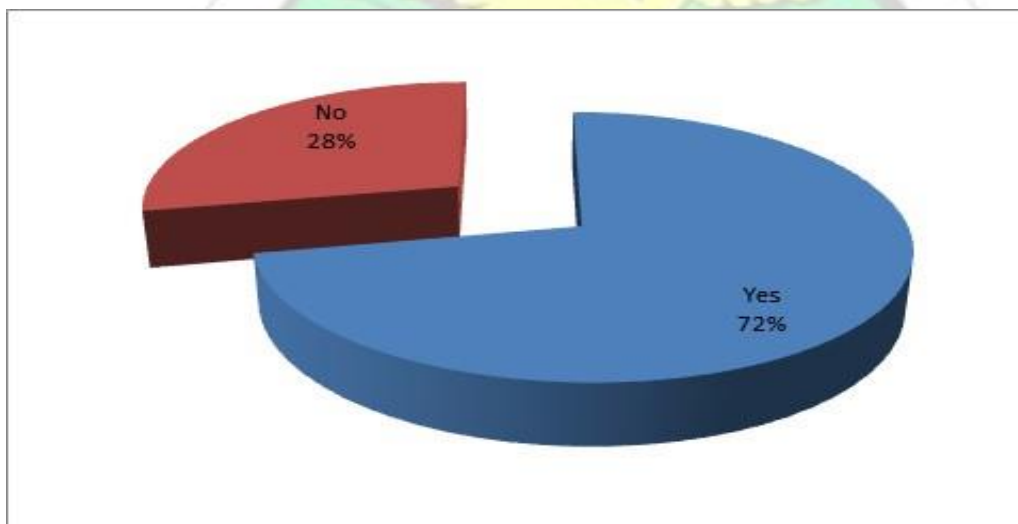
Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

The highest ranks or advantages of migrating from the migrants' perspective were the acquisition of wealth and providing for family members back home. The pronounced disadvantages were sexual harassment, difficult working conditions and loss of migrant services back home. The females respondents were the once who complained of the sexual harassment as close to 95 percent indicated that they were either being exposed to rape or were sexually harassed.

#### **4.23 Migrants opinions on mass migration from northern Ghana to Agbogbloshie**

Government and other stakeholders have been making attempts at controlling the mass migration of people from the three northern regions of Ghana to the southern part. The study took the opportunity to solicit the views of the migrants on the subject. Out of the 398 respondents, 72 percent were in support of policies to control mass migration from the northern part of the country to the southern part of the country. Only 28 percent were against the control of mass migration from the northern part of the country to the southern part. This is shown in figure 4.9.

**Figure 4. 9 Migrants opinion on mass migration**



Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

At the top of the suggestions by migrants on how to control mass migration was the need to provide more job opportunities in the north for the youth. This makes sense because from the results earlier, most of the migrants migrated in search of better paying jobs. The other suggestions are detailed in table 4.19

**Table 4. 19 Suggested ways of controlling mass migration from migrants' perspective**

Control measure	Average Ranks	Rank
Provision of jobs in the North for the youth	1.2	1 Most important
Making credits accessible to people in the North	2.2	2.
Revising land tenure system and its accessible to all	3.7	3.
Eliminate odd cultural practices	3.3	4
Encourage girl-child education	3.5	5.
Promulgate by-laws to prevent out-migration	4.2	6 less important

Source: Author's field survey, May, 2014.

Other solutions suggested by respondents were making credit available to people in the three northern regions, eliminating odd cultural practices like forced marriages and female genital mutilation. Aside from lack of jobs in the three northern regions, many of the migrants migrated to avoid out-dated cultural practices. Elimination of these practices could go a long way in reducing the mass migration menace.

#### **4.24 Intentions of migrants to return**

Finally, the study sought the views of migrants on whether they had intentions of going back home. The responses showed that 72 percent of the migrants said they would return to their places of origin while 28 percent had no intention of returning.



The various reasons for returning and the reasons for not going back are presented in table 4.20. Prominent among the reasons for returning home were to settle permanently and to continue education. On the other hand, the main reason for not going back were that most of the migrants seem to be enjoying their new life and were unwilling to go back. The next major reasons for not going back were to avoid family problems and to avoid being forced into marriage.

**Table 4.20: Migrants reasons for going or not going back home**

Reason for moving back	%	Reasons for not moving back	%
To settle permanently	62.8	To avoid family responsibilities	25.3
To continue education	23.5	Fear of being forced into marriage	10.3
To learn vocation	3.2	I enjoy the stay in Agboglobshie	43.7
To engage in trading	5.7	Inability to repay debt	2.3
Take care of children	1.2	Insufficient income	13.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>		<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field survey May, 2014.

#### **4.25 Socio-economic consequences of out-migration on Yendi Municipality**

The effects of migration on the places of origin were viewed in two ways. First, economic benefits in terms of migrants' remittances to their relatives in the areas of origin; secondly, the impact that return migrants had on their communities.

Non migrants in Yendi were asked to give their opinion on the effects of migration especially those migrating to Agboglobshie. The responses of the 301 respondents are presented in table 4.21. The survey results found that majority (30.2 percent) think that migration results in loss of moral values on the part of the migrants, 12.8 percent of the respondents were of the view that migrating to Agboglobshie results in loss of migrants services at home, 27.8 percent were of the opinion that migrants send remittances that help their families and the community whilst 29.2 percent thought migrants return with diseases.

**Table 4. 21 Non-migrants views on the effects of migration on Yendi municipality**

<b>Migrants opinion on migration to Agbogbloshie</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Loss of migrant service at home	39	12.8
They send remittances that help their families and the community	84	27.8
They comeback with diseases	88	29.2
Loss of moral values	90	30.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>301</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Author's field survey: May, 2014.

