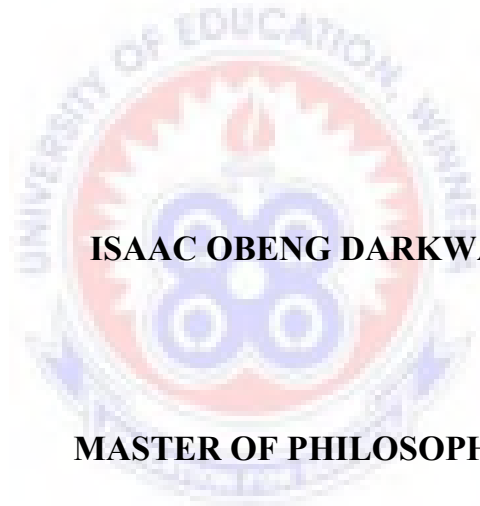


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**OWNER RE-POSSESSION OF LAND AND ITS EFFECTS ON
LIVELIHOODS OF MIGRANT FARMERS IN BIRIM CENTRAL
MUNICIPAL**

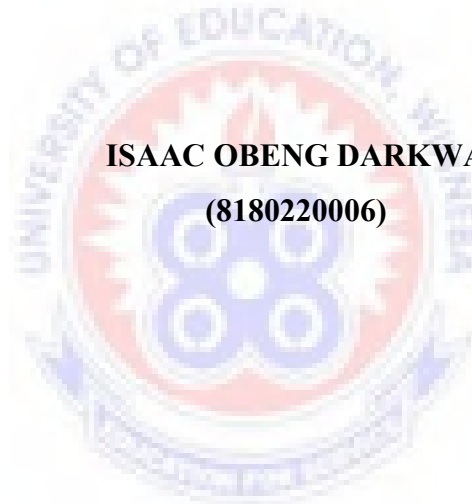


ISAAC OBENG DARKWA

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**OWNER-RE-POSSESSION OF LAND AND ITS EFFECTS ON
LIVELIHOODS OF MIGRANT FARMERS IN BIRIM CENTRAL
MUNICIPAL**



ISAAC OBENG DARKWA

(8180220006)

**A thesis in the Department of Geography Education,
Faculty of Social Sciences, submitted to the School
of Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Geography Education)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

DECEMBER, 2020

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Isaac Obeng Darkwa, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:



SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of theses as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Supervisor's Name: Mrs Esther Yeboah Danso-Wiredu

Signature:

Date:

DEDICATION

To Priscilla, Kofi and Kwadwo



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I thank God for strength and underserved grace to continue my education up to this level.

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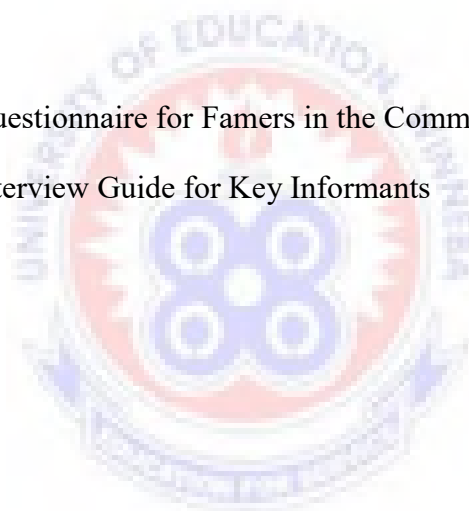
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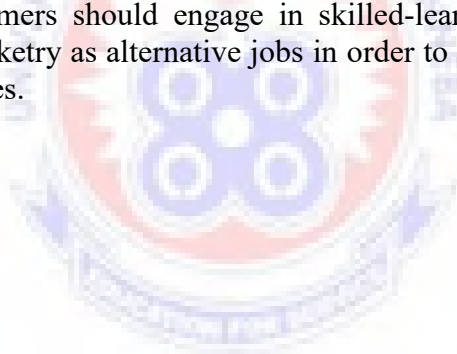
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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|-------------|---|
| DFID | Department for International Development |
| MLF | Ministry of Lands and Forestry |
| GSS | Ghana Statistical Service |
| BCM | Birim Central Municipal |
| UN | United Nations |
| CDD | Centre for Democratic Development |
| SWB | Subjective Well-being |
| SLA | Sustainable Livelihood Approach |
| ICRA | International Centre for development oriented Research in Agriculture |
| NRI | Natural Resources Institute |
| AEA | Agriculture Extension Areas |
| SPSS | Statistical Product for Service Solution |
| DF | Damaging Fluctuations |

ABSTRACT

The issue of owner re-possession of land poses serious threat among migrant farmers, as it exposes them to various vulnerabilities. A mixed method approach research was conducted in three communities, an urban and two peri-urban areas-Oda, Asene and Aboabo. Two hundred and sixty respondents were selected using stratified-random sample technique and administered with questionnaire in the three communities. Twenty-one key informants were purposively selected and interviewed, and two focus group discussions were conducted in the communities. The sustainable livelihood approach was adapted to study livelihood assets, vulnerabilities, alternative livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes of the farmers. The main findings of the research include: land owners re-possessing their lands for housing, industries, banking, schools, recreation and hospitality; migrant farmers become expose to economic and social vulnerabilities as a result of land re-possession; alternative livelihood strategies such as backyard garden, petty trading, livestock rearing and remittances as means of improving livelihood and to ameliorate vulnerability problems; by generating income, increasing well-being, reducing vulnerability and ensuring food security. The study therefore concludes, based on the research findings, that poor persons affected by economic and social vulnerabilities, devise alternative livelihood strategies to improve and sustain lives. Based on the research findings, the study recommends that migrant farmers should have their agriculture lands registered to cover all contractual agreement with land owners in order to have secured land for their farming activities. Also, the young farmers should engage in skilled-learning jobs such as tailoring, dressmaking and basketry as alternative jobs in order to reduce unemployment rate in the study communities.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Globally, the demand for land has been increasing following the growth of investment prospects especially after introduction of economic liberalization policies in the mid 1980s (Odhiambo, 2006). Land is the core of peri-urban lives across the globe. It has inherent value and generates a lot of economic opportunities (Mearns, 1999). A plot of land in urban areas provides a household with physical, financial, and nutritional security, and provides a labourer with a source of wages (Mearns, 1999). In peri-urban areas, access to land by the urban poor is essential for sustainable poverty reduction (Odhiambo, 2006). However, land ownership across the world especially Latin America, Asia and Africa is a critical issue and highly skewed (DFID, 2000).

In Latin America, the Gini coefficient of land distribution of 0.6 or higher indicates that 60-70% of the land is cultivated by land-owners and elite, while peasant farmers have access to only 30-40% of the land (UN Habitat, 2009). Land tenure system in Latin America replicate government and economic elite possession and are concentrated into large holdings reserved for plantations, and small holdings for subsistence farming or sharecropping (UN Habitat, 2009). However, in Europe, different countries have used different policies to create private property rights. Privatization of land has created millions of new land titles, many for small badly shaped parcels of land unsuitable for commercial exploitation, as land resituated has been further divided among the heirs of the original owners (Rembold, 2003). For instance, in Poland, where private ownership of farmland was the dominant tenure during the Communist period, the proportion of arable land in privately owned farms

increased from 77.5 percent in 1983 to 91.2 percent in 2000 (Rembold, 2003). In Hungary, land in private ownership increased from 7 percent to 64 percent from 1990 to 2001 (Rembold, 2003).

The situation in sub-Saharan Africa is different as a result of the varied culture and customary practices. The issue of land accessibility, land tenure reforms, and land resource management remain challenging areas for many African countries, governments and communities (Fobih, 2004). Insecurity of tenure, restriction to access arising from government policies and the operation of laws in a legal pluralistic environment have been cited as some of the critical issues that affect access to land for development, livelihoods and food security (Fobih, 2004). This stems from inadequate land policy in most African countries and customary practices relating to land administration. (Fobih, 2004). In Tanzania, the Village Land Act, Act No. 5 of 1999 classifies land into communal village land for communal and not individual use; land used or occupied by an individual or family under customary law; and vacant land, which may be allocated for communal or individual use. The Act affirms customary titles as par with granted rights of occupancy (UN Habitat, 2009).

Similarly, Ghana's land administration is managed by both enacted legislation and customary practices and categorized into Allodial interest, Customary Freehold, Common Law Freehold, Leasehold including subleases and Customary Tenancies (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). Following the customary law which is applicable, the allodial interest in land is usually held by stools, skins, sub-stools, clans or families (GSS, 2010). The customary freehold is the right held by members of the landowning community who acquire it by first cultivation or by allotment from the landowning group of which they are members. The Common Law Freehold arises out of a grant in the form of a freehold that is made by the holder of the allodial title

by way of sale or gift which is indefinitely and is derived from the rules of common law (Ministry of Land & Forestry, 2003).

However, leasehold land rights are granted to a person to occupy and use for a specified term which is subject to certain agreed covenants and the payment of an agreed rent. The holder of the allodial title, customary freehold or common law freehold may grant a lease in respect of land over which he/she has not already granted to another person (Ministry of Land & Forestry, 2003). Based on the Leasehold right, families and individual land-owners give their lands to migrants to manage the land and its produce under sharecropping contractual arrangement in which a tenant farmer gives a specified portion of the produce to the land owner at each time of harvest. In addition, share tenancy is a structured compensatory mode used by landlords in most Akan communities to benefit from the use of their land. Share tenancy is a rental status depicting landlord-tenant relations under customary law, containing the contract between landlord and the tenant (Pomevor, 2014). The most widely used forms of shared tenancy are the *Abusa* (1/3) and *Abunu* (1/2). In the case of *Abusa* (1/3), the tenant bears the cost of production and so the landlord is entitled to only one-third of the profit accruing from the output. In the other case the landlord bears the cost while the tenant only manages the farm. In sharing the proceeds, they both part with one-half (1/2) of the profit (Hill, 1956). These tenancy agreements are a predominant practice in the southern Ghana, among the Akan ethnic communities (Amanor, 2010). (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003).

Migrant farmers are group of people who migrated from different areas in search of vacant lands through sharecropping (*Abunu & Abusa*) agreements (Hunter 1956; Hill, 1963). The migrants are *abusa* labourers or tenants who are entitled to two thirds share while the landlord is entitled to two thirds. The *abusa* labourers applied to

cases of already established farm where the labourer is engaged as a migrant and supplied with inputs to manage the farm and rewarded with a third of the proceeds from the harvest (Hill, 1963). In the case of *abusa*, the migrant-farmer bears the expense of clearing and cultivating the virgin forest land allocated by the landlord and consequently receives two-third share (Amanor & Diderutuah, 2001) of either the physical farm or proceeds. However, under the *abusa* system, migrant farmers have no ownership rights over the land, and the contract can be terminated and the land re-possessed for developmental projects when needed. (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). Increased population along peri-urban areas and the demand for land for housing and industrial development compel land-owners to re-possess agricultural lands for developments (Yaro, 2012). This causes poor farmers along peri-urban areas losing their livelihood thereby, putting them into vulnerability context (Amanor, 2010).

A livelihood comprises capabilities, assets, including both material and social resources, and activities, which are mediated by institutional and social relations (Ellis, 2000). The combinations of these give rise to the household livelihood strategy. Livelihood strategies refer to the mix of individual and household strategies, developed over a given period of time that seeks to mobilize available resources and opportunities (Carney, 2002). Ellis (2000), argues that livelihood strategy encompasses not only activities that generate income and improved food security but many other kinds of choices, including cultural and social choices that come together to make up the primary occupation of a household. With the owner re-possession of land, migrants find themselves in vulnerability context due to the loss of land as assets for livelihood.

1.2 Problem Statement

The issue of migrants of farmers in peri-urban areas in Ghana, reveals a particular challenge as it is linked to poverty due to their limited land assets and land insecurity (Amanor, 2010). Legally, all land in Ghana is vested in the state (Ghana's Constitution, 1992). However, land predominantly is regulated by customary rather than statutory laws (Ministry of Lands & Forestry 2003). Under the customary tenure system, a person accesses land for cultivation and other purposes through sharecropping, rental outright purchase, gifts, inheritance and common property which are mostly managed by migrants (Anafo, 2011).

The Birim Central Municipal land ownership is a communal base which is under the control of chiefs', clans and families. Access to land in the Municipality is based on sharecropping tenancy system (GSS, 2010). The sharecropping tenancy is the common tenure practices in the Municipality where lands are leased to people under abunu and abusa farming arrangements. The abusa labourers are migrants who work on established farms or acquire land to establish farms and share the proceeds in one third with the landowner.

Migrant farmers in the Birim Municipality depend on secondary usufruct rights out of the benevolence of the individual and family or clan heads to acquire land for farming activities. Migrant farmers are abusa labourers and tenants who establish farms either by the assistance of the land owners or by his labour and capital, and share the proceeds with land owners in one-third basis (Hill 1963).

The Ministry of Lands and Forestry (2003), postulates that migrant farmers have no ownership rights over land or farm, and their contractual agreement can be terminated at will and at short notice by the landowner. The Birim Central Municipal land ownership is a communal base which is under the control of chiefs', clans and

families. Access to land in the Municipality is based on sharecropping tenancy system (GSS, 2010). The sharecropping tenancy is the common tenure practices in the Municipality where lands are leased to people under abunu and abusa farming arrangements. The abusa labourers are migrants who work on established farms or acquire land to establish farms and share the proceeds in one third with the landowner.

However, the increasing population and urbanization in urban peripheries in the Municipality such as residential apartment and industrial activities have affected migrant farmers along peri-urban communities in the Municipality (GSS, 2010). The demand for land for residential and industrial activities in the Municipality is influenced by the fact that peri-urban lands are inexpensive as compared to the cities and as a result, most farmlands have been re-possessed by land owners' residential apartments and industrial activities. Land re-possession in the Municipality has limited the prospects of migrant farmers as they lose their main resources to housing developers. These issues have actually questioned the migrant farmers access to farmland, and has posed threats to agricultural productivity and livelihoods in the Municipality. Any disregard for migrants' livelihoods is a recipe for widespread hunger, inequality and deprivations in communities of Birim Central Municipal (Yaro, 2012).

The empirical analysis focusing on the study areas is specifically to highlight the motives behind land re-possession. The study therefore looks at sustainable livelihood approach through the perspective of the migrant farmer to examine the extent of vulnerability impacts, diverse alternative livelihood strategies employed to secure food, possess more income, reduced vulnerability and increased well-being. This study therefore does not only highlight the numerous reasons of land re-

possession that occur by land-owners in the urban fringe of Birim Central Municipal, but it also looks at the way many migrant farmers in the Municipality are exposed to vulnerability challenges, alternative livelihood strategies employed to overcome and livelihood outcomes of the strategies employed.

1.3 Main Objective of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine owner re-possession of land and its effects on livelihoods of migrant farmers in Birim Central Municipal.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

Specifically, the objectives of the study seek:

1. To analysis reasons why land-owners re-possess their lands in the study area
2. To ascertain the extent of vulnerability of migrants in the study area
3. To examine the survival strategies of migrants in the study area
4. To assess the outcomes of the adaptive and alternative livelihoods of migrants in the area

1.5 Research Questions

1. Why do land-owners re-possess their lands?
2. To what extent do migrants become vulnerable?
3. How do migrants survive in the mist of their vulnerability?
4. What are the outcomes of migrant's survival?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study would educate land-owners in the Birim Central Municipality about the effects of changing land use in the Municipality in order to have a sustainable environment. The outcomes of the study will inform the Government, Social

Organizations and Municipal Assembly on the extent of vulnerability in the Municipality to develop sustainable strategies for vulnerable groups in the area. The findings of the study would serve as foundation for further research work on land re-possession and livelihoods of the urban poor.

1.7 Organization of the Study

This study has been organized into five chapters. Chapter one provides a background, problem statement, research questions and objectives, scope as well as the significance of the study. Chapter Two presents a contextual review of literature relevant to the study including conceptual framework based on sustainable livelihoods concept of caretaking, land-ownership, land acquisition, land tenure in Ghana. Chapter Three discusses the research methods that were adopted for this study including the design, sources of data, sampling and sample size determination, and a brief description of the study area. Chapter Four also provides detailed information on the results and analysis of the data that were collected from the field. The summary of the findings based on the study and the recommendations have been presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter gives an account of what has been published on the topic by accredited scholars and researchers. The purpose here is to convey what knowledge and ideas have been established or expressed on the topic and what their strengths and weaknesses are. This chapter therefore provokes a discussion on land tenure system, land-ownership and land re-possession, vulnerability of migrant farmers, strategies of migrant farmers, sustainable livelihood approach and conceptual framework.

2.1 Land Tenure System in Ghana

Following the period of colonial administration, land tenure and management have been categorized under three systems; communal leasing, customary and state vested running concurrently to each other (Aidoo, 1990). Land title registration was alien to Ghana and most land titles were operated under customary laws where communities encompassing several clans and families owned land on communal basis known as customary lands in both northern and southern Ghana, or stool lands in the southern and skin lands in the northern Ghana (Yankson, 2000).

Through the activities of centralized system, where unique traditional political structures were in place, land and for that matter its ownership provided a strong amalgamating force for the organization and the existence of the people as a distinctive group (Kyerematen, 1971). The ethnic groups, which were conquered, were annexed and assimilated into the existing social and cultural structures. Land in these areas, was considered as belonging to the entire community. In such centralized states (for example Ashanti, Akyem, Dagbon) land tenure system is governed by

chief's allegiance (Larbi, 1995). The chief with acknowledged elders who exercise jurisdictional authority also exercise proprietary authority on behalf on the entire community members or subjects. Land thus provided a strong force for political and social solidity (Ollennu, 1962).

The development of cocoa farming, mining and timber industries brought in its wake a new economy which had impacts on land tenure. Migrant farmers began acquiring lands on share-cropping tenure basis for farming. Others acquired large tracts of land through outright purchase (alienation holding), usually organized through group purchase. In the case of the mining and the timber industries, large acres of land were acquired on concession with the payment of annual rent and royalty. Currently, provisions of the 1992 Constitution govern statutory tenure and land administration in Ghana (Constitution of Ghana, 1992).

All land belongs to the indigenous settlers and is vested in the appropriate stool or skin on behalf of, and in trust for the subjects of the stool in accordance with customary law and usage. No stool or skin land can be disposed off unless the intended development is in compliance with the development plan of the area. No person(s) shall hold a freehold interest in, or right over, any stool land in Ghana (UN-Habitat, 2011).

All public land in Ghana is vested in the President on behalf of and in trust for, the people of Ghana. Public land includes any land which has been vested in the Government of Ghana for the public service of Ghana, and any other land acquired in the public interest (UN-Habitat, 2011).

Land tenure describes the system of landholding, which has developed from the peculiar political and economic circumstances, cultural norms and religious practices of a people regarding land as a natural resource, its use and development (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). Entrenched in this definition are the rules, regulations and institutional structures both customary and enacted legislations, which influence the holding and appropriation of land and its resources for socio-economic

development (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). Ghana has a peculiar land tenure system. It is a multifaceted one which reflects the unique traditional political organizations, socio-cultural differences and attributes of the various tribes, clans and families who through wars, conquests and assimilation of the conquered and early settlement came to acquire ownership of land (Yankson, 2000). Differences in natural endowment between the southern and northern parts of the country, the advent of colonialism and the subsequent introduction of tree crop farming, the exploitation of timber and mineral resources as raw material for manufacturing industries of the Western World have played no mean a role in influencing the land ownership system of the country (Ministry of Land & Forestry, 2003).

2.2 Land Tenure and Interest in Ghana

Customary land tenure system is widely recognized to be the principal tenure sector of land holding in Africa (Kassanga & Kotey, 2001). In Ghana, land tenure systems and land holdings, acquisition, use and disposal of land, differ from region to region, and between ethnic communities. These interests held in land are either derived from Ghanaian customs and traditions or assimilated from English Common Law and Equity (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). Land rights and interests in Ghana have been categorized into Allodial, Customary Freehold, Common Law Freehold Leasehold including sublease Customary Tenancies (Ministry of Land and Forestry, 2003).

2.2.1 Allodial interest

Allodial interest is the prominent proprietary interest known to customary law, beyond which there is no superior title. It is sometimes referred to as the paramount or absolute title and has been associated with freehold interest, in the English common

law (CDD, 2002). Other lesser titles or interest or right over land are derived from the allodial interest. The allodial interest of land is initially apprehended by stools, skins, sub-stools, skins, clans and families, depending on the applicability of the customary law (CDD, 2002). It is a title that in some traditional areas in Ghana, is acknowledged as being held in stools or skins only. In other traditional areas, sub-stools, sub-skins, clans as well as families hold it. The allodial title is vested in the head of the land owning group who manages it on behalf of the community with the consent and concurrence of the principal members of the community. Historically, allodial title has been created or assumed through discovery or conquest and subsequent settlement thereon and use thereof by the stool/skin and family. This interest or title can be transferred from one owner to the other through: purchase by another community or an individual and gift to another community or individual.

2.2.2 Customary freehold

The customary freehold is also called the usufruct. It is a land interest by which members or indigenes of the landowning community that holds the allodial interest in land are legitimate to the use of the land, according to the customary law of that community. It is an interest apprehended by members of such a community who acquire it by first cultivation or by allotment from the land owning group of which they are members. This interest, so long as it is held and exercised by an indigene, assumes indefinite duration and prevails against the whole world including the allodial titleholder. Any group, sub-group or individual member of a community owning the allodial title may acquire the customary freehold title or interest in land by exercising his or her inherent right to develop such vacant virgin communal land. The customary freehold includes the right to occupy and derive economic use from any portion of the communally owned land that has not been occupied previously by any

member of the community (Larbi, 1995). Thus the usufruct can cultivate, build or enjoy the use of the land in any manner he chooses, provided he does not invade the stool's and state's right to the minerals therein (Kyerematen, 1971). Such rights are limited to the area occupied. Mere hunting by an indigene, however, does not appropriate customary freehold title. It is rather a derived right. Other derived rights include rights to water, rights to non-timber forest products and minerals. These derived rights, also referred to as group rights, are distinct from customary freehold. Transfers to persons outside the group, thus, strangers may be done only by the holder of the customary freehold with the consent of the appropriate head and principal elders of the land owning community (CDD, 2002). This is due to the fact that such alienation to a stranger implies admitting an outsider to the ancestral heritage of the state, and extending birth right of citizenship. A customary freehold is an interest held in perpetuity by the beneficial user; the only caveats being that the land must not be abandoned and the members' lineage must not become extinct. The allodial owner of the land has a reversionary interest in such land in the rare event of abandonment or the extinction of the beneficial user's lineage

2.2.3 Common law freehold

Common law freehold is a right to land holding given to individuals out of a grant in the nature of sale or gift. This is an interest in land, which is held for an indefinite period and is derived from the rules of common law. It is created only by express grant. Previously, members of the stool or family or skin, which holds the allodial title, strangers and foreigners alike could acquire common law freehold. However, in 1969 non-Ghanaians' rights to hold such interests were abolished and automatically slashed to a maximum 50-year lease term to be granted at any one time (Constitution of Ghana, 1969). The 1979 Constitution also abolished the grant of

freehold rights in stool and skin lands to Ghanaians whether they are strangers or members of the land owning group. This presupposes that from 1979 such rights emanating from stool and skin lands can no longer be granted in the country (Constitution of Ghana, 1979). Common law freeholds can, however, emanate from family lands.

