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Rural-Urban Migration and the Extent of Urbanization: A Case Study of Rural Migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra

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Rural-Urban Migration and the Extent of Urbanization:
A Case Study of Rural Migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science in Geography

by

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Bachelor of Science in Geography and Regional Planning, 2021

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Abstract

This study delves into the dynamics of rural-to-urban migration, emphasizing its impact on urbanization in the unique context of Ghana. As migration patterns evolve globally, understanding the motivations and challenges of internal migration is crucial for informed policy-making. The case study focuses on migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra, exploring factors propelling urbanization, challenges in urban job searches, and proposing strategies for managing urbanization. The research uses a comprehensive methodology to draw on extensive data from the 2021 Population and Housing Census. Utilizing thematic reports on migration, economic activities, background characteristics, and education, the study employs descriptive and inferential statistical tools for detailed analysis. Geospatial software, including ArcGIS Pro and Google Earth Engine, is also leveraged to map spatial migration patterns and examine land use changes. Additionally, the use of imaginative image-making served as a route for analyzing the objectives of the research.

The objectives include unraveling the motivations behind rural-to-urban migration, scrutinizing challenges faced by migrants, and proposing strategies for urbanization control. The study adopts a case study design for its suitability in investigating the complexities of the migration phenomenon, particularly focusing on the experiences of rural migrants in Accra. While past studies explored urbanization and migrant livelihoods, this study uniquely unveils the challenges rural migrants face in their job searches. Moreover, it extends beyond causative factors to offer practical suggestions for managing and controlling urbanization in the studied context.

The findings aim to inform policymakers, urban planners, and researchers alike, providing valuable insights into the multifaceted nature of rural-to-urban migration and its implications for urban development in Ghana.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Human mobility, an inherent aspect of recorded history (IOM, 2020), has evolved in contemporary times with increased frequency within and across internal and external borders due to globalization and advancements in transportation over time. Migration, a phenomenon deeply rooted in human history, encompasses diverse motivations such as fleeing wars, seeking economic opportunities, and exploring new places (Awumbila et al., 2008). According to estimates from the International Organization of Migration (IOM, 2020), there were 272 million international migrants worldwide in 2019. This is an increase from 173 million and 220 million in 2000 and 2010, respectively. According to the United Nations (2018), more than half of the world's population today resides in urban areas, and this number is expected to increase by 75% by the year 2050, with an annual growth rate of 65 million urban residents. In addition, between 2010 and 2050, there are predicted to rise from 400 million to 1.26 billion urban dwellers in Africa (UN-Habitat, 2014).

Grappling with its unique migration patterns, Ghana primarily experiences internal migration (Duplantier et al., 2017). According to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2014a), approximately 98.7 percent of migrants within the country are internal migrants. These migrations manifest in various spatial patterns, including rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-rural, and urban-urban movements (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995). Ghana's internal migration dynamics are notably shaped by the north-to-south migration stream, predominantly from rural areas in the north to more urbanized southern regions (Awumbila, 2007). Historical patterns indicate a steady growth in north-to-south migration, with fluctuations in the 1970s and 1980s but a remarkable surge during the last 15 years of the 20th century (Van der Geest, 2011). Ghana has a three-tiered

government structure: central, regional, and district. The regional-level data reveals varying out-migration rates, with Wa, the capital of the Upper West region, exhibiting the highest rate at 26.9%, followed by Bolgatanga with 22.2% and Tamale with 13.0% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005).

Ghana's population expansion, marked by significant urban growth, is a consequence of historical policies and the interplay between natural population increase and net migration that is positive (Obiri et al., 2022). Rural-to-urban migration, a global phenomenon, propels urbanization and population expansion, presenting challenges discussed in various forums (Xu et al., 2019; Agyemang, Silva, & Poku-Boansi, 2019).

Rapid urbanization in many developing-world cities has led to the creation of slums and a simultaneous increase in unemployment rates. According to the African Development Bank Group, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, the United Nations Development Program, and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2012), the unemployment rate in metropolitan regions is thought to be more than six times greater than the rate in rural areas in several African countries like South Africa (Kingdon & Knight, 2004). In Ghana, urban unemployment rates are exacerbated by both internal migration and international migration, with the World Bank reporting a 48% unemployment rate among Ghanaians aged 15 to 24 in 2015. While the pursuit of employment opportunities often drives rural-urban migration, it simultaneously contributes to rising unemployment in urban areas (Honorati & de Silva, 2016; Sackey & Osei, 2006).

The relevance of researching rural-urban migration is emphasized by its growing significance in the development context, especially in less developed nations (Tacoli et al., 2015). While scholarly literature occurs on urbanization and spatial changes in metropolitan

areas, a notable gap remains in propelling the driving factors of urbanization and internal migration in the Global South (Dadashpoor & Malekzadeh, 2020; Saghir & Santoro, 2018; Mathotaarachchi et al., 2021). This research endeavors to bridge this gap by delving into the motivations of rural-to-urban migration and its impact on urban centers, addressing a critical void in current scholarly discourse in the specific geographic context of the country of Ghana.

Existing studies on migration strategies have extensively examined the livelihoods of migrants in urban settings, yet there remains a gap in understanding the full scope of challenges faced by rural migrants during their job searches (Agyei et al., 2016; Adaawen & Owusu, 2013; Awumbila et al., 2014; Amoako & Apusigah, 2015). Additionally, despite the extensive focus on rural-urban migration, particularly in Ghana, research has not exhaustively addressed suggestions for controlling urbanization in urban areas.

This research was inspired by the Alhassan's scholarly work (Alhassan, 2017), which investigated rural-urban migration from the Northern Region of Ghana to Kumasi, the second-largest city in the country. While my study drew upon the organizational framework established by Alhassan, the information and data presented in my research are distinct. Alhassan's work offered valuable insights into migration patterns and the drivers of rural-urban migration within a specific context. In contrast, my research expanded upon this foundation by examining similar phenomena across various geographical areas within the five regions of Northern Ghana (Northern, Upper East, Upper West, Savannah, and North East). Additionally, my study explored additional dimensions of the migration process beyond what was covered in Alhassan's work, which focused solely on the Northern Region. Although there may be similarities in overarching themes and theoretical frameworks, the specific findings, analyses, and conclusions of my

research are unique and contribute to a broader understanding of migration dynamics and their implications.

In sum, this study focuses on understanding the rationales behind rural-urban migration causing urbanization in the African context, focusing on a case study of migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra. Two key research questions guide the investigation are: (1) What are the statistical trends and demographic factors that explain the patterns of migration, destinations, and motivations for migration in Ghana based on the most recent census data? And (2) What are the personal experiences, reasons, and stories behind migration patterns in Ghana, according to the most recent census data?

The thesis is structured into ten chapters, each dedicated to exploring different facets of rural-urban migration dynamics in Ghana. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction, providing the background of the study, articulating the problem statement, posing research questions, and outlining the thesis structure. Chapter 2 conducts a comprehensive review of empirical literature on rural-urban migration, elucidating key concepts such as migration, labor migration, urbanization, and livelihood. Additionally, it presents a pull-push theory to provide a theoretical framework for understanding rural-urban migration dynamics. Chapter 3 delves into the context of migration within Ghana, offering an extensive literature review on rural-urban migration in the country, specifically focusing on migration from Northern Ghana to Southern Ghana. Chapter 4 outlines the research methodology, detailing data sources, collection methods, analysis techniques, and the overall research design. Chapter 5 provides an overview of the geographical context of the case study areas, with particular emphasis on migration from Northern Ghana to Accra. Chapter 6 analyzes quantitative findings related to migration and urbanization patterns, demographic characteristics of migrants, and factors driving urbanization in the study areas.

Chapter 7 analyzes findings quantitatively, focusing on the challenges faced by rural migrants in accessing employment opportunities in urban areas. Chapter 8 focuses on spatial analysis and imaginative image-making of the research objectives, qualitatively examining migration phenomena's distribution, patterns, and trends across various geographical locations. Chapter 9 also analyzes findings quantitatively of the characteristics and socioeconomic motivations of rural migrants, along with their impacts on Accra's metropolitan landscape and the rural hinterlands of Northern Ghana. Finally, Chapter 10 offers a robust conclusion that is academic in orientation and also incorporates existing policy recommendations to help manage and control the challenges of urbanization in Accra.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the study. The review of the literature covers the definitions and concepts related to rural-urban migration. These include migration, labor migration, rural areas, urban areas, rural-urban migration, urbanization, and livelihood. A thorough understanding of these terminologies is important for explaining the extent of urbanization in Ghana, a case study of rural migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra. Also, the literature review presents the push-pull theory as a theoretical framework for understanding rural-urban migration in the context of the research questions. The theory was selected because it fits well with the research objectives and approach used in this thesis, as well as because it is applicable to the situation of developing nations like Ghana.

Migration

Migration is the term used to describe the migration of people across political boundaries to take up permanent or semi-permanent residence (National Geographic Society, 2005). Both at the place of origin and the place of destination, it has a significant impact on people's economic, social, cultural, and psychological well-being (Kaur, 2003). Migration, as a complex and multifaceted concept, is primarily defined as either international (across nation-state borders) or internal (within the borders of a nation-state) in nature (King, 2013). Labor migration, the movement of people within a home country or outside to pursue work, intertwines geographical relocation with employment-seeking endeavors. In the knowledge economy, finance, and related industries, migrant workers hold highly skilled and well-paid positions; in the manufacturing, services, care, and agricultural sectors, they labor in some of the most exploitative professions in

the world. The World Bank estimates that in 2011, there were over 215 million people living outside of their countries of birth, up from 84.5 million in 1975 (Arnold, 2017). An estimated 105 million of these people are international migrant workers (Arnold, 2017). More than 700 million move around within their own countries. At least four channels could be involved with these migrants (Samers, 2010). First and foremost, people may migrate in anticipation of improved working conditions, such as increased pay. Secondly, people move because they hear about job openings from friends, family, and acquaintances. With assistance with housing, work permit information, state rules, and other daily needs, these networks aid migrants in establishing themselves. Thirdly, people move when hired by an employer. The recruitment may involve friends, government organizations, and private labor firms. Fourthly, migrants can be trafficked and unlawfully recruited. These migrants most frequently work in extremely exploitative and low-paying jobs (Arnold, 2017).

According to Nwanze (2000), rural areas are areas with populations between 5,000 and 10,000 people that rely mostly on agriculture and natural resources for their subsistence. However, the characterization of Ghana's landscape cannot be solely confined to this definition. In some urban areas of the country, a significant segment of the population exists whose livelihoods are solely reliant on agriculture. This demonstrates a unique intersection between rural and urban livelihood strategies within certain urban settings in Ghana. Thus, while traditional rural areas predominantly rely on agricultural activities, there are exceptions within Ghana's urban landscape where agriculture plays a central role in supporting the livelihoods of urban residents. According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), settlements with a population of 5,000 or more are often categorized as urban. Settlements with fewer than 5,000 residents are classified as rural.

Rural-Urban Migration

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas into cities (urban areas) either permanently or temporarily based on reasons such as employment opportunities, personal freedoms, seeing friends and family, famine, rural poverty, and wars. Labor migration also involves the movement of people from one place to another to pursue better economic prospects and a better quality of life. Some policymakers and urban planners now believe that rural-urban migration creates slum areas and raises global crime rates, which negatively impacts the growth of cities across many countries (Yang, 2008).

Urbanization

Rural-urban migration contributes to urbanization. Urbanization refers to the process of the growth and development of cities, resulting in a rise in the proportion of a country's population that resides in urban areas. Several factors, including economic development and industrialization, also drive this phenomenon. The development of urbanization primarily stems from the needs and actions of human beings (Xu et al., 2019). With the increasing urban population, urbanization has various effects on the aspects of the economy, society, and culture. One of the main impacts of urbanization is the significant expansion in population density in urban areas. This increase in population density is a direct result of urbanization and has a profound effect on the growth and expansion of cities. As cities continue to expand, there is a greater need for various resources and services to accommodate the growing population. This includes providing sufficient housing, transportation, healthcare facilities, and education opportunities for urban residents. Furthermore, urbanization also brings about challenges such as the expansion of informal settlements, pollution, urban sprawl, inadequate sanitation, and disaster management (Mokoena & Musakwa, 2018). As urbanization continues to occur rapidly

in developing countries, particularly African countries, managing the challenges associated with this process has become a pressing issue for policymakers and urban planners. Urbanization affects the physical landscape of cities and has significant economic implications.

From an economic perspective, urbanization is strongly influenced by a region's overall economic development (Di Clemente et al., 2021). Urbanization is often driven by factors such as increased employment prospects, improved infrastructure, and access to markets. Many relocate from rural to urban areas in quest of improved living conditions due to these factors (Buckley et al., 2008; Duranton, 2014).

Livelihood

The term “livelihood” is more than just a measure of living expenditures. It represents the activities, resources, and opportunities that enable individuals and households to meet their basic needs and aspire for more. As Ellis (1998) points out, once the fundamental needs of life are met, the pursuit of higher aspirations becomes possible, thereby shaping individual and societal progress. The framework for rural livelihoods focuses on how rural residents make a living when they move to have access to resources or assets (Hebinck & Bourdillon, 2002). Livelihood assets are the assets or resources that people utilize to support their livelihoods. These resources can be divided into five categories: financial, natural, social, human, and physical resources. Human resources or assets include education, healthcare, nourishment, expertise, and ability to work. Social resources or assets entail rules and regulations, involvement in decision-making, and leadership. Also, natural resources or assets include water bodies, forests, plants, animals, and the environment. Financial resources entail investment, personal funds, incomes, and

remittances. Physical resources include roads, bridges, buildings, equipment for farming and fishing, produce from farmlands, and energy supply. (Serrat, 2017).

Push-Pull Theory

The push-pull theory, also known as the push-pull model, is a classic framework in migration studies that attempts to explain why people migrate from one place to another. According to the theory, migration is impacted by the existence of pull forces at the destination and push factors at the origin (Lee, 1966). Pull factors are factors that draw migrants to their destination locations in the quest to better their means of living. These factors include employment opportunities, better wages, a better environment, and access to better educational, health, and sanitation facilities. On the other hand, the push factors tend to push migrants away from their place of origin and include unfavorable factors such as unemployment, conflicts, rural poverty, and lack of access to educational, health, and social facilities (Lee, 1966). Lee's (1966) theory of migration also emphasizes the importance of selectivity in migration, suggesting that migrants are not a random sample of the population but rather a select group of individuals who are more likely to migrate due to their personal characteristics and circumstances. Lee (1966) argues that the characteristics of the origin area, such as the diversity of the region and the population that inhabits it, play a crucial role in shaping migration patterns. He notes that the volume of migration is related to the diversity of the regions and the population that inhabits them, as well as the degree of difficulty of intervening obstacles and economic fluctuations. Also, Lee (1966) suggests that the characteristics of the origin area, such as the level of economic development, education, and job opportunities, are more important in determining migration decisions than the characteristics of the destination area. This is because migrants are often motivated by a desire to escape unfavorable conditions in their origin area rather than being

attracted by specific characteristics of the destination area. Additionally, Lee's theory of migration (1966) sought to address the limitations of previous migration theories by considering both prospects and obstacles as factors influencing migration. The obstacles could be geographic barriers, language barriers, and legal challenges. Unlike earlier theories, such as Ravenstein's Laws of Migration, which focused primarily on establishing general laws, Lee's theory aimed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of migration by incorporating the reasons for migration and the socio-economic characteristics of migrants. Previous theories often overlooked the post-migration experiences of migrants, but Lee's theory aimed to take a more holistic approach, considering the entire migration process from beginning to end (Singh, 2023).