#### **4.26 Effects of remittances on migrants' households in Yendi Municipality**

In order to assess the effects of migration on the source communities, migrants' relatives who had received remittances from their family members in Agbogbloshie were asked to give their own assessment of the effects of such remittances on the household. The responses of the eight respondents' relatives in Yendi Municipality underscored the tremendous effects of migration in contributing to livelihood security. Only 3 of the migrant relatives mentioned some negative consequences of migration of the youth.

The respondents indicated that migrants send money to assist in farming, to renovate houses as well as buy bicycles, clothes and cooking utensils. More often, male migrants usually send hoes and cutlasses while their female counterparts send clothes and cooking utensils. Jagri a relative of David in Gnani had this to say:

My brother always sends me money during the lean season to support my family and during the farming season, I am given money to employ labourers; without David I would not have been able to roof my building (Jagri, Participant).

Jagri pointed out a number of houses in Gnani that were roofed with corrugated iron sheets through the hard work of migrants not just in Agbogbloshie but in the south.

Lukaya, the mother of Zenabu revealed that her daughter usually embarks on seasonal migration which was necessary for food security.

Zenabu sends me money every month to support the family especially in the months of June and July. The money is used in buying food stuffs and taking care of the children especially when they fall sick (Lukaya, Participant).

One of the effects migrants had on their households was the contribution they made to ensuring food security. Migrants contribute to food security in diverse ways. Some migrants buy food stuffs such as rice to their relatives especially during festive seasons like Christmas; secondly, they usually send down money to boost domestic food production. According to the respondents, migrants' remittances are not just for consumption but also used in purchasing durable goods, investing in housing, to pay hospital bills, investing in farming and payment of school fees. Items like clothes, bicycles, sewing machines and furniture were some of the goods that remittances are used in buying.

Research examining the consequences of internal migration on communities across the globe reveals mixed findings. While migration has economic, social, and cultural implications for the sending communities and migrants relatives, remittances sent home by migrants are perhaps the most tangible and least controversial link between migration and development (Ratha 2007; Castaldo et al, 2012). Remittances have played an important role in economic development, social resilience and improvement of households welfare in many developing countries (Adger et al, 2002; Quartey and Blankson, 2004; Amuedo-Dorantes, 2007; Ratha, 2007 2007; Castaldo et al, 2012).

Remittances significantly affect welfare and this was the focus of a study by Koc and Onan (2001). They examined the impact of remittances on the standard of living of leftbehind families in Turkey and found that remittances had a positive effect on household welfare. Their study showed that remittances had both direct and indirect income effects, which potentially had important influences on production, income inequality and poverty, at least



at the local level. Their study also showed that 12 percent of households used about 80 percent of remittances to improve their standard of living though it is argued that dependency on the same leaves households vulnerable to changes in migration cycles.

The survey in Agbogbloshie revealed that most of the respondents sent cash, clothes and food stuffs to compensate for their absence. The remittances were intended to mitigate loss of migrant services. Out of the 398 respondents 257 representing 64.5 percent said they sent money and other materials back home. Concerning the amount of money sent as remittances by the respondents, as reported in table 4.12, majority of the respondents, 43.32 percent, sent less than 100 Ghana cedis as remittances, followed by 41.01 percent, who sent between 100 to 200 Ghana cedis. Only about 5.07 percent of the respondents sent about 300 to 399 Ghana cedis as remittances to their relatives. Using the midpoints values, the 64.5 percent of respondents who sent money to their relatives remitted on average 127.40 Ghana cedis. Majority (48.40 percent) of these migrants sent their remittances as and when the need arises, 35.62 percent sent it every month, about 5 percent sent their remittances weekly and 11 percent sent their remittances once a year. This is shown in table 4.13.

The above information was cross-checked from non-migrants in Yendi and out of the 301 respondents 27.8 percent confirmed that migrants sent money which helps their relatives and development of the community. The in-depth interviews with the eight migrants' relatives further confirmed the receipt of remittances and its usage. Out of the eight migrant relatives interviewed, 6 reported that they received both money and material resources from their relatives in Agbogbloshie. These remittances were used in paying hospital bills, school fees, household consumption and roofing of houses as well as investing in farming. These findings are consistent with some earlier studies on usage of migrant remittances in Ghana. A survey conducted by the Sussex Centre for Migration Research in Ghana, specifically in the Ashanti Region in 2003 identified three main uses to which remittance flows were applied. First, remittances are used for consumable goods such as food. Secondly remittances are used for social projects in sending communities. The third motive is for economic development through investments.

In this study, the survey findings suggest that majority of migrants do return to their areas of origin to settle permanently and that physical impact on the community in terms of depopulation in the long run may not be felt. Out of the 398 sampled respondents in Agbogbloshie, 72 percent of the respondents reported they intended going back to their



places of origin in the future while 28 percent had no intention of returning. The various reasons for returning and the reasons for not going back are presented in table 4.20. Prominent among the reasons for returning to the north were to settle permanently and to continue education. On the other hand, the main reasons for not going back were that most of the migrants seemed to be content with their new environment. The next major reasons for not going back were to avoid family problems and to avoid being forced into marriage. The social consequences of migration on the communities within the municipality were reported as follows: out of the 301 sampled respondents, majority (30.2 percent) held the opinion that migration results in loss of moral values on the part of the migrants upon return, while 29.2 percent were of the view that migrants return with Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs). The broad implications of these findings are that, migration has both positive and negative consequences on the communities involved.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **5.0 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

#### **5.2 Determinants of migration**

It may be recalled that the main argument of the study was that the extent to which migration affects the socio-economic well-being of internal migrants in Ghana is relatively less explored. In order to examine the effects of migration on migrants' wellbeing in Agbogbloshie, the study first sought from the migrants why they migrated from their various places to Agbogbloshie even though the existing literature points out that push and pull factors were responsible for the current north-south migration in Ghana.