2.2.4 Leaseholds

These are rights and privileges granted to a person to occupy and use land for a given period of time, subject to certain agreed conditions. The holder of the allodial title, customary freehold or common law freehold may grant a lease in respect of land over which he/she has not already granted. Sub- leases may be further granted by leaseholders (CDD, 2002).

2.2.5 Lesser interests

Customary tenancies, holders of an allodial title, customary freehold or common law freehold may also create various lesser interests under customary law. These are usually share-cropping contractual arrangement by which a tenant farmer gives a specified portion of the produce of the farm to the landlord at each harvest time. The two best known of such tenancies are the 'abunu' (the produce is shared 50:50) and 'abusa' (one-third to the land owner and two-thirds to the farmer). There are other forms of customary tenancies in which the consideration for the grant is not the sharing of farm produce but monetary payments, for example, periodic rents. In addition to these interests' certain rights recognized by law also exist in land in Ghana. Examples are easements, restrictive covenants, reversions and common law licenses. All these terminologies, though importations from English common law,

describe lesser interests in customary law for which local phraseology have been lost in usage over the years (CDD, 2002)

2.3 Access to Land by Migrant Farmers in Ghana

In Ghana, the process of land acquisition by migrants also included gifts, various forms of sales, and sharecropping contracts, but was more complex than that observed in Côte d'Ivoire (Hill, 1956; Benneh, 1988; Amanor, 2008). The different historical background accounts for the earlier development of this type of share contract in Ghana. With reference to Hill (1956), Amanor (2010) stated: "The framework of Indirect Rule was instrumental in shaping notions of customary land tenure. Allodial rights to land were vested in (autochthon) paramount authorities, who were the only social groups with recognized rights to transact land. Other social groups could only acquire user rights in land. As a result of these structures, rights to sell and purchase land became increasingly contested from the 1920s, and although various forms of land sales have taken place, sharecropping has become the dominant mode of transacting land between those without chiefly status."

Anafo (2011), reveals that there are about six ways by which a person can access land for the cultivation of cocoa in Ghana: (i) Share cropping (abunu and abusa); (ii) Rental; (iii) Outright purchase; (iv) Gifts; (v) Inheritance; and (vi) Common Property

2.3.1 Sharecropping tenancy in Ghana

A tenancy, under customary law, is an interest which confers upon the tenant a right to possess, occupy and use a land for a specified purpose for either an indefinite or specified period. A tenancy goes with terms and conditions which the tenant is expected to observe and live by so long as he or she is still in possession and

occupation of the subject land. In a customary tenancy, a limited interest in the land is created. The grantor or landlord retains his ownership right in the land but only grants possessory and use rights to the tenant for a period of time, which may sometime be indefinite (Da Rocha & Lodoh, 1999).

The sharecropping tenancy emerged in response to some factors. Firstly, it was a form of a disguised land sale in view of the traditional abhorrence to land sales (Amanor, 2008). Secondly, it provided the farmers and the town chiefs an opportunity to alienate land without being challenged by the paramount chiefs or members of their lineages as breaching the customary prohibition of land sale (Amanor, 2008). During the colonial period, the paramount chief of Akyem Abuakwa had attempted to prevent the sale of land to strangers, on the basis that customary land was not sold to strangers, and that he had a right to a share of such transactions. The *abusa* land tenant system, developed as a mode of land transaction through which sub-chiefs (divisional and town chiefs) could acquire their own cocoa farms by providing access to virgin land and receiving some years later a developed cocoa plantation. This system also meant they could circumvent the paramount chief. They could thus get income from land which would otherwise be allocated to other citizens to cultivate. Similarly, landholders could disguise transactions of land with strangers, by masking this as an *abusa* relationship.

Hill (1963), argues that in Akyem Abuakwa, *abusa* originated as “a convenient means for the stool of granting land to strangers”. The *abusa* labour contract evolved subsequently as a means of attracting labour to work on already established plantations. The *abusa* sharing arrangement was the original mode of operation of share tenancy in Ghana as documented by Hill (1956) and collaborated subsequently by other researchers including Amanor and Diderutuah (2001), da Rocha and Lodoh

(1999) and Okali (1983). The sharing ratios depended on whether it was an *abusa* labourer or *abusa* tenant system and also on the respective contributions of the parties. Under the *abusa* tenant arrangement, the tenant is entitled to two thirds share while under the *abusa* labourer, the landlord is entitled to two thirds. The *abusa* labourer applied to cases of already established farm where the labourer is engaged as a migrant and supplied with inputs to manage the farm and rewarded with a third of the proceeds from the harvest. In the case of *abusa* tenant, the tenant-farmer bears the expense of clearing and cultivating the virgin forest land allocated by the landlord and consequently receives two-third share (Amanor & Diderutuah, 2001) of either the physical farm or proceeds.

The abunu system (Literally means divide into equal parts) ensures equal share between the landlord and the tenant. It emerged in response to land scarcity where landlords now demand equal share with the tenants. As noted by Amanor & Diderutuah (2001), abunu arrangement is most likely to be practiced in areas where land is scarce. The object of sharing could be in respect of the produce or the farm itself (Da Rocha & Lodoh, 1999). Where the sharing relates to farm itself, the farm is physically divided into two when the agreed crops mature. Where cash crops such as cocoa is involved which has a longer life span, the tenant essentially retains the portion of land received for generations (Da Rocha & Lodoh, 1999). Amanor (2010), also opined In some arrangements the cocoa plantation was then divided between the chiefly stool and the sharecrop tenant, and the portion worked by the tenant was recognised as their own land. In some parts of Ghana, such physical division of the farmland does not confer proprietary rights to the tenant in respect of the portion of land received. However, as noted by Adomako-Sarfoh (1974), in areas where there is abundant uncultivated land, the transfer of complete rights in the land occurs.

2.3.2 The development of abusa and migrant farmers in Ghana

In Akyem Abuakwa in the 19th Century, the abusa principle was extended to export of crops. This was first noted in 1885 when the Okyenman ruling council agreed the rights of chiefs to collect abusa a third share on rubber and cola. In 1901 the Okyenhene extended abusa to land purchases through redefining customary rights (Hill, 1963). In 1830s when Dwaben refugees started fleeing into Akyem Abuakwa following civil war in Asante, they were freely given land on which to settle. The present capital of the Eastern Region, Koforidua, lies on land given freely to Dwaben settlers by the Akyem Abuakwa rulers. However, by the late nineteenth century, land sales began to become common in Akyem Abuakwa as migrant cocoa farmers from the Akuapem and Krobo areas began to move into Akyem Abuakwa in large numbers (Amanor, 1994 cited in Hill, 1963).

During the 1920s, significant numbers of migrants from northern Ghana and Burkina Faso (Upper Volta) began to migrate into the cocoa belt, to earn money to pay colonial tax obligations. Colonial tax policy in these areas was deliberately aimed at creating labour reserves and forcing migrant labour into sectors of economic importance. In the Gold Coast the aims were to force labour from the north of the country to work in the gold mines of the southern forest country. Labour from the Mossi area was drawn to the expatriate cocoa and coffee plantations in south-eastern Côte d'Ivoire and for public works programmes in Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal (Amanor, 1998). However, in both instances migrants found the cocoa industry of the Gold Coast more attractive. Farmers and land-owners in the Akyem area could draw on this migrant labour, who were employed as annual labourers, piece workers, or abusa labourers (Hill, 1956; Adomako-Sarfoh, 1974).

Hill (1956), identified three different *abusa* relations: the *abusa* labourer, the *abusa* migrant, and *abusa* land tenant. The *abusa* labourer worked on a cocoa plantation that had already been established. He weeded the cocoa farm, plucked the cocoa, fermented and dried the beans and marketed them, receiving in return one third of the proceeds for this work. The landlord provided him with tools, clothing, and a plot of land on which to cultivate food. The *abusa* tenant was a migrant without rights in land, who approached the stool (the chief) for land to cultivate cocoa. He was allocated a piece of forest land, which he cleared and where he established a cocoa farm by his own labour and capital, without assistance from the landlord. He received no tools, food, inputs or seeds from the landlord. When the farm started bearing, he paid one third of the proceeds to the chief and retained two thirds. The last relations developed during the early years of fruit bearing where the land tenant was allowed to keep all the cocoa harvested. However, when the cocoa came into full bearing, the *abusa* land tenant took one third of the cocoa plantation as his own land, the rest going to the landowner. However, Hill notes that this system was sometimes used to cover a sale or grant of land.

The early land purchasing migrants from Akuapem, Krobo and Anum were followed by other migrants from the southeast, who did not have the capital to purchase land but sought work as labourers within the cocoa industry. Once the profits to be made in cocoa became apparent, Akyem landholders also became interested in its cultivation, but lacked the necessary labour to invest in plantations and the capital to invest in labour and seeds. Instead of selling off their land to migrants, farmers realized that they could come to an arrangement with migrant labour to develop cocoa farms over which they retained ownership. The *abusa* tenant system developed as a contractual arrangement between landless migrant labour and

Akyem land-owners for the development of cocoa. Migrant tenants cleared mature forest and planted cocoa plantations using their own capital. They maintained the cocoa plantation and the yield was divided into thirds, with the tenant taking two thirds. An alternative arrangement of the *abusa* land system involved cocoa farms being shared once they came into bearing, in which the land-owners took two thirds of the land and the tenant the remainder. Through the *abusa* mechanism the chiefs and land-owners of Akyem Abuakwa were able to acquire considerable holdings in cocoa.

Akyem landlords were able to get cocoa plantations established using *abusa* land tenants, and then find an *abusa* caretaker to manage their share of the plantation, without having to expend any capital on hiring labour or making the farm. Through this process chiefs could alienate large areas of virgin stool land and develop them into plantations. The majority of cocoa was being tended by *abusa* labourers, the vast majority of these being of migrant origin (Hill, 1957). At Kwaben and Bansa 94 percent of cocoa was tended by *abusa* labourers, 93 percent at Anyinam, 87 percent at Abomoso, and 53 percent at Moseaso (Hill, 1957). The majority of these were migrants from the “Northern Territories” (Northern Ghana & Mossi), Basare (Northern Trans-Volta & Togo), Ewe and Krobo. Only 16 percent of the *abusa* labour were from the local Akyem. By the early 1960s Hunter (1963), estimated that 98.6 percent of the land in the New Suhum (Densu area of southern Akyem Abuakwa) was cultivated by migrants.

2.3.3 Access to land through rent

People can access land for use through rent agreements. These are usually governed by informal arrangements with witnesses on both sides. Rent suffers from the same problems as outright purchase/lease as only marginal lands are rented out for agricultural uses (Anafo, 2011). In 1962, following a recommendation by a

committee on the need to control land rents, which were identified as one of the major causes of indebtedness of farmers, the government passed the Rent Stabilization Act (109), as amended in 1963 by Act 165, which authorized the appropriate minister to fix rent on land subject to the act. It made it illegal to demand or receive higher rent than that prescribed by the minister and prohibited ejection of tenants without his approval (Anafo, 2011). The Cocoa Farm Regulation 1962 (LI.186) and 1965 (LI. 382) was the principal rent controlling regulation applied to cocoa land in the cocoa growing regions. It fixed rents at one shilling per acre for members of landowning groups and five shillings per acre for strangers. These measures provoked disputes in the cocoa-growing areas, especially in the new frontier zone, where there were clashes between tenants insisting on the protection of the enactments and land-owners who opposed the legislation (Anafo, 2011).

2.3.4 Access to land through outright purchase

Land may also be obtained through outright purchase, even though some chiefs may refuse to acknowledge the transaction as a purchase. A migrant farmer requests land for farming from a chief. When his request is granted, the sub chief sends "boundary cutters" to demarcate an area for him and that becomes his plot. On the return of the boundary cutters, the sub-chief, in acknowledgment of the transaction and on the advice of the boundary cutters, would charge the migrant farmer some amount of money, referred to as "drink" money, the payment of which grants the prospective farmer access to the land. Usually a document is prepared to cover the transaction, and the farmers pay surveyors to make plans for them. However, studies have shown that there is some controversy between land-owners and migrant farmers over the question of whether such a transaction gives absolute title to the land to the farmer (Amanor, 2008). There have disputes concerning boundaries. While some

chiefs tend to sell the same piece of land to more than one migrant farmer, some migrant farmers under the pretense of establishing large scale plantations, acquire vast stretches of land which they later sublease to new migrant farmers whose identities they conceal from the chiefs (Ubink, 2008). By this practice, the migrant farmers become landlords in their own right and charge higher rents to their fellow migrant farmers who, however, are late comers. These illegal deals come to light only when the new tenant farmers realize they are being cheated and seek redress from the chiefs (Amanor, 2010).

2.3.5 Access to land through gifts

Access to land may also be obtained through gift by land-owners to migrant farmers. This is done if the migrant farmer can establish that he belongs to the same clan as the landowning clan of the Wassa village where he has gone in search of land. The migrant farmer would obviously select the village carefully, after he had made preliminary enquiries. On arrival in the village, he would first introduce himself to the clan head as a member of the same clan in his home town. (There are representative segments of all the major clans throughout the Akan cultural region due to earlier population migrations). The clan head would in turn introduce the farmer to the chief of the village. The migrant farmer would normally offer a bottle of schnapps to the chief. If his claims are accepted he is accorded full membership in the clan in the Wassa village, on the basis of which he would then have access to clan land as a member of the landowning group. He pays nothing in return; he has only to discharge his civic responsibilities as a clan member. A large number of migrant farmers took this route to gain access to land twenty or more years ago when virgin land was not in short supply. The migrant farmer may also obtain a grant of land through marriage. No restrictions are placed on the crops which can be cultivated on the land. The wife

and the children resulting from the marriage would inherit the land or farm when the migrant farmer dies. If the marriage should break down, the farm or land would either revert to the wife or be shared between the two.

2.3.6 Inheritance

People who are subjects to the stool have rights of inheritance from their lineage when land is required for agricultural purposes. However, when it comes to acquiring land for residential purposes many prefer to buy in order to prevent future litigations with other family members.

2.3.7 Common property

Some land resources are termed common property and all residents of the community have access to such resources. These are usually streams, grazing lands and game and wildlife. It been found out that common property has come under severe stress due to lack of rules, and roles assignment to govern their utilization.

2.4 Vulnerability Concept

Vulnerability as a concept has gained increasing understanding in recent debates on livelihoods, poverty and development. Vulnerability is more dynamic and gives support to the process of change. Chambers (1989), defines vulnerability as defencelessness, insecurity and exposure to risk, shocks and stress. Vulnerability in his view is not only exposure to risk but also the difficulty in coping with that risk. He further makes a distinction between external side of risks and shocks and the internal side which is defencelessness, which suggests lack of the means to cope with shocks. Chambers argues postulates that external side of vulnerability includes risks, shocks, and stress to which an individual is subject to; and an internal side which is defenceless, meaning a lack of means to cope without damaging loss. Loss can take

many forms-becoming or being physical weaker, economically impoverished, socially dependent, humiliated or psychologically harmed.

Moser (1998), utilizes a two-step model of vulnerability but uses the concepts of sensitivity and resilience to significantly change the focus and emphasis of Chamber's internal/external distinction. "Analysing vulnerability involves identifying not only the threat but also the resilience or responsiveness in exploiting opportunities, and in resisting or recovering from the negative effects of a changing environment. The means of resistance are the assets and entitlements that individuals, households, or communities can mobilize and manage in the face of hardship. Vulnerability is therefore closely linked to asset ownership. The more assets people have the less vulnerable they are, and the greater the erosion of people's assets, the greater their insecurity"

The Watts and Bohle's (1993), definition of the 'space of vulnerability' shows *exposure* (risk of exposure to hazards) as the external side of vulnerability, whilst *capacity* (risk of inadequate capacity to mobilize resources to deal with hazards) and *potentiality* (the risk of severe consequences) form a more complex understanding of the internal side of vulnerability

Lipton (1992), describe *exposure* to Damaging Fluctuations (DF) (this is increased with size, frequency, earliness and bunching and correlates to what Watts and Bohle (1993), also describe as exposure), the *vulnerability to exposure* (this increases with unpredictability, co-variance with other DFs and exposure relatively to the portfolio of assets and activities, this correlates roughly to capacity), and *aversion* (this increases with exposure, vulnerability and experience, and correlates to potentiality). Furthermore, Clark, *et al.* (2000), define vulnerability "as the risk of adverse outcomes to receptors or exposure units (human groups, ecosystems, and

communities) in the face of relevant changes in climate, other environmental variables, and social conditions." Vulnerability has also been defined as "a human condition or process resulting from physical, social, economic and environmental factors, which determine the likelihood and scale of damage from the impact of a given hazard" (UNFPA, 2007).

2.5 Economic Vulnerability Impacts on Migrant Farmers

The economic loss to the individual and the family cannot be overstated (Beck, 1992). More recently, globalization has been seen as associated with increased but much more widely diffused levels of risk. This pattern is also thought to arise from the erosion of security deriving from traditional career patterns based on full-time employment over the life cycle (Beck, 1992). Intensified global competition and the overriding significance of competitiveness are thought to undermine the buffering capacity of the welfare state (Beck, 2000). The threat, if not the reality, of unemployment and resulting financial difficulties are considered to have become more pervasive and to extend substantially beyond the lower income class (Castells, 2000). Unemployment is a major life event. It can have a devastating impact on people's lives. It affects not just the unemployed person but also family members and the wider community. The impact of unemployment can be long-lasting. As unemployment becomes more long-term, its impact becomes more far reaching, often affecting living standards in retirement. Children of the unemployed are also affected owing to fewer opportunities as family income is reduced (Stendnecki, 1995). Land re-possession significantly reduces a person's income and, in the long-term, reduces their ability to save for future occurrences (Davis, Steven & Wachter, 2011). This is because employer as well as employee superannuation contributions are lost and the capacity to save from disposable income is lowered. The loss of income by the

parents can damage the prospects of the next generation (Mathers & Scholfield, 1998).

According to Human Rights Commission (2009), large-scale of land repossessions also entail risks of negative socioeconomic and environmental impacts in developing countries where the majority of the population lives in rural areas and depends on the land for its livelihood. While food insecurity has direct and indirect impacts on physical and mental health for people of all ages, food insecurity is especially detrimental to the health, development, and well-being of children in the short and long terms. (King, 2016). Children who live in low income households that are food insecure, even at the lowest levels, are likely to be sick more often, recover from illness more slowly, and be hospitalized more frequently (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2016). Inadequacy of healthy food can result in a child's capability to concentrate and perform well in school and is associated with higher levels of behavioural and emotional difficulties from pre-school through adolescence (Gregory & Coleman-Jensen, 2017). Food-insecure and low-income people are risk to malnutrition and obesity, due the factors associated with inadequate household resources as well as under-resourced communities (Hanson & Chen, 2007). This might include lack of access to healthy and affordable foods; cycles of food deprivation and overeating; high levels of stress, anxiety, and depression; fewer opportunities for physical activity; greater exposure to marketing of obesity-promoting products; and limited access to health care (Hanson & Chen, 2007).

2.6 Social Vulnerability Impacts on Migrant Farmers

Social vulnerability refers to the behaviour of a person or group in relation to their ability to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a hazard. It involves a combination of factors that determine the degree to which one's life and livelihood are put at risk by unconnected event in society (Sen, 1981). The concept of social vulnerability recognizes that individual risks are not equally distributed within society, and that this risk difference is not solely attributed to the hazard, but to inequalities and conditions that exist in everyday life, prior to the onset of a specific hazardous event (White, 1945).

Depression is one of the everyday life conditions that socially affects individuals during shocks and events that are detrimental to life (White & Fowler, 1945). It presents with depressed mood, loss of interest or pleasure, decreased energy, feelings of guilt or low self-worth, disturbed sleep or appetite, and poor concentration (Araya, et al., 2003). Moreover, depression often comes with symptoms of anxiety. These problems can become chronic or recurrent and lead to substantial impairments in an individual's ability to take care of his or her everyday responsibilities. At its worst, depression can lead to suicide (WHO, 2011). The degree of psychic pain of a person with depression can be understood if one considers that many patients prefer death to their suffering. In view of the fact that the overwhelming majority of people who commit suicide are persons with mental illness and especially depression, the need for screening for and early detection of depression in primary care services is unarguable (Patel, et al., 2010; Araya, et al., 2003).

Family homelessness is strongly linked to the inability to secure land for housing. The monetization of land has paved way for the high and middle income people to have access to land at the expense of the poor and vulnerable (Tipple,

1994). Homeless children are more likely to suffer than their housed peers from developmental delays; chronic and acute health problems; and behavioural, emotional, and mental health issues. Insufficient access to a nutritious diet negatively affects homeless students' classroom performance (Bassuk & Weinreb, 1993). Food insecure homeless and low-income children have worse physical and mental health, greater developmental delays, and poorer academic performance than their food-secure peers. Infants and toddlers are twice as likely to have fair or poor health, two-thirds more likely to experience developmental risk, and one-third more likely to be hospitalized if they are food insecure (Wood, 1989). Homeless children's academic performance is hampered both by their poor cognitive development and by the circumstances of their homelessness. First, homeless children experience developmental delays that hamper academic success at four times the rate of other children (Grant, 1990). They suffer from emotional and behaviour problems that affect learning at almost three times the rate of housed children. Homeless children experience twice the incidence of learning disabilities, such as speech delays and dyslexia, as other children.

The effects of neglect on individual development are pervasive, impair numerous domains of development, and have serious long-term consequences (MacMillan, 2000). The impact of neglect is evident in the behavioural, cognitive, and emotional development of children and we will begin with a discussion of emotional development. Many researchers have examined children's attachment with adults in relation to their neglect experience from families and neighbourhoods. Numerous studies have shown that the attachments formed by victims of neglect, are more likely to be compromised compared to those of housed (Crittenden, 1988; Schneider-Rosen, Brauwald, Carlson, & Cicchetti, 1985). Mothers with early experiences of neglect are

likely to repeat the maladaptive parenting practices that they experienced with their own children (Main & Goldwyn, 1984). This repetitive pattern can lead to intergenerational transmission of neglectful parenting. Peer relationships are another important aspect of development affected by neglect. Evidence suggests that successful peer interactions promote continued competence in multiple areas of development (Gaensbauer & Hiatt, 1984). Children who perform poorly with peers are likely to show evidence of incompetence in other social situations and difficulty adapting to changing social environments (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In general, maltreated children tend to lack social problem solving skills, conflict avoidance skills, and overall interpersonal skills (Fantuzzo, Weiss, Atkins, Meyers, & Noone, 1998). Specifically, neglected children tend to withdraw from social interactions with peers more frequently than other children (Fantuzzo, et al., 1998).

Adapting to school and acquiring academic skills is important for all children. Although the school setting can be supportive and a protective factor for children whose home environment is unsupportive (Masten, Best & Garnezy, 1990), unfortunately, the children most likely to fail in school are those whose family and past experiences have left them ill-prepared for the school setting (Masten et al., 1990), found that neglected children evidenced serious and diverse problems in school functioning. Teachers described these children as anxious, inattentive, unable to understand assigned work, lacking initiative, and being overly dependent upon teachers for approval, encouragement, and assistance. Dependence upon teachers, however, does not translate into good classroom behaviour for children as they are also rated as uncooperative with teachers and not empathic with peers (Erickson et al., 1989). In addition, neglected children tended to perform poorly academically. Neglected children score lower on standardized indices of academic ability, receive

lower grades, and are at high risk of retention compared to other children (Erickson et al., 1989). Neglected children tend to show delay in the areas of language and cognitive development, resulting in lower IQ and poorer school performance (Masten et al, 1990).