In conclusion, this literature review comprehensively explains the key concepts and terminologies related to rural-urban migration, urbanization, and livelihood. Whether international or internal, migration significantly shapes economic, social, and cultural dynamics at the place of origin and destination. Labor migration, in particular, intertwines geographical relocation with employment-seeking endeavors, with millions of individuals migrating within and across borders in search of better opportunities. Rural-urban migration, driven by factors such as employment opportunities, personal freedoms, and rural poverty, contributes to urbanization, the process of growth and development of cities. Urbanization, while offering economic opportunities and improved infrastructure, also presents challenges such as urban sprawl, pollution, and inadequate housing. Understanding livelihood strategies within migration is crucial, as households utilize various assets to support their means of living, including social, human, financial, physical, and natural resources or assets. Lee's push-pull theory explains the interplay between factors driving migration, emphasizing the role of both pull forces at destination areas and push factors at origin locations. By considering the motivations and

obstacles influencing migration decisions, this theory offers a comprehensive framework for understanding and addressing migration dynamics. Overall, this literature review sets the stage for examining rural-urban migration patterns and their impact on livelihoods, specifically in Ghana, providing a theoretical framework for understanding the complexities of migration dynamics. By delving into these concepts, researchers can gain insights into the drivers and consequences of migration, helping to shape actions and policies to deal with the problems and take advantage of the opportunities brought up by urbanization and migration.

Chapter 3

Migration in Ghana

Introduction

This chapter deals with migration in the country case of Ghana. The review of the literature includes rural-urban migration in Ghana, as well as migration from Northern Ghana to Southern Ghana. A comprehensive literature review is important for explaining the extent of urbanization in Ghana, a case study of rural migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra.

Rural-Urban Migration in Ghana

In Ghana and other developing countries, migration from rural to urban areas is the most common form of migration. Nonetheless, other kinds of migration occur on a smaller scale. According to data from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2012), rural-urban migration makes up 26.3% of all migration within the country, with urban-rural migration coming in second with 18.2% and rural-rural migration with 15.2%.

Ghanaian internal migration patterns are dominated by rural-urban mobility, according to Appianing (2013). While migration from rural to urban areas is a recurring phenomenon that can probably be handled, it has become a pressing concern in recent years (Deshingkar & Grimm, 2005). Ghana has the issue of unequal development and distribution of fundamental social amenities between rural and urban areas, just like many developing countries. The urban capital city of Ghana, which is Accra, is the hub of higher education, the modern economy, major sports and entertainment venues, excellent healthcare, and connectivity. After more than 50 years of gaining political independence and carrying out rural development projects by various national governments, Twumasi-Ankrah (1995) asserts that the discrepancies that existed during the colonial administration continue to exist. Actually, improving rural communities' roads and

transit infrastructure has only made migration from them easier. Similar to many other African nations, Ghana's resource distribution discrepancies contribute to the explanation of why people migrate to urban areas (Asamoah, 2020). Rural-urban migration can have a negative impact on both rural and urban areas, but there are also instances in which it helps the communities in question grow. Of the ten regions in Ghana, the Greater Accra (Accra), Ashanti (Kumasi), and Western Regions (Sekondi-Takoradi) are the most popular destinations for migrants, with the Upper East (Bolgatanga) and Upper West (Wa) being the least desired locations, according to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS7).

Migration From Northern Ghana to Southern Ghana

Migration from what is now northern Ghana to the south does not appear to have occurred very often before colonization (Van der Geest, 2011). In the past, many scholars linked migration to the British colonial system, which favored the country's southern regions over its northern ones (Songsore & Denkabe, 1995). North-South migration has emerged as a key feature of migration in Ghana in recent times due to the ongoing labor movement from the north to the southern regions (Yahaya, 2021). The most notable issue of the northern regions is evident as underdevelopment from the time of colonialism (Bening, 1990). Factors contributing to the trend of migration from north to south include environmental conditions linked with population growth and poverty, affecting inhabitants' livelihoods to prioritize outmigration (Abdul-Korah, 2008). Agriculture was the main economic activity for northern Ghana, with more than 70 percent recorded in the active labor force (GSS, 2012). Based on this economic activity, "Van der Geest (2011) found that reduced precipitation leading to loss of crop productivity, low vegetation, and the outflow of people from Northern Ghana to other regions of the country are significantly correlated, causing environmental changes" (Alhassan, 2017, p.14). The environmental changes

attributed to the region experiencing soil erosion as a result of the population pressure and the changing weather conditions produced dry seasons of seasonal hunger (Plange, 1979). In addition, poverty is still widespread in communities in northern Ghana, as Boateng et al. (1992) justified that there has not been a significant decrease in the degree of poverty during the past 10 years.

According to Tonah (2012), Northern Ghana has been severely affected by chieftaincy conflicts affecting the developmental infrastructures such as houses. This series of conflicts occurred all over the region, including Tamale, Bimbila, and Yendi (Issifu, 2021). Also notable among these conflicts are the Kokomba and Nanumba conflict, the Mamprusi and Kuasasi conflict, the Andani and Abudu conflict, and the Nadowli conflict (Brukum, 2000; Longi, 2014). In Ghana in 2019, there were over 2,300 new evictions associated with inter-communal violence (The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2020). In August 2019, 65 homes were set on fire in the Fulani community of Bagurugu in the Northern area. About 200 people were forced to relocate as a result. In the first half of the year, sporadic fighting between the Kokombas and Chokosis communities in the Northern region led to the displacement of more than 2,000 people. The conflict started in December 2018, and there is still occasional low-level violence today. At least eight Kokomba villages have been devastated, and thousands of homes have been set on fire. The two groups are at odds over a plot of land that has historical value to each of them. In Ghana, political participation is highly correlated with land ownership, which is a significant issue in a Kokomba-dominated area where Chokosis are viewed only as settlers. The year 2019 saw two major waves of violence, one in March and one in May. To keep the region safe and secure, military and police troops were stationed in the affected areas (The Internal Displacement

Monitoring Centre, 2020). People continue to migrate from the northern regions of the country to the southern regions as a result of these conflicts, which are perceived as safe havens.

Female porters, often referred to as *kayayei*, are mostly from Ghana's northern regions and have been noted to have played a significant role in the local economies of Accra and Kumasi. They play a significant role in the market exchange and revenue generation process, and their livelihoods positively impact their standard of living. This improvement is evident in their improved income accessibility, healthcare, and wealth acquisition. Furthermore, the remittances that these young women migrants send home to support their families. While there are challenges and vulnerabilities associated with head portering, it is crucial to recognize the contributions of *kayayei* to local economic development and their well-being. Rather than being perceived as a nuisance, they should be acknowledged for their role in Ghana's urban economies, which offers important information for further research on the study of female labor migration (Agyei et al., 2016). Growing interest in rural migration and its connection to the urban environment has been demonstrated by current research on the relationship between the population and the environment. This is because rural areas cover the majority of the world's natural resources, including land and forests, and rural migration plays a significant role in the population movement of humans (Amoah & Eshun, 2013).

Environmentally related variables, notably climate change, are a significant contributor to rural-urban migration in Ghana, as is seen throughout most of Africa (Tacoli, 2009). In Sub-Saharan Africa, 2.55 million people were displaced between 1960 and 2000 due to climatic changes, according to a paper by Marchiori, Maystadt, and Scumacher (2017). This issue has significantly affected Ghana, primarily its agriculture industry. Floods and droughts in East Africa and the Horn of Africa, according to Mbonile and Lihawa (1996), exacerbated urban

migration by causing a fall in cattle and the agricultural sector. According to Abdul-Korah (2007), a majority of men in Ghana abandoned their communities for the metropolis due to inadequate rainfall and the ensuing challenges of managing daily tasks and family obligations. The periodic character of the labor movement, which is determined by the alternating seasons of abundance in Ghana's north and south, according to Van den Berg et al. (2007), makes north-to-south mobility look like a natural adaptation to climate change. According to Van der Geest, Vrieling, and Dietz's (2010) research, environmental variables are a significant contributor to migration to the country's last significant cocoa frontier, located in the Western Region of Ghana, from both Northern and Southern Ghana's Middle Belt. This area is where cocoa production in Ghana is moving from one area to another in pursuit of rich soil and consistently high yields and profits (Knudsen & Agergaard, 2015).

Exaggerated expectations of high-quality city life also drive rural residents from their area of origin. In an effort to present a favorable impression of themselves to others, returning migrants in Northern Ghana frequently exaggerate, according to a study by Awumbila (2014). A recent study on Ghanaians' living standards obtained remarkable results, which indicated that many people's decisions to migrate were influenced more by domestic factors than by job requirements. Approximately 60% of migrants cited marital problems as their primary reason for migrating (GSS, 2014). Additionally, many migrants from rural areas — particularly in Ghana's north — to urban areas end up working in the informal sector in jobs including scrap dealing, *kayayei*, food vending, petty commerce, and construction (Awumbila & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008). Since they frequently come from rural areas and lack connections to authoritative people who may introduce them to employers in both government and formal commercial firms, many migrants feel they will never be able to find employment in the official sector (Awumbila et al.,

2014). To find jobs, migrants typically depend on individual networks, primarily through ties with family and friends, as they typically have limited access to official job-hunting services. Because these networks are typically formed through family ties or the place of origin, newly arrived migrants frequently reside and work in neighborhoods alongside more established migrants with the exact origin or ethnicity (Awumbila & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008). Assan (2014) found that while networks are important in helping rural-urban migrants find employment, some individuals have made it their career to plan and pre-finance the youth migration from rural areas to urban areas and arrange for them to find professions there. When looking for work information, migrants have also favored non-personal channels like prepaid cell phones, smartphones, and internet cafés, which are significant in enhancing the labor movement (Cartier, Castells & Qiu, 2005).

Although these studies offer crucial information on the causes of migration, they do not consider the perspectives and experiences of regular men and women migrants who have moved abroad, nor do they consider how household variables and migrant characteristics interact when making decisions. The causes of migration and ongoing migration are not constant; they shift throughout time and space. As a result, the work that has already been published only explains why people choose to migrate, not why they move. As a result, this literature enlightens the researcher on the elements that influence rural migrants' decisions to move from Northern Ghana (rural areas) to Southern Ghana (urban areas).

In conclusion, the comprehensive literature review sheds light on the multifaceted dynamics of rural-urban migration in Ghana, particularly focusing on the migration from Northern Ghana to the urban centers in the South. The urbanization trends in Southern Ghana reveal a rapidly growing urban population, driven not only by migration but also by internal

factors like high birth rates. The consequences of this urbanization are manifold, impacting economic, social, and cultural aspects. Challenges such as slum formation, resource strain, and environmental issues are critical concerns that necessitate effective urban planning and policy interventions. The literature reviewed highlights the complexity of migration decisions, challenging simplistic narratives. The integration of diverse factors, including livelihood considerations, environmental pressures, and individual characteristics, highlights the need for nuanced policymaking. As Ghana undergoes a profound demographic and economic transition, understanding the intricacies of rural-urban migration becomes imperative for informed decision-making, sustainable development, and the well-being of the population.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter defines the research methodology used for the study. Consequently, the chapter shows the sources of data, methods of data collection, methods of data analysis, and research design.

Data Sources, Collection Methods, and Analysis Techniques

The study makes use of available secondary data from the 2021 Population and Housing Census (PHC) conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS). This census publication has been divided into sub-reports. I will use the thematic report on migration, the populations of regions and districts report, the report on economic activities, the report on background characteristics, the education report, the age and sex composition report, and the literacy and education report for analysis (Ghana Statistical Service, 2022). The quantitative data derived will be analyzed to portray a holistic and thorough clarification of the study, where the data will be verified before its analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistical tools such as Microsoft Excel and the SPSS application program will be used for analysis based on the research objective. These tools will derive pie charts, bar graphs, histograms, figures, and cross tabulations to enhance the visual presentation of results and findings.

Geospatial software such as ArcGIS Pro and Google Earth Engine software will use the data to map the spatial migration patterns and explore the land use and land cover type (urban lands) in Ghana. It will use the MODIS land cover type product (MCD12Q1), GAUL, LSIB, and World Population Global Project Population datasets from the dataset catalog in Google Earth Engine software. The MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) land cover

type product (MCD12Q1) dataset was used to identify and classify the land cover type (urban lands) needed for this project (Friedl & Sulla-Menashe, 2022). The GAUL (The Global Administrative Unit Layers) dataset was used to locate a specific area — Greater Accra (FAO UN, 2015). The LSIB (Large Scale International Boundary) dataset was used to locate the study area — Ghana (United States Department of State, Office of the Geographer, 2013). The World Population Global Project Population dataset (University of Southampton, 2020) was used to show Ghana's population growth, patterns, and urban expansion between 2001, 2010, and 2020.

Research Design

This research investigated the case study research design, which was judged appropriate based on the research questions. The case study research design was suitable since it offered a thorough and in-depth examination of the case that was being studied. Furthermore, according to Yin (2014), a case study approach is appropriate when a thorough and in-depth examination of a social phenomenon is necessary to answer research concerns. Expanding on the appropriateness of the case study approach, it is notable that scholars in similar fields have utilized and recognized the efficiency of case study research design. Noteworthy examples from the literature include works by Alhassan (2017), Agyei, Kumi, and Yeboah (2016), Appianing (2013), Asamoah (2020), and Badolo (2020). These studies have contributed to conventional literature by employing case study approaches to delve deeply into various aspects of migration, providing detailed insights and a rich understanding of the complexities involved. The utilization of case study approaches in the mentioned scholarship emphasizes its versatility and applicability in exploring diverse contexts and phenomena. Scholars in the field of social sciences have demonstrated that a case study design is well-suited for unraveling the intricacies of rural-urban

migration and provides a thorough comprehension of the experiences, encounters, and dynamics involved in such movements.