The study found that most migrants in Agboghloshie were motivated by the desire to improve their well-being. Close to 84 percent of the respondents moved purposely to find better paying jobs; thus, unemployment was pushing these young adults from the three northern regions of Ghana to the southern part of the country. Other reasons cited by migrants were the need to have access to quality education, to do business and also to avoid family pressures and outmoded cultural practices. The findings are consistent with the existing literature that push and pull factors or wage differentials between the three northern regions and their southern counterparts are responsible for the current north-south migration in Ghana. The survey results revealed that most of the migrants were involved in peasant farming which means that they were self-employed which partly explains why they could easily choose to migrate. Migrants who were government employees prior to migrating were only 2.2 percent.

### **5.3 The Decision making process**

Concerning the decision making process, the study found that most of the migrants arrived at the decision to migrate on their own. However, about 42 percent of the respondents were influenced by their families, 5.2 percent were influenced by their friends. The results confirm the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) that migration is a family decision (Stark, 1991). The study found that most of the sampled migrants made extensive enquiries before arriving at the decision to migrate. About 53 percent of the sampled migrants obtained information about Agboghloshie before migrating. Migrants' sources of information were from relatives who had already migrated to Agboghloshie, returned migrants and finally from friends who were still living in Agboghloshie. The information that respondents were mostly interested in to enable them make their decision were the availability of jobs, the wages they expected to receive, conditions of living and whether migrating would improve their chances of getting future marriage partners. Most of the migrants indicated that they got positive impression about Agboghloshie from the information they gathered and that was instrumental in their decision to migrate to Agboghloshie.

Critical in the decision making process was the issue of funding the trip. The survey results showed that, most of the migrants (54.4 percent) used their personal savings to finance the

trip to Agboglobshie. About 36 percent were supported by relatives, with the remaining obtaining their money either from friends and other unspecified sources.

#### **5.4 Migration networks**

The study found that migrant networks were crucial in facilitating migration from the three northern regions to Agboglobshie. The survey results and the in-depth interviews revealed that respondents received information and material support before migrating or upon arrival from their relatives and friends who were already residing in Agboglobshie. The assistance they received included food and lodging places, financial support, assisting in finding jobs and general information about how to adjust to the life in Agboglobshie. Through the support of friends and relatives, migrants were able to adjust to city life and acquired work, mostly in the informal sector. Most of the works that migrants engaged in included security guards, petty trading, scrap dealers, kayayoo (porters) and bar attendants. These findings are in tandem with what Appleyard (1992) found; that friends and relatives in a destination area tend to support later migrants with information and adjustment mechanisms thereby perpetuating migration.

#### **5.5 The effects of migration on migrants' well-being**

The gap in the literature that this study sought to fill was the extent to which migration affects the socio-economic well-being of migrants. From the descriptive statistics of the results, the determinants of well-being; income, education and employment have improved for migrants after migration. This was confirmed by the regression results.

From the regression results, migrants' well-being improved after migration with respect to their income levels. The results implied that migration had a positive effect on migrants' well-being. The average income of sampled migrants in Agboglobshie was compared to that of the sampled non-migrants in Yendi using the independence t-test and the results indicated that the average income for the migrants was statistically higher than the average income for the non-migrants. The migrants made almost twice as much as the non-migrants made each month but the cost of living between the two areas are certainly not the same. However, the fact that most of the migrants remitted to relatives back home shows that they were earning better than their counterparts who have not migrated.



On remittances, migrants remitted significantly to relatives back home. About 43 percent of the migrants sent less than 100 Ghana cedis as remittances and 41.01 percent reported that they sent between 100 to 200 Ghana cedis as remittances. On the frequency with which the remittances were made, 48 percent of the sampled migrants sent money as and when the request was made. About 36 percent sent their money monthly, 10.96 percent sent remittances yearly and only 5.02 percent sent money back home weekly. These remittances were sent to relatives to pay school fees, pay debts and to buy food for consumption.

## **5.6 Migrant experiences**

The experiences of migrants were mixed. There were both negative and positive effects. On the negative side, the study found that the higher earnings of the migrants were accompanied by higher risks. Almost all the migrants asserted that their new jobs and places of residence were riskier compared to their jobs back home and some of the risks were theft and rape, fire outbreaks destroying their belongings, getting knocked down by moving vehicles and poor accommodation. In respect of this, the sampled migrants were asked to rank the demerits of migrating to Agbogbloshie from a list of options. The most challenging for the migrants were sexual harassment for the females and poor sanitation as well as poor accommodation.

On the positive side, the most important advantages of migrating to Agbogbloshie were the chances of making more money and to be in the position to provide for one's family. The sampled migrants also hinted personal freedom from family and cultural restrictions as other important advantages of migrating.

Based on migrants' experiences, the study sought from sampled migrants whether they had intention of returning to their places of origin in the future. Most of the migrants were of the view that they will return to their places of origin once they achieved their aim. Most of the sampled migrants indicated that the purpose of returning was to settle permanently. There were some migrants though in a minority who claimed they would never go back to their places of origin with reasons that they wanted to avoid family problems such as forced marriages and debts.