2.7 Livelihood Diversification of Migrant Farmers

Livelihood diversification is defined as the process by which rural families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in their struggle for survival and in order to improve their standards of living (Ellis, 2000). Very few people collect all their income from any one source, hold all their wealth in the form of any single asset, or use their assets in just one activity which makes diversification the norm (Barrett et al., 2001). Livelihood diversification can be seen as an attempt by individuals and households to find new ways to raise incomes and reduce environmental risk (Hussein & Nelson, 1998). From the definition by Ellis (2000), of rural livelihood diversification, it can be implied that prompted by survival or the need to improve their standard of living, households construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities. They combine a number of livelihood activities like agricultural crop production, livestock production, wage work, cottage industry etc. to provide or supplement income. The mix of activities will depend on a household's ability to access different livelihood opportunities (Ellis, 2000).

Peri-urban Ghana has seen major economic transformation, as households increasingly diversify their livelihoods by both increased migration and more local non-farm employment (Lay et al., 2007). Aduse-Poku et al. (2003), argue that rural livelihood options in Ghana include farming (crop production and animal rearing), gathering, hunting, trading, craft making, and public or civil service. Crop production

has become an interesting since marketing of the produce is easily for the rural dweller. Animals are mainly reared on free range in the rural areas for subsistence, however, some people engage in it commercially. The main factor hindering commercial animal production is attributed to the high initial capital for putting up structures, acquisition of veterinary products and high cost of feed to maintain the animals. Fishing is an important source of livelihood for people who have water sources and ponds constructed to produce fish for subsistence and commercial purposes. But fishing has become unsustainable since the various water sources are over exploited (Lay, et al., 2007).

As agriculture is perceived as crucial for the survival of households, it is not surprising that the first way to cope with the increasing difficulties in this sector is to resort to on-farm diversification. The Ministry of Food and Agriculture (2007), indicates that the evolution of cropped area and productivity for the main crops in West Gonja District in the Northern Region of Ghana between 1991 and 2006 had some crops such as maize, sorghum, millet and rice either declined or stagnated, while the production of groundnuts, yam, cassava and some newly introduced crops, as cowpeas and soybeans, significantly increased. Farmers introduced crops that are more resistant to droughts, and less dependent on fertilizers, given the increased variability in the pattern of rainfalls and the increase in the cost of fertilizers.

Intensification in the use of the land are other strategies that households adopt to increase their earnings from agricultural activities. Where the land is scarce, land intensification is the preferred approach, while abundance of fertile land induces farmers to extend the size of the plots they cultivate. Only in the two communities that we visited in the West Gonja district, farmers had the opportunity to shift to new plots, letting the old ones to fallow (Ministry of Food & Agriculture, 2007).

Aduse-Poku et al (2003), postulate that, with the introduction of “commercialization”, trading has become very popular in most rural economies in Ghana. Items traded in include food crops, local and imported products. Women and the youth used to do most of the selling; however, the trend is now changing since more men are getting involved. In some villages and towns, cottage industries such as pottery, woodcarving, soap making, basket weaving, palm oil extraction and food processing are found. Some rural dwellers that have some form of formal training are also employed in the public services such as teaching, nursing, or in providing services to the public. These people may be few due to lower levels of education in the rural areas.

According to Yaro, Teye and Torvikey (2017), mixing livelihood strategies for poorer people is essential, with a flexible response to on- and off-farm activities sustaining livelihoods. Yet for many this is a marginal and vulnerable existence, as petty trade, casual work and farming of small plots offer few opportunities for accumulation. In all sites, there is a growing pattern of social differentiation, with richer elites accumulating land, resulting in a progressive proletarianisation for others.

Adi (2013), pointed out that, in most cases, a household has one distinct occupation which it considers primary and to which more labour and time are allocated relative to other activity or activities, and identified four major patterns of livelihood in rural Nigeria as:

- *Farming*: Farming is the mainstay of households’ livelihood and almost 90percent of households participate in farming on a commercial and or subsistence basis. Where land is scarce as in Nguru, subsistence farming on own farm or on rented farm is quite common. Farming system in the entire region follows the mixed cropping pattern that is based on either roots or

tubers planted in small farm holdings. Major food crops produced in most areas include cassava, yam and cocoyam. Maize is the only widely grown cereal with other crops such as banana, plantain, pawpaw, pepper and mango being grown in areas where there is land availability. The chief cash crop is the oil palm.

- *Commerce*: Trading is the second largest activity and it includes the sale of different types of farm produce at the village market squares, sale of imported food and clothes. There are two distinguishable classes in commerce. The first and most predominant is the class of petty traders who operate during weekly village markets and engage in other activities on non-market days. The second class is the relatively wealthier households who are able to own shops which are in most cases operated with household labour. This class is usually more stable in operation with a relatively higher longevity.
- *Skilled Non-Farm Activities*: Skilled non-farm activities refer to occupations for which requisite training is received by the household in the form of formal education or vocational training, which could be in the formal or informal sector. It encompasses the range of occupations found in the villages such as teaching, carpentry, and painting among others.
- *Low Skilled Non-Farm Activities*: Activities that fall under this category are not easily identifiable. However, they can be broadly referred to as artisans, casual workers, and labourers and all other menial tasks. Because activities that fall under this category is the riskiest, very few households fully depend on it.

Though Hussein and Nelson (1998), propose the classifications of livelihood activities into: (i) farm versus non-farm; (ii) on-farm versus off-farm activities; (iii) local versus migratory and (iv) self-employment versus wage labour, Barrett et al., (2001), notes that inconsistent terminology is common source of confusion when discussing livelihood diversification with the terms “off farm”, “non-farm”, “non-agricultural”, “non-traditional”, etc. being used routinely in seemingly synonymous ways. The use of the term “rural nonfarm income” sometimes refers to nonfarm income (earned anywhere) by rural households, and other times they mean the nonfarm income earned only in rural areas by rural households. There is need for clarity in the definitions use in the study of diversification behaviours (Barrett et al., 2001).

Rural non-farm economy which comprises all non-agricultural activities that generate income to rural households can be classified on many dimensions such as: on-farm/off-farm, wage/self-employment, agriculturally related/otherwise (Davis, 2004). The ideal classification should capture activities closely linked to farming and the food chain, those producing goods and services for the local and distant market, and those producing for distant markets as well as those that are sufficiently large, productive and have capital to generate incomes above returns obtainable from farming (Davies, 2004). Wage labour refers to the provision of work force to agricultural or non-agricultural enterprises owned by non-household employers. Though employment opportunities may be available locally (local wage labour) or in spatially distant areas from the places of residence which may entail seasonal or long-term migration (migratory wage labour), both types of wage labour are diversification strategy which complements on-farm production in meeting household consumption needs as well as re-capitalization of impoverished farms (Warren, 2002).

Self-employment enterprises refer to activities undertaken by mobilizing labour plus other household capital assets such as savings and land. These can be agricultural enterprises often based on innovative on-farm agricultural activities or non-agricultural enterprises focusing on activities such as processing of agricultural commodities, petty-trading, handicraft, cottage manufacturing (Davis, 2004).

Migration is another livelihood strategy increasingly pursued by rural households. It may be seasonal, circular, rural-urban or international mediated by capital endowment of migrants and their households (De Haan & Zoomers, 2005). De Haan and Zoomers (2005), suggest that “household members who migrate can facilitate investments in new activities by providing liquidity, in the form of remittances, as well as income security, in the form of a promise to remit to the household in the event of an adverse income shock.” This means migrant remittances can be useful in relieving rural credit constraints which may be viewed as a livelihood diversification strategy, as they are a source of income not related to household income from agriculture.

Despite little consensus on the degree to which remittances is used for rural investment, it is widely agreed that migration forms a central part of rural people’s risk mitigation strategies. Therefore, migration though often ignored and sometimes blocked by policy and institutions, is a very important factor of diverse rural livelihoods that can lead to improved rural livelihoods (De Haan & Zoomers, 2005).

Reciprocity is exchanges between people that have close network relationships. It is based on people constituting a group because they are related by a common substance (Fiske, 1991) such as families and friendship relationships. It can also be seen among people in social organizations and ethnic networks. Trust is what engineers the exchanges that take place and they are rooted in long range relations

(Polanyi, 1977). According to Fiske (1991), its features can be captured in three words: kin, kind and kindness. Reciprocity is based on institutions dependent on familial or social obligations which may not necessarily be based on a two-way transfer of equivalent value of the market system (Carroll & Stanfield, 2003). Thus, in such relationships, exchanges are not always linear, what a person gives is not what the person might receive in return. The favour received from a person might be repaid to a close friend or relative of that person. The exchanges are normally through voluntary cooperation which is loosely sustained by social and cultural customs (Harvey, 1973).

The general ideology within the reciprocity system is that people with common identifiable elements like families, kinship, common places of origin and organizations are believed to be linked to each other in a group. Group members are dependent on each other for favours and each seeks to the welfare of the other (Carroll & Stanfield, 2003). People's eligibility to the reciprocity system is strictly on the linkage to these elements listed above. It is difficult to be counted as a member of a group if you are not linked to the specified elements. This creates total exclusions for those who are not considered as part of the group. Inclusion to locally formed organizations or traditionally instituted systems is based on defined rules set by the group and willingness to be part of the group by the individual (Polanyi, 1977).

Within the group, members are further bound by norms of beliefs which grease the bondage. The willingness to be part also means obeying the rules set by the system. In most cases, the rules are in defense of members of the group against people outside. They include taboos and norms which are associated with sanctions should they be flouted. The norms and the taboos set a restricted parameter or limit which is difficult to extend. People within a reciprocity group are bound by a code or a symbol of oneness, hence their willingness to receive and return favours among themselves. When one gives, the person

does not expect to receive the same thing in exchange. Since they see themselves as similar, they are usually not in competition with each other, hence their eagerness to provide needs and accumulate less wants (Carroll & Stanfield, 2003).

In investigating rural livelihood strategies, it is important to note that as Warren (2002), points out that: “It would be misleading to see the growth in rural nonfarm activities in isolation from agriculture, as both form part of complex livelihood strategies adopted by rural households. High levels of income diversification are the norm among rural households. Rural nonfarm activities are often countercyclical with agriculture and, as such, may serve as a consumption smoothing or risk insurance mechanism, particularly when the returns to these activities are not highly-correlated with agricultural returns, and may also absorb excess labour during agricultural off-peak periods. Given the small-scale, informal and homebased nature of some rural nonfarm self-employment activities, they are often heralded as a promising strategic complement to agriculture for rural poverty alleviation.”

2.8 Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

Any strategy or means by which individuals make living is referred to as livelihood. This broadens the livelihood concept, incorporating varied explanations with regards to how people make their living. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources claim and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks maintain or enhance its capabilities an asset, provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Chambers and Conway definition of livelihood has been embraced

and acknowledged by researchers and its central focus is the relationships between assets people possess in practice to pursue alternative strategies that can create the income level desirable for survival.

The SLA has two key components: a set of principles to guide action to address and overcome poverty and the other hands, an outline that understands the poverty complexities (DFID, 1999), intervention interventions should be people centred, responsive and participatory, multi-level, conducted in partnership, sustainable and dynamic. The SLA illustrates vulnerability context, assets institutions and processes, livelihood strategies and outcomes components and their interrelationship in the framework. It does not work in a direct manner and does not endeavour to provide an exact representation of reality. Rather, it seeks to provide a way of analysing livelihoods of poor people that arouse arguments and reflection about the many factors that influence livelihoods, how they interrelate and their relative significance within a particular setting (DFID, 2000).

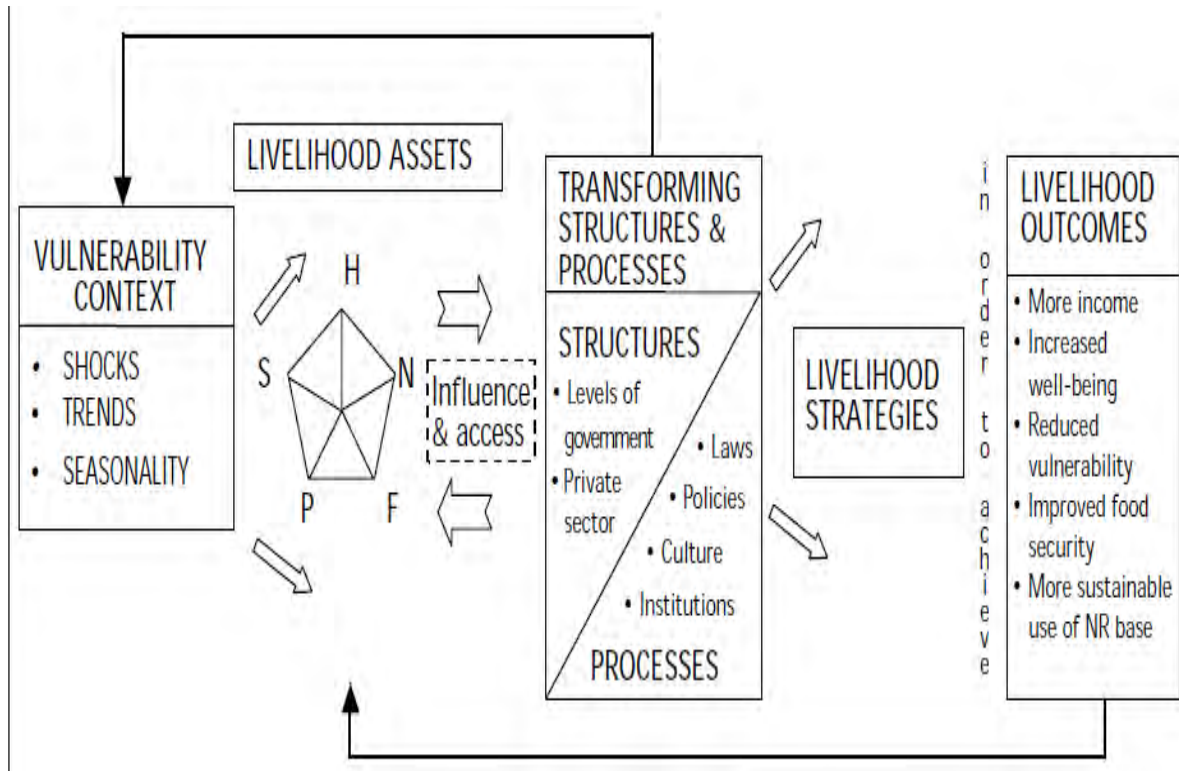


Figure 1: Sustainable livelihood framework

Source: DFID, Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheet (2000)

The SLA emphasizes on people, particularly rural and peri-urban poor as the focal point of a web of inter-related influences that affect the way these people build a livelihood for themselves and their households. At the disposal to the people are the resources and livelihood assets that they possess and use (DFID, 2000). These include natural resources, technologies, their skills, knowledge and capacity, their health, access to education, sources of credit or their networks of social support. The extent of their access to these assets is highly affected by their vulnerability context, which takes account of trends (for example, economic, political, and technological), shocks (for example, epidemics, natural disasters, civil strife) and seasonality (for example, prices, production, and employment opportunities). Access to the resources and assets is also predisposed by the prevailing social, institutional and political environment,

which influences the ways in which people pool and use their assets to realize their goals or livelihood strategies (DFID, 2000).

2.9 Livelihood Assets

Livelihood assets refer to any object or material that help to create or facilitate in the creation of a livelihood is called a livelihood asset (Messer & Townsley, 2003). Scoones (1998), argues that assets are the basic material and social, tangible, and intangible assets that people use for building their livelihoods which are conceptualized as different types of „capital“ to stress their role as a resource base “from which different productive streams are derived”. Livelihood resources and assets are the inputs to the livelihood system (Niehof & Price, 2001) and resources are direct means needed for livelihood generation. It develops accurate and realistic understanding of people’s strengths (assets or capital endowments) and how they attempt to change these into positive livelihood outcomes (DFID, 2000). In a legal or accounting sense, ‘assets’ are something that can be balanced against ‘debts’ (ICRA, 2012). Soussa, Blaikie Springate-Baginski and Chadwick (2001), also consider livelihood assets as inputs of production available to a given individual, household or group that are used in their livelihood activities. These assets are the foundation on which livelihoods are developed and, in broad sense, the greater and more diverse the asset base the higher and more durable the level of social security. According to DFID (2000), the asset pentagon lies at the pivotal point of the livelihoods framework, ‘within’ the vulnerability context. The pentagon is built to have a visual presentation of people’s assets in order to establish important inter-relationships between the various assets. The DFID (2000), suggests five livelihood assets: Human capital, Social capital, Physical capital Natural Capital Financial capital.

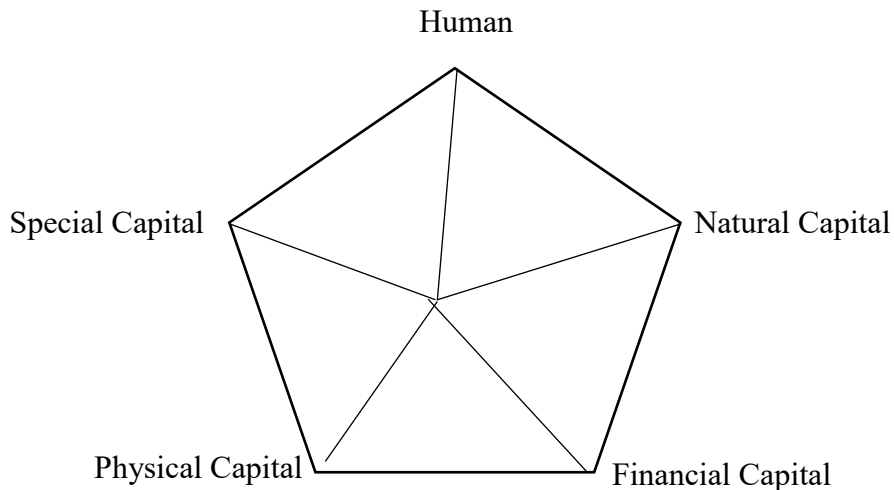


Figure 2: Livelihood assets

Source: DFID (2000)

The Human Capital

Human capital demonstrates the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that are combined to develop varied livelihood strategies in order to achieve their livelihood goals. The household human capital is a factor of the quantity and quality of labour available, and this influenced by household size, skill levels, leadership potential, health status, and so on (DFID,1999). Human capital is therefore the part of human resources determined and influenced by people’s qualities such as personalities, attitudes, aptitudes, skills, knowledge and physical, mental and spiritual health. Human capital is essential for not only for its intrinsic value, but also its extrusive value in a holistic way (Natural Resources Institute, 2000).

The Social Capital

Contemporarily debate on social capital focuses on family interconnectedness (Carney, 1999). According to Carney (1999), social capital is ‘‘combination of the actual or social resources which are linked to the possessions of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintances or recognitions’’. In the context of sustainable livelihood framework, social capital refers to the social

resources upon which people draw to pursue their livelihood objectives (DFID, 2000). These are established through: networks and connectedness, either vertical (patron/client) or horizontal (between individual with shared interests) that deepens people's trust and ability to work together and broaden their access to wider institutions, such as political or social organizations; membership of more formalized groups which often involves loyalty to mutually-agreed or commonly accepted rules, norms and sanctions; and relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges that facilitate co-operation, reduce transaction costs and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor. The issue of social capital is inter-related. For example, group members and associations can extensively spread people's access to and influence other institutions. Whiles trust is likely to develop between people who are connected through kinship relations or otherwise (DFID, 2000). With trust, poor people for instance, can access loans, land and housing during short-term vulnerability such as ill-health, demolition, and land re-possession (Carney, 1998).

The Physical Capital

Physical capital is basically the infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods (NRI, 2000). Infrastructure is changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive. Producer goods are the tools and equipment that people use to function more productively (NRI, 2000). These include affordable transport; secure shelter and buildings, adequate water supply and sanitation, clean, affordable energy; and access to information communications (DFID, 2000). Physical capital or assets such as housing type, sanitation, sources of drinking water and cooking are also often used as proxy indicators of household well-being. Physical capital is derived from the resources generated by people, such as buildings, roads, transport, drinking water, electricity,

communication systems among others, as well as equipment and machinery for producing further capital (NRI, 2000).

Financial Capital

Financial capitals are the financial resources such as flows as well as stocks that people use to achieve their livelihood purposes and contribute to consumption and production (NRI, 2000). However, it has been embraced to include an important livelihood building block, such as the availability of cash or money that enables people to pursue different livelihood strategies (NRI, 2000). DFID (2000), classified financial capital under two main components; available stocks and regular inflow of money. Available stocks are savings preferred type of financial capital because they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms such as cash, bank deposits or liquid assets as well as livestock and jewellery. It can also be obtained through credit-providing institutions. Regular inflow of money excluding earned income, are pensions, or other transfers from the state, and remittances. In order to make a positive contribution to financial capital these inflows must be reliable (while complete reliability can never be guaranteed there is a difference between a one-off payment and a regular transfer on the basis of which people can plan investments). The financial resources available to people (savings, supplies of credit, or regular remittances or pensions) provide them with different livelihood options (NRI, 2000). The residents in the study areas in Akim Oda mainly save their money obtained from informal jobs such as farming, rearing of animals, retailing construction works as cash, bank deposit or rotational savings. The residents are also assisted and cushioned by Co-operatives Societies such as Oda Farmers' Co-operative Associations.

Natural Capital

Natural capital describes the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services (e.g. nutrient cycling, erosion protection) significant for livelihoods are obtained (Natural Resources Institute, 2000). There is a wide variation in the resources that make up natural capital, from intangible public goods such as the atmosphere and biodiversity to divisible assets used directly for production (DFID,2000). Natural capital can be measured in terms of quantity and quality (for example acreage, diversity and fertility). It is important not only for its environmental benefits, but also because it is the essential basis of many rural economies in providing food, building material, fodder, and so forth. (Natural Resources Institute, 2000).

Land is a natural asset which has a multifaceted function in livelihood persuasions and development in the lives of the urban poor. Aside its function as food producer for households, a plot of land in peri-urban areas provides the urban poor housing and saves his or her income for renting. In peri-urban areas, access to land is essential for poverty reduction since it provides food and income households. Access to land close to road network encourages diverse livelihood strategies such as trading, farming and renting for income to improve living (Natural Resources Institute, 2000).

2.10 Vulnerability Context

People's lives are dynamic and from time to time move in and out of poverty due to changes and influences from the environment they live in (Carney, 1998). This environment is referred to as the vulnerability context which forms the external environment in which people exist and gain importance through direct impacts upon people's asset status (Ellis, 2000). It comprises trends (i.e. demographic trends; resource trends; trends in governance), shocks (i.e. human, livestock or crop health

shocks; natural hazards, like floods or earthquakes; economic shocks; conflicts in form of national or international wars) and seasonality (i.e. seasonality of prices, products or employment opportunities) (Ellis, 2000). People's livelihoods and assets are affected by trends, shocks and seasonality over which they have limited or no control (DFID, 2000). Vulnerability depends upon the assets that a household has and the extent to which the asset holders can adapt (Carney, 1998). Therefore, vulnerability is characterized as insecurity in the well-being of individuals, households, and communities in the face of changes in their external environment (Ellis, 2000).