In conclusion, this chapter has defined the research methodology used for investigating rural-urban migration patterns in Ghana, specifically focusing on migrants from Northern Regions to Accra. The study will utilize secondary data from the 2021 Population and Housing Census conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service, including thematic reports on migration, population demographics, economic activities, and education. Quantitative data from these sources will be analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical tools such as Microsoft Excel and SPSS. Additionally, geospatial software such as ArcGIS Pro and Google Earth Engine will be employed to map spatial migration patterns and explore Ghana's land use and land cover types. Various datasets, including MODIS land cover type product (MCD12Q1), GAUL, LSIB, and the World Population Global Project Population dataset, will be utilized for this purpose. A case study technique was selected as the research design for this study in order to enable a thorough and in-depth exploration of the phenomenon being studied. This design is deemed appropriate for exploring the complexities of rural-urban migration and provides a rich understanding of the experiences, challenges, and dynamics involved in such movements. Scholars in similar fields have demonstrated the effectiveness of the case study approach in unraveling various aspects of migration, further supporting its suitability for this study. Overall, the methodology outlined in this chapter will enable a comprehensive examination of rural-urban migration patterns in Ghana, contributing to a deeper understanding of the factors driving migration and its implications for urbanization and livelihoods. The findings of this study are expected to inform policies and interventions targeted at addressing the challenges and harnessing the potential benefits of rural-urban migration in Ghana.

Chapter 5

Geographical Context and Migration Stream

Introduction

This chapter outlines the geographical context of the case study areas, specifically focusing on migration from Northern Ghana to Accra. It will delve into the migration streams of individuals moving from various regions within Ghana to Accra, particularly emphasizing from Northern Ghana to Accra at the end. This movement is depicted in Figure 1 and Table 1.

Accra

Accra is Ghana's capital, largest city, and the country's economic hub. It has experienced remarkable growth in recent years, earning it the name of Greater Accra Metropolitan Area after encircling many neighboring areas (Akubia & Bruns, 2019). Along Ghana's Atlantic coast, in the southeast, Accra is situated between latitudes 5°5'27" N and 5°28'2" N and longitudes 0°4'58" E and 0°37'2" W. This city region spans a total area of 1,497 square kilometers and is divided into 12 administrative districts (Kwawuvi & Yangouliba, 2023). Accra had grown from a population of 190,000 when the country gained independence in 1957 to 4 million people in 2010, constituting more than 16% of Ghana's total population (GSS, 2014). As per the World Bank's 2017 study, the area has 90.5% urbanization and 4.2% annual growth in the urban population (National Population Council, 2017). In 2022, its population increased to 5.5 million inhabitants (GSS, 2022). Due to the conversion of natural vegetation and agricultural land into urban and peri-urban regions for infrastructure, structures, and industrial zones, Accra's land area has grown to 139.7 sq. km (Addae & Oppelt, 2019; Akubia & Bruns, 2019; Akubia et al., 2020). For example, from 96 sq. km in 2008 to 114 sq. km in 2017, the built-up area increased as a result of the conversion of agricultural land (10 sq. km) and natural vegetation (6 sq. km) (Akubia &

Bruns, 2019). Urbanization has resulted in a shift in the sources of livelihood from agriculture as the primary sector, manufacturing as the secondary sector, and services as the tertiary sector in Accra (Ghana Statistical Service 2014; Accra Metropolitan Assembly 2019). The GDP of Accra was 6.95 billion USD in 2019 (Accra Metropolitan Assembly, 2019), representing 10.3% of the country's GDP (World Bank, 2021). According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2019), the average income in Accra was 4,358 USD/cap/year in 2019, more than twice the national average of 2,166 USD/cap/year.

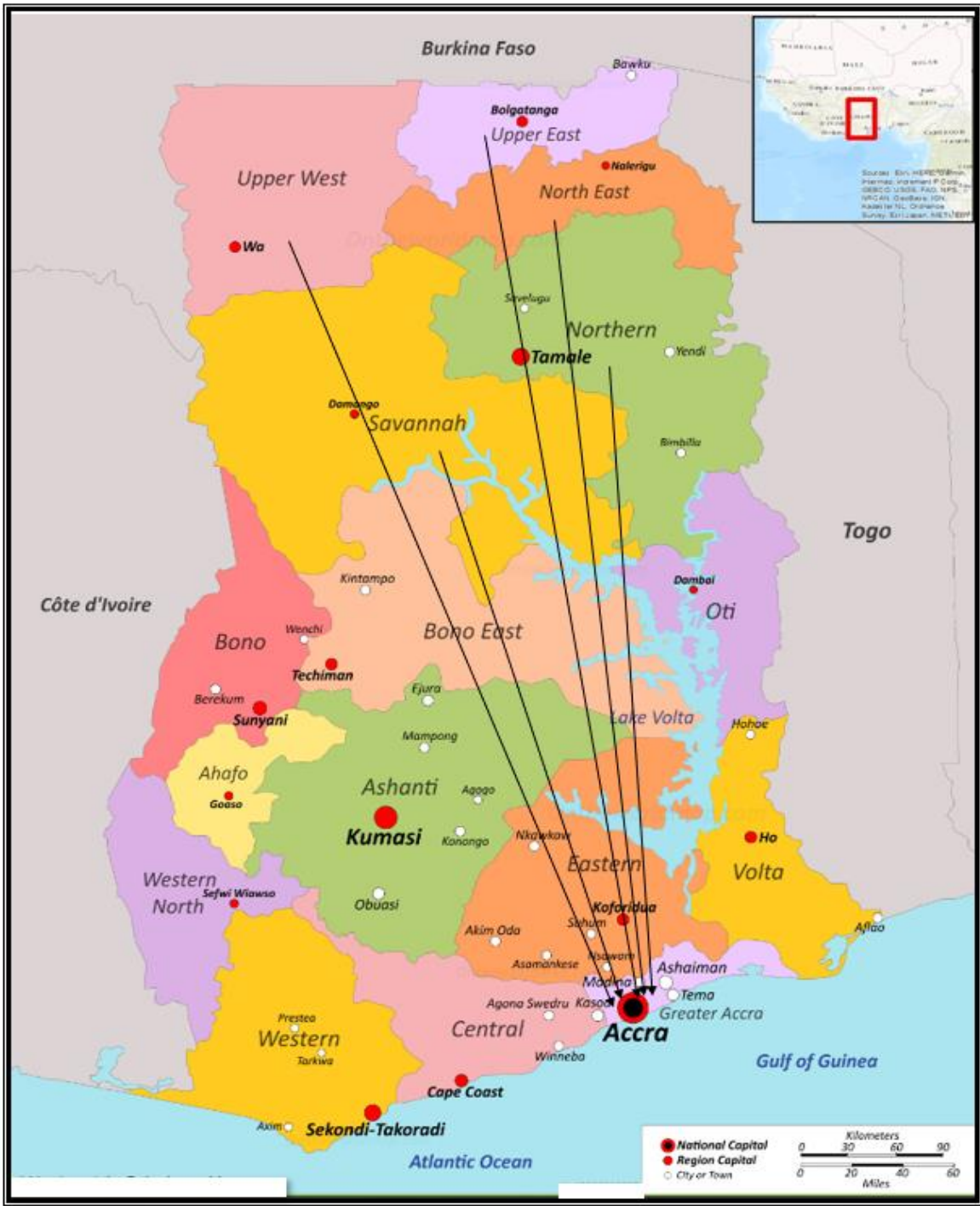


Figure 1: A map showing the migration from Northern Ghana to Accra

Source: Ghana Map (<https://ontheworldmap.com/>)

The total number of movements with a similar area of origin and destination that occur within a specific migration interval is known as a migration stream. A migration stream is typically a group of migrants with a shared place of origin and destination (UN DESA, 2020). The migration stream data from Ghana’s different regions to the Greater Accra Region (Accra) reveals significant insights into the internal migration dynamics within the country. Its data displayed in Table 1 is represented in the form of a percentage of individuals moving from their birth regions to Accra, highlighting a mix of high, moderate, and low migration rates. Such an analysis is pivotal in understanding the overarching migration patterns and dissecting specific trends, particularly from the northern regions to Accra, by considering elements like population size, distance, and the contrast between rural and urban areas.

Table 1: Migration streams from Northern Ghana to Accra

Region of Birth (Regional Capital)	Region of Destination (Regional Capital)	Migration Stream (%)
Western Region (Sekondi-Takoradi)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	3.7
Central Region (Cape Coast)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	7.9
Volta Region (Ho)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	14.5
Eastern Region (Koforidua)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	12.1
Ashanti Region (Kumasi)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	4.6
Western North Region (Sefwi Wiawso)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	1.3
Ahafo Region (Goaso)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	2.3
Bono Region (Sunyani)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	2.5
Bono East Region (Techiman)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	1.7

Table 1 (Cont.)

Region of Birth (Regional Capital)	Region of Destination (Regional Capital)	Migration Stream (%)
Oti Region (Dambai)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	5.8
Northern Region (Tamale)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	2.9
Savannah Region (Damongo)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	1.2
North East Region (Nalerigu)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	1.6
Upper East Region (Bolgatanga)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	2.9
Upper West Region (Wa)	Greater Accra Region (Accra)	1.6

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

With rates of 14.5% and 12.1% of people born in the Volta and Eastern regions respectively, now live in Greater Accra representing the highest migration streams. These figures suggest a robust movement towards the capital, likely driven by proximity, economic opportunities, and the attraction of better social services like education and healthcare. Being closer to Accra, these regions benefit from more straightforward access and possibly stronger socio-economic connections, fueling the migration. In contrast, other regions such as Western, Ashanti, and Oti exhibit moderate to low migration rates, with percentages like 3.7%, 4.6%, and 5.8%, respectively. Despite these regions having local economic vibrancy, the opportunities in Accra appear to attract individuals, compelling them to migrate.

With rates of 2.9%, 1.2%, 1.6%, 2.9%, and 1.6% of people born in the northern regions—Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West respectively, now live in Greater Accra representing the noticeably lower migration streams.

These figures highlight the influence of several elements such as geographical distance, monetary landscapes, and the predominantly rural character of these areas on migration trends.

The Northern Region, with Tamale as its capital, records a migration stream of 2.9% to Accra, marking the highest among the northern areas. This can be attributed to its relatively larger population and Tamale's status as a significant regional urban center. Similar dynamics are observed in the Upper East Region, which also shows a 2.9% migration rate, indicating that despite the geographical distance, the population size and perhaps economic conditions influence migration patterns. Conversely, the Savannah, North East, and Upper West regions report lower migration rates (1.2%, 1.6%, and 1.6%, respectively), likely due to their smaller populations, pronounced rural characteristics, and greater distances from the capital.

The variation in migration rates also reflects the balance between local economic opportunities and the rural nature of the northern regions. While Accra is a hub for employment, education, and healthcare, the northern areas are largely rural, with economies centered around agriculture and small industries. These regions' lack of urbanization and limited industrial activities compel individuals to move to Accra for better prospects.

A pattern emerges when analyzing migration within the context of population sizes and distances from Accra among the northern regions. Regions with larger populations or those closer to urban centers exhibit higher migration rates. This trend highlights the interplay between

local opportunities, the impact of distance on migration decisions, and how people from rural areas are drawn to urban areas.

In conclusion, the migration streams from various Ghanaian regions to the Greater Accra Region elucidate a complex picture of internal migration, shaped by economic prospects, services availability, geographical proximity, and the urban-rural boundary. While closer regions display higher migration rates, the northern areas, marked by their rural landscape and distance from Accra, show lower migration rates. Identifying these patterns is essential for policymakers to deal with regional obstacles in development and lessen pressures on Accra through improved infrastructure, services, and economic opportunities across Ghana.

Chapter 6

Quantitative Focus and Analysis

Introduction

This chapter explores the statistical trends and demographic factors that explain the patterns of migration, destinations, and motivations for migration in Ghana. To explore this topic, secondary data on migration distribution, economic activities, population dynamics, and education from the 2021 Population and Housing Census (PHC) conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) is used. This chapter covers migration and urbanization patterns, demographic characteristics of migrants, factors causing urbanization in urban areas, and migration patterns over time.

Migration and Urbanization

Ghana has been undergoing rapid urbanization in recent years, with migration playing a significant role in driving this transformation. Currently, the majority of Ghanaians (56.7%) reside in cities or towns with a population of 5,000 or more. The percentage of Ghanaians residing in urban localities rose persistently from 23.1% in 1960 to 28.9% in 1970 and 32% in 1984 (the first three post-independence censuses). It further increased to 43.8% in 2000. It increased to 50.9% in 2010 and is projected to reach over 56.7% in 2021, about 63.4% in 2030, and then about 68.6% and 73.2% in 2040 and 2050, respectively (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2022). The context of this urbanization trend depicted in Table 2 is set against the total population growth within the country, with Ghana's population figure reported as 30.8 million from the 2021 Population and Housing Census (Ghana Statistical Service, 2022). Based on the anticipated medium-fertility variant of the populations

starting in 2020, the aforementioned forecasts of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2022) are presented. The rate of urbanization in Ghana through 2050 may be conservatively estimated using these forecasts. It is true that estimates indicate there is little chance of a slowdown in urban population growth until after 2035 (Owusu & Oteng-Ababio, 2015). This upward trajectory in urbanization can be attributed to several factors, including rural-urban migration, natural population growth within towns and cities, and the process through which communities are reclassified from villages to towns as they expand and reach a population of 5,000 or more. However, the primary drivers of this urbanization phenomenon are rural-urban migration and the natural increase in population within urban areas. Notably, between 1948 and 1960, approximately 98% of urban growth resulted from the migration of individuals from rural areas (Songsore, 2003).

Table 2: Trends in Population Size and Urbanization, 1960-2021

Census Year	Population Size	Urban population	Percentage Urban
1960	6,726,815	1,551,178	23.1
1970	8,559,313	2,472,456	28.9
1984	12,296,081	3,934,796	32
2000	18,912,079	8,274,270	43.8
2010	24,658,823	12,545,229	50.9
2021	30,832,019	17,472,530	56.7

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

Ghana has an official census history that began in 1891 with the colonial administration's first census. A total of 764,613 people were counted in the 1891 census (GSS, 2022). Following the United Nations' recommendations, censuses have been conducted every ten years since that time. A country's demographic structure, composition, and socioeconomic arrangements are anticipated to change every ten years, making the decennial interval a suitable time frame to track these changes. The decennial interval, however, was skewed in 1940, 1980, 1990, and 2020. The Second World War, which broke out from 1939 until 1945, prevented a 1941 census from being taken. After the war, in 1948, the census was conducted. Due to political unrest and economic difficulties the country faced in the late 1970s and early 1980s, a census could not be taken in 1980 but rather in 1984. The time constraint of taking a census in 1984 prevented the next census from being planned in 1990 and the ten-year interval from being maintained in 1994. In the aftermath of COVID-19, the 2020 Census was rescheduled for 2021, and 30,832,019 people were counted as of that time (GSS, 2022). It is vital to recognize Ghana's official census from the time of its post-independence history, starting from 1960. This is because the census taken did more than simply meet the data needs of various political and development programs. It has also contributed to constructing the population in which individuals recognized themselves. In this way, it played a crucial role in molding how Ghana sees itself.