## **5.7 Consequences of migration on source communities**

On the consequences of migration on source communities, the survey results in Yendi municipality and in-depth interviews with migrants' households revealed that the consequences were mixed. Remittances were cited as the main positive effect on migrants' households since it served as a source of additional income that cushioned relatives in the lean season. Some of the negative effects identified were: losing the services of the energetic youth, the return of migrants with diseases and loss of moral values on the part of the returned migrants.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

The dissertation set out to ascertain the effects of migration on the socio-economic wellbeing of migrants in Agbogloboshie. Other objectives of the study were to explore the causes and effects of migration on the source communities using Yendi Municipality as a case study. Based on the findings summarized above, the study draws the following conclusions: 1) Migration from the three Northern regions to Agbogloboshie has a net positive effect on migrants' well-being. 2) The major cause of migration from the three Northern regions to the southern part of the country is economic and 3) The effects of migration on source communities with regards to Yendi municipality are mixed that is, it has both negative and positive consequences.

With regards to the first conclusion, migration from the three northern regions to Agbogloboshie has positive impact on migrants' well-being in terms of income, access to education and health care which are critical variables in determining well-being either subjectively or objectively. This was demonstrated in the finding as the descriptive statistics showed that 77 percent of the sampled migrants agreed that their incomes had improved after migration. This was confirmed by the ordered logistic regression showing that there was indeed a significant improvement in migrants' well-being. Even though the descriptive statistics of the results showed that 77 percent of the respondents' access to education had improved, the binomial test results showed that there was no significant difference between the education of migrants and that of non-migrants.

On the second conclusion, close to 84 percent of the sampled respondents migrated purposely to find better paying jobs, therefore, wage differentials played a key role in the

decision making process of migrants. The survey results revealed that most of the migrants were previously involved in subsistence farming before migrating which means that they were self-employed which partly explains why they could easily choose to move. Other reasons cited by migrants were the need to have access to better education, to do business and also to avoid family pressures and outmoded cultural practices.

On the third conclusion, remittances were cited as the main positive effect on migrants' households since it served as a source of additional income that cushioned relatives in the lean season. Some of the negative effects identified were: losing the services of the energetic youth, the return of migrants with diseases and loss of moral values on the part of the returned migrants.

In a nutshell, this study has made a significant contribution to knowledge by determining the effects of internal migration on migrants' well-being using primary data. This study also distinctive in that it traced some migrants to their source areas to examine the effects migrants had on their families and their communities.

## **5.9 Recommendations**

Based on the study findings, the following recommendations are made for policy makers and implementers:

### **5.9.1 What the Government can do**

The freedom to move is a natural right and this is enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights which although non-binding does have some moral authority. Again many constitutions across the globe including that of Ghana endorse this inalienable right. It is therefore recommended that no active policy intervention should be introduced to prohibit or redirect these types of movements; and that internal migrants should be accorded the needed protection.

However, if government wants to influence migration flows from the three northern regions to the southern parts of the country, government must understand the motives of migrating. The study has shown that the considerations to migrate are primarily economic factors. On the economic front, government policy should be directed at creating jobs and the enabling

environment within the three northern regions so as to attract private investors to these areas. This will create opportunities for the youth and thereby limit the possibility of migration. The current policy of allocating large amounts of social spending on education tends to perpetuate the incidence of rural urban migration. I do agree with the assertion that providing education to the population as a whole would help economic growth in the long run. But it is very important to focus on job creation, entrepreneurship and rural development to cater for the teeming numbers of the youth in both rural and urban centres.

One way government can do this is to bring together research institutions such as Grain Development Board, Savannah Agricultural Research Institute and Universities to collaborate in developing technologies to support industrialization and all year round agriculture. For instance, in Burkina Faso vegetable industry is cultivated all year round; lessons can be drawn to develop agriculture in the northern part of Ghana. Burkina Faso has been able to produce vegetables for export.

#### **5.9.2 What the migrants can do**

Moving to Agbogbloshie has some marginal improvement in migrants' well-being at least through increased income as compared to their areas of origin. The question is will this kind of work be sustainable? Based on the findings of the research the study recommends that migrants divert their savings into vocational and other hand works that could give them opportunity in getting safe jobs in the future. Considering the risks in the job like "kayayei" (head portage), it is most unlikely that a migrant can continue with such a jobs for a long time. Therefore, alternatives must be sought and this can be possible if only migrants save and diversify. For those who are students at the SHS level, they could save and rejoin or register private examination to better their grades.

Also, migrants can help in reducing rural-urban migration through the information they relate to their households back home. Usually information regarding the opportunities in urban centres from friends or relatives is sometimes exaggerated. In most cases, information is often biased leading to excess migration to urban centres. Therefore, prospective migrants always act on wrong information and end up on the streets in towns. Migrants should help in given accurate information about the economic realities on the



ground so as to prevent mass migration of the youth from the three northern regions to the southern part of the country especially to Agbogbloshie.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING**

KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI

**Questionnaire for research in MPhil Development Studies**

Dear respondent,

This study is being carried out by Yajalin Ebotui John , a graduate student of the Department of Planning on the topic: *Migration: Community consequences and Individual Migrant Experiences in Agboghloshie*, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of master of philosophy in Development Studies. Please be informed that, your participation in the study is voluntary and all information gathered will be treated with outmost confidentiality and would be solely used for academic purposes. Your support and contribution would be very much appreciated. Thank you.