2.11 Transforming Structures, Institutions and Processes

The sustainable livelihoods approach in the early years has concentrated on the 'asset pentagon' as its main focus in the framework (DFID, 2000). However, Scoones and Wolmer (2003), argue for the influence of policies, institutions and processes in access, control and use of assets, and the choice and interaction of different livelihood strategies in the framework. Assets are highly affected by the institutional and policy intervention that impact on the community, household and individual (Scoones & Wolmer, 2003). The issues of rights, power and institutions are significant in understanding policy formulation, that consequently has long-term repercussions for sustainable livelihoods (Carney, 2002). The worth and significant of assets such as land, vegetation and water are influenced by policies and laws that surround them and how they can be utilized. The ability of transforming an asset to another is influenced by structures, such as institutions and markets, and processes such as laws. For instance, the use of money (financial capital) to acquire a land is influenced by Ministry of Land and Forestry, Land Commission and Traditional Authority as institutions and structures. The capability to transform natural capital

into financial capital depends on the market (Scoones & Wolmer, 2003). Policies, institutions and processes also affect the livelihood strategies that people choose and how these strategies work (Scoones & Wolmer, 2003). For example, in a community where there is strong support from a marketing organization for a product, this will influence whether or not people choose to produce that product as a livelihood strategy. Access to land in the study area is influenced by Traditional authority as institution and conventions and customs surrounding land acquisition and possession as processes and laws. Residents in the study area undergo certain processes before acquiring land. Traditional customs and conventions also govern the use of the land.

2. 12 Livelihood Strategies of the Urban Poor

Ellis (2000), argues that livelihood strategy encompasses not only activities that generate income and improved food security but many other kinds of choices, including cultural and social choices that come together to make up the primary occupation of a household. Livelihood strategies are dynamic and change as the external environment over which people have little control, evolve as well as policies, institutions and processes, and access to land control over assets (Scoones, 1998). Traditional practices and behavioural habit to some extent produce unsustainable and unproductive livelihood strategies. However, at certain times, livelihood activities are introduced as coping strategies in worst situations (Scoones, 1998). Scoones (1998), categorized livelihood strategies under agricultural intensification and extension, income portfolio and migration. The agriculture intensification and extension explains the use of natural resources for agriculture as a livelihood strategy either by intensifying resource use or bringing more land into use. Scoones (1998), argues that livelihood diversification as a livelihood strategy, means

that people advance a wide income portfolio which are temporary or permanent, either to cope with adverse conditions or for accumulation and reinvestment. Scoones (1998), explains migrations livelihood strategies as activities that generate income and remittances.

However, Nowak (2003), postulates that livelihood diversification happens for certain motives other than as a coping strategy. She argues that diversification of livelihood occurs in order to take advantage of new opportunities, as a result of individual initiatives, seasonality, environmental and resource conservation and allocation of work amongst household members (Nowak, 2003). Livelihood diversification describes all livelihood activities, both subsistence and commercial, and both agricultural and non-agricultural (Carney, 1998). Carney (1998), classifies livelihood diversification into natural resource based, non-natural resource based and migration, while Ellis (2000), in his framework, categorizes livelihood strategies as natural resource based activities or non-natural resource based activities (including remittances and other transfers).

Comprehending the diverse and dynamic livelihood strategies is significant in order to have appropriate support. Obviously, introducing new activities and strategies is an option in urban development but where new higher income earning strategies replace traditional activities there may be a trade-off between higher short term income and long term security (Ellis, 2000). The study population adopts livelihood strategies which are broadly categorized into agriculture (crops and livestock), commercial activity (trading), remittance and wage employment (construction works) (Ellis, 2000).

2.13 Livelihood Outcomes

Livelihood outcomes are the achievements of livelihood strategies, such as more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and a more sustainable use of natural resources (DFID, 2000; Carney, 2002). These outcomes are usually a result of a combination of strategies people adopt at individual and community level and can show how people reacted to their context and utilized the various resources at their disposal. It is important to note that due the influence of structures and processes, different people and communities will combine resources differently to arrive at their desired livelihood outcomes. Therefore, the SL approach facilitates an understanding of the linkages between people's livelihood strategies, their asset status, and their way of using available natural resources.

2.14 Critique of Sustainable Livelihood Approach

The sustainable livelihoods approach, in its diverse forms, has been accepted by a number of organizations, government, non-government and multi-lateral, as a basis for development research and practice. The similarities and level of agreement amongst the writers and organizations that have been involved with the approach is remarkable.

However, while this approach already has, and is likely to have further significant impact on rural development in the future, there have been concerns raised, and there are differences of opinion over what is or is not important to include in the conceptual frameworks that have been and are being developed. Equally important and just as controversial is the way that the frameworks describe and portray the relationships between the factors. While some of these issues may seem trivial when we consider the wider picture, it is important that the frameworks accurately describe, and are appropriate for, the context in which they are used.

One of the dangers of this type of approach is that by representing the reality and complexity of a livelihood system in a simple and logical way, the relationships between the factors and the relative importance of some aspects are lost. Most of the research and use of the approach has so far been carried out in Asia and Africa, little work has been published on the Pacific. The nature of poverty in the Pacific Islands is very different to Asia and Africa, and the influence of culture and the traditional sector is very strong in the Pacific Islands. The approach is in its early days at this stage and further benefits and disadvantages will emerge over time. However, the following concerns and critiques are already evident and could limit the usefulness and impact of the approach.

One of the major concerns is that the sustainable livelihoods approach is too complex and difficult to implement. In this respect it could have the same problems as the Integrated Rural Development approach of the 1970s (Carney, 1999; DFID, 2000) that attempted to establish integrated programmes in rural areas that addressed multiple issues such as agricultural support, health, education and the building of infrastructure. The sustainable livelihoods approach is similar to the Integrated Rural Development approach in that it works across sectors, and is rural and community based. However, intervention in the sustainable livelihoods approach can be selective, and it is acknowledged that not all the constraints and possible support mechanisms.

2.15 Summary of the Literature Review

The discussions in this chapter explore land tenure and ownership system in Ghana, drawing the various land interest and categories. With respect to the categorization of land, customary land includes stool land, family land and individual lands, and its control and management is flexible as compared to the state lands. As a result, migrants access lands from land owners through leasing under sharecropping

arrangements and conditions. However, the demand and monetization of land for land-use activities such as residential industrial and commercial agriculture results in land re-possession from the migrant farmers. The process increases the vulnerability of the migrant farmer by losing farm products and income thereby employing diverse livelihood strategies. The chapter also discussed the SLA with its main components including assets, vulnerability context, institutions and processes, livelihood strategies and outcomes. However, the SLA is criticized by researchers for being simple and unrealistic for studying poverty and vulnerability issues of the poor (Scoones, 1998).

The increasing population and urbanization in urban peripheries has resulted in tremendous land use and land change activities (Buxton, 2014). The demand for land in the peri-urban areas is influenced by the fact that peri-urban lands are inexpensive and suitable for specific land use activities for high and middle income earners (Owusu & Agyei, 2007). It is also argued that the increasing demand for peri-urban lands is as a result of the economic gains on the part of land-owners for releasing repossessed land to businessmen for higher (Owusu & Agyei, 2007).

This is the case of the study areas where lands originally used by migrant farmers for livelihood have been repossessed by land-owners for housing and industrial activities, leaving the migrant farmers in vulnerable conditions, they therefore undertake diverse survival livelihood strategies. The empirical analysis focusing on the study areas is specifically to highlight the motives behind land re-possession. The study therefore looks at sustainable livelihood approach through the perspective of the migrant farmer to examine the extent of vulnerability impacts, diverse survival livelihood strategies employed to secure food, possess more income, reduced vulnerability and increased well-being This study therefore does not only highlight the numerous land use changes that occur in urban fringe of Akim Oda but it

also looks at the way many migrant farmers are made at least temporarily vulnerable at the period their migrant lands are frequently re-possessed by the land owners.

Figure 3 summarizes analytical processes of the empirical study in chapter 4

2.16 The Conceptual Framework Sustainable Livelihood Framework

The conceptual framework examines the vulnerability of migrant farmer taking into consideration the shocks, trends and seasonality that affect his asset (land), livelihood strategies that are employed and utilized to make a living and outcomes that make his life sustainable. The chapter uses the conceptual framework as the main concept to discuss the research questions.

The framework below starts on the notion that the urban poor possess a number of assets (land resource) which help them in the pursuit of their daily livelihoods. The assets they possess are greatly influenced by the actions or inactions of the vulnerability context. Shocks such as tenancy agreement and arrangements where there is no written agreement on land leased to the migrant farmer causes termination of the agreement thereby repossessing the land without difficulties. This causes uninformed re-possession of land by landowner because no formal arrangement on the use of the land. Trends such as urbanization and industrialization have resulted economic growth in urban and per-urban areas which have caused the demand of land originally farmlands for land use activities such as residential, commercial and agricultural plantations. Buxton (2014), argues that the high demand of peri-urban lands is as a result of the increasing population and urbanization thereby leading industrialization and expansion of residential buildings. The expansion of communication mask in per-urban areas has also caused land re-possession since the companies offer huge sum of money to land-owners.

At the centre of the framework are vulnerable groups, migrant farmers. The migrants are *abusa* labourers or tenants who are entitled to two thirds share while the landlord is entitled to two thirds. The *abusa* labourers applied to cases of already established farm where the labourer is engaged as a migrant and supplied with inputs to manage the farm and rewarded with a third of the proceeds from the harvest (Hill, 1963). In the case of *abusa*, the migrant-farmer bears the expense of clearing and cultivating the virgin forest land allocated by the landlord and consequently receives two-third share (Amanor & Diderutuah, 2001) of either the physical farm or proceeds. However, under the *abusa* system, migrant farmers have no ownership rights over the land, and the contract can be terminated and the land re-possessed for developmental projects when needed. (Ministry of Lands & Forestry, 2003). The study explores the influence of migrant farmer's vulnerability drawing from distance away from the urban areas and peri-urban areas.

Livelihood diversification is the combinations of strategies employed by migrant farmers. In the framework, the study explores alternative livelihood strategies by exploring alternative strategies that provide a long term and permanent livelihoods to the poor as well as coping strategies that cushion migrant's life temporarily (Brown, 2002). The last section of the study details the livelihood outcomes that sustainably improve migrant farmers' livelihood. It dwells on the livelihood strategies to analyse the various outcomes.

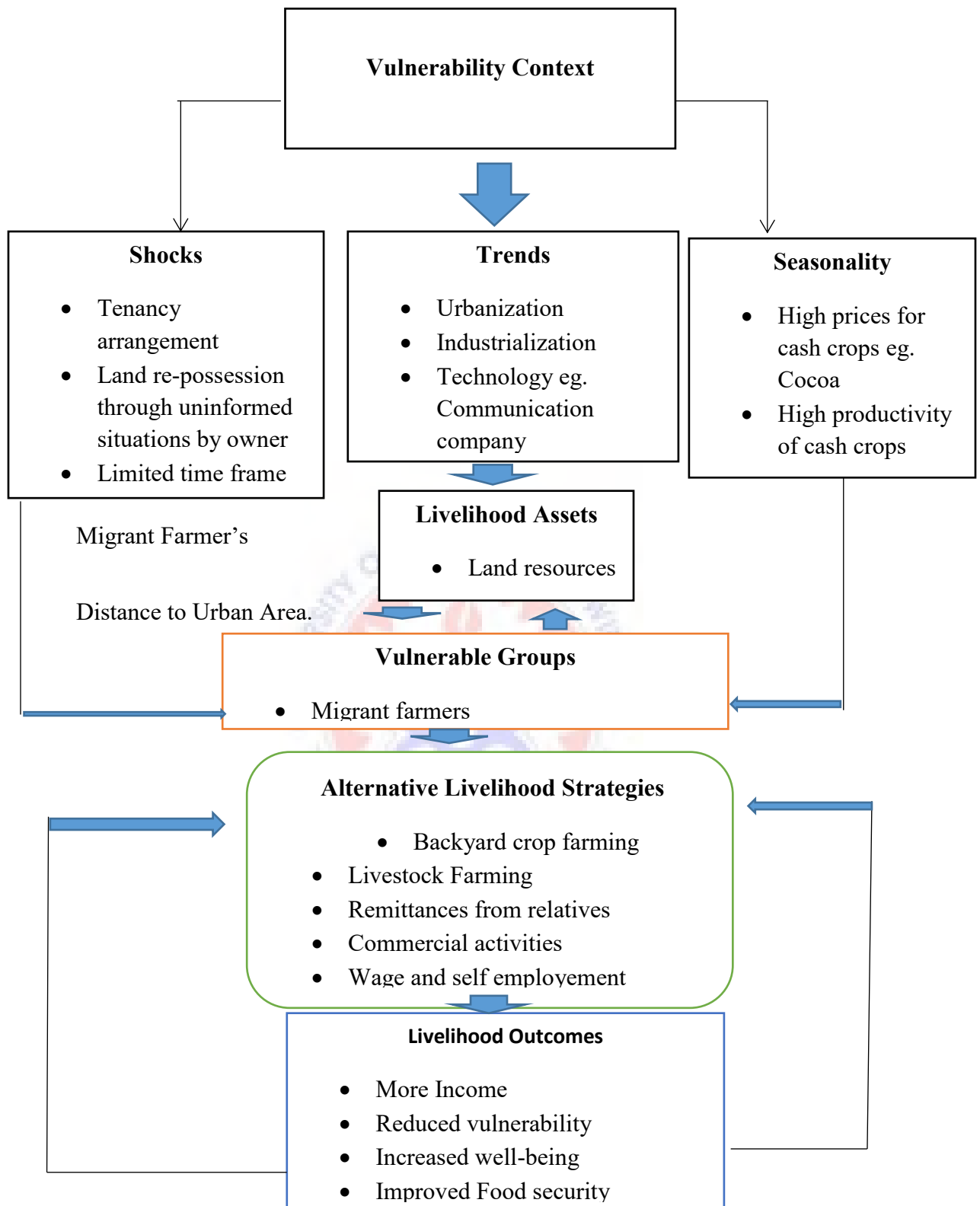


Figure 3: Conceptual framework for research analysis

Source: Author's adaptation of DFID (2000) SLA

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the study area with regards to its agricultural potential as well as economic and social opportunities and challenges. It also discusses the methodology adopted by the study to arrive at the data as well as processes of analysis, interpretations and display of the findings.

3.1 Study Area

The Birim Central Municipality is in the south-western corner of the Eastern Region with Akim Oda as its capital. It has a total land area of 1,090 sq/km and stretches on latitude 5.55'36"N and longitudes 0.59'9" (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The Municipality shares boundaries with Akyemansa and Kwaebibirem (to the North), Birim South District (to the West), Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa and Agona East Districts (to the South) and West Akim (to the East).

Map of Birim Central Municipal

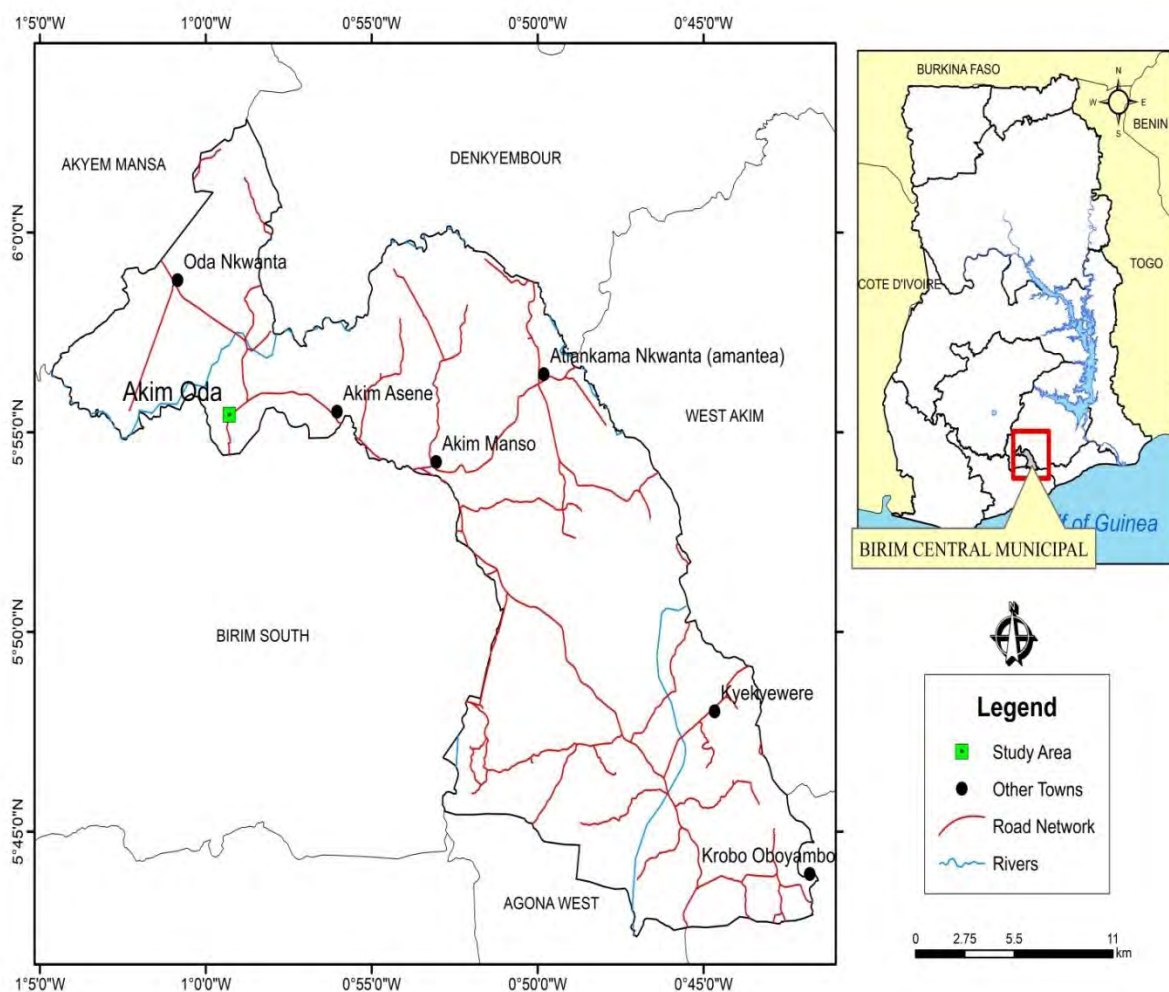


Figure 4: Map of Birim Central Municipal

Source: Researcher's construct 2019.

3.1.1 Socio-economic characteristics of the area

It is predominantly a nuclear household type of locality constituting about two-third of the total number of households in the Municipality. The Municipal has a total population of 144,869 with 47.1 percent males and 52.9 percent females (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The Municipality is predominantly urban with more than two thirds (67.7%) of the population residing in urban localities. The population of

the Municipality is youthful, with 39 percent of the population below 15 years. The Municipality however, has a relatively small number (6.9%) of elderly people (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). About half (46.3%) of migrants in the Municipality are people from other localities in the Eastern and Central region (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Close to two-third (63.0%) of land and house ownership are clans and families while, (23.7%) are individuals.

3.1.2 Economic characteristics

The major economic activities are agriculture (50.9%), trade and commerce (20.1%), industry (13.1%) and services (hotels, banking etc.). These figures show that agriculture is the mainstay of the district's economy employing about 60 percent of the active labour force (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). With agriculture, the major crops cultivated are staples such maize, cassava, rice, cocoyam, yam and plantain. Major cash crops produced are citrus, oil palm and cocoa. Cattle, sheep, goat, pig, and poultry are the major animals reared in the Municipality. However, production is on a small scale. Commercial activities in the Municipality are principally centered on wholesale and retail trading in primary commodities. These activities are undertaken mostly at the markets and lorry parks serving as income generating avenue for the Assembly. Major industrial activities in the Municipality include small-scale manufacturing, agro-processing, furniture works, construction, soap making and crafts, Mining and Quarrying. Tourism is a prominent economic activity in the Municipality. The Municipality fortunately falls within the eight (8) Tourism Development Zones of the Country and offers very beautiful landscape and historic places The Municipality has nine (9) Forest Reserves endowed with various species of flora and fauna. The Big Tree is one of the major attractions in Birim Central Municipal district. It measures 12 meters in circumference and 66.5 meters tall and

believed to be the biggest in West Africa. The tree is in the Esen Epan Forest Reserve near Akim Aproxumasi in Birim Central Municipal. It is a protected area of importance for wildlife, flora, fauna or features of geological or other special interest, which is reserved and managed for conservation and to provide special opportunities for study or research.

3.1.3 Selecting Study Areas

An urban and community based study was employed for the study. The definition of urban changes from country to country, as well as the periodic classification. 'Urban is an area characterized by administrative functions or political boundaries (e.g., area within the jurisdiction of a municipality or town committee), a threshold population size (where the minimum for an urban settlement is typically in the region of 2,000 people, although this varies globally between 200 and 50,000), population density, economic function (e.g., where a significant majority of the population is not primarily engaged in agriculture, or where there is surplus employment) or the presence of urban characteristics (e.g., paved streets, electric lighting, sewerage)' (UN-Habitat, 2011). In Ghana, an urban town describes any locality with a population of 20,000 or more populations (GSS, 2010). However, a community is geographically demarcated unit within a larger society with common people that share the same basic values, organization and interests (Berg and Lune, 2004). The urban town selected for the study is a formal local government area with population of 51,231 comprising 24,059 males and 27,172 (GSS, 2010). It has administrative structures with General Assembly that consists of 58 members with the Presiding Member as a Chairperson and the Municipal Chief Executive as the administrative head. Oda is the capital town of Birim Central Municipal and performs economic (agriculture, trading, lumbering etc.), social (education, hospital etc.) and

cultural functions. Oda was selected because it is the second fast growing town within the Eastern Region enclave surpassing in terms of infrastructure and housing. It is also the traditional head of Kotoku Traditional Area with total land area of 1,090 km². Its rich tourism site, the Big Tree has attracted people from different places and has facilitated infrastructure and housing development in Oda.

The communities selected for the study are Asene and Aboabo. Both are fast growing communities in terms of population, infrastructure and housing development. Both areas are termed as peri-urban communities. Peri-urban communities are described as areas between consolidated urban and rural regions with population between 5,000 and 19,999 (GSS, 2010). However, they are considered small towns and communities because they lack certain social amenities such as hospitals, schools (second cycle schools), pipe borne water facilities etc. as compared to Oda as an urban town. Both are peri-urban communities because their population exceed 5000. Asene has a total population of 14,671 representing 6,885 males and 7,786 females while Aboabo has a total population of 10,340 consisting 4,701 males and 5,639 females. They are individual geographical communities selected on the basis of their unique characteristics on account of economic activities specifically agriculture and land acquisition procedures. Asene and Aboabo are communal land ownership communities of which land is owned by chiefs, clans and families. Indigenes and migrants access land through sharecropping system of abunu and abusa system. The abunu (literally means divide into two) is arrangement between parties whereby the land owner gives out land to farmers to plant and care for a period; where the farm products are split equally between the parties. While the abusa, (literally means divide into three) is an agreement between parties whereby the land owner gives out land to farmers, where the products are split into three. The migrants in the

communities are abusa labourers who work on established cocoa farms, and received a third of the cocoa harvest each year for maintaining, harvesting and processing the seeds. Asene and Aboabo are farming communities which engage in cash crop production (cocoa and oil palm), cereal (rice and maize), root and tuber (plantain, cassava) and vegetables (garden eggs, okro etc.). Although the two peri-urban communities have similar cultural and economic and social characteristics, there are distinct differences between the two. Asene is separated from Aboabo by road network and has unique land tenure and population institution. Having acknowledged the areas of research interest by most researchers in Ghana, thus, the big cities, the researcher wanted to deviate from this norm by comparing larger town to smaller towns. Oda is a larger town characterized by dense population with increasing housing development whiles Asene and Aboabo are communities with unique cultural and social characteristics and also fast housing development communities in the Municipality.