Characteristics Of Ghana's Migrants

Age structure

Within the framework of the thematic report on migration referenced from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2022), migrants are defined as individuals who have moved from one location to another within the country. The report categorizes individuals as migrants based on

their residential status and movement patterns captured during the population enumeration process. Specifically, individuals are classified as migrants if they have relocated from one geographic area — a region — to another within Ghana. This includes individuals who have moved from rural to urban areas and those who have migrated between different rural or urban locations within the country. It is important to note that the determination of migrant status in this survey is based on the respondents' self-reported information provided during the enumeration process. The survey captures information on individuals' current place of residence as well as their previous place of residence, allowing for the identification of migrants based on changes in residential location. The thematic report on migration (GSS, 2022) shows that of a total of 30,832,019 persons counted, 71.1% were non-migrants, and the remaining 28.9% were migrants. The percentage of migrants in the population is significantly larger in the rural areas (33.9%) than in urban areas (22.2%). Of the percentage of migrants, 52.5% were female, and 47.5% were male. This distribution reflects the total population, showing a female majority, albeit reduced (50.7% versus 49.3%). Among non-migrants, however, there is not much difference in the proportion of females and males (50.9% and 49.1%, respectively) (GSS, 2022).

With the age composition, migrants (42.8%), as shown in Figure 2, are much older than non-migrants (28.2%), as shown in Figure 3. The median age of the migrants is 29 years compared with 21 years for the total population and 18 years for the non-migrant population. Secondly, while the age distribution of the migrant population peaks at the 20-39-year age bracket, that of the non-migrant population is at the 0-19-year age bracket.

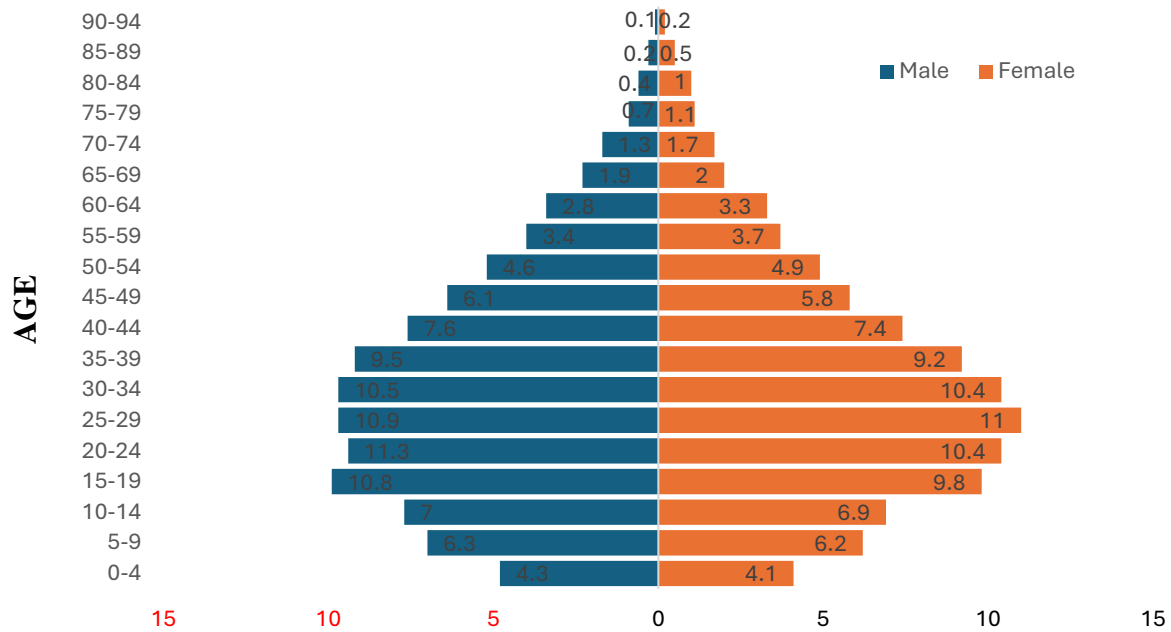


Figure 2: Age pyramid of the migrant population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

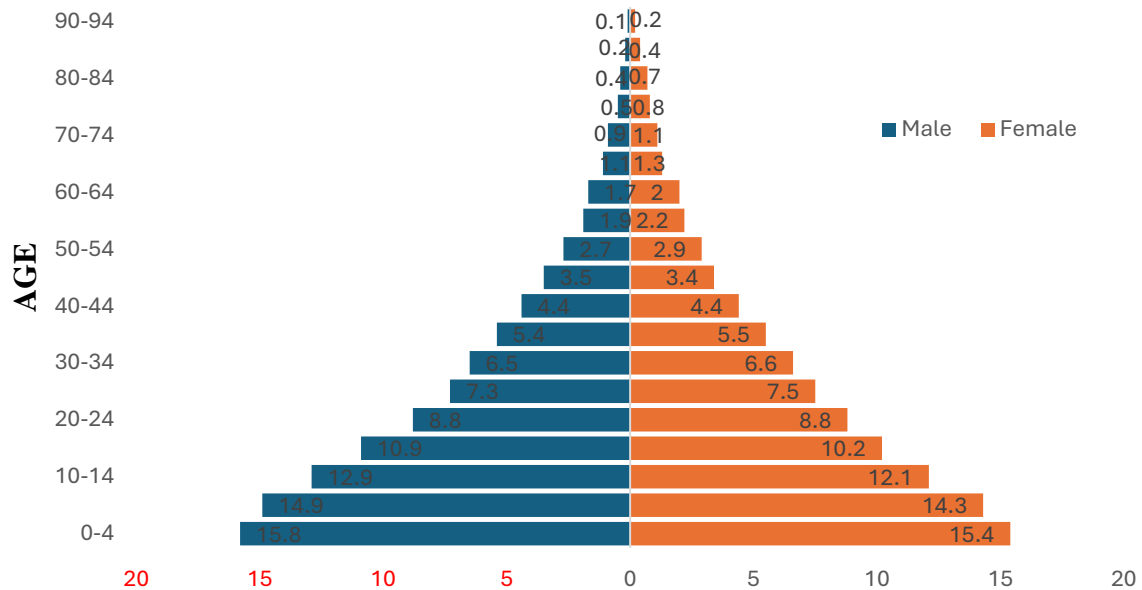


Figure 3: Age pyramid of the non-migrant population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

Figures 2 and 3 display the age distributions of the migrant and non-migrant population. The age pyramid of the migrant population reveals a limited representation of individuals below the age of 15, signifying a relatively small proportion of children. This observation is logical since children typically cannot move independently of their parents or caregivers. Conversely, there is a noticeable expansion in the middle section of the graph, indicating a significant concentration of young adults. Young adults here refer to individuals in the transitional phase between adolescence and full adulthood, aged between 15 and 49 years. This suggests that a substantial portion of individuals within the economically productive age range are among the migrant population. And this has the potential to impact Ghana's economy positively. The outcomes are clear from Alhassan's (2017) research, which reported similar age characteristics among Ghanaian migrants migrating from the north to the south. This age structure further validates the observation by demonstrating a significant concentration of individuals within the age range typically associated with young adulthood, which spans from 15 to 49 years old. By characterizing these individuals as young adults, the age structure suggests that a significant percentage of the migrant population falls within the economically productive age range. This is consistent with the finding that a growing number of young adults are choosing to work alone, shifting away from the traditional notion that migration primarily involves children moving with their parents. Also, the age structure implies that these young adults seek economic opportunities independently, without relying on family support or migrating as dependents. This supports the notion that migration patterns are evolving, with young adults exhibiting greater autonomy and agency in pursuing employment opportunities. Consequently, the age structure suggests that the migration of young adults positively impacts Ghana's economy by contributing to its labor force and productivity (Whitehead & Hashim, 2005).

Among the migrant population, the proportion in the 20-39 age bracket is much higher in urban areas (44.8%), as illustrated in Figure 4, than in rural areas (39.7%), as illustrated in Figure 5.

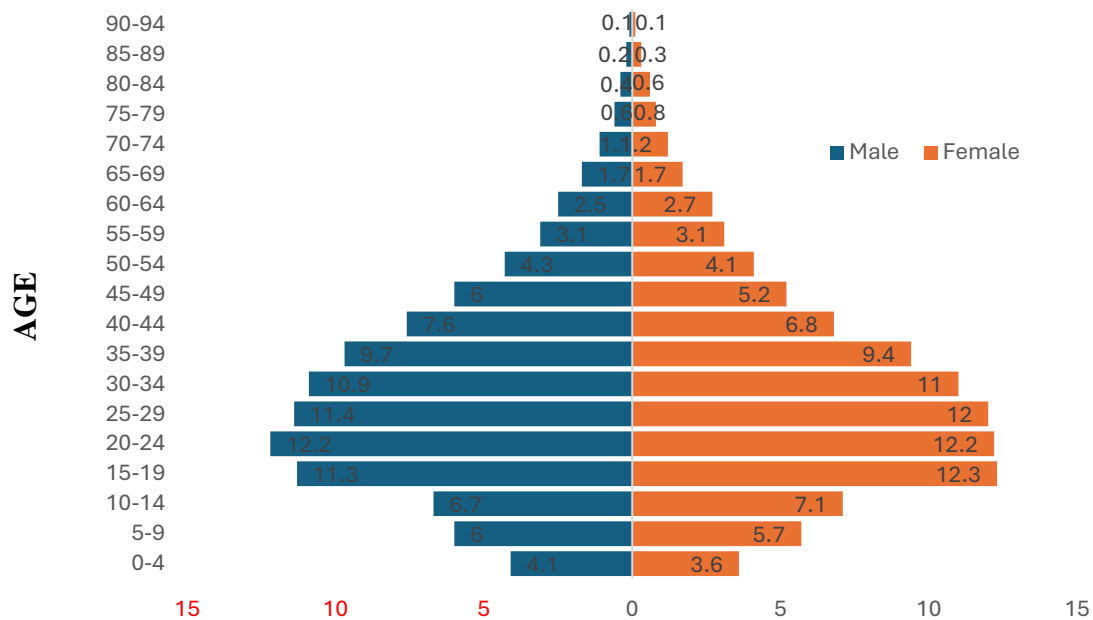


Figure 4: Age pyramid of the migrant population in urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

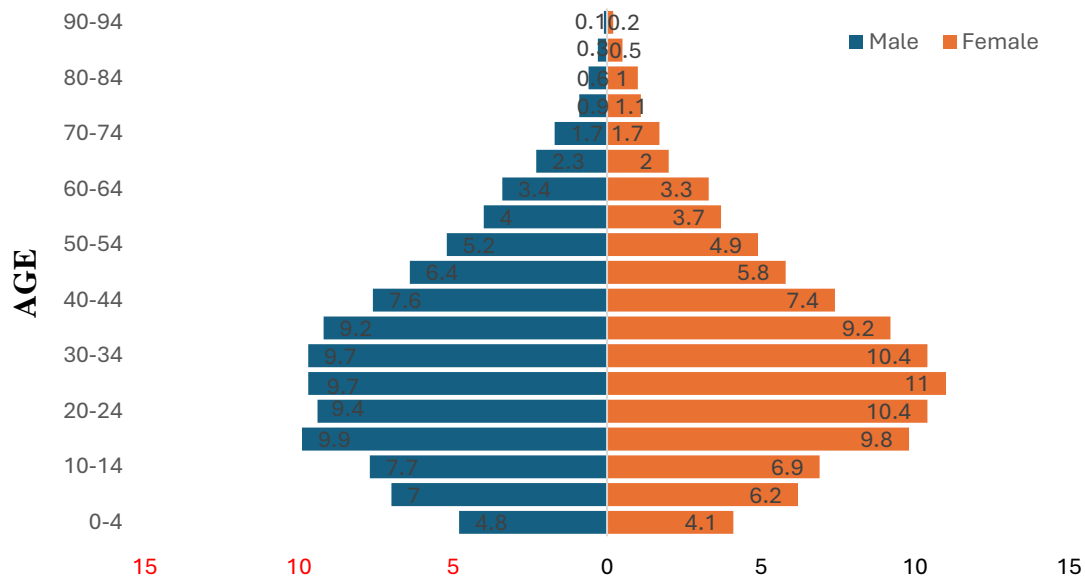


Figure 5: Age pyramid of the migrant population in rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

Based on the age composition of urban migrants in Figure 4 and rural migrants in Figure 5, several key economic implications can be drawn.

Firstly, the age composition of migrants, with a significant concentration in the 20-39-year age bracket, indicates a large working-age population actively engaged in the labor force. With migrants accounting for 42.8% of this age group, there is a higher potential for workforce participation among migrants compared to non-migrants (28.2%). This suggests that migrants contribute significantly to productivity and income generation, boosting workforce participation and stimulating economic growth.

Also, young adults, particularly those within the 20-39-year age bracket, are often more productive and innovative. The concentration of young adults among migrants implies that they adapt to evolving industries and technologies, enhancing overall economic productivity. Their

ability to acquire new skills and contribute to various sectors of the economy can further bolster sustainable growth and development.

Moreover, a larger pool of young adults among migrants contributes to increased government revenue through taxes. With a median age of 29 years for migrants compared to 21 years for the total population and 18 years for non-migrants, migrants in the economically productive age range are likely to contribute more to tax revenue. This additional revenue can be invested in public services, infrastructure development, and social programs, thereby supporting economic development.

Lastly, young adults typically have higher disposable income levels, stimulating consumer spending. The concentration of young adults among migrants suggests a potential increase in consumer spending within the migrant population. This increased spending can stimulate business growth, create job opportunities, and contribute to a positive economic cycle, further fueling economic development.

In summary, a large working-age population offers economic advantages by boosting workforce participation, productivity, and income generation. Young adults contribute to innovation, adapt to evolving industries, and enhance economic productivity. The presence of a higher number of young adults results in increased government revenue through taxes, facilitating investments in public services, infrastructure, and social programs. Additionally, their higher disposable income stimulates consumer spending, fostering business growth and job creation, creating a positive economic cycle.

Demographic Profile of Ghana's Migrants to Urban Areas and Rural Areas

The total employment rate in urban areas is 26.1%, with 33.3% for males and 19.5% for females. This suggests that more males are employed than females, indicating potential gender disparities in the urban workforce. Settlement patterns are relatively balanced, with 37.0% of males and 36.0% of females living in urban areas. However, 22.2% of males are married compared to 14.9% of females, indicating a higher proportion of married males in urban areas. Regarding education and training, 12.9% of males and 13.9% of females are engaged in such activities, suggesting relatively equitable access to educational opportunities. No reported cases of natural disaster displacement in urban areas exist for either gender. This information is illustrated in Figure 6.

The total employment rate in rural areas is 19.9%, with 30.1% for males and 10.9% for females. This indicates a higher proportion of males engaged in employment than females in rural settings. Settlement patterns show a relatively balanced distribution, with 32.7% of males and 34.6% of females residing in rural areas. Marriage rates display significant gender disparities, with 32.6% of males married compared to 20.9% of females, indicating a higher percentage of married males in rural areas. Participation in education and training is similar between genders, with 8.0% of males and 8.2% of females engaged in such activities. Natural disaster displacement affects a negligible proportion of males and females in rural areas. This information is illustrated in Figure 7.