**Rubrics:** please circle (or mark) or write the answer as may be appropriate to indicate your response. Thank you,

**Section A: Demographic characteristics of migrants in Agboghloshie**

- 1) Place of birth.....
- 2) Home town.....
- 3 Region.....
- 4) Age (In completed years).....
- 5) Sex a) Male b) Female
- 6) Marital status a) Single b) Married c) Divorced d) widowed e) Engaged/Co-habitation
- 7) Religious affiliation a) Christianity b) Islam c) African Traditional religion d) others specify.....
- 8) Educational attainment a) Illiterate b) primary c) Middle/JHS d) SSCE/WASSCE/Alevel e) Technical/Vocational f) Training College/Nursing g) Polytechnic/ University

## B. Patterns and migration network

- 1) Age at the time of migration in completed years ... ..
- 2) Date of migration.....
- 3) How did you arrive at the decision to migrate a) Self decision b) Parents/family asked me to migrate c) Friends influenced me d) Employer/ recruitment agents e) others specify
- 4) Did you come along with some one? a) Yes b) No
- 5) If your answer to the previous question is “yes”, who moved along with you from your place? a) Family/ parents b) friends c) other relatives d) others specify.....
- 6) Why did you choose to migrate to Agboglobloshie a) Availability of job opportunities b) Because of relatives there c) Presence of friends d) I just like the place e) others, specify.....
- 7) Did you obtain any information about Agboglobloshie before migrating? a) Yes b) No
- 8) If yes, indicate your source of information a) From relatives b) from returned migrants c) from friends still in Agboglobloshie d) Others, specify
- 9) What type of information did you obtain from them? a) Availability of jobs b) High wages c) chances of getting a marriage partner d) Having personal freedom d) Good conditions of living e) Others specify
- 10) Before you left for Agboglobloshie did you make any arrangements in terms of accommodation? a) Yes b) No
- 11) If yes, with whom? a) Relatives b) Friends c) employer d) others (specify).....
- 12) Before you moved to Agboglobloshie did you enquire about the living conditions and facilities such as housing, health care, employment and so forth? a) Yes b) No

13) If your answer to the previous question is “yes”, what was the information? a) Positive (Migrant life in Agboglobloshie is easy) b) Negative (Migrant life in Agboglobloshie is not easy) c) Can tell really d) Others

(specify).....

14) How to did you finance your trip? a) My own resources b) From relatives c) from money lenders d) friends e) others, specify .....

15) Before you moved to live in Agboglobloshie, did you have any relative or friend or parents living in Agboglobloshie? a) Yes b) No

16) If your answer to the previous question is “yes”, have you received any type of assistance from them? a) Yes b) No

16. If your answer to question 15 is “yes”, what type of assistance did you receive from them?

a) Food and lodging b) Financial aid c) Assisted in finding a job d) Information about how to adjust and find a job possibility e). Helped find houses f) Other

(Specify).....

### **Section C: Motives of migration**

1. Why did you move to Agboglobloshie? (You can choose more than one and ranked them in order of importance using 1, 2, 3 etc.)

a) To obtain job (seek employment) -----

b) Famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor facilities in my home town----

c) To free myself from cultural or family restrictions and obligations-----

d) To join immediate relatives and friends or following them-----

e) To gain education and training-----

f) To seek modern urban services and facilities-----



- g) Job transfer-----
- h) To open up or extended personal business-----
- i) To seek good climate-----
- j) Others (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_

2) Before you moved to Agboglobhie, what were you engaged in a) Apprenticeship b) Helping family in the farm c) employed d) unemployed e) other (specify)

.....

3) If you were employed, what type of employment was it? a) Government employee b) private organization c) self-employed d) Other (specify).....

4) If you were unemployed what was/were the main reasons for you not working a) Had no formal education b) Had no land to work on c) Natural catastrophes such as drought leading to crop failure d) Others (specify) .....

5) If you were employed why did you leave the job? a) Low wage b) transfer c) to come and school d) others (specify) .....

#### **Section D: Economic and Social conditions of migrants in Agboglobhie**

1) Presently you are: a) Employed b) Unemployed c) Trainee/Student d). Sick/disabled e) Pensioned f). House wife g) other (specify).....

2) If you are currently employed, with which organization? a) self- employed b) employed under private organization c) employed under government organization d) other (specify) .....

3) What is the nature of your present work? a) Security guard b) Kayayei c) sale of goods d) scrap dealer e) Others specify .....

4) Estimate your present monthly income in Ghana cedis ((GH¢) a) less than GH¢100 b)

GH¢100- GH¢199 c) GH¢200- GH¢299 d) GH¢300- GH¢399 e) GH¢400- GH¢499 f)  
GH¢500- GH¢599 g) Others specify

5) Indicate the amount of your income that you spend on the following

- a) Food per day.....
- b) Clothing per month .....
- c) Accommodation per month .....
- d) Others .....

6) Do you save some of your income? a) Yes b) No

7) If yes where? a) Susu b) Bank c).With a relative/ friends d) Other (specify).....

8) Do you send some money to your relations back home"? a) Yes b) No

9) If **yes**, how much? a) Less GH¢100.00 b) GH¢100- GH¢199 c) GH¢200- GH¢299 d)  
GH¢300- GH¢399 d) other specify.....

10) How often do you send money home? a) Weekly b) Monthly c) Yearly d) As and when  
the need arises

11) For what purpose do you send money home? a) Farming b) Feeding c) Investment d)  
finance children's education e) to repay debt f) other  
specify..... (You can circle more than one)

12) Apart from money what else do you send home? a) Clothing b) Utensils c) farm  
implements d) Other, specify.....

13) If you are unemployed or out of work, please indicate the period of time that you have  
been unemployed or out of work \_\_\_\_\_ year(s) \_\_\_\_\_ month(s)

Compared to your previous condition of living in your area of origin indicate the following:

14) Would you say moving to Agbogbloshie has: a) improved your income level b)  
worsened your income level c) remain the same d) cannot really tell

- 15) Access to education: a) improved b) worsened c) remained the same
- 16) Access to housing, water, toilet facilities and healthcare a) improved b) worsened c) remained the same
- 17) What do you think about your general living condition in Agbogbloshie compared to your place of origin? a) It has improved b) It has worsened c) It has remained the same

### Section E: Experiences of migrants

- 1) Would you say there is much risk at where you work and stay? a) Yes b) No

- 2) If your answer is yes choose and rank (Rank your options using 1-7)

- a) Moving between vehicles .....
- b) Scouting the whole day.....
- c) Carrying of heavy loads. ....
- d) Lack of and poor accommodation.....
- e) Frequent fire gutting our belongings.....
- f) Expose to miscreants such as thieves and rapists.....
- Other (Specify).....