The basis for the comparative study was to assist the researcher to reduce the generalization of what constitute a town and community in term of land acquisition and livelihood strategies in Ghana. The method provides a holistic understanding of what happens in the study areas. However, a comparative study could also result in loss of detailed information which would have been possible in undertaking one case study research. But the merits of undertaking a comparative study far overshadow the limitation of concentrating on one community in this study.

Oda and the two communities were chosen based on defined criteria for larger towns and smaller towns. However, the concentration of migrant and indigenous farmers in the Municipality was considered relevant in selecting communities. Thus, the relation to land tenure rights as well as the distinction between small towns and

big cities regarding the recognition given by the respective district assemblies were the reasons for the selection. Oda as the capital head of Municipality was selected to represent migrant farmers who are migrants due to fast flow of people into the area for job opportunities. It is because lands are owned by traditional authorities, clans and individuals which can be released to migrants for farming activities. The two communities, Asene and Aboabo represent the indigenous farmer. However, there are migrant farmers who find their way into the communities due to the rich nature of lands for farming activities. But land acquisition arrangements with indigenous farmers are far different from that of the migrant farmers. While a migrant farmer is required to pay about Ghs500, for land acquisition, an indigenous farmer pays just a bottle of wine due to relations they have. With the differences and similarities among the communities clearly identified, the study was set to undertake a collective case study research which involves a comparison of a larger town and two communities on owner re-possession and its effect on livelihood of migrants in the Birim Central Municipality.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a case study design. The case study design involves a careful and complete observation of a social unit, be that unit a person, a family, an institution, a cultural group or even the entire community (Kothari, 2004). According to Russell and Gregory (2003), a case study is a type of design used in research to analysis detailed and focused description of a single phenomenon within a specified coverage. For Yin (2003), it is an empirical study on contemporary issue within its real-life context. Tuckett (2004), views case studies in a single theme context, while emphasizing the narrowness of scope but with intensity or in-depth of findings. A case study offers an opportunity to study a particular subject, such as one

organization, in depth, or a group of people, and usually involves gathering and analysing information (Russell & Gregory, 2003). Kothari (2004), argues that case study design allows a researcher to examine a single social unit or more of such units for his study purpose more comprehensively. A researcher can conduct a single case study or collective case studies, thus focusing on more than one case studies during the research period, as is the case of this research. A collective case study involves a comparison of several related cases (Russell & Gregory, 2003) which allow the researcher to explore both the differences and similarities within the selected study areas (VanWynsberghe, & Khan, 2007). For this study, a case study design was used to analysis the extent of vulnerabilities of migrant farmers, alternative livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes.

3.3 Research Approach

The study adopts the mixed method approach. Creswell (2002), argues that a mixed-methods approach provides a more comprehensive answer to the research questions of the study. The researchers argue that a research that integrates different methods is more likely to produce better results in terms of quality and scope. According to Thomas (2003), the mixed-methods approach goes beyond the limitations of a single approach because it integrates both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

This study adopted a mixed method approach that is, a blend of quantitative and qualitative approaches to examine and analyze the reasons of owner re-possession of land, extent of vulnerability of migrant farmers, alternative livelihood strategies employed and livelihood outcomes Birim Central Municipal. Questionnaire were administered and presented in the form of tables, bar graphs and pie charts to show reasons of land re-possession, extent of vulnerability, alternative strategies and

livelihood outcomes. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to key informants such as land-owners, farmers, traditional rulers and officials from Birim Central Municipal Assembly. The essence of this combination was to analyse reasons of land re-possession and livelihoods of migrant farmers in the Municipality using numerical values and also provide a detailed descriptive analysis of the migrants' livelihood strategies and outcomes. Again, it is also for the fact that a mixture of descriptive or attribute and numerical data helps to triangulate findings emerging from each method.

3.4 Data Sources

According to Creswell (2003), two types of data can be collected, primary and secondary data. Primary data is recognized as a data that is gathered for a specific research in response to a particular problem through, for example, interviews, questionnaires or observation. Secondary data information can be obtained through various kinds of documents. For example, research reports, annual reports, books and articles. For this, the study researcher has chosen to use both primary and secondary data collection method. Questionnaire and interview methods were used as primary data collection method. That is a primary data collection method which provided researcher with a deeper knowledge of the respondents in this study. Secondary data was collected and used for background information regarding the topic owner re-possession land and its effects on livelihood of migrants of lands. The secondary data were sourced from Ghana Statistical Service, Birim Central Municipal Assembly and other academic articles and studies concerning the subject of land ownership and livelihood of migrants.

3.5 Population of the Study

The population of reference for the study was the Birim Central Municipal area. This study gathered data from Birim Central Municipal area, specifically Akim Oda and two of its suburb communities, Asene and Aboabo. Findings from this study and the consequent interpretations would be inferred on the Municipality. The study areas constituted the target population for the study. In specifics, the study considered migrant farmers for quantitative data and land-owners, chiefs, agriculture extension officers, Municipal officials for the qualitative data.

3.6 Sampling

Sampling is an element of data collection, and is defined by Curlette (2006), as the fragment or section of the population that is selected for the research process. Ary et al (2010) however, warn that the sample size and selection are major concerns for researchers when designing and planning the research design.

3.6.1 Sample size

Sampling frame refers to the list of units or elements in the universe from which the respondents are selected (Creswell, 2003). The sample frame for the study was registered migrant farmers at the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Birim Central Municipal Assembly. A total list of 1023 registered migrant farmers in the Municipality was obtained from the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Birim Central Municipal. In order to obtain a representative sample size to avoid issues of biases or errors in study outcomes, scholars have proposed formula to determine a sample size. Kothari (2004), proposed a formula for determining sample size as

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$$

where n is the sample size, N is the total registered migrant farmers

in the study communities, and e is the level of precision. Going by Kothari formula,

the sample size of total farmers in the Municipality based was 279 ($n=1023 / 1+ 1023 (0.05)^2 = 279$). Thus, two hundred and seventy-nine (279) questionnaires were distributed. However, two hundred and sixty (260) questionnaires were retrieved from respondents for the analysis. This was due to the incorrect completion of questionnaires by respondents. Twenty-one (21) key informants comprising of chiefs, Municipal officials, agriculture extension officer and land-owners were interviewed and two (2) focus group discussions were conducted to obtain qualitative data. In all, a total of two hundred and eighty-one (281) sample size comprising 260 quantitative sample size and 21 qualitative sample size was used for the study.

3.6.2 Sampling technique

The study employed a mixed sample design to cater for the varied interests of design. It therefore selected myriad of techniques in deciding for the study sites, the sample units and in selecting respondents within the units for the instruments used in collecting the data. The essence was to ensure that the study area was covered, and the participants selected represent the population adequately

3.6.3 Purposive sampling

Purposive is a non- probability sample technique in which subjective judgements are used to resolutely select groups that are well versed in a situation and can give accurate and vivid accounts on the situation (Creswell, 2003). It is designed to arbitrarily include representation of groups being studied (Russell and Gregory, 2003). It is an approach which aims to select groups that show variations on a particular phenomenon but each is homogenous so as to compare the sub groups (Tuckett, 2004). For this study, the researcher purposively selected the study communities, Oda, Asene and Aboabo on the basis of their homogenous

characteristics in terms of economic activities, social activities and cultural practices. The major economic activity in the study communities is agriculture (50.9%) with trading, mining and industries making up the remaining (40.1%) (GSS, 2010). The communities socially and culturally have similar practices such as funeral rites, naming ceremonies and land tenure system because they all under the Kotoku Traditional Area. The people purposively selected for interviews included traditional rulers, official from the Assembly, Assemblymen and women, extension officers, organizational and community leaders.

In Oda, the researcher was assisted by extension officers and Assemblymen to reach out to traditional leaders and leaders of the Farmers Association in the Municipality. This was necessary because of the vast nature of the total land area of Oda. The Whole Oda is divided into three AEAs by the Department of Agriculture, Birim Central Municipal of which an AEA is supervised by an extension officer. The researcher met with the leaders of the Farmers' Association at their meeting time for interview. Unlike Oda, the researcher depended on a friend to reach out to the Assemblyman in Asene. With the help of the Assemblyman, the researcher was able to identify the traditional leaders, leaders of Farmers' Association in Asene as well as land owners and migrants of land for the interview. Similarly, an Assemblyman from Aboabo assisted the researcher to identify the traditional leaders, clan heads and organizational leaders for the interview.

3.6.3 Stratified random sampling

Stratified random sampling is a probability sampling technique applied when a population from which a sample is to be drawn does not constitute a homogeneous group. Stratified sampling technique is generally applied in order to obtain a representative sample from several sub-populations that are individually more

homogeneous than the total population (the different sub-populations are called strata) where items are selected from each stratum to constitute a sample (Kothari, 2004). The researcher categorized the economic activities in the Municipality into two sub- areas (strata), namely formal sector workers which include nurses, teachers, bankers etc. and informal sector workers which include farmers, tailors, masons etc. and purposively selected farmers from the informal sector workers due to their relation to the topic under research. The researcher further categorized farmers into natives, migrants, farmers who have work for over ten years and farmers cash crop growers. The researcher randomly selected respondents from the categorized farmers through the lottery method of selection. Thus, the researcher listed the farmers of each stratum on a piece of paper and put them in a basket. The researcher then randomly selected the farmers needed from the basket. The procedure was repeated for all the strata until the required number of farmers needed for the questionnaire was obtained. The researcher then purposely selected migrant farmers for case study because of the extent of their vulnerability in the wake of land re-possession.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

The research used instruments such as questionnaire and personal in-depth interview to gather the reasons, opinions and viewpoints of respondents and participants. The individual in-depth interviews were used to gather solely qualitative data, while questionnaire was used to gather both numeric and non-numeric data. Secondary sources of data included reviews of related literature from Ghana Statistical Service, the Municipal Assembly, scholar articles, books, journals, internet sources and any archival documentation

3.7.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaire is an instrument for data collection comprising set of questions of varying forms which are organized in a single document for the respondent to express his or her opinion on each of them at a more convenient time. The semi-structured questionnaires which comprised of closed-ended questions, Likert scale type questions with headings such as (A) Demographic data of respondents, (B) Reasons of Owner re-possession of land (C) Extent of Vulnerability (D) Survival adaptive and alternative livelihood strategies and (E) Livelihood Outcomes. A Five point Likert-type scale was also used, with “Strongly agree” at point one; “Agree” at point two, “Neutral” at point three; “Disagree” at point four; and “Strongly disagree” at point five. Dichotomous questions were also present. It also included a bipolar five-point scale with “Very low contribution” at point one; “Low contribution” at point two; “Neutral” at point three; “High contribution” at point four; and “Very high contribution” at point five, to obtain the degree of agreement of the respondent on the contribution of adaptive and alternative strategies on lives of migrants. The adaptive strategies and livelihood outcomes variables were measured by using the nominal scale of ‘Very’, “Neutral” and “Low” categories of responses. Open-ended question, asking respondents other reasons of owner re-possession of land and other livelihood strategies employed for survival were asked. A series of questions of dichotomous nature was constructed to investigate the extent of vulnerability of migrants. Respondents were asked to tick on the extent of vulnerability and the satisfaction of their livelihood outcomes.

3.7.2 Observation

Observation is a qualitative data collection instrument which involves immersing oneself in a group for an extended period of time and systematically notices activities and listens to conversation between others with field workers and asking questions (Tuckett, 2004).). The aim of the researcher in observation is to observe the complete behaviour of the subjects in a specific setting (Ary et al., 2010). It is usually done in an extended period of time compared to normal interviews. Field notes recording is a common technique for taking notes in observation. Like interviews, it also presents an opportunity to the researcher to record and analyze interactions and behaviours in their process of occurrence. The researcher observed everything that went in the study communities. In Oda, the researcher made visits to new areas such as Bungalow, Community Six and ARDA Group Company site to observe rate of housing project in the areas. The researcher also observed the livelihood strategies employed by the migrant farmers after the owner re-possession of land. In Asene and Aboabo, the researcher observed areas such as bungalow, Salem and Addo Tei. The observation exercises were recorded in a field note book as a reference for data analysis.

3.7.3 Interview

It is noted by (Tuckett, 2004), that interview is the most widely used method in qualitative research and that other qualitative methods of collecting data such as ethnography and participant observation at some point involve some form of interviewing. In-depth interview is one of the strategies for gathering data. Interview involves the use of verbal or oral stimulus to solicit responses from participants on issues. It is very useful for collecting descriptive or attributes data because it affords

the participants opportunity to describe the world of issues from their perspectives (Wynsberghe & Khan, 2017)

Interviews are divided into three formats: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Tuckett, 2004; Berg & Lune, 2004). Structured interviews follow a predetermined and standardized list of questions. Usually, questions are asked in the same way to all respondents. Though the questions are structured they are different from quantitative ones because the answers to the questions asked are not yes or no but detail explanatory answers are sought for during the interviews. The interviewer is restricted in diverting from the set down questions. Unstructured forms of interviews are where usually the conversation is directed by the informant rather than by the set questions. This is a conversational type of interview where questions for the research are derived from the situation. It is also called a conversation with a purpose (Ary, et al., 2010). The researcher asks opportunistic questions and waits for the response and uses the responses to further ask more questions. Semi-structured interviews are the type in-between the two. They have a degree of predetermined order but still ensure flexibility in the way issues are addressed. An interviewer using a semi-structured interview guide generally has a framework of themes which the researcher seeks to explore. This study focused on semi-structured interview in order to obtain in depth information in relation to the specific objective themes for the study.

A total of twenty-one (21) key informants were interviewed to obtain information for the qualitative data. These included land-owners' officials from the Municipal Assembly, traditional authorities and extension officers. It was used to pool the viewpoints of participants on reasons why land-owners re-possess their land from migrants and the effects of the re-possession on migrants, alternative strategies they employ to survive and livelihood outcomes. More detailed questions were designed to

guide in the interview process. Respondents answered questions on the extent of vulnerability of the migrants and on their dependents. On the third objective, interviewees were given the chance to narrate from their experiences on adaptive and alternative livelihood strategies that have impacted the lives and dependents of migrants of land, the livelihood outcomes in terms of income generation, reduced vulnerability and increased well-being.

3.7.4 Focus group discussion

Focus group discussions were held in study communities such as Oda and Aboabo. Farmers' Associations in the communities were engaged in discussion on extent of vulnerability as a result of land re-possession, survival livelihood activities employed to survive during land re-possession and their livelihood outcome. However, focused group discussion was not held in Asene community because farmers there are members of the farmers' association at Aboabo.

3.8 Data Analysis

Questionnaire data were processed and coded using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 19 and subjected to further analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to analysis the reasons of land re-possession, extent of vulnerability, survival livelihood strategies and livelihood outcome of migrant farmers. Thematic analysis was used to analyze qualitative data, whereby the discussions from the key informants were objectively and subjectively analyzed.

3.9 Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues inherent in research were adhered to during the research period. The presence of the researcher was announced in the community and to the various Farmers' Associations in the study communities at their meetings. The researcher was introduced to the chiefs and leaders in the study community by Assembly members in the communities. The kind of information required from respondents and participants was not issues that are against the ethics of research. The farmers were over eighteen years and were matured to give account on issues. However, permission was sought from husbands of some female farmers in order to participant in the focus group discussion. With the exception of community leaders who could be identified with their positions, respondents' anonymity was withheld.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the results of data collected from respondents and participants for the study. It presents analysed quantitative and qualitative data as well as secondary source on demography characteristics, of respondents, land ownership and re-possession, livelihoods strategies of migrant farmers and livelihood outcomes

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

Table 1: Category of respondents and study communities

| Respondents Categories | Akim Oda | Asene | Aboabo | Total |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| Quantitative data on | | | | |
| Farmers | 98 | 85 | 77 | 260 |
| Key Informants Interviews | | | | |
| Chiefs | - | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Municipal Officials | 3 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Agricultural Extension Officers | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 |
| Land owners | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| Focus Group | | | | |
| Farmers Association | 1 | - | 1 | 2 |

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The data presented in table 1, shows the distribution of respondents' categories and respective study communities. The household categorization is based on the total number of farmers sampled in the study communities (Ministry of Food & Agriculture, Birim Central Municipal, 2019). No chief was interviewed in Oda due to the outstanding chieftaincy disputes between Attafuah and Frimpong Manso families. The researcher interviewed majority of the key informants in Oda especially, the

Municipal officials and the Agricultural Extension officers due to their expertise in crop farming and proximity to the study communities. No focus group discussion was held at Asene because most of the farmers are members of the farmers' association at Aboabo

Table 2: Age of respondents

| Age Groups | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|------------|--------------|
| 20-30 | 17 | 6.5 |
| 31-40 | 73 | 28.1 |
| 41-50 | 134 | 51.9 |
| 51 above | 35 | 13.5 |
| Total | 260 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The distribution data on age groups presented in table 2, indicated that out of 260 respondents, majority of the migrant famers 134 were within the active age group between 41-50 years. 28.1% were within the young age groups of 31-40 years. From the sample, 6.5% of the migrant farmers were within the age between 20-30 years. Migrant farmers of the age 51 and above accounted for 13.5%. From the results, it can be inferred that more migrants' youth within the age 20 -50 years representing 86.5% are into farming in the study communities.

Table 3: Gender of respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|------------|--------------|
| Male | 152 | 58.5 |
| Female | 108 | 41.5 |
| Total | 260 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Survey 2020

From the sample, 58.5% are male and 41.5% are female. The result is attributed to the fact that information gathered during the period of study, were mostly

obtained from males due to their cultural leadership roles in farming activities (GSS, 2010).

Table 4: Literacy of respondents

| Level of Education | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| No Education | 7 | 2.7 |
| Primary | 84 | 32.3 |
| JSS/Middle | 143 | 55.0 |
| SHS/Technical | 25 | 9.6 |
| Tertiary | 1 | .4 |
| Total | 260 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Result in table 4 shows the literacy of respondents as in the ability to read and write. From the study, 2.7% of the farmers had no education, 32% had primary education, 55% had JSS or middle education, 9.6% had secondary education, 0.4% had tertiary education. The study revealed majority of the migrant farmers 55% completing JSS/ Middle school but had few migrants completing secondary and tertiary level. This situation is to be expected, since the primary reason for most migration is economic (Massey, 1998).

4.2 Land Accessibility and Reasons of Re-possession in the Study Areas

4.2.1 Land accessibility of migrant farmers in the study communities

This section focuses on land accessibility in the study communities. Figure 4 shows the distribution of land access among respondents.

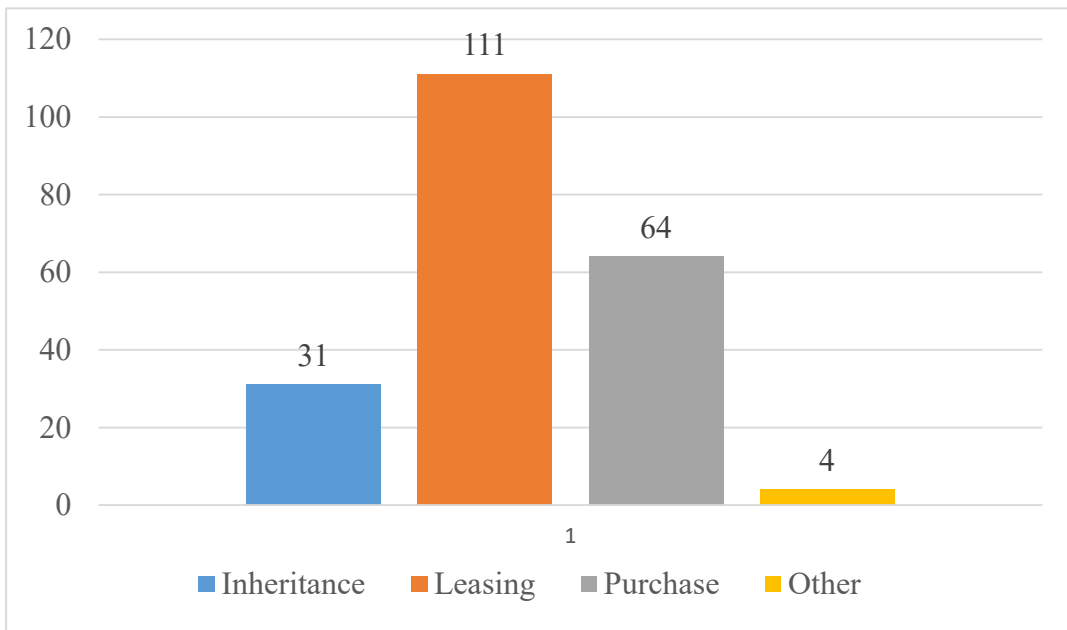


Figure 5: Land accessibility in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The result indicated that majority of the respondents (43%) had accessed to land for farming activities through leasing of land. (31%) of the respondents had accessed to land through inheritance; (25%) of the respondents purchased lands for farming activities whiles (1%) of the respondents had their farmlands from others such as State vested. The study revealed leasing as the major means of accessing land for farming activities in the study communities due to the communal land ownership system in the areas. That is, lands in the study communities are owned by the community under the auspices of the chiefs. As a result, migrant farmers only access land through sharecropping basis mostly on the *abusa* (*literally means divide into three*) arrangements in order for land owners to have their lands back for other activities. However, in Oda, farmers accessed lands through outright purchase from land-owning families for farming activities. This is as result of commercialisation and the value of land in the urban areas. Families now prefer the monetary gain in land market to communal and family holdings. Others also acquired lands ways through

rentals and gifts which farmers present bottle of schnapps and money as a sign of acceptance and appreciation. A land owner narrated:

Migrant farmers in Aboabo access land on sharecropping arrangement. Farmers visit land owners with two or three elderly persons with drinks and money. The land owner spells out the conditions relating to the land use. If its abunu (literally means divide into two), it means after harvest, you divide the farm produce into two, where the land owner takes one. But, if it is abusa (literally means divide into three), the farmer takes two. However, because we want to have our land back, we agree on abusa for specific crops in order for us to use the land for other purpose. (Participant from Aboabo).

The focus group discussion evidenced leasing and sharecropping arrangements as the major means of accessing land in the study communities. Land owners spell out the conditions of abusa sharecropping indicating the type of crops to grow and the sharing conditions. Relating to the type of crops grown on farmlands, migrant farmers made to understand that only food crops such as cassava, plantain, rice and so on are permitted to be cultivated. Tree crops such as cocoa, rubber are not encouraged to be cultivated because the land owners have in mind of re-possessing the land for other use. In the case of sharing, after harvest, the crops are split into three where the land owner takes two and the farmer takes one. This depends on the one who provided capital and materials such as insecticides and fertilizers to the crops. The results go to support the submission by Hill (1956) that access to land for farming activities in Ghana is mostly through sharecropping.