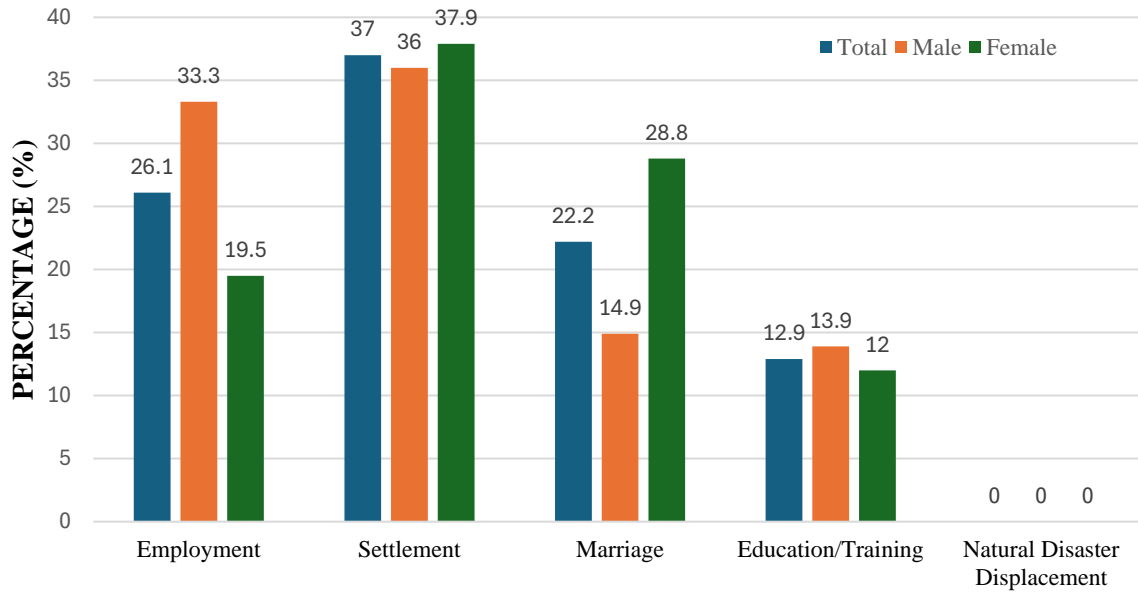


Figure 6: Demographic profile of migrants to urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

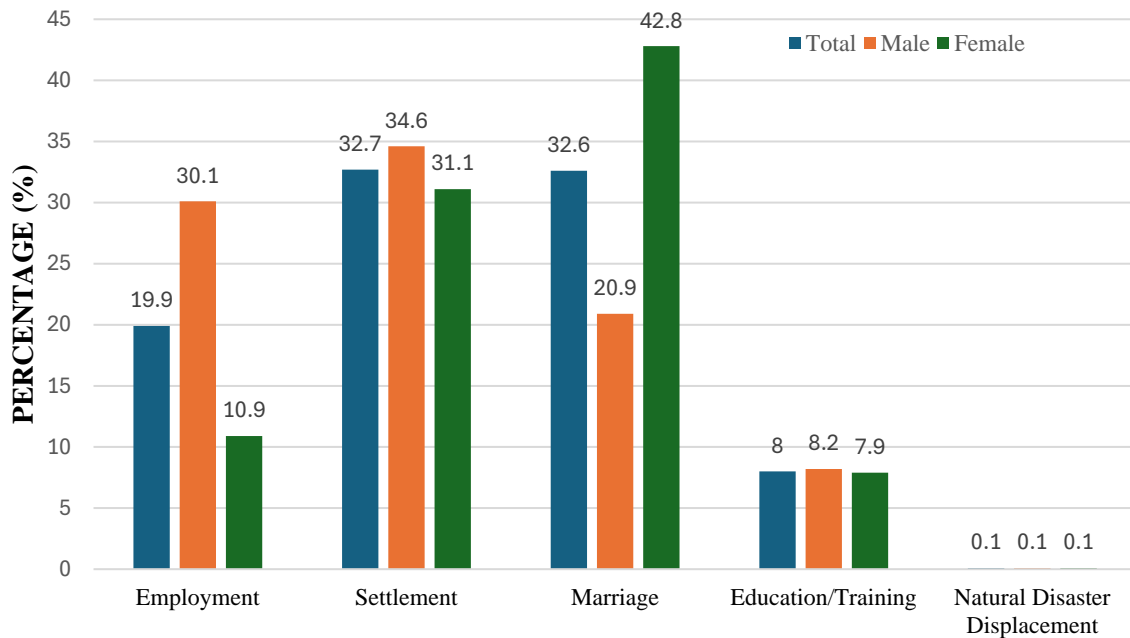


Figure 7: Demographic profile of migrants to rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data on the reasons for migration, categorized between employment, settlement, marriage, education/training, and natural disaster displacement and further broken down by sex and locality type (urban and rural), provides valuable understanding into the motives for migrants moving to either the rural areas or urban areas.

Firstly, gender disparities are evident across various factors in both urban and rural areas, with notable differences in employment, marriage rates, and education/training participation. Specifically, in urban settings, a higher proportion of females are unemployed compared to males, indicating potential challenges and inequalities in the urban workforce. Conversely, in rural areas, the gender gap in employment is even more pronounced, with more unemployed females than males.

Moreover, marriage rates also exhibit gender disparities, with a higher proportion of males being married compared to females in both urban and rural areas. This suggests potential differences in family structure and gender social dynamics in migration decision-making processes.

In addition, settlement patterns are relatively balanced between genders in urban and rural areas, indicating that gender does not significantly influence residential choices.

Overall, these differences emphasize the necessity of focused efforts to address gender inequalities, particularly in employment opportunities and marriage rates, in both urban and rural contexts. Efforts to promote diversity and gender equity in the workplace, education, and social policies are crucial to ensuring equitable opportunities and outcomes for both men and women in migration processes.

Factors Causing Urbanization in Ghana's Urban Areas

Marriage

The total population of migrants who have never married—47.3%—is slightly higher than non-migrants (40.4%). The proportion of never-married is higher among male migrants (53.8%) than female migrants (41.0%). Male migrants are more likely to be never married (53.8%) than their non-migrant counterparts (46.0%). Not only is the proportion of married people lower among migrants (35.9%) than among non-migrants (43.2%). This information is shown in Figure 8. The above pattern is repeated in both the urban areas and rural areas (Figures 9 and 10).

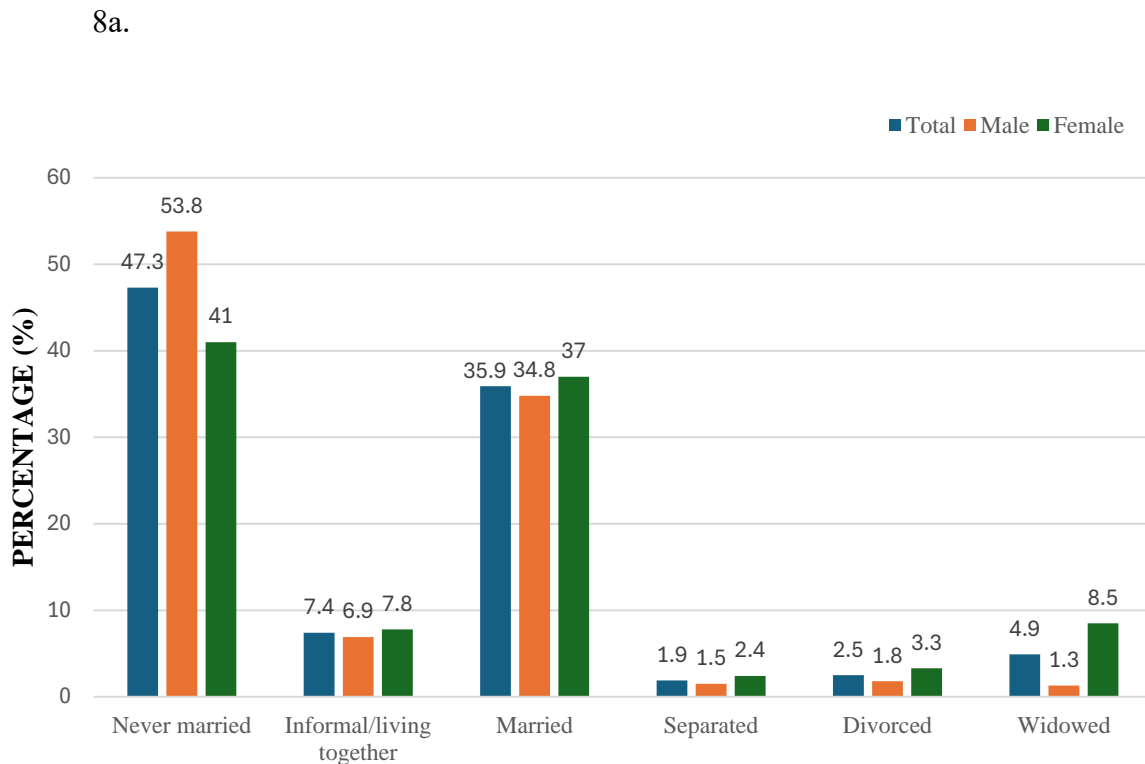


Figure 8a: Marital Status of migrants in the total population

8b.

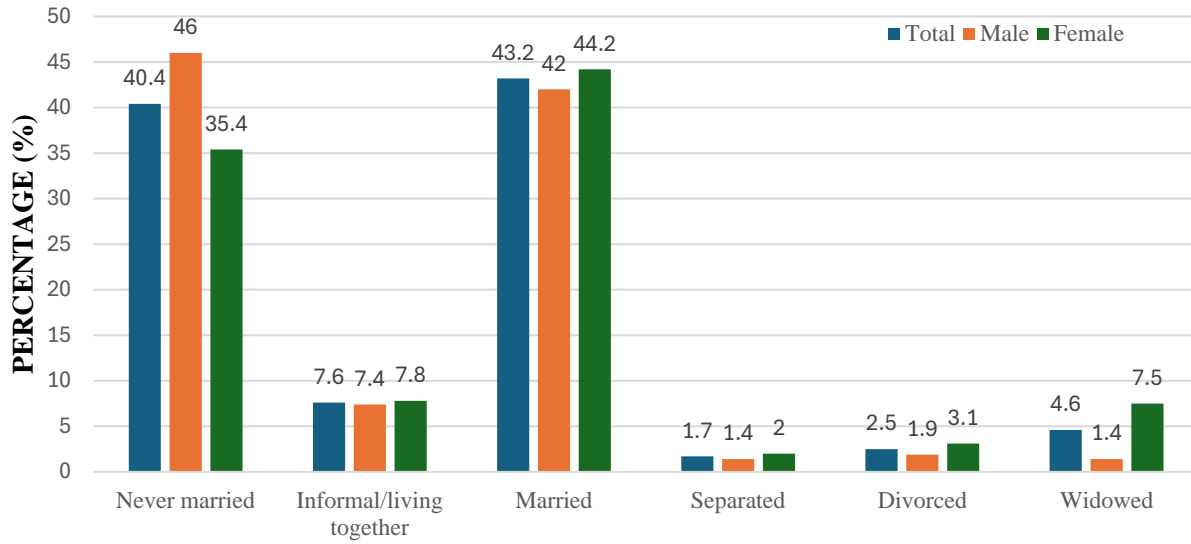


Figure 8b: Marital Status of non-migrants in the total population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

9a.

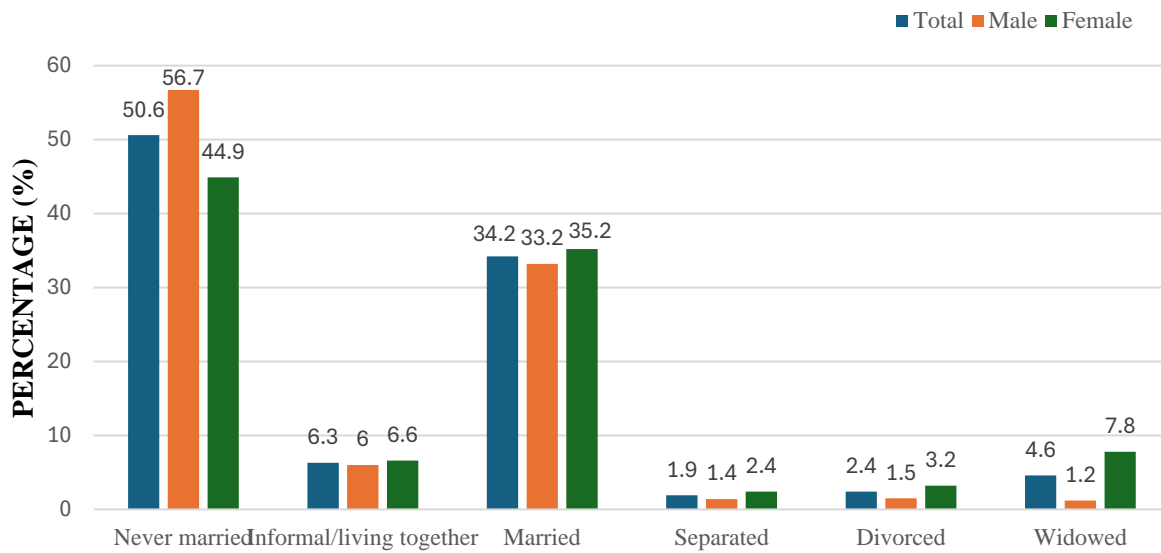


Figure 9a: Marital Status of migrants in urban areas

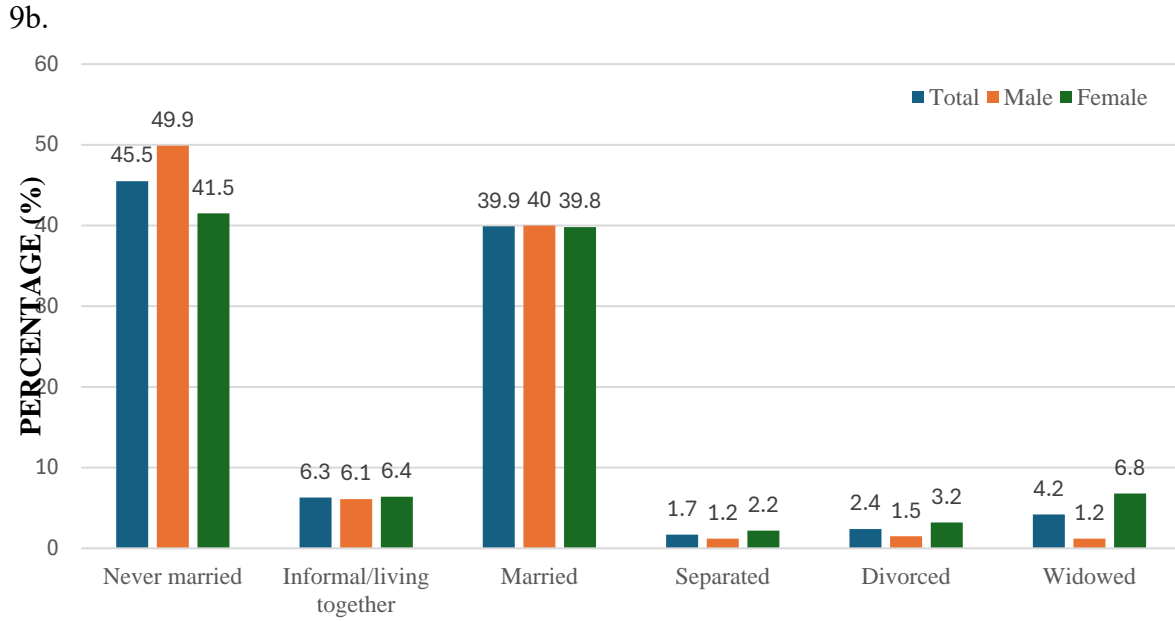


Figure 9b: Marital Status of non-migrants in urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