- 3) Have you been able to achieve your aim of migrating to the south a).Yes b) No

- 4 If your answer to question 3 is **yes** what are they'? (You can choose more than one)

- a) Bought some personal items b) Repaid debts c) Saved some money d)Financed children's education e) Sent money to close relatives f) Others.. ..

.....

- 5) If no, what are the problems? (You can choose more than one and rank your options in order of importance using 1-6)

- a) Not been able to buy anything .....
- b) Not able to save.....
- c) Unable to Financed children's education.....
- d) Not able to repay debt.....

- e) Insufficient income.....
- f) Other. ....

**General opinion of migrants in Agbogbloshie on merits and demerits of migration**

1) What are the advantages of migrating to the south? (Rank answers in order of importance using 1-9)

- a) Income opportunities .....
- b) Money for marriage at home .....
- c) To get married .....
- d) Acquisition wealth.....
- e) Freedom from cultural practices such as force marriage.....
- f) Personal freedom.....
- g) Ability to remit close relatives .....
- h) Save money for trading at home.....
- i) Others (specify) .....

2) What are the disadvantages of migration to the south?

(Rank answers in order of Importance using 1- 7)

- a) Lost of migrant services at home .....
- b) Difficult working conditions in Agbogbloshie.....
- c) Living in poor accommodation.....
- d) Sexual harassment at destination.....
- e).Language barrier .....
- f) Difficulty in getting a marriage partner .....
- g) Lost of moral values .....
- h) Other.....

3 Do you intend going back to the north? a) Yes b) No



4 If your answer in question 3 is **yes**, why are you returning? a) To settle permanently b) To continue education c) To learn a vocation d) To engage in trading f0 To take care of children g) Other Specify.....

5) If your answer in question is **no**, why are you going back? a) Family problem b) Fear of been forced into marriage c) I enjoy the stay here d) .Unable to repay my debts e) Insufficient income  
f) Others (Specify).....

6) Would you recommend that the recent mass migration of people from the northern part of the country to south especially Agboglobloshie should be controlled? a) Yes b) No

7) If your answer in question 6 is **yes** what do you think can be done reduce these movements? You can pick more than one and rank your answers using 1-7

- a) Provision of jobs in the North for the youth .....
- b) Making credits accessible to people in the northern Ghana .....
- c) Revising land tenure system and it accessible to all .....
- d) Eliminate odd cultural practices like force marriages .....
- e) Encourage girl-child education .....
- f) Promulgate by-laws to prevent out-migration .....
- g) Other... ..

8. If your answer in 6 is **no**, why? Rank your options if you choose more than one using (1-5)

- a) It is against human rights .....
- b) Women may be forced into forced marriages forced .....
- c) It will deprive northerners access to educational and health facilities in the south.....
- d) Loss of opportunities to learn from the south .....
- e) Others (specify) . ... ..

Thank you for your time

## APPENDIX B

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING

KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI

### Questionnaire for research in MPhil Development Studies

Dear respondent,

This study is being carried out by Yajalin Ebotui John , a graduate student of the Department of Planning on the topic: *Migration: Community consequences and Individual Migrant Experiences in Agboghloshie*, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of master of philosophy in Development Studies. Please be informed that, your participation in the study is voluntary and all information gathered will be treated with outmost confidentiality and would be solely used for academic purposes. Your support and contribution would be very much appreciated. Thank you

**Rubrics:** please circle (or mark) or write the answer as may be appropriate to indicate your response. Thank you,

#### Section A: Demographic characteristics of non-migrants in Yendi Municipality

- 1) Age.....
- 2) Marital status a) single ☐ b) married ☐ c) Divorced ☐ d) Separated
- 3) Number of children.....
- 4) Religious affiliation a) Christianity ☐ b) Islam Religion ☐ c) Traditional ☐ d) others (specify).....

5) Educational status....a) Illiterate ☐ b) Primary ☐ c) JHS ☐ d) Tertiary ☐ e) others (specify).....

6). Ethnic group.....a) Frafra ☐ b) Dagomba ☐ c) Konkomba ☐ d) (specify).....

7) Are your children attending school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

8) If no, any reasons for the child not attending school?

☐ .....  
.....

## **B. Housing and Living Conditions**

1) Residential type a) room compound house b) Kiosk...

On veranda.....

On market stall/ open pavement.....

None.....

Other (specify).....

1. What facilities are available in your house or community (Tick as many as apply)

Public borehole..... well water.....

Pit toilet in house..... public toilet..... Free

range..... electricity.....

2. Can you describe your impression about your house?.....

.....

## **C. Health related matters.**

1. Have you registered with National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS)? A Yes B No

2. Which health services do you access?

a) Private clinic b) Public hospital c) Traditional Healer c) Druggist/  
selfmedication d) Other

(Specify).....