4.2.2 Reasons of land re-possession in study communities

This section focuses on the various reasons and land use of re-possessed land by land owners in the study communities. Figure 5 shows the reasons and land use of land re-possession by land owners.

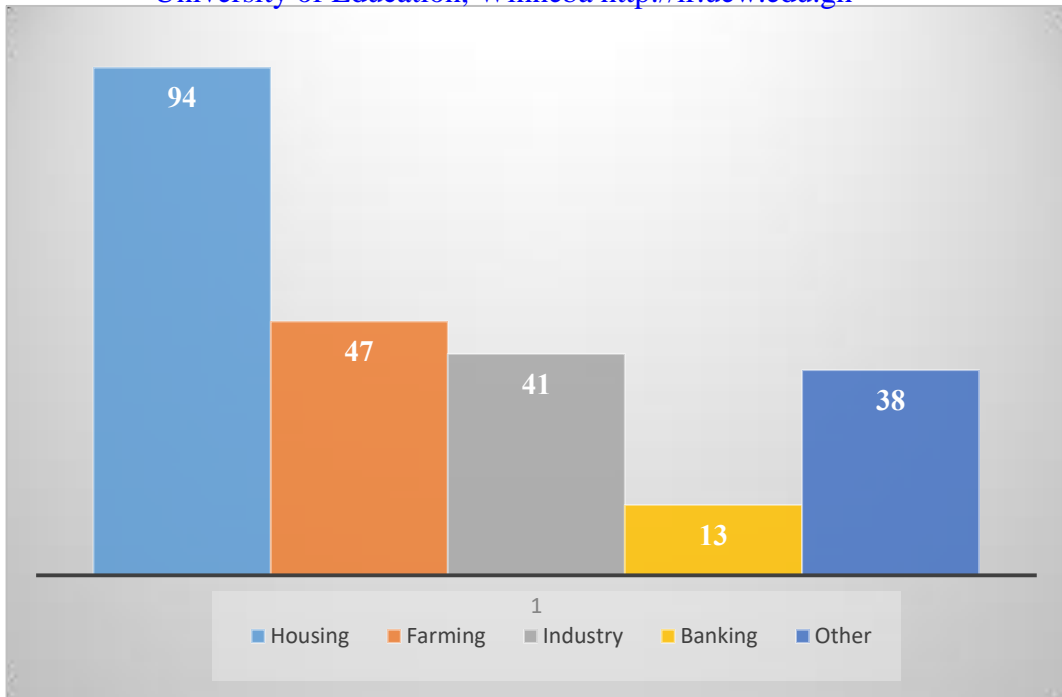


Figure 6: Reasons of land re-possession by land owners in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The result revealed that the major reasons and land use activity that compel land owners to repossess their land is housing. The result revealed majority of the respondents, 91 (35.0%) re-possess their lands and re-use it for residential purposes while 47 (18.1%) of the respondents re-used their lands for farming specifically, cash crops such as rubber plantation. The study further revealed that 41 (15.8%) of the respondents used the re-possessed land for small scale industries such as sawmills and pure water companies. 38 (14.6%) as well as 30 (11.5%) of the respondents used the re-possessed lands for other purposes such as school, church and recreational and hospitality facilities such as guest house. The result revealed few respondents 13 (5.0%), used the re-possessed lands for banking purposes.

The study revealed majority of the re-possessed land in the study communities used for residential and commercial apartments. Compound housing, single apartments and hospitality buildings such as guest house were the most residential and commercial apartments. Most of these apartments are concentrated at Oda due to rate

of urbanisation in terms of infrastructure and population growth. It is also as a result of commercialisation and building rental value in the urban areas.

Landowner said:

‘When we first came here the whole area was farmland. But now all these areas have been turned into place of residents. They have sold all the lands and within a short period everybody has put up a house. People have also built schools on the land they bought. There is even a guest house behind you (participant from Oda).

The interview revealed that everybody wishes to have building in the urban areas in order to rent and get a higher income.

Local Industry such as oil milling industry, maize and cassava dough milling industries are the major industries that are being established in Asene and Aboabo communities on repossessed lands. The industries basically serve the local people by turning their maize and cassava into maize and cassava dough, palm nuts into red oil. The maize and cassava dough are used at homes while the red oils are produced for the markets. However, the red oil is not produced in large quantity due to financial constraints that confront the producers. Oda has seen established sawmill industries on re-possessed lands that are into plywood production. Due to the availability of hard woods such as Odum, Wawa and Mahogany, many people have used the re-possessed lands for wood production.

It is interesting to note that few banking activities are envisaged in the study communities due to the inadequate commercial activities in the communities. There is Bosome Rural Bank established on re-possessed land in Asene in front of the Presbyterian Basic School. It is the only bank that serves Asene and Aboabo communities by keeping their monies and providing soft loans to small scale industries. However, there are no new established banks in Oda because entrepreneurs considering banking establishments on repossessed lands take into consideration

agglomeration factor of industrial local, since all re-possessed land in Oda are far away from the central business district and the existing banks.

Other uses of repossessed land include recreation, hospitality and school building. Due to the growing trend of population in the communities, people have established guest house on repossessed land in Asene to accommodate people during cultural and social festivals such as Ohum festival celebrated by the people of Asene and funerals. The 'KENAMP LODGE' in Asene accommodates about hundred people during funerals and festivals. The sudden infrastructural development is as a result of affordability of land and environmental conditions which devoid of noise emanating from the urban cities and towns. This results affirms Owusu and Agyei (2007) on changes in land access, rights and livelihoods in peri-urban Ghana: the case of Accra, Kumasi and Tamale Metropolis. The found out that the differences for peri-urban areas for commercial and residential purposes is driven by the issue that peri-urban areas have affordable rents in comparison with the city.





Figure 7: Multiple land use of previous farm lands after re-possession in Oda, Asene and Aboabo.

Source: Field Survey, 2020

EXAMPLE OF A SITE PLAN OF THE AREAS FOR BUILDING PURPOSES

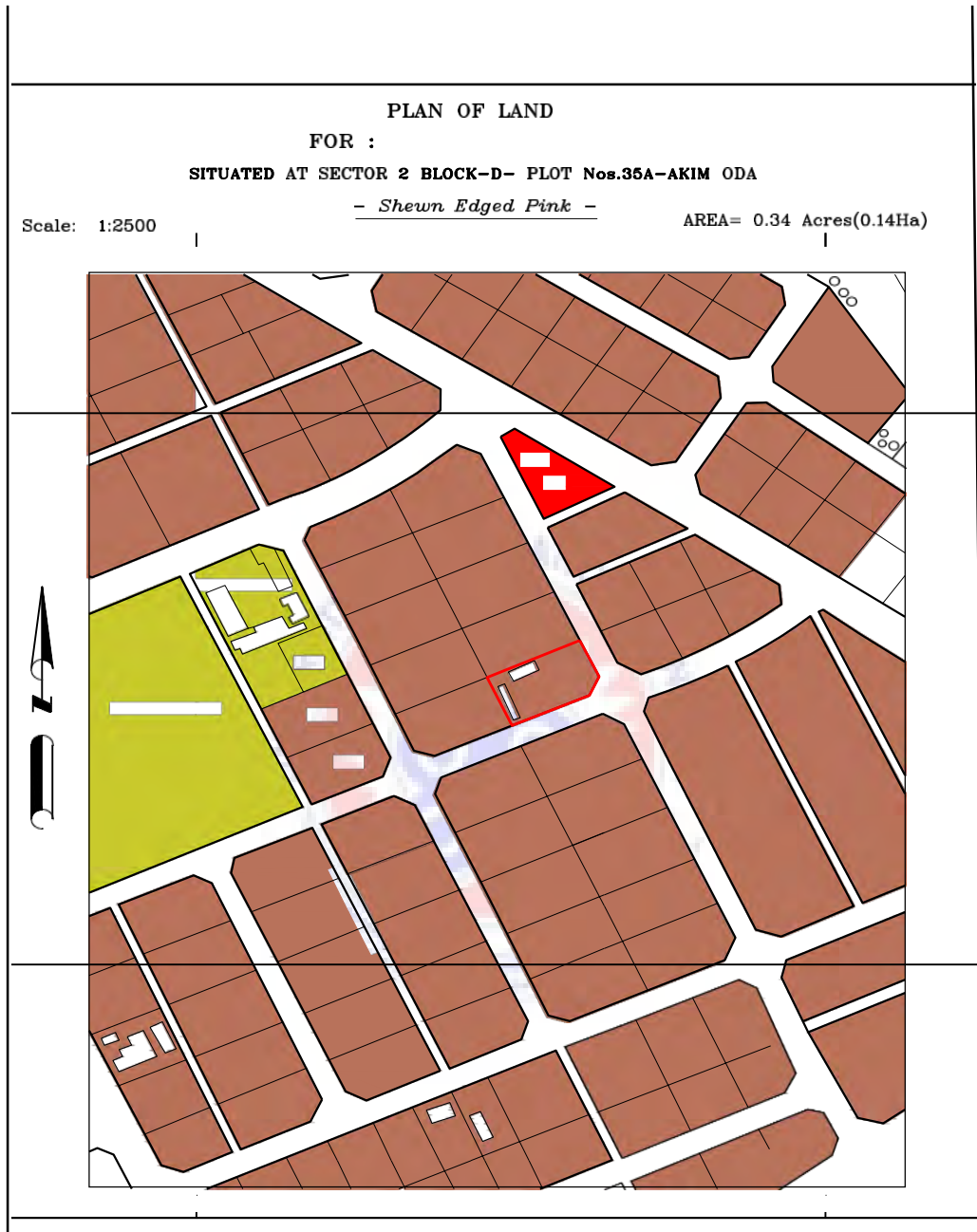


Figure 8: A site plan for housing development

Source: Received from Town and Country Planning, Birim Central Municipal, 2020

4.2.3 The extent of re-possessed lands in the study communities

Table 5: The number of migrant farmers whose lands have been re-possessed in the study communities

| Re-possessed farmlands in Acres | Affected Farmers (Frequency) | Percentage |
|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1-5 | 142 | 55 |
| 6-10 | 112 | 43 |
| 11-15 | 4 | 2 |
| 16 & above | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 260 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2020

As indicated in table 5, majority of the farmers (142) 55% had their lands between 1 to 5 acres re-possessed. The study revealed a significant number of farmers 43% having their lands between 6 to 10 acres re-possessed by land owners. Few of the respondents 2% had their farmlands between 11-15 acres re-possessed. The study revealed majority of the farmers (55%) affected by land re-possession in the study communities. These farmers are migrants who do not have any lineage connectivity in the study communities and only access farmlands for livelihood through abusa sharecropping arrangements. The farmers are just users of farmland and don't have control over lands in the communities. As a result, land owners in the face of high demand and value of land in peri-urban areas, re-possess their lands and sell them to middle and higher income people for housing and industrial activities. This affirms a study conducted by (Owusu & Agyei, 2007) in Accra, Kumasi and Tamale Metropolis. The study revealed that peri-urban lands are usually re-possessed for road construction, public facilities, housing and services due to the comparative advantage cost of peri-urban areas to urban areas. A participant narrated his story on land re-possession in the study communities:

Our farming lands have been given to people to build houses and factories. My five-acre land has been given to a rich man and has built houses for renting. This really affects our livelihood since; we don't have any other job except Farming (Participant from Asene).

The focus group discussion evidenced re-possessed farmlands by land owners for housing activities. The discussion revealed a worrying situation where most farmers had their lands re-possessed and given to middle and higher income people for residential apartments due to the value and high demand of land in the study communities.



Figure 9: Land owner selling re-possessed land to a businessman in Oda

Source: Field Survey, 2020

4.2.4 Extent of economic vulnerability impacts on migrant farmers

Figure 10 revealed the level of economic impacts that affect migrant farmers as a result of owner re-possession of land.

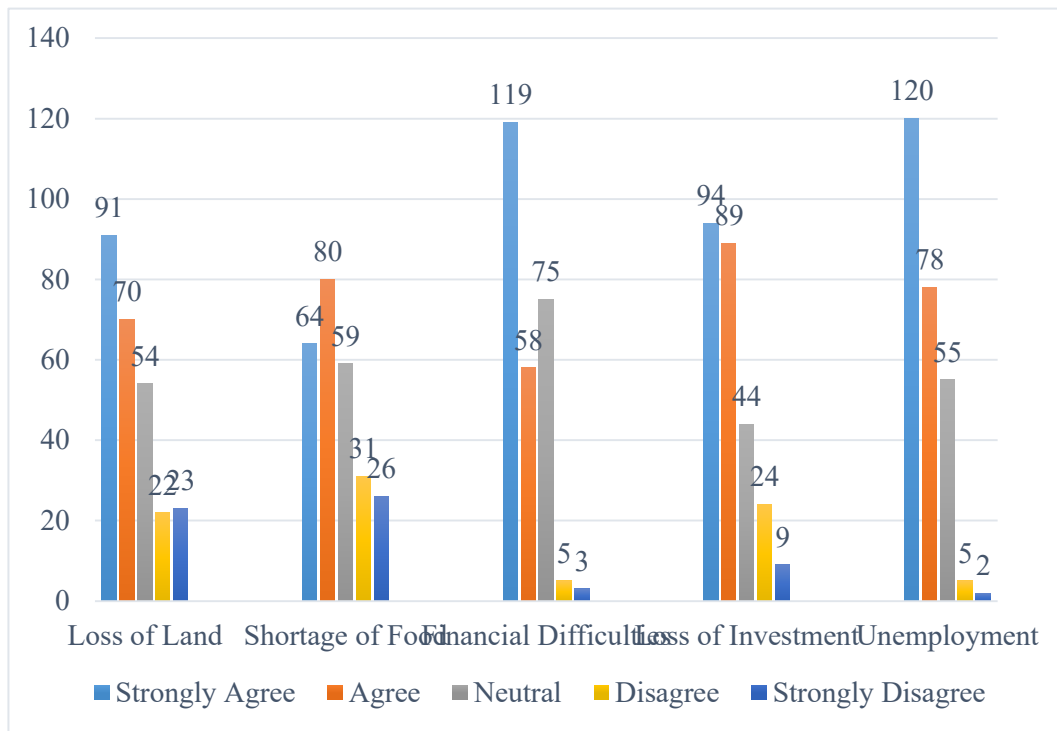


Figure 10: Negative economic impacts on migrant farmer resulting from land re-possession

Source: Field Survey, 2020

According to the study, majority of the respondents 91 (35.0%) strongly agreed that the reasons of re-possession of farmlands by land-owners greatly affects them as they turn to lose their farmlands which is their livelihood assets. The results revealed that fair percentage of the respondents 70 (26.9%) agreed while 54 (20.8%) of the respondents were uncertain about the extent of effects on loss of land on their livelihoods. Again, the results showed that 23 (8.8%) and 22 (8.5%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that the loss of land has no effect on migrant farmer. The reasons of the uncertainty and disagreement of some respondents stem from the fact that migrant farmers have accessed multiple lands that they do farming activities on, so termination of a contract by landowner as a result of population growth and increase in housing demand to some extent does not affect them because they seek livelihoods from the other lands. A farmer narrated his story:

It is difficult getting land for farming these days. It has not been easy for us at all. You go to a landlord then they tell you, they are no longer giving their lands for farming activities. Some also wait at the end of season then they tell you they will not lease their lands again without a prior notice for you to search for new one. You see, the land is the only livelihood assets in our area an if you don't have it, it means you are going to work for the whole season. This is because people in Akim Oda have realized that land in Aboabo and Asene are cheap and safe (Participants at Aboabo).

The focus group discussion evidenced the difficulties migrant farmers go through as a result of land re-possession. The migrant farmers exclusively depend of land for daily livelihood and become affected when such lands are re-possessed by land owners. This situation creates uncomfortable living for farmers as lands meant for farming activities to provide food and income for households used for housing and industrial activities.

Regarding shortage and loss of food product, majority of the respondents 80 (30.4) agreed to the fact that land re-possession affects migrant farmers' food supply due to loss of land to land-owners for farming activities. According to the study, 64 (24.6%) of the respondents also strongly agreed that they suffer food crisis due to the repossessed lands by land owners. The results further revealed that significant number of the respondents 59 (22.7%) were not sure whether migrant farmers were affected by the land re-possession. 31 (11%) of the respondents disagreed to the fact that land re-possession affects migrant farmers while 26 (10.0%) of the respondents strongly disagree to that effect.

Since land-owners came for their lands, I barely get food to feed my family. We find it difficult to get food to eat. I sometimes have to work for my friends in their farms before I get some cassava and plantain to feed my family. Due to this, my children have been affected with certain diseases because they do not get enough food to eat (Participants from Aboabo).

Majority of the respondents agreed to the fact that migrant farmers suffer food shortages due to land re-possessed. This affects the household of migrant farmers especially the children. This is because the children solely feed on the food stuffs provided by the parents and use the income generated from it to pay the fees. The inability of farmers' households to get the adequate and the right proportion of food nutrient in their meals cause anaemia which affects the children's ability to perform well in school (Gregory & Colman-Jensen 2017). However, the uncertainty and disagreement of some respondents on the effects of food shortage on migrant farmers is due to the fact that migrant farmers strategically access numerous lands for farming activities hence, do not get affected by land re-possession as a result of population increase and demand of land for residential activates, since they get food from the other lands.

In responds to the financial difficulties and loss of income, the study revealed majority of the respondents 119 (45.8%) strongly agreed to the fact that migrant farmers undergo financial difficulties as a result of land re-possession. The study revealed 75 (28.8%) of the respondents who were uncertain about the effects of land re-possession on farmers' finances due to the fact farmers in the study communities have other livelihood strategies such as trading such as mason tailoring and rearing of goats and fowls. The study further revealed that 58 (22.3%) of the respondents agreed to the fact that land re-possession affects farmers' finances because they lose farm products and income accrue from the products. The study revealed few respondents 5 (1.9%) and 3 (1.2%) who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the fact that land re-possession had an effects on financial growth of migrant farmers. A participant from Asene commented:

Are you talking about money? Where do I get that money from, when my land has been taken from me? The only job I do to get money in this community is farming. Since my land lord came for my land, I have not got land to start farming in order for me to get money. This has affected my life and the family as a whole. Do you know your wife easily get problem with you if you don't have money on you? My problem is even my children's school fees. I find it difficult to pay the fees of four children. In fact, the government should talk to the land owners to lease their land to us for farming and stop giving the lands to the rich people for building (Participants from Aboabo).

The focus group discussion provided a true reflection of financial difficulties migrant farmers face in the study communities. The farmers expressed worrying situations relating marriage conflict as a result of inability to provide housekeeping money to the wife. Most farmers also lamented on the difficulties of paying school fees and bills due to the loss of the farmlands. Apart from the fact that, he suffers to get money to feed the family, he also finds it difficult to pay his children's school fees so some have dropped-out from school. "I am now poor because I don't have job to get money" he said.

It is worthy to note that investments in the form of money and farm inputs such as fertilizers and insecticides made in the farms were lost due to land re-possession. The study revealed (36.2%) strongly agreed to the fact that income, fertilizers and pesticides invested in the farms are wasted due to land re-possession. However, the study revealed (16.6%) of the respondent who were in doubt whether migrant farmers lose any investment made in the farms or not. The study revealed few respondents (9.2%) and (9.3%) who disagreed and strongly disagreed that farmers lose their investment as a result of land re-possession. The reasons for the doubts and disagreements on loss of investment were attributed the fact that farm inputs such as fertilizers and insecticides are provided by land owners for farmers who are into abusa (literally divide into three) sharecropping.

Regarding unemployment, majority of the respondents (46.1%) strongly agreed that migrant farmers become laid off and unemployed due to land re-possession. This is because the only job available to migrant is farming since, the study areas are farming communities. The study revealed that (30.0%) of the respondents agreed to the fact that the unemployment situation really affects farmers and their household as it affects their children schooling and academic performance. This affirms Mathers and Scholfield (1998), study on the consequences of unemployment, examining the evidence of effects of unemployment. The study revealed that when unemployed person contributions are lost and the capacity to save from disposable income is lowered, the loss of income by the parents can damage the prospects of the next generation. However, the study indicated that (21.0%) of the respondents were uncertain about the unemployment conditions confronting migrant farmers as a result of land re-possession while (2.0%) of the respondents disagreed and (0.8%) strongly disagreed to the fact that migrants become unemployed as a result of land re-possession. The reasons to the uncertainty and disagreement were attributed to the fact that farmers engage in coping strategies such as charcoal burning and animal rearing as means of surviving.

We are now at home without job. The only job we do is farming but now I am jobless because I don't have land to do the farm on. This has created a lot of problems for us. Because I don't farm, I don't have money to buy food to feed my family. I have now become a poor person because I can't feed myself and the family (Participants from Oda).

The focus group discussion with farmers revealed a worrying situations associated with unemployment. Most farmers expressed their concern on issues of unemployment as they find it difficult to provide food to the family, due to the fact they are no longer into active farming job and do not have money.

4.2.5 Negative Social effects of owner re-possession of land on migrant farmer

The data presented in figure 10 shows social impacts that affect migrant farmer as a result of owner re-possession of land.

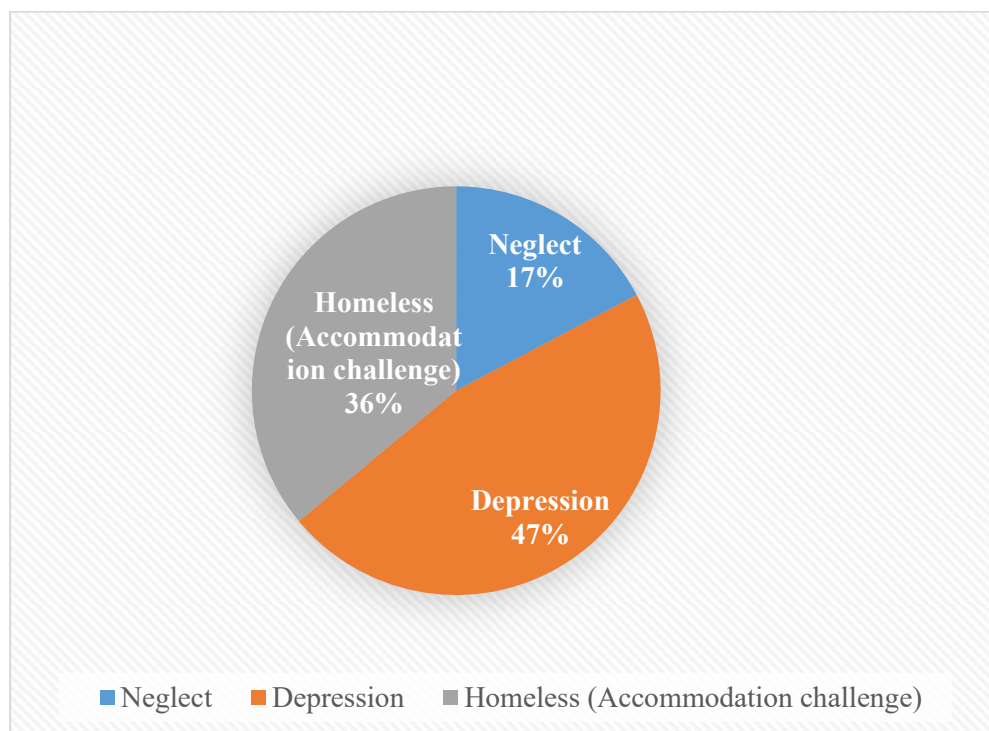


Figure 11: Social and family effects of land re-possession on migrant farmers in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The study revealed (47 %) of the respondents suffered various degree of depression from mild to severe as a result of owner re-possession of land. Further, the study indicated that (36%) of the respondents homeless because they did not have any place to live while (17%) of the respondents were neglected from their neighbourhood and families because there was no help from anyone. The results suggest that land re-possession has interlocking effects on migrant farmers as unemployed farmers tend to become homeless, since there is no land for farming activities in order to generate

income to rent a room. A participant from Aboabo expressed his concern on the social and family problems they were going through:

I am living in uncompleted building with my family just opposite the land I used to farm on and had my wood building on. I didn't go to my hometown because no one will mind. Everybody is looking after his or her family. I suffer a lot when it rains because the uncompleted building is not roofed. This has resulted in mental illness due to the thinking. (Participants from Asene Asene).