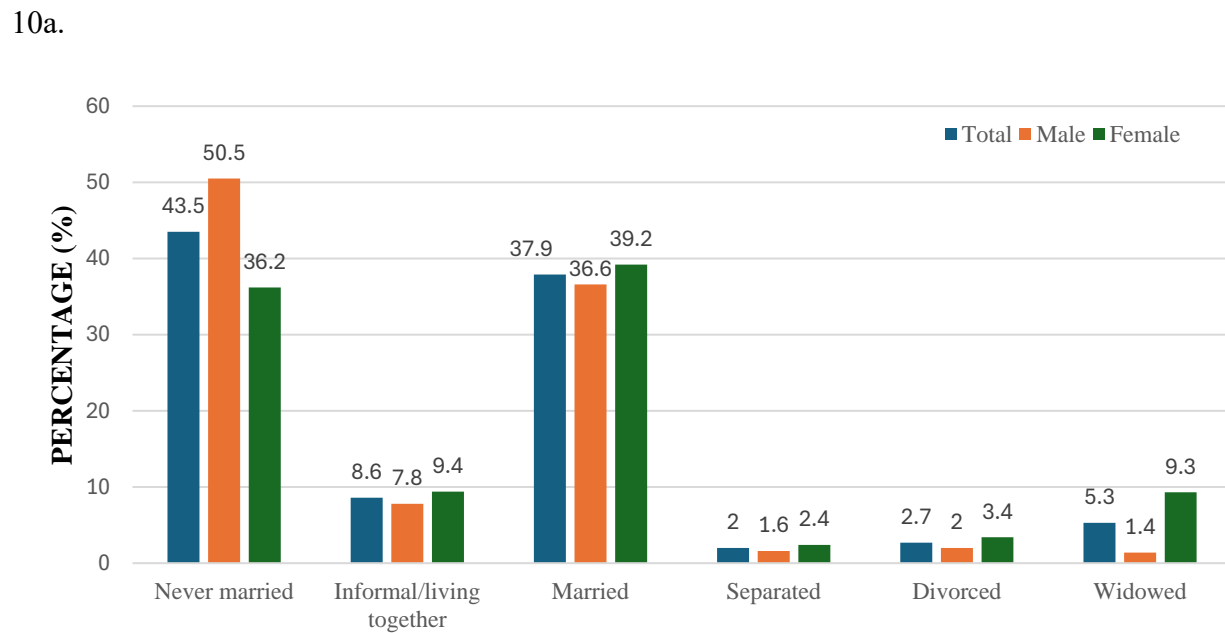


Figure 10a: Marital Status of migrants in rural areas

10b.

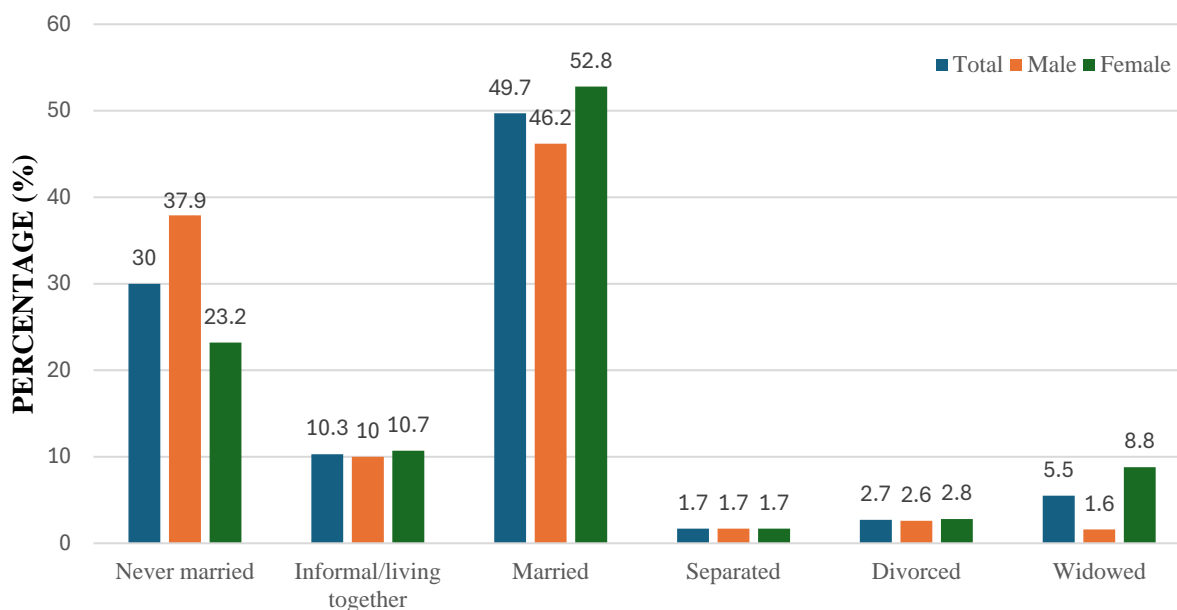


Figure 10b: Marital Status of non-migrants in rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data provides insight into the reasons behind the lower rates of formal marriage registration among migrants. It suggests that migrants, while settling at their destinations, often engage in informal conjugal relationships as part of their survival strategies (Anarfi, 1993). This highlights the importance of understanding the socio-cultural dynamics and obstacles that migrants encounter in their new environments. Trends in marriage rates and practices influence urbanization in several ways.

Firstly, the lower rates of formal marriage registration among migrants, as suggested by the data, are linked to various factors related to the process of migration and settlement in urban areas, and these factors, in turn, contribute to urbanization. As migrants move to urban areas seeking better economic opportunities, they often face challenges such as limited resources,

uncertain employment, and housing instability. In such circumstances, migrants may engage in informal conjugal relationships, which are less binding and more flexible than formal marriages. These informal relationships may be seen as a survival strategy, providing emotional and economic support in a new and often challenging urban environment.

Moreover, migration often involves a transition from rural or traditional settings to urban, more cosmopolitan environments. In urban areas, migrants encounter different socio-cultural norms and values, which influence their attitudes towards formal marriage. Some migrants may adapt to the urban lifestyle, where formal marriage is less emphasized, and informal relationships may be more common.

Lastly, migrants face legal and administrative barriers to formal marriage registration, such as documentation requirements or unfamiliarity with the legal processes in urban areas. Economic constraints also deter migrants from investing in formal marriage ceremonies, and the prevalence of informal conjugal relationships among migrants contributes to urbanization in several ways, such as population growth leading to family formation and childbearing, contributing to population growth in urban areas.

Existing literature recorded similar dynamics, evidenced by scholars such as Alhassan (2017), Asamoah (2020), and Amoah et al. (2013). This notable literature noted that the young age structure of migrants influenced their marital status, where most of the migrants were either single or cohabitating (informal conjugal relationship), which influenced their cultural norms, granting them the flexibility to form unions without the formality of marriage. Also, the urban areas in Ghana presented migrants, particularly males, with employment uncertainties and limited resources, making formal marriage less feasible. Economic constraints and the pursuit of

financial stability before marriage contributed to the higher percentage of unmarried male migrants in urban areas.

School attendance

Of the total population of non-migrants, 22.3% have never attended school, which is slightly higher than migrants, at 17.3%. The proportion of never-attended is higher among female migrants (21.4%) than male migrants (12.8%). The proportion of non-migrants (44%) attending school now is higher than migrants (29.1%). The proportion of migrants (53.6%) who have attended school in the past is higher than that of non-migrants (33.7). This information is illustrated in Figure 11. This pattern is repeated in urban areas, as shown in Figure 12. However, in the rural areas, 31.1% of migrants have never attended, which is slightly higher than the non-migrants (30.7%). The proportion of never-attended is higher among female migrants (37.1%) than male migrants (24.4%). The proportion of non-migrants (41.4%) attending school now is higher than migrants (23.9%). The proportion of migrants (45%) who have attended school in the past is higher than that of non-migrants (27.9%). This information is illustrated in Figure 13.

11a.

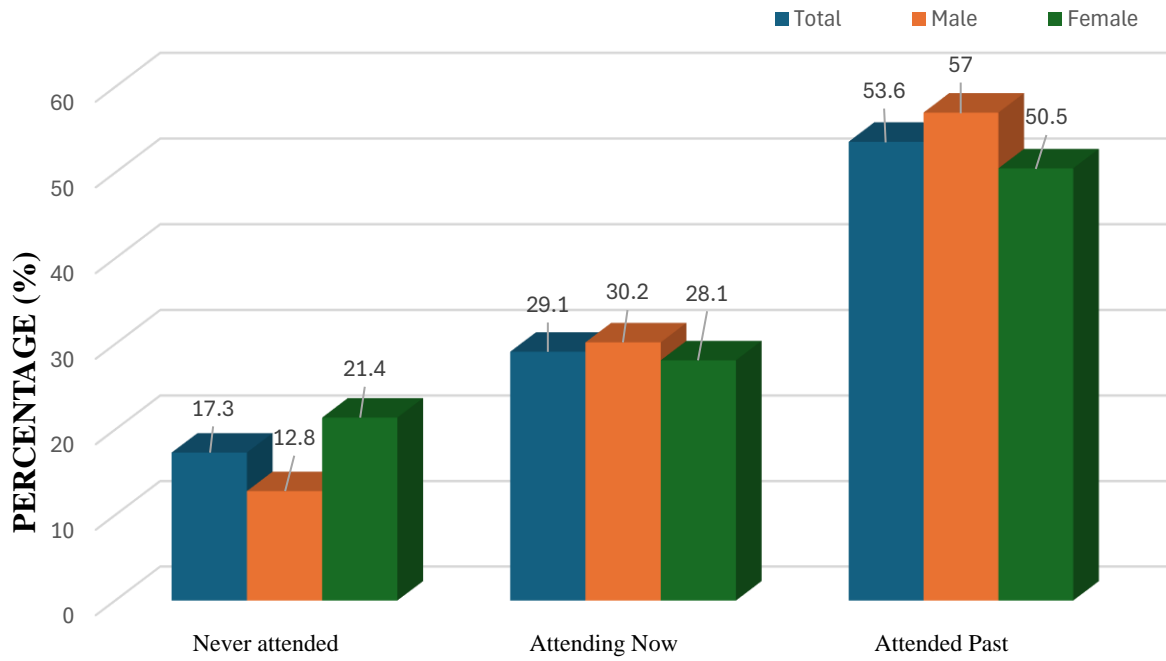


Figure 11a: School attendance of migrants in the total population

11b.

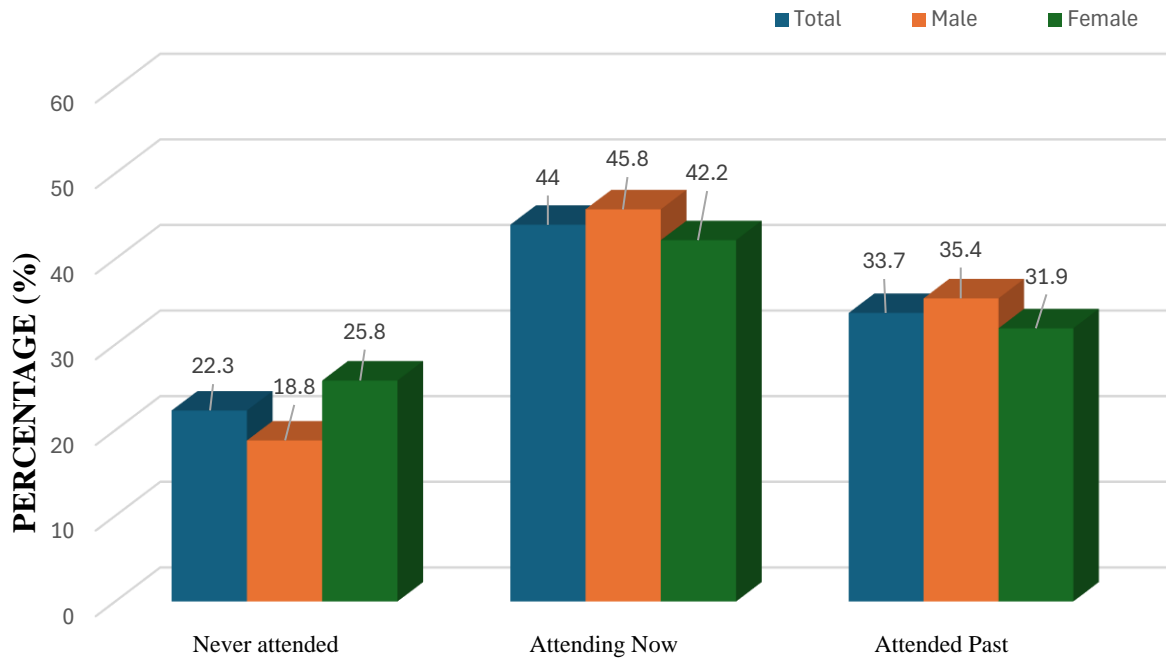


Figure 11b: School attendance of non-migrants in the total population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

12a.