## **SECTION D: ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES**

- 1) What is your main economic activity? a) Farming b) Fishing c) Trading  
 d) Burning/Selling of Fire Wood      d) Food vendor e) others (Specify )  
 .....
- 2) The main source of income to the household is a) Fanning b) Fishing c) Trading  
 d) Salary/Wages e) Remittances
- 3) How much do you earn in a month GH¢ .....
- 4) Estimate how much you spend in a month ((GH¢) a) less than GH¢100  
 b) GH¢100- GH¢199      c) GH¢200- GH¢299      d) GH¢300- GH¢399  
 e) GH¢400- GH¢499      f) GH¢500- GH¢599      g) others  
 specify.....
- 5) How much do you earn in a month GH¢ .....
- 6) Indicate the amount of your income that you spend on the following  
 a) Food per day.....  
 b) Clothing per month .....  
 c) Accommodation per month .....  
 d) Education .....  
 e) Others .....
- 7) Do you save some of your income? a) Yes b) No



8) If yes where? a) Susu b) Bank c).With a relative/ friends d) Other (specify)..... ..

9) Do you have any assets? a) Yes b) No

10) If yes, what are the main assets? You can choose more than one

a) Land .....

b) Livestock .....

c) Cash at bank .....

d) House .....

e) Other (specify).. ..... ..

### **SECTION E: GENERAL OPINION ON MIGRATION**

1) Have you ever migrated to the South? a) Yes b) No

2) If your answer in question 1 is **yes** what was your main reason for migrating? (Rank the options using 1-7 if you choose more than one)

a) To obtain job (seek employment) -----

b) Famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor facilities in my home town----

c) To free myself from cultural or family restrictions and obligations-----

d) To join immediate relatives and friends or following them-----

e) To gain education and training-----

f) To seek modern urban services and facilities-----

g) Job transfer-----

h) To open up or extended personal business-----

i) To seek good climate-----

j) Others (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_

3) Do you intend migrating to the south? a) Yes b) No

3) What is your opinion on those who migrate to the Agbogbloshie to seek greener pastures

a) Lost of migrant services at home .....

b) They send remittances that help their families and the community

.....

c) They comeback with diseases .....

d) Lost of moral values .....

e) Other.....

4) Will encourage the youth to seek greener pastures in the south? a) Yes b) No

5) If your answer in question 4 is yes

why.....

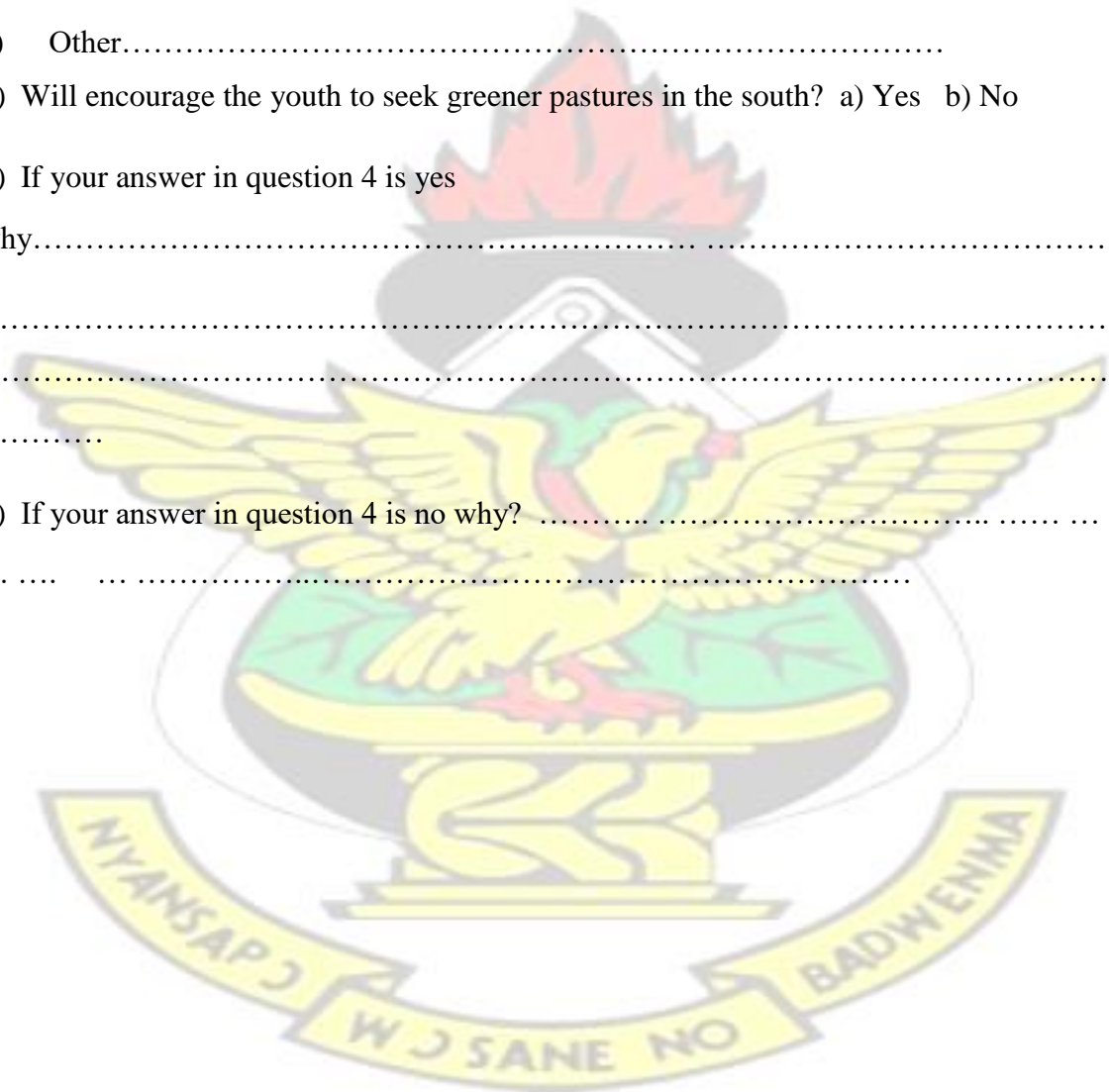
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.....