The focus group discussion provided a picture that is broadly consistent with the quantitative data. The discussion revealed that migrant farmers negatively suffer social problems such as accommodation challenge and depression as a result of land re-possession. This is the trickling down and the interlocking vulnerability situations of land re-possession, where people develop depression conditions as a result of unemployment causing people to have mental illnesses. This support a study conducted by World Health Organization (2011) on impacts of economic crises on mental health in Copenhagen. The research revealed that depression disorders can result in chronic situations which can lead to substantial impairments in an individual's ability to take care of his or her everyday responsibilities. At its worst, depression can lead to suicide.

4.3 Alternative Livelihood Strategies of Migrant Farmers

Livelihood diversifications are the means individuals and families explore to improve their standard of living.

4.3.1 Backyard crop farming

Figure 12 shows type of backyard crop farming strategies employed by migrant farmers improve to their living. Respondents selected the type of crop farming activity that improved their livelihoods.

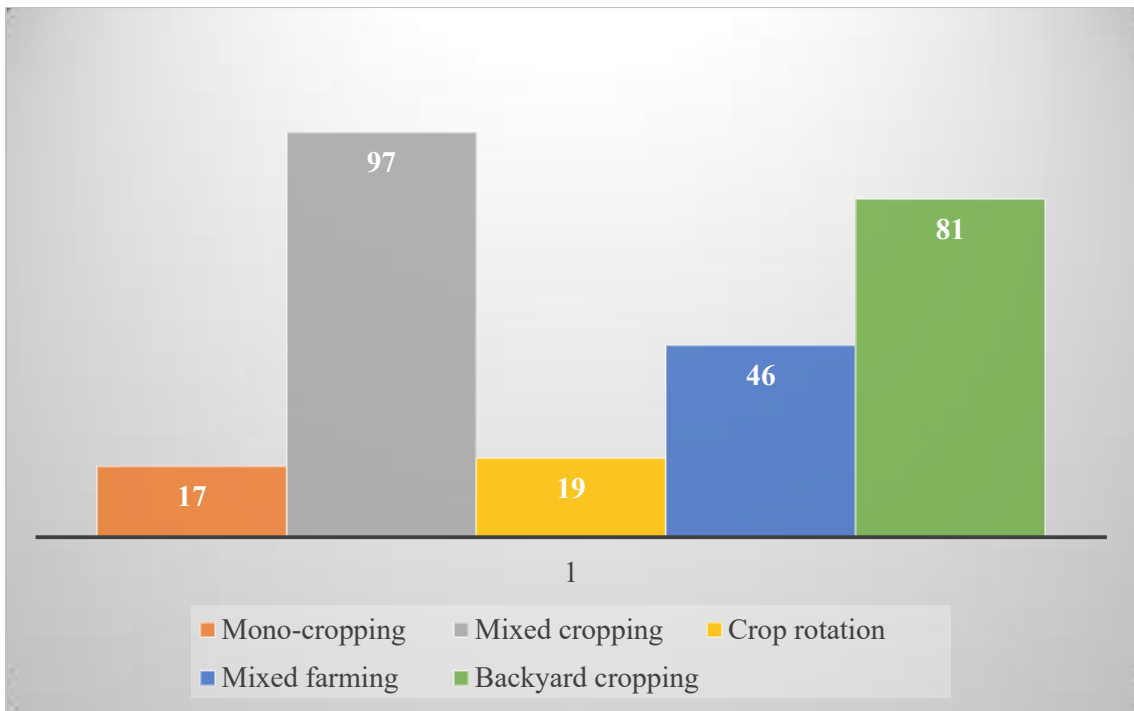


Figure 12: Types of backyard crop farming employed by migrant farmers to improve livelihoods in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The study revealed that, out of the total respondents, majority 97 (37.3%) of the respondents engaged in mixed cropping involving growing of two or more crops. The crops included maize, rice, plantain and cassava. The result revealed that 81 (31.2%) of the respondents undertook backyard farming as alternative strategies to secure food and improve their living. The data presented in figure 4.12 indicated that 46 (17.7%) of the respondent engaged in mixed farming involving crop growing and raising of animals. The study showed that 19 (7.3%) of the respondents practiced crop rotation as alternative livelihood strategies purposely to have access to food at any time. The study revealed 17 (6.5%) of the respondents practiced mono-cropping as alternative livelihood strategies to reduce the long impacts of the land re-possession. A participant expressed alternative strategies he had been employing to reduce the long impacts of land re-possession:

I grow different crops on the same land. I do this to have plenty food for the family. By the time one crop matures the other is also in the process of maturing in order to have food always. For instance, by the time maize is ready for us to harvest, cassava and plantain are also in the process of maturing. Yes, I sell some of the crops especially, the maize and the plantain at market. Sometimes I get between Ghc200.00 and 300.00 cedis from the maize and the plantain (Participant from Aboabo).

I have small farm at the back of the house. I only grow cassava and plantain to support my family because I don't have land for large farming. I sell some of the plantain to get money to buy some fish for the house. I sometimes get about Ghc 200.00 from the sales of plantain (Participant from Oda).



Figure 13: Backyard farming of different crops such as plantain, cassava, maize and okro in Oda, Asene and Aboabo

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The focus group discussion evidenced that varied backyard farming activities such as mono-cropping, mixed farming, crop rotation and mixed farming were practiced as alternative livelihood strategies to curb the problems farmers had been going through. Crops cultivated included maize, cassava, plantain and cocoyam. These crops helped farmers as it provided food security and income for the upkeep of the household. Vegetables such as okro, garden eggs and cabbage were cultivated at the urban areas basically at forecourt or back of the house due to the intensive nature of the crops. This affirms a research conducted by Adi (2013) on determinants of Agricultural and non-agricultural livelihood strategies in rural communities in Eastern Nigeria. The research discovered that backyard farming system as survival strategy in the entire region follows the mixed cropping pattern that is based on either roots or tubers planted at the forecourt or back of their houses. Major food crops produced in most areas include maize, cassava, yam and cocoyam.

4.3.2 Livestock farming as alternative livelihoods strategies

Figure 14 shows livestock rearing by migrant farmers' as alternative livelihood strategies to improve their livelihood.

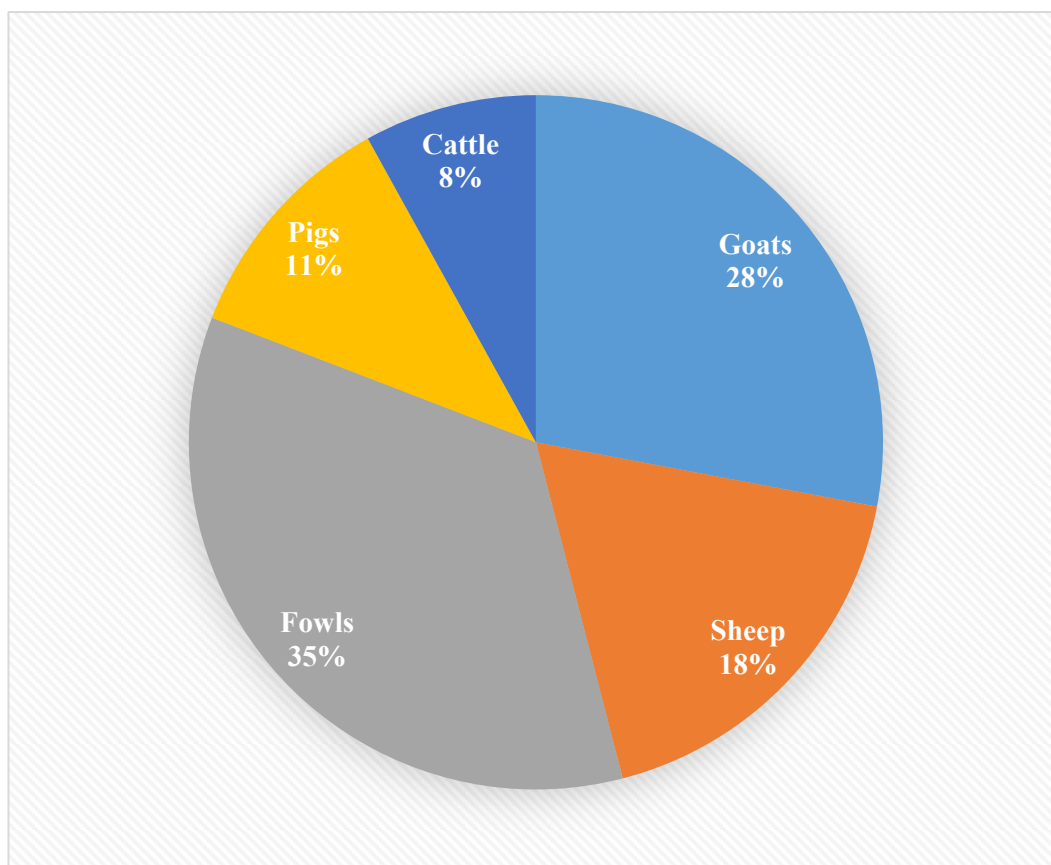


Figure 14: Livestock rearing by migrant farmers in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The study revealed (35%) of the respondents who engaged in fowls rearing as the alternative livelihood strategies. The fowls reared were domestic and exotics. The results revealed (28%) of the respondents who engaged in goat rearing as means of surviving. The study revealed (18%) of the respondents who reared sheep. The result indicated (11%) of the respondents who reared pigs while few of the respondents (8%) reared cattle. The principal reason of rearing the animals is to feed the family and earn some income. This is because the livestock reared are not in the large scale where animals reared for the market. Aside the cattle and the exotic fowls which are sometimes reared for the market, the rest are reared for family consumption. This affirms Aduse-Poku et al (2003), that people rear animal in the rural areas mainly for subsistence, while few engage in it for commercial purpose. A participant revealed:

I have some fowls that I rear as supplement to the family. They help a lot. Especially the fowls and the goats really help during occasions such as Christmas and Easter. People come to buy the sheep for special purposes. I get about Ghc 1500.00 from the sales of the animals. This is money we use to feed the family and to pay school fees (Participant from Aboabo)

I use the little money I had from the farming to get two pigs, a male and female. But now, I have nine pigs which fetch me money. The pigs, they are the sweetest meat on the earth. People come here often to buy pigs either to rear themselves or use it in their meals. They provide me a lot of income which I use to manage the house and other things (Participant from Aboabo).





Figure 15: Livestock farming as adaptive livelihood strategies in Asene and Aboabo

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Focus group discussion revealed that animal rearing plays a significant role in farmers' livelihood. While some animals are reared as food to feed the household, others are reared for generating income. These alternative strategies have provided for the farmers enough income to reduce their vulnerability

4.3.3 Remittances from relatives and friends

Figure 16 shows remittances received from relatives, groups and associations.

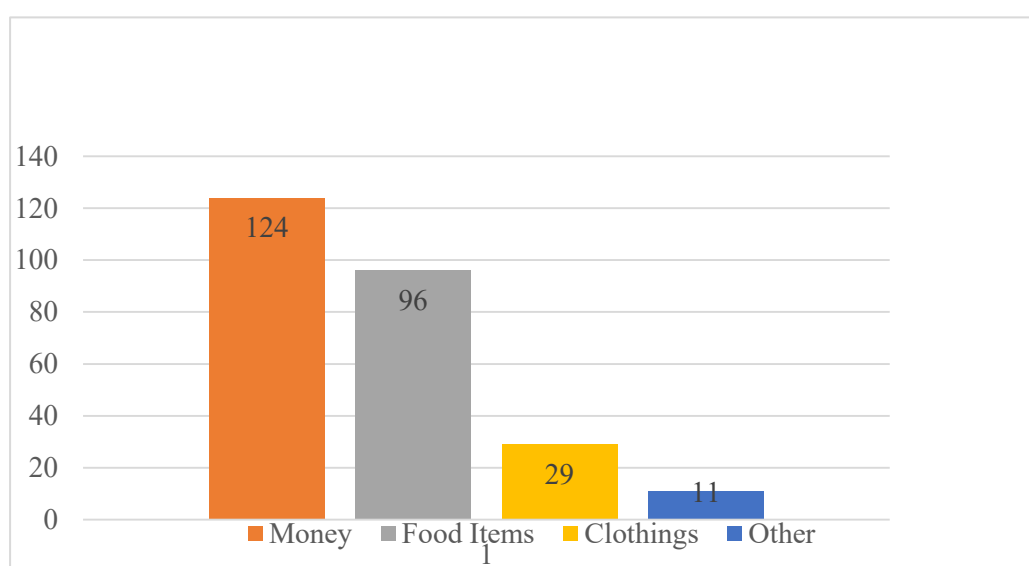


Figure 16: Remittances received from relatives, friends and association by migrant farmers in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The study revealed that 124 (47.7%) of the respondents received money from relatives, friends, groups and associations such as Oda farmers' associations as alternative means of surviving. The study indicated that 96 (36.9%) of the respondents received food items such as groceries from farmers' cooperative groups in Aboabo while 29 (11.2%) of the respondents received cloths from the relatives and friends due to support their living. The result indicated that 11(4.2%) of the respondents received other things such as water and other gifts from relatives and neighbours. Income was

basically received from relatives such as children, brothers and sisters who heard of the vulnerability conditions migrant farmers have been through. The assistance received from children, associations and groups were influenced by the reciprocity system that exists in the communities. By reciprocity, individuals benefit from the network established with groups and associations due to the deep and wide relationship between them (Polyani, 1977).

A participant shared her story:

I sometimes get money from my children and brothers. It is not often. Once a while I receive money through mobile money. The children are four and each of them send me Ghc 150.00. But for my brothers because they are also farmers, they give food such palm nuts for soaps and plantain when return from the farm. We have farmers' association which sometimes give us some money as loans (Participant from Aboabo).

The focus group discussion evidenced the assistance migrant farmers get from relatives, children, friends and association due to the relationship and networks established with them. The farmers got help from their children, relatives, friends and associations due to the connections and networks established, and the roles played in the lives of these children and relatives. The support from groups and association also indicates the commitment and love the farmers have for the associations.

4.3.4 Commercial activities

Figure 17, shows commercial and trading activities of migrant farmers as alternative livelihood strategies.

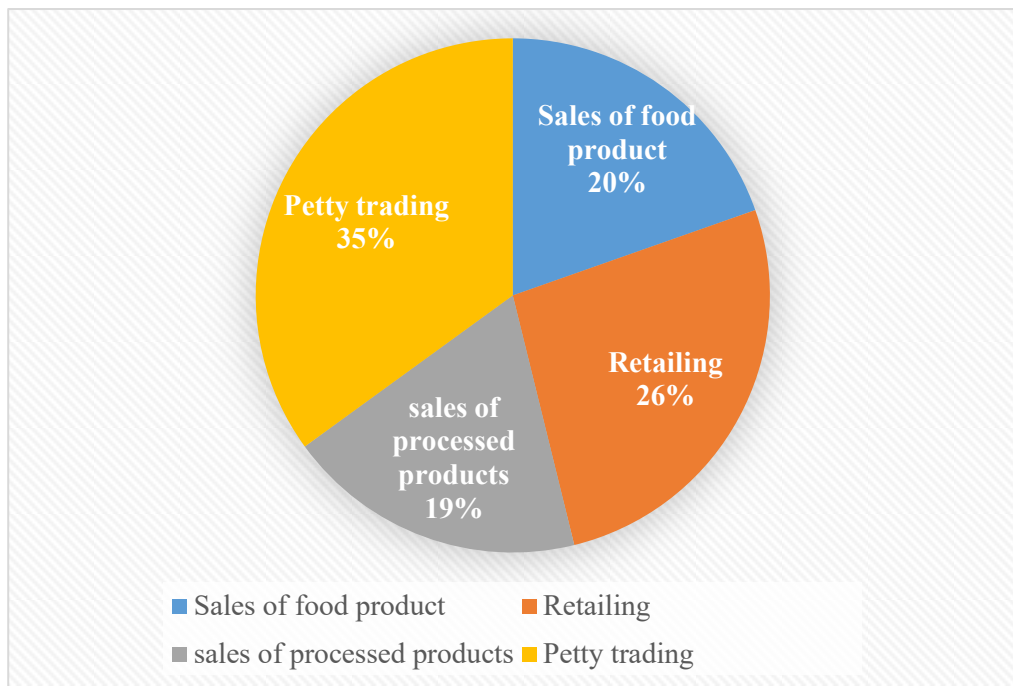


Figure 17: Commercial activities undertaken by migrant farmers to improve livelihoods in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The study revealed that out of the total of (260) respondents, majority 91 (35%) of the respondents engaged in petty trading such as groceries at the road side as alternative livelihood due to the inability to access land for farming. The result indicated that 69 (26%) of the respondents were retailers who were owners of their own small stores and kiosks selling groceries. According to the results, 51 (20%) of the respondents traded in food products such as maize, eggs, rice plantain and fish while 49 (19%) of the respondents traded in processed products such as bread, plantain chips, red oil, maize and cassava dough. In sum petty trading 91 (35%) was the major and common trading activity most migrant farmers engaged in while others engaged in retailing, food products and processed products. The petty trading was the major trading activity engaged in by most farmers in study communities. The activity is occurred along the road where especially women trade in goods such as groceries

and food items such as yams, plantain, maize, cassava while others engage in fish selling such as tilapia. The petty traders are motivated by less capital investment and quick income earnings as compared to large scale trading which requires huge capital to start. A woman by Mansa said, today with a little amount of money, you can start selling food items such as plantain, cassava, tomatoes, garden eggs and tilapia. However, the start-up capital still remains a major challenge for some farmers as emerged in the focus group discussion. This confirms Aduse-Poku et al (2003), that petty trading has now become a major means of improving livelihoods in peri-urban and rural Ghana, since it provides quick income for traders.



Figure 18: Commercial activities as alternative strategies employed migrant farmers in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

4.3.5 Wage employment alternative livelihoods

The data presented in figure 19 shows various wage employment activities migrants engage in as alternative livelihood.

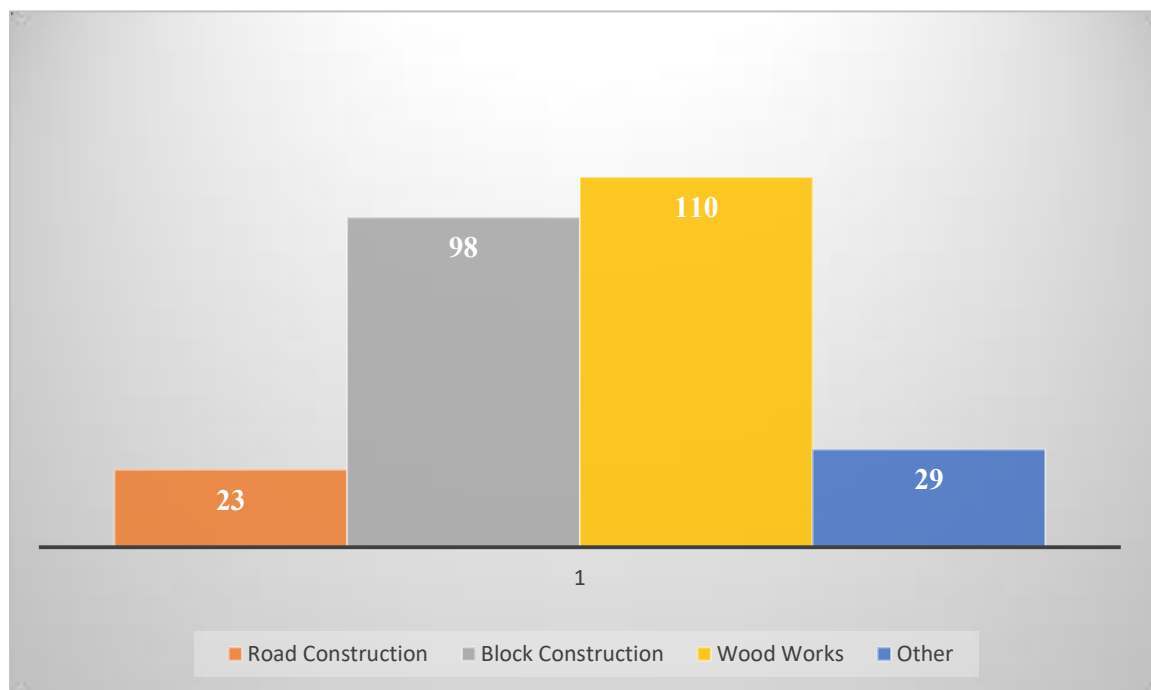


Figure 19: Wage employment activities engaged by migrant farmers in the study communities

Source: Field Survey, 2020

According to the study, out of the total respondents, 110 (42.3%) of the respondents engaged in wood works such as chain saw operators, carpenters, charcoal operators sawmill activities such as plywood as alternative livelihoods due to difficult in access to for framing activities. The study revealed 98 (37.7%) of the respondents engaged in building construction activities such as mason work. The results indicated that 29 (11.2%) of the respondents were involved in road construction as masons, carpenters and steel benders while 23 (8.8%) of the respondents engaged in other activities such as metal works and local oil production. The major wage employment activity in the study communities is wood works which include carpentry activities,

charcoal burning, selling of firewood, chainsaw activities and sawmill activities such as plywood processing. Most of these farmers are labourers and casual workers who are low-skilled without degree and secondary school certificates. They usually receive their income weekly or at the end of the month. The existence of these activities in the study communities is due to the availability of woods such as Odum, Wawa and Mahogany and demand of wood at the market for building and furniture. A participant narrated his working experience and the benefits he derived from the Saw Mill Company:

I work at Saw Mill Wood Company at Oda as carpenter. I assemble the wood and prepare it for processing. I also work at the finishing session where we process the plywood. It has been helpful because I get money from here (Participant from Oda).



Figure 20: Wage employment activities in Oda, Asene and Aboabo

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The focus group discussion provided evidence to the alternative work framers do in order to improve livelihoods. Most farmers strategically work at the Wood Company as carpenters, loaders and labourers which provide them income to look after the household. This work has been helpful since income generated are used to pay bills and school fees. Although some farmers in the Wood Company work as labourers due to their low-skilled abilities hence, receive low wages, the income generated from the work help to ameliorate their vulnerabilities.