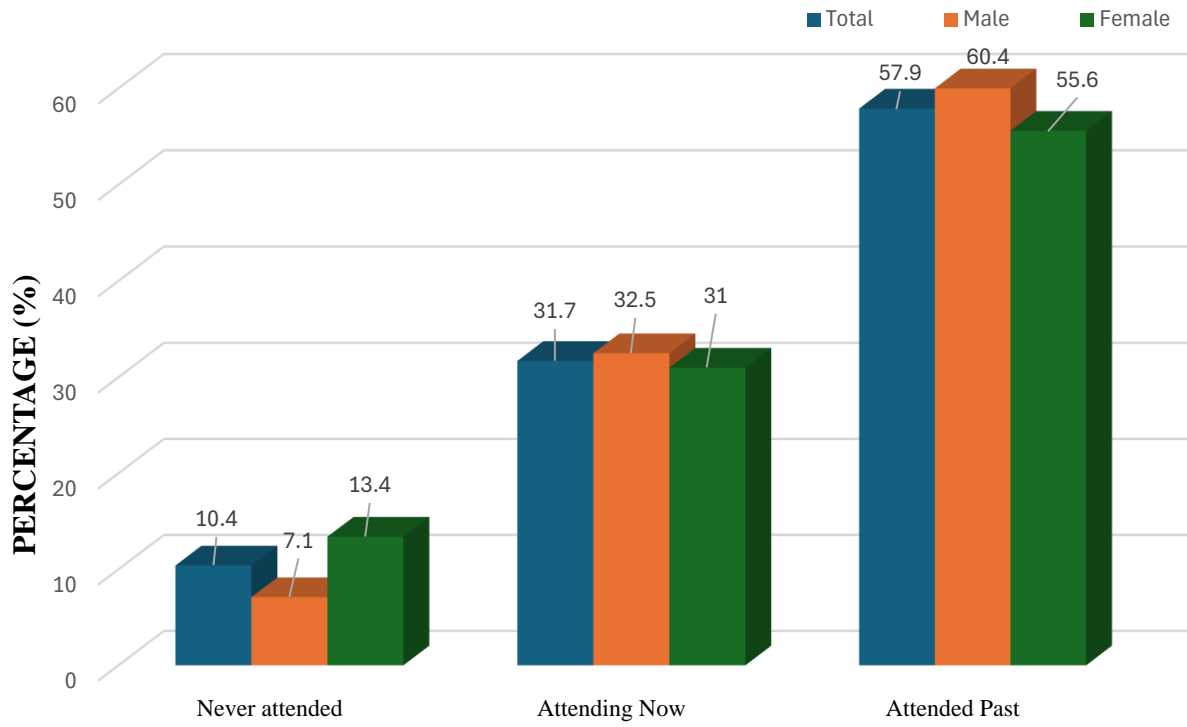


Figure 12a: School attendance of migrants in urban areas

12b.

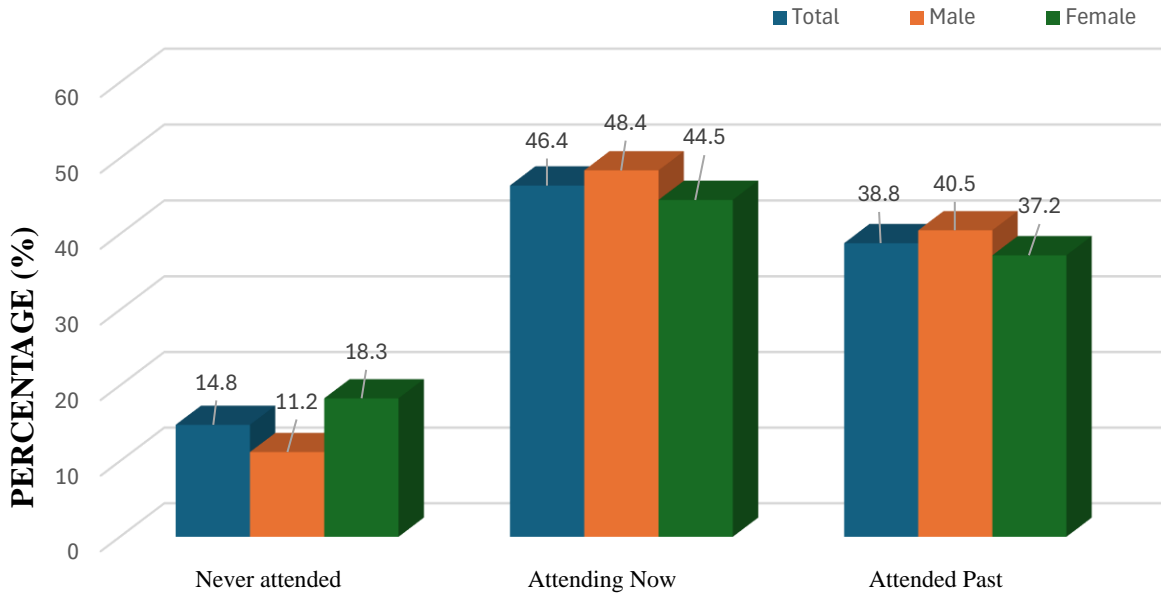


Figure 12b: School attendance of non-migrants in urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

13a.

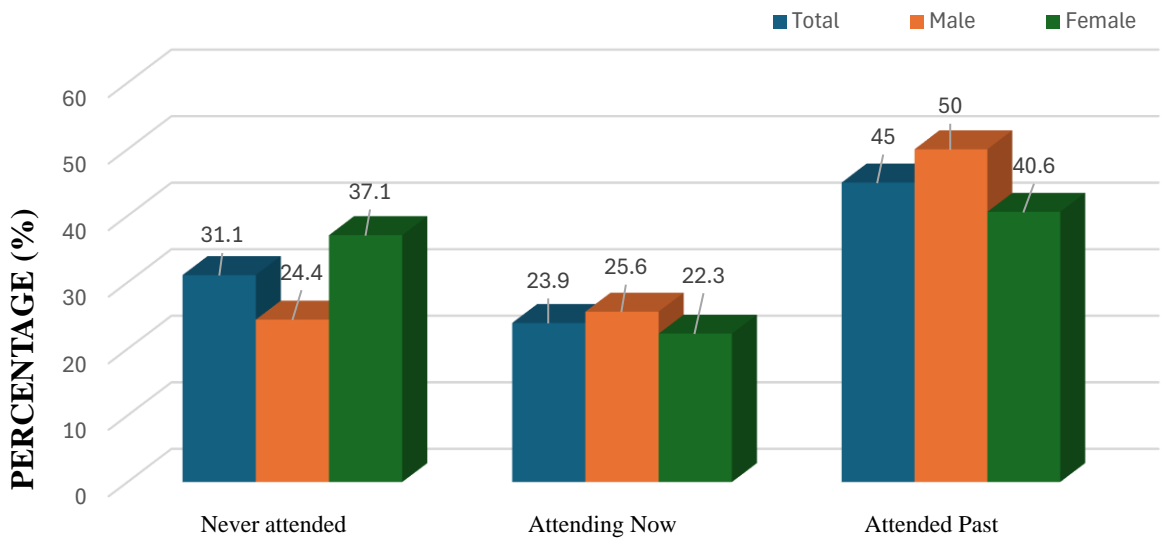


Figure 13a: School attendance of migrants in rural areas

13b.

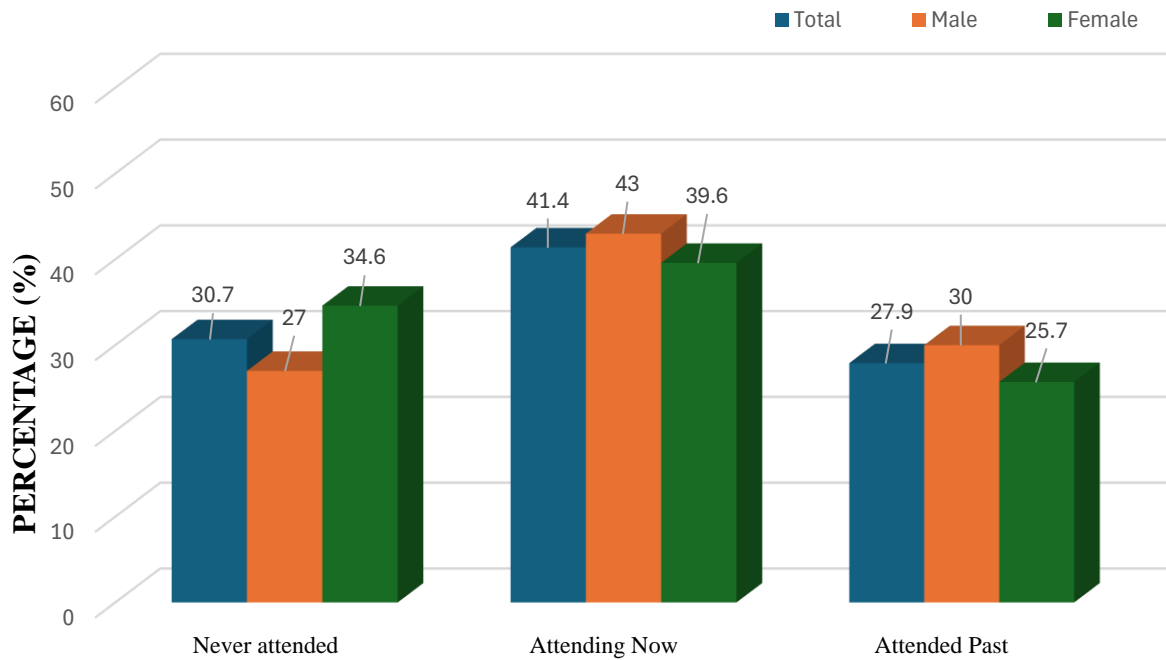


Figure 13b: School attendance of non-migrants in rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data presents an insightful analysis of how migration and urbanization intersect with educational access and participation. It reveals differences in the education patterns among migrants and non-migrants, with significant variations when comparing the total population, urban areas, and rural settings. The influence of urbanization on educational opportunities and challenges for these groups is multifaceted, reflecting broader socio-economic dynamics.

Firstly, the data above suggests that urbanization is contributing to improving access to education for migrants. In urban areas, the gap between migrants and non-migrants who have never attended school narrows compared to the total population. This indicates that urban settings offer more educational opportunities or that migrants moving to urban areas are more

likely to seek education for themselves or their children, possibly due to better awareness, availability, and the perceived value of education in urban economies. However, despite these opportunities, migrants in urban areas still face significant barriers, as indicated by the lower proportion of migrants currently attending school compared to non-migrants. This discrepancy reflects the challenges of urban living, such as higher living costs, which could force migrant children into work, or issues of integration and discrimination within urban school systems.

In addition, the higher proportion of migrants who have attended school in the past, both in the total population and specifically in urban areas, compared to non-migrants, highlights a critical aspect of urbanization. It suggests that while urban areas initially facilitate access to education for migrants, sustaining this engagement is challenging. Factors such as economic necessity, cultural dislocation, or inadequate support systems within schools contribute to migrants discontinuing their education.

Furthermore, the data from rural areas further highlights the impact of urbanization on education. Migrants in rural settings show a slightly higher proportion of never having attended school than non-migrants, with female migrants particularly disadvantaged. This suggests that the benefits of urbanization — such as increased educational facilities and awareness programs, are not as accessible in rural areas. Consequently, migrants who remain in or move to rural areas do not experience the same educational opportunities as those in urban settings, emphasizing the need for targeted educational policies and programs in rural areas.

Moreover, the significantly higher proportion of never-attended schools among female migrants in rural areas compared to their urban areas points to the compounded barriers faced by this group, highlighting how gender and location intersect to influence educational access.

Urbanization, while potentially offering more education opportunities, also reveals the stark disparities that can exist, necessitating a detailed approach to educational policy and support.

In conclusion, the analysis based on the provided data illustrates that urbanization has a complex relationship with education for migrants and non-migrants. While urban areas offer more education opportunities compared to rural settings, significant barriers remain, particularly for migrants and even more so for female migrants. These insights underline the need for policies that improve access to education for all children, irrespective of their migration status or location, and support their continued engagement and success within the educational system.

Level of education

The educational patterns seen in school attendance are consistent with the levels of education achieved. Among non-migrants in the total population, a significant majority (60.7%) have achieved only basic education, in contrast to 49.6% of migrants. Conversely, the data reveals that more than twice as many migrants in the total population (16.1%) have attained tertiary education compared to non-migrants (7.4%). Additionally, significantly larger proportions of migrants (27.9%) have achieved secondary-level education than non-migrants (18.5%). This is illustrated in Figure 14. This pattern holds for both males and females and in both urban and rural areas, as shown in Figures 15 and 16. The overall trend suggests that the educational attainment of migrants is generally higher than that of non-migrants.

14a.

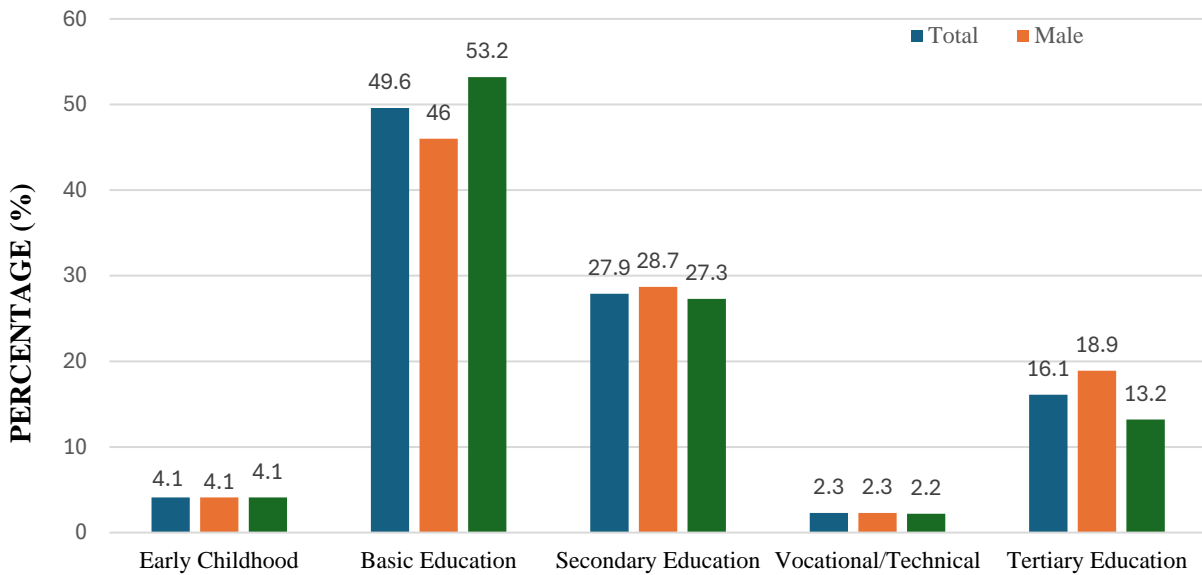


Figure 14a: Educational level of migrants in the total population

14b.

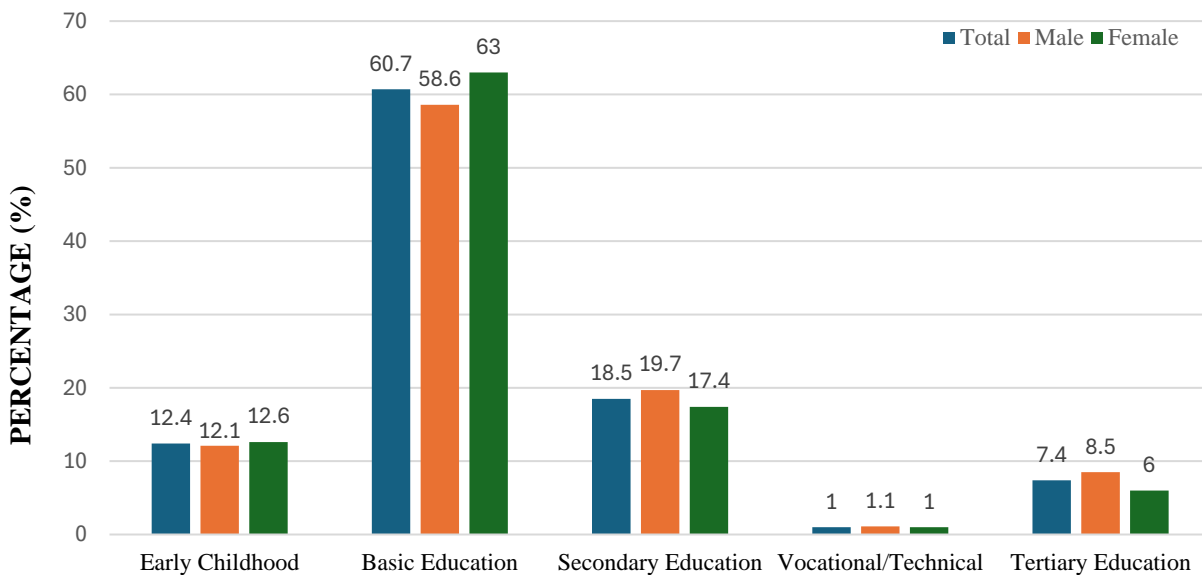


Figure 14b: Educational level of non-migrants in the total population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

15a.