6) If your answer in question 4 is no why? .....

.....



Thank you for your time

**APPENDIX C**  
DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING

KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI.

Semi-structure interview guide for migrants in Agbogbloshie (Qualitative approach)

**Section A: Demographic characteristics of migrants**

- 1) Name.....
- 2) Address of your household head in Yendi .....  
.....  
.....
- House No.....
- Mobile no .....
- 3) Age.....
- 4) Marital status a) single ☐ b) married ☐ c) Divorced ☐ d) Separated
- 5) Number of children.....
- 6) Religious affiliation a) Christianity ☐ b) Islam Religion ☐ c) Traditional ☐ d)  
others (specify).....
- 7) Educational status....a) Illiterate ☐ b) Primary ☐ c) JHS ☐ d) Tertiary e)  
others (specify).....
- 8). Ethnic group.....a) Konkomba b) Dagomba c) Dagaati d) others (specify).....

9) Are your children attending school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

10) If no, any reasons for the child not attending school? ☐

11) What kind of work are you engage in?

.....☐.

### Section B: Housing and Living conditions

1) Residential type a) room in a compound house b) Kiosk c) On veranda d) On market stall/ open pavement. Other (specify).....

2) What facilities are available in your house or community (circle as many as apply)  
Public borehole b) well water Pit toilet in house d) public toilet e) Free range f)  
electricity

3) Can you describe your impression about your house.....

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

### Section C: Health related matters

1) Have you registered with National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS)? a)Yes☐ b) No

2) Which health services do you access? a) Private clinic b) Public hospital c)  
Traditional Healer c) Druggist/ self-medication d) Other  
(Specify).....

2) What are the main health challenges that you go  
through... ..

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



.....

**Section D: Causes of migration**

- 1) Why did you leave your home town to come to Agboglobhie?.....
- .....
- .....
- 2) Are you currently working? a) Yes ☐ b) No. ☐
- 3) Where do you work? a) Makola b) Tema station c) Kantanmanto market d) Agboglobhie market e) Others (specify).....
- 4) How much do you earn in a month? .....
- 5) How many hours do you work in a day? 5hours b) 6 hours c) 7 hours d) 8hours e) 9hours f) More than 10hours.
- 6) How many days do you work in a week? a) 1-5 days b) 5-7days
- 7) Apart from this work, what other work do you do? .....
- 8) Do you sent remittances to your relatives in Yendi? a) Yes b) No
- 9) If yes, why? What are the remittances spent on .....
- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....

**Section E General Opinion about Migration and migrant experiences**

- 1) Would you say that moving to Agboglobhie has affected your life?.....
- ...

- .....
- .....
- 2) Would you encourage people in your place to migrate to Agbogbloshie? a) Yes b) No
- 3) If ..... yes  
why?.....
- If no why?.....
- 5) What are the daily challenges that you encounter either at your work place or at home?

## APPENDIX D

### DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING

#### KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI

#### Semi-structure interview guide for migrants' relatives in Yendi Municipality

#### Section A: Background information

- 1) Age.....
- 2) Marital status a) single ☐ b) married ☐ c) Divorced ☐ d) Separated
- 3) Number of children.....
- 4) Religious affiliation a) Christianity ☐ b) Islam Religion ☐ c) Traditional ☐ d) others (specify).....
- 5) Educational status....a) Illiterate ☐ b) Primary ☐ c) JHS ☐ d) Tertiary ☐ e) others (specify).....
- 6). Ethnic group.....a) Frafra ☐ b) Dagomba ☐ c) Dagaati ☐ d) others (specify).....
- 7) Are your children attending school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
- 8) If no, any reasons for the child not attending school? ☐
- 9). What kind of work are you engage in?

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

## B. Housing and Living Conditions

2) Residential type a) room compound house b) Kiosk...

On veranda.....

On market stall/ open pavement.....

None.....

Other (specify).....

3. What facilities are available in your house or community (Tick as many as apply)

Public borehole..... well water.....

Pit toilet in house..... public toilet..... Free

range..... electricity.....

4. Can you describe your impression about your house?.....

.....

## C. Health related matters.

3. Have you registered with National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS)? A Yes B

No C. Not sure

4. Which health services do you access?

b) Private clinic b) Public hospital c) Traditional Healer c) Druggist/  
selfmedication d) Other

(Specify).....

## D: Relationship with migrant(s) and effects of migration

1) What is your relationship with the migrant a) son b) daughter c father d) mother e)

other (specify) .....

2) Do you receive any money or items from him/her? a) Yes b) No

3) If your answer in question 2 is **yes** how often? a) weekly, b) monthly c) yearly d)  
As and when I need it

4) What do you spend the money you receive on? a) Payment of debt/loan b) House  
rent c) hospital bills d) payment of school fees e) perform funerals f) other  
(specify).....

5) Would you say the migrant is contributing to the total wellbeing of the family in  
general now than before?  
.....

6 Would you like the migrant to return home now?.....If  
yes,  
why.....  
.....

If no, why? .....  
.....

#### **Section E: Community consequences of migration**

1) Would you say this community is benefiting in terms of the investment of migrants  
?  
.....  
.....  
.....

2) What will you say are the negative effects of people leaving your community for  
the city?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....



### General Opinion about migration

1) Would you encourage people to migrate to the south end Agbogbloshie in particular?

a) Yes b) no

If yes,

why?.....  
.....  
.....

If no,

why? .....  
.....

Thank you for your time