4.4 Livelihood outcomes of Migrant Farmers: More income, Increased well-being Reduced Vulnerability and Improved Food Security

Table 6: Livelihood outcomes of migrant farmers in the study communities

| Items of Sustainability Outcomes | N (%) | | | | | Total |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|
| | 1 Very low Outcome | 2 Low Outcome | 3 Neutral Outcome | 4 Satisfactory Outcome | 5 High Satisfactory Outcome | |
| More Income | 5 (1.9) | 6 (2.3) | 84 (32.3) | 109 (41.9) | 56 (21.5) | 260 (100.0) |
| Increased Well-being | 4 (1.5) | 3 (1.2) | 80 (30.8) | 124 (47.7) | 49 (18.8) | 260 (100.0) |
| Reduced Vulnerability | 7 (2.7) | 2 (0.8) | 75 (28.8) | 101 (38.8) | 75 (28.8) | 260 (100.0) |
| Improved Food Security | 14 (5.4) | 1 (0.4) | 43 (16.5) | 110 (42.3) | 92 (35.4) | 260 (100.0) |

Source: Field Survey, 2020

In relation to more income, the study revealed that majority of the respondents 41.9% livelihood outcomes were satisfactory due to the more income generated from sale of farm products, petty trading activities, wood and block construction activities. The income earned from sales of farm products, petty trading and construction activities such as road and wood construction helped farmers to feed the family and pay bills and fees of their wards. However, 32.3% of the respondents expressed uncertainty about their livelihood outcomes while few respondents 4.2% expressed

low satisfactory outcome. The reasons for the uncertainty of satisfactory livelihood outcomes and low satisfactory outcomes stem from the fact that some of alternative livelihood strategies engaged in such as road construction were temporal within short time frame, and did not provide income that could keep the farmers for longer period of time.

Regarding increased well-being, majority of the respondents 66.5% enjoyed satisfactory and highly satisfactory outcomes due to the availability of food items from the backyard farming and income earned from the petty trading and charcoal burning. The availability of food and income have provided the farmers self-esteem, sense of control and inclusion into the communities. Nonetheless, 30.8% of the respondents were unsure whether they really enjoyed satisfactory outcomes from the alternative livelihood strategies engaged in. Few of the respondents 2.7% enjoyed low and very low satisfactory outcomes. The reasons for doubt on satisfactory outcomes and low satisfactory were the fact that income generated from the alternative strategies such as sales of food products such as plantain, cassava and okro were insufficient to provide farmers their financial needs. This affirms Easterlin (2001) on income and happiness, towards a unified theory, that people's well-being is motivated by a comparison to a particular standard in life, with the most satisfied individuals being those who feel their life situations puts them above the standard.

Furthermore, in assessing the vulnerability of the farmers, the study revealed majority of the respondents 67.6% had enjoyed satisfactory and high satisfactory outcome of reduced vulnerability to the economic and social problems experienced due to the alternative strategies employed such as backyard farming, trading activities, and charcoal burning that have provided sufficient food and income for farmers and have overcome the financial difficulties experienced during land re-possession and

loss of investment incurred in the farms. Nevertheless, 28.8% of the respondents felt unsure whether their vulnerability had been reduced. Few of the respondents 3.5% of the respondent felt that their vulnerability had not been reduced. The uncertainty of the respondents and low satisfaction of reduced vulnerability is due to the fact some farmers engaged in menial jobs such as selling of toffies which did not provide enough income to overcome the financial problems experienced.

Interestingly, majority of the respondents 77.7% had adequate food to feed their household due to the backyard farming activities such as mixed cropping, mono cropping, and vegetable farming. The study revealed through the cultivation of maize, plantain, yam, cassava okro and garden eggs, farmers had enough food to feed the family. This provided stable family and reduced diseases such as anaemia associated with malnutrition. However, few farmers 22.3% believed that they did not have adequate food to feed the family because of difficulty in accessing a small portion of land at back of the house for backyard farming in Oda.

4.5 Comparative Analysis of the Study Communities

The study examined livelihoods of migrant farmers in the wake of land re-possession. The study communities were selected to understand the spatial variation between urban towns and communities in terms of land access, extent of vulnerabilities, survival strategies and livelihood outcomes. The study sought to research into the motive behind land re-possession and alternative survival livelihood strategies of poor farmers to improve living. To understand the spatial variety of such strategies, a comparative study has been conducted to study urban and communities in Birim Central Municipal (Oda, Asene and Aboabo). Oda is the Capital of the Municipality which is an urban town in terms of population (GSS, 2010) while the two communities are adjoining communities that are developing in terms population

and infrastructure (GSS, 2010). The study communities do not only differ in terms of population sizes but also infrastructural development and employment opportunities. The study communities were also selected bearing in mind the rate of re-possession of farm land for infrastructural development such as housing at the expense of migrant farmers (Ministry of Food and Agriculture, 2013). The migrant farmers are described as people who have no ownership over land and their farming contract can be terminated or ejected and repossessed by land owners as a result of urbanisation and population growth. In this section, the land access and motive behind re-possession will be discussed between farmers in urban towns and peri-urban communities, the extent of vulnerability as well as survival livelihoods.

Oda and the two communities (Asene & Aboabo) are connected because they are in the same Municipality and along the same road network. Asene and Aboabo are adjoining communities of Oda and as such undertake similar cultural and social activities such as funeral rites and festivals. However, the communities depend on Oda for wider market, employments, higher education and hospital. They differ in the area of land access. In Oda, people access land from the Kotoku Traditional royal family through purchasing and individuals who wish to sell their acquired lands. But in Asene and Aboabo, lands are owned by communal members, natives and families and can only be accessed through leasing. The motive behind land re-possession also differs in the study communities. The land owners who repossess their land sell the re-possessioned land to middle and higher income people due to high demand and value of peri-urban lands for housing and industrial development as well as the comparative advantage cost of peri-urban lands to urban lands.

In analysing the extent of economic and social vulnerability impacts on migrant farmers and in the Municipality, farmers at Asene and Aboabo tend to become affected economically in terms of land loss and investment loss as compared to famers at Oda. This is because, farmers in Asene and Aboabo communities mainly depend on farming as the main source for food production and income generation. As a result, farmers invest during farming season in order to maximum farm produce and generate income. However, in Oda, migrant farmers hardly invest in farming due to the fact lands used for farming are owned by individuals and can be taken away from them for projects. This affects their food security because they are unable to produce enough for look after the family.

The relationship of social vulnerability impacts on migrant farmers and the study communities are clear as famers in Asene and Aboabo get affected most in terms of depression disorders such as loneliness, madness and suicides due to the high investment made in farm. Migrant farmers in the communities, make high risk investments in the farms by buying fertilizers to enrich the soil for higher productivity, using pesticides and insecticides to get rid of pests and insets in order to have healthy products for good sale. These investments affect farmers mentally when land owners re-possess the lands for housing activities. However, in Oda farmers hardly suffer depression disorder due to inadequate investment into farms.

Regarding homeless and neglect by neighbours and families, most farmers in Oda suffer due to the individualistic living in urban areas as most people tend to stay away from problems incurred by others. Farmers in Oda face the problem of neglect and homeless because they did not get support from other people as a result of land re-possession. However, the situation is different in Asene and Aboabo as farmers are supported by associations such as Farmers' Associations, friends due to the

community interrelationship that exist among community members and the reciprocity spirit among associations and families.

The survival livelihood strategies employed by farmers differ in the study communities. Asene and Aboabo engaged in backyard farming activities to secure food due communal relationship between the land owning families and migrant farmers. However, in Oda, farmers had problem with food security because of unavailable of land for backyard farming due to the individualistic living in urban towns. As farmers in Oda engage in petty trading along as alternative strategies, those in Asene and Aboabo sought to engage in retail in kiosk and in small shops while others engaged in low-skilled jobs as labourers such as road construction due to their low level education.

Interestingly, farmers in Oda generated more income from petty trading activities due to population and employment activities in the urban centres as compared to income generation from small retail shops at Asene and Aboabo. In the same way, farmers in Asene and Aboabo had sufficient food from backyard garden since farmers had access to the piece of land at back of the house.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This study examined the reasons of land re-possession and its effects on the livelihood of migrant farmers. The study specifically discussed the extent of vulnerability of migrant farmers, survival strategies employed and livelihood outcomes resulting from the strategies in Oda, Asene and Aboabo communities in Birim Central Municipal. This chapter present summary of the findings in relation to the objectives, conclusion and policy recommendation.

5.1 Summary of Research Findings

The study focused on the motive behind land re-possession by land owners and the vulnerabilities associated with the act. The research specifically examined the reasons of owner re-possession of land, extent of vulnerability of migrant farmers, survival livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes of the strategies. In order to achieve the objectives and unearth the conditions migrant farmers go through in the wake of land re-possession in the Municipality, the following research questions were asked:

- Why do land-owners repossess their lands?
- To what extent do migrant farmers become vulnerable?
- How do migrant farmers survive in the mist of their vulnerabilities?
- What are the livelihood outcomes of migrants' survival?

Having the research questions in mind, mixed method research (quantitative and qualitative) was conducted in the three communities; Oda, Asene and Aboabo. The information obtained was analysed in four broad areas in relation to land access and reasons of land re-possession, extent of vulnerability, livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes. The theoretical approach underpinning the study to understand vulnerability, livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes was the sustainable livelihood approach (SLA). The (SLA) approach was extensively discussed in chapter two. The central focus of the (SLA) is the relationships between assets people possess in practice to pursue alternative strategies that can create the income level desirable for survival (Chambers and Conway, 1991). It also acknowledges shocks and trends that threaten people assets which result in insecurity in the well-being of individuals, households, and communities in the face of changes in their external environment (Devereux, 2001).

To answer the question on the reasons and motive behind owner re-possession of land, in chapter four, I discussed chronologically with evidence in the communities how farmers access land through leasing on sharecropping contractual basis in Asene and Aboabo which does not provide long-term security for the farmers. However, in the Municipal area, in oda, land access is through purchase. The sharecropping system is mostly informal between two or more people, hence, subjected to re-possession when the need arises (Anafo, 2011). The study revealed that the major reasons land owners repossess their farm lands in the study communities are housing. The other motive behind the land use of repossessed land includes farming, local industries, recreation and hospitality, banks and schools. The land use of the repossessed land in the three communities differs. In Oda, which is the capital of the Municipality, land use of the repossessed land is residential and commercial housing apartment due to

the urbanization and infrastructural development in the area. Asene and Aboabo are developing communities and have their repossessed land used for housing and local industries to turn their farm produce into finished ones.

In chapter four, the study discusses the extent of vulnerability of migrant farmer in the mist of land re-possession. The study revealed that migrant farmers find themselves in vulnerability context as their only resource; land is taken away from them. The study discussed shocks such as temporal tenancy arrangements and seasonality such as high prices of cocoa production that threaten migrants land resources as livelihood. The study particularly found out that migrant farmers suffered economic vulnerabilities such as loss of land, financial difficulties, food shortage, loss of investment and unemployment. The study also revealed that farmers suffered social vulnerabilities such as depression disorders, neglect from neighbours as well as homelessness. The study revealed the extent of vulnerability differs from community to community. For instance, the migrants in Oda suffer food shortage as compared to because they did not have the opportunities access multiple lands due to individualistic living in urban areas.

The question on how migrant farmers survive in the face of economic and social vulnerabilities was addressed by survival alternative livelihood strategies employed by the farmers. The study revealed alternative livelihood strategies such as backyard farming, livestock farming, and remittances from relatives and farmers' associations, commercial activities and wage employment. The study specifically revealed various type of backyard farming such as mixed cropping, mixed farming, mono cropping and crop rotation which adequate food such as plantain, cassava, okro for migrants' household. The study found that petty trading and retail activities generated income as well as wage employment activities such as mason, carpentry and road construction.

Although the income generated from the activities was not as the income obtained from the main farming activities they used to do, the study revealed that it was better as such income was used to pay school fees. The study also revealed the system of reciprocity where, individuals benefit from the network established with groups and associations due to the deep and wide relationship between them. The study found that migrant farmers get assistance from relatives and farmers' cooperative groups in the study communities.

The research revealed livelihood outcomes such as more income, increased well being, reduce vulnerability and improved food security from the survival strategies employed. The pointed out that the petty trading, retail ctivities and wage employment such as block construction and wood construction generated enough income which was used to pay schools and utility bills. Having more income provided the farmers the sense of self control, sense of belongingness and esteem to particate in community decision making processes. The backyard garden and livelivestock farming provided the migrants' household with adequate food hence, reducing the vulnerabilty of the migrant.

5.2 Conclusion

Farm land access in Birim Central was characterized by leasing, inheritance, purchase and state vested. Due to urbanization and population growth, accessed lands through leasing are repossessed by land owners for housing, industries and hospitality facilities due to the flexible conditions under share-cropping farming agreements. These farmers to some extent become vulnerable due to the loss of their resources and assets (land). Having withstand to the shocks that come with land re-possession, farmer engage in survival livelihood strategies such as backyard farming, petty trading and retail; remittances and wood and block construction. This eventually

generates more income, increase well-being, reduce vulnerability of farmers and ensure food security.

Following the core research findings in the three study communities, Oda, Asene and Aboabo, the study revealed that, farmers who inherit their land have controlled over the land use and therefore have sustainable livelihoods. On the other hand, migrant farmers close to the urban areas usually suffer from land re-possession by the land owners as a result of unwritten contractual agreements between land owners and migrant farmers, has devastating effects on the livelihoods of migrant farmers. However, it is clear from the study that migrant farmers strategically devise alternative means of surviving from vulnerabilities that affect their lives. The study therefore concludes, based on the research findings, that poor persons who are exposed to political, economic or social vulnerabilities, devise surviving strategies to improve their living by generating more income, increase well-being, reduced vulnerability and ensure food security. In terms of contribution to knowledge, this research has revealed care take farmers who are in the hinterlands have more secured contract to farm than those at the urban fringes. The result of this research comes close to the findings of Hussein and Nelson (1998), that individuals challenged by vulnerabilities attempt to find new ways to raise incomes and reduce economic and environmental risk.

5.3 Recommendations

In view of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made for consideration.

- The Birim Central Municipal Assembly and migrant famers should ensure that land for agricultural activities is registered and have a written document covering the contractual arrangement to help curtail the loss or fear of losing farmlands.
- The Ministry of Lands and Forestry, the Land Commission, the Town and Country Planning Department of the Birim Municipal Assembly, should protect the rights of existing agricultural lands by conserving arable lands to support farming activities from estate developers along peri- urban areas.
- The Ministry of Food and Agriculture and the Welfare Department of Birim Municipal Assembly, should ensure that the affected farmers are paid proper compensation for forced eviction, encroachment and conversion of farmlands into housing development and physical structure to continue the farming activities.
- The Birim Central Municipal Assembly and the government of Ghana should provide skilled-learning jobs such as dressmaking, beads making and basketry to affected farmers as alternative job in order to provide income and reduce unemployment in the study communities.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FARMERS IN THE COMMUNITY

This questionnaire seeks to examine Owner Re-possession of Land and Its Effect on Livelihood of Migrant Farmers in Akim Oda Birim Central Municipal. It determines how these practices impact on the livelihoods of migrant farmers and their dependents in the area. It also considers how the actions and inactions of the customary authority in the control, allocation, and regulation of the use of community assets, especially land asset, influence the ability of migrant farmers to own land, decide on livelihood strategy, to improve upon livelihoods and reduce vulnerability. It is used strictly for research purposes and the information gathered from the respondent will be kept confidential. Please answer this questionnaire as sincerely as it may apply to you. Thank you for contributing to knowledge, and also reshaping humanity.

Please tick the appropriate place and provide answers where necessary

A Demographic Data

1. Study site..... Akim Oda [], other specify.....
2. Designation ...chief [], Clan head [], Household head [], Other [].
3. Age 20-30 [], 31-40 [],41-50 [], other Specify []
4. Gender..... Male [], Female¹ []
5. Educational level. .Non-formal [], JHS/Middle level [], SHS/Tech [],Tertiary []
6. Nativity*Native [], Settler/Stranger/Migrant¹ []
7. Nationality
8. Marital statusNever Married [], Married [], Divorced [], Widowed³ []
other, specify
.....

9. How many people feed from your kitchen regularly[], (HH size vs size of land)

10. How many of them cannot fend for themselves..... []?

11. Are you a farmer? Yes [], No []

12. How long have you been working as a farmer 1-2yrs [], 2-3yrs [] 3-4yrs [], 5yrs above []

13. What crops do you grow? Cash crops [], Vegetables [], Cereals [], Root & Tuber [] Other Specify.....

B. Land Ownership and Reasons of Re-possession of Land

14. Do you own the land you are working on? Yes [], No []

15. How did you get access to the land? Inherited [], Leased [], Purchased [], Other Specify.....

16. Do you have someone who works on the land for you? Yes [], No []

17. If yes, how long has the person been working on the land? 1-2yrs [], 3-4yrs [], 5- 6yrs [], Other specify.....

18. What is the nature of agreement on the released land? To feed on it [], For Sharing [], To Protect it [], other Specify.....

19. Why do you want to re-possess the land? Housing and building purpose [], Farming purpose [], Industrial purpose [], Banking purpose [], Recreational purpose [] Other Specify.....

C. The Extent of Vulnerability of Migrants

20. Are you a migrant of land Yes [], No []

21. How long have you been farming as migrant? 1-2yrs [], 2-3yrs [] 3-4yrs [], 5yrs above []

22. How will you feel if the land owner decides to re-possess the land? Sad [],
Worried [], Depressed [] other Specify.....

23. What were you doing on the land before re-possession? Farming [], Animal
rearing [], Housing [], Other Specify

24. Rank on Likert Scale the level of economic effects of migrants as a result of land
re-possession.

| | | | | |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

| Impacts | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Loss of Land | | | | | |
| Loss of Farm products | | | | | |
| Loss of Income | | | | | |
| Loss of investment | | | | | |

25. How does land re-possession affect your social life? Neglect from the
neighbourhood [], Depression [], Homeless [] Other
Specify.....

26. How does the land re-possession affect your family? Homeless [], Difficult to
feed them [], Difficult paying my children's fees [], Other Specify

D. Survival (Adaptive and Alternative) Livelihood Strategies of Migrants

27. What economic activity have you engaged in after land re-possession?
Agriculture [], Commerce/Petty trading [], Agro- processing [], Service [],
other Specify []

D. Agriculture (Crop)

28. What type of farming practice do you undertake? Mono cropping [], Mixed
cropping [], Crop rotation [], other Specify

29. What type of crops do you cultivate? Plantain [], Yam [], Cassava [], other Specify
30. Do you market your farm products? Yes [], No []
31. If yes, how much do you get from the sales of the products? Gh¢20-50 [], Gh¢50-70 [], Gh¢70-100 [], other Specify
32. What type of livestock do you rear? Goats [], Sheep [], Fowls [], other Specify
33. How much do get from the sale of the livestock per year? GH¢20-50 [], GH¢50-100 [], GH¢100-200 [], GH¢200 [] Other Specify.....

D. Remittances

34. Do you have any relatives or family members who support you during the period of shock?
Yes [], No []
35. What kinds of support do get from them? Money [], food items [], Other Specify.....
36. Indicate on the Linkert Scale 1-5 the level of support Migrants get from social network during their temporal shock of land re-possession by land owners

| | | | | |
|------------------|-------------|---------|------------|-----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Very Low Support | Low Support | Neutral | Supportive | Very supportive |

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Support From | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Church groups | | | | | |
| Relatives / Family members | | | | | |
| Neighbours | | | | | |
| Co-operative groups | | | | | |
| Welfare Groups | | | | | |
| Migrants/ Settlers groups | | | | | |

D. Commercial Activity/ Petty Trading

37. What trading activity do you engage in during temporal shock of Land re-possession by land owners? Sale of Agriculture products [], Retailing [], Sale of Processing products[], other Specify
38. Is the trading activity beneficial to your livelihood? Yes[], No []
39. If Yes, how much do get from the sales? Gh¢30-50 [], 50-80 [], 80-100 [], other Specify.....

D. Wage Employment (Construction Works)

40. Do you engage in any construction works as alternative livelihood during the temporal shock of land re-possession? Yes, [], No, []
41. What kind of construction works do you engage in? Road construction [], Building construction [], Wood works [], other Specify
42. How much do you get from the construction work? Gh¢100-200 [], Gh¢200-300 [], GH¢300-400[] other Specify []

E. Livelihood Outcomes

43. Indicate on the Linkert Scale 1-5 the level of livelihood outcomes of migrant famers

| | | | | |
|------------------|-------------|---------|----------------------|--------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Very Low Outcome | Low Outcome | Neutral | Satisfactory Outcome | High Outcome |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Level of Sustainability and Outcomes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| More Income | | | | | |
| Increased Well-being | | | | | |
| Reduced Vulnerability | | | | | |
| Improved Food Security | | | | | |

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS

This Interview is designed to solicit opinion(s) on the issue of Land Re-possession and Its Effects on Livelihood of Migrants in Akim Oda, Birim Central Municipal. It is a research work being carried out by a Master of Philosophy (MPhil) student at the Department of Geography Education, University of Education, Winneba. You are kindly requested to provide answers to enable the researcher contribute to knowledge in the field of study. Kindly be assured that your response(s) would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please remember participation in the study is voluntary. This means that no one is forced to take part in the study. Should you wish to withdraw from the study, please feel free to do so. Thank you.

A. Demographic data

1. What is your name?
2. Where do you come from?
3. How old are you?
4. Did you have formal education?
5. What job are doing you do?
6. Do you have a spouse? (probe to get details)
7. Where is your spouse now?
8. How many are your children?
9. Do they live with you?
10. Are your children still in school or working?
11. Are you a farmer?
12. How long have you been working as a farmer? above []
13. What crops do you grow?

B. Land Ownership and Reasons of Re- possession of Land

14. Do you own a land in this area?
15. How did you get access to the land?
16. Who issued the land to you?
17. Do you have someone who works on the land for you?
18. How long has the person been working on the land?
19. Why did you give the land to the person?
20. Why do you want to re-possess the land?

C. The Extent of Vulnerability of Migrants

21. Who re-possesses the land?
22. What was the nature of agreement on land re-possession?
23. What were you doing on the land?
24. How does land re-possession affect your economic life?
25. How does land re-possession affects your social life?
26. Were you living on the land with your family?
27. If yes, how does it affect your family and other dependents?

D. Survival (Adaptive and Alternative) Livelihood Strategies of Migrants

28. What economic activities have you engaged in during and after your
Land re-possession
29. Have the economic activities been beneficial to your livelihood?
30. What type of farming activity do you engage in?
31. Do you market your farming produce?
32. How much do you get from the sales of the products?
33. What type of animals do you rear?
34. Do you sell some of the animals?
35. If yes, how much do you get from the sales?
36. Do you have family members or relatives who support you financially?
37. Is there any association or group that supports you financially?
38. Do you engage in trading activities?
39. What type of trading activity do you engage in?
40. How much do you get from the sales of the trading activity?
41. Do you engage in construction works?
42. What type of construction works do
43. How much do you get from the construction works?

E. Livelihood Outcomes

44. How do you see yourselves now?
45. Do you receive enough money from the alternative economic activity?
46. How do describe your current livelihood?
47. Do you have sufficient food for your household?
48. How do you feel now in the community? (Probe for the correct answers)