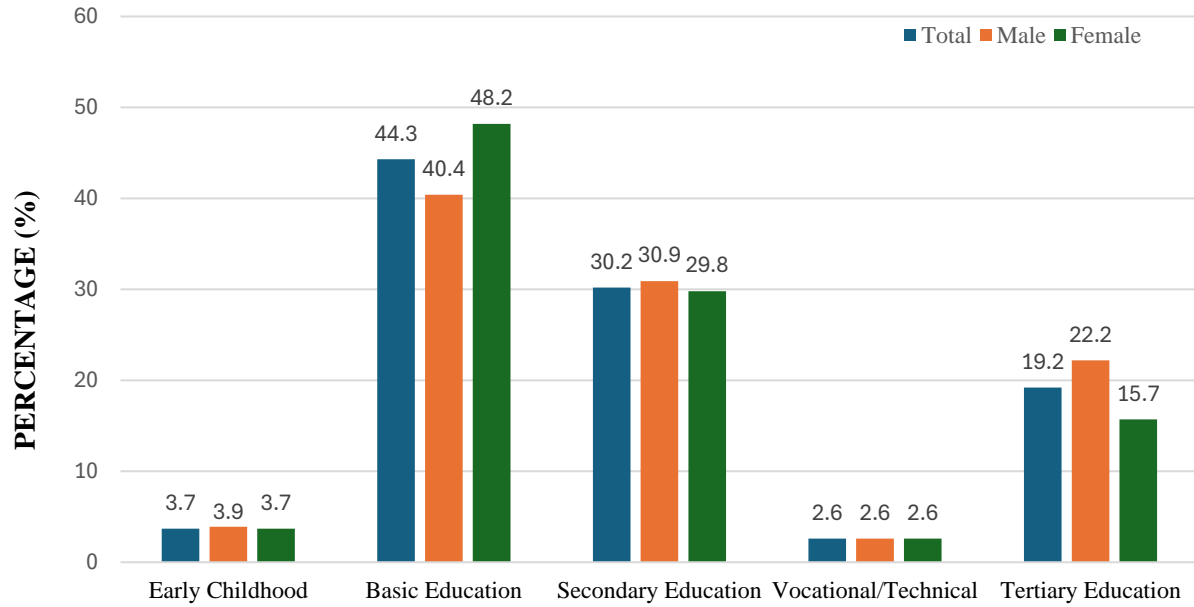


Figure 15a: Educational level of migrants in urban areas

15b.

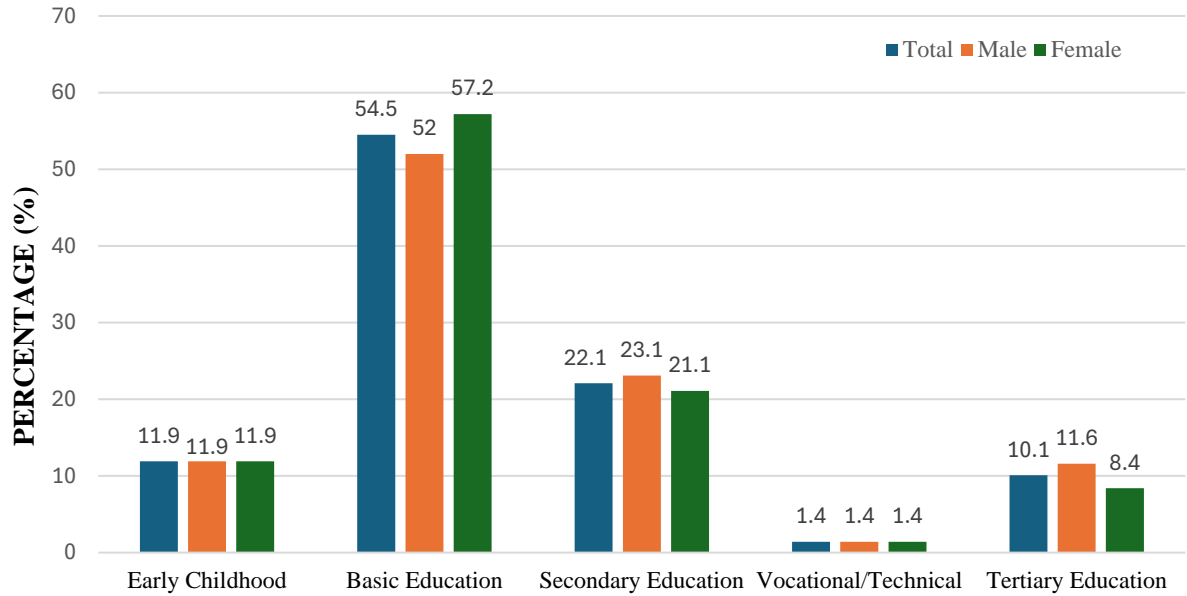


Figure 15b: Educational level of non-migrants in urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

16a.

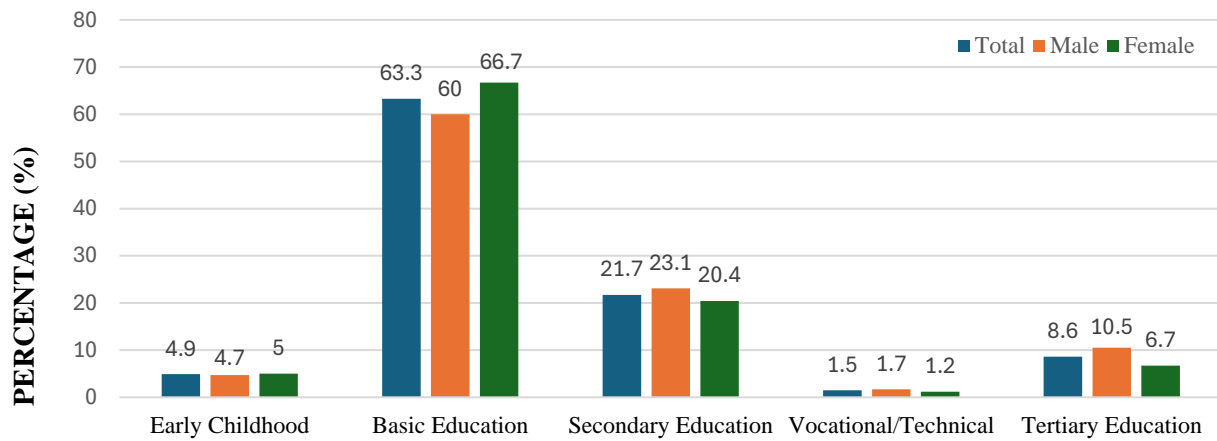


Figure 16a: Educational level of migrants in rural areas

16b.

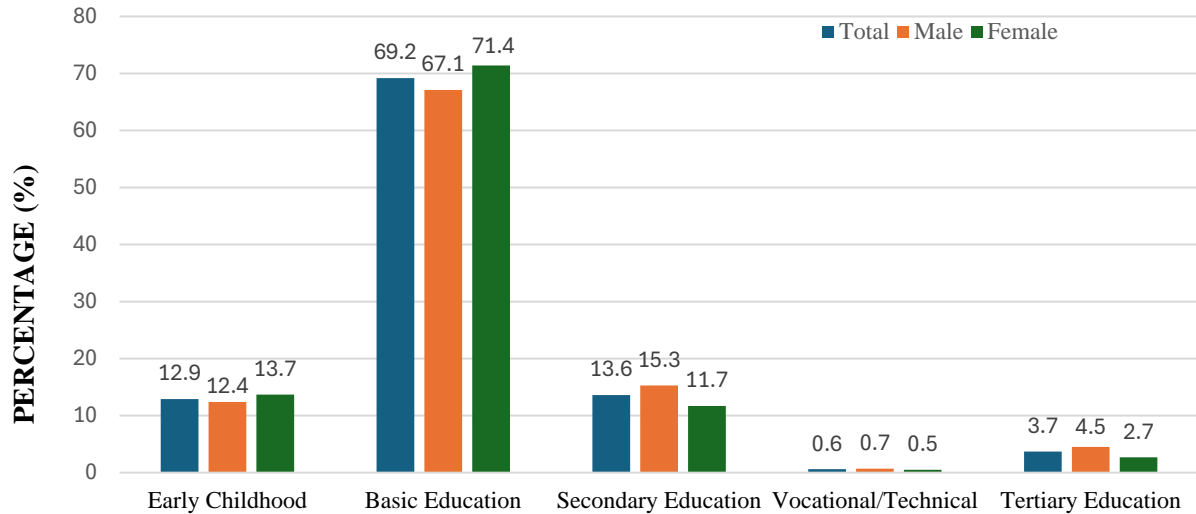


Figure 16b: Educational level of non-migrants in rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The level of education provides insights into the potential factors contributing to urbanization because of such migration.

Firstly, urbanization has influenced the observed educational disparities. Urban areas typically offer better educational infrastructure, access to higher education institutions, and socio-economic opportunities, motivating migrants to pursue further education for career advancement and social mobility (Enu, 2015). The consistency of this trend across both urban and rural areas suggests the pervasive influence of urbanization on educational outcomes.

Moreover, more than twice as many migrants have attained tertiary education compared to non-migrants, highlighting the advantages urban environments provide for higher education access. Urban areas often boast a higher concentration of universities and vocational training

centers, making tertiary education more accessible to migrants seeking to improve their skills and qualifications.

Furthermore, the data also reveals significantly higher rates of secondary education attainment among migrants compared to non-migrants. This suggests that migrants benefit from better access to secondary education facilities and resources in urban areas, enabling them to pursue advanced academic qualifications and prepare for tertiary education opportunities.

In addition, these findings emphasize the need for policymakers to address educational equity within urban contexts and ensure that educational opportunities are accessible to all individuals, regardless of migration status. Efforts to improve access to quality education, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels, should be prioritized to support the educational advancement and socio-economic integration of migrant populations in urban areas.

Overall, the data highlights the transformative impact of urbanization on educational pathways, highlighting how migration and urbanization intersect to shape educational opportunities and outcomes. The disparities observed between migrants and non-migrants emphasize the value of addressing educational equity within urban contexts and tailoring educational policies and programs to accommodate the diverse needs of migrant populations.

Economic activity

The economic activity status of the population represents all persons of either sex who supply their labor to produce economic goods and services. This includes people who were economically active or inactive during the census. The economically active includes both the employed and the unemployed, representing the population's labor force at the time of the census.

With the overall activity status, in the total population, the majority are in the labor force, with 54.8% for non-migrants and 63.6% for migrants. This suggests that a significant portion of the population is actively engaged in seeking employment or working. The employed population constitutes a substantial portion, with 46.2% of non-migrants and 57.2% of migrants employed. This suggests that a significant portion of the labor force has secured employment. The unemployment rate is 8.6% for non-migrants and 6.4% for migrants, reflecting the percentage of people actively seeking employment but currently without jobs. A considerable portion of the population is categorized as population outside the labor force, representing individuals who are not actively seeking employment. This group is larger among non-migrants (45.2%) compared to migrants (36.4%). In comparison with the urban areas and rural differences, urban areas have a labor force participation rate slightly higher compared to rural areas, both for non-migrants (55.6% vs. 53.9%) and migrants (62.6% vs. 59.8%). This suggests that a higher percentage of individuals living in cities (urban areas) are actively seeking employment or working. Employment rates are also slightly higher in urban areas for both non-migrants (46.1% vs. 46.4%) and migrants (55.9% vs. 59.8%), indicating better job opportunities or a more active job market in urban settings. On the other hand, urban areas have slightly higher unemployment rates than rural areas for non-migrants (9.5% vs. 7.6%) and migrants (6.6% vs. 5.8%). The proportion of the population outside the labor force is somewhat higher in urban areas among both non-migrants (44.4%) and migrants (37.4%), suggesting that a larger percentage of people living in urban areas are not actively seeking employment. In terms of gender differences, the data shows that, in general, males have higher labor force participation rates compared to females across all relevant categories (non-migrants, migrants, urban, and rural). Males also tend to have higher

employment rates than females in all categories. Female unemployment rates are generally higher compared to males in most categories. This information is represented in Table 3.

Table 3: Economic activity of migrants and non-migrants in the total population, urban areas, and rural areas

Total Population	Non-migrant			Migrant		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Employed	46.2	51.6	41.0	57.2	64.3	50.9
Unemployed	8.6	8.3	9.0	6.4	5.7	7.0
Population outside the labor force	45.2	40.1	50.0	36.4	30.0	42.1
Urban Areas						
Employed	46.1	50.8	41.6	55.9	61.8	50.7
Unemployed	9.5	9.5	9.6	6.7	6.0	7.2
Population outside the labor force	44.4	39.7	48.8	37.4	32.2	42.1
Rural Areas						
Employed	46.3	52.4	40.3	59.9	69.7	51.4
Unemployed	7.6	6.9	8.2	5.8	4.9	6.7
Population outside the labor force	46.1	40.7	51.5	34.3	25.4	41.9

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data on activity status, categorized by non-migrants and migrants and further broken down by gender and locality type (urban and rural), provides valuable insights into how labor force dynamics and employment status contribute to urbanization.

Firstly, the higher labor force participation rates in cities compared to rural areas suggest that urban areas have a more active and potentially larger workforce. This contributes to urbanization by attracting people from rural areas who seek employment opportunities in urban centers.

In addition, the higher employment rates in urban areas indicate that more people in urban settings have secured jobs. This is a strong driver of urbanization as individuals often migrate to urban areas for better employment prospects and higher incomes.

Moreover, while urban areas have more job opportunities, they also have higher unemployment rates. This is attributed to factors such as job competition and higher expectations for employment in urban areas. Nevertheless, job opportunities in urban areas remain an attractive factor for migrants.

The data also highlights gender disparities in labor force participation, employment, and unemployment rates. These disparities impact urbanization by influencing migration patterns. For example, if one gender faces more challenges in accessing employment prospects in rural areas, it is more inclined to relocate to cities in pursuit of employment.

Lastly, the higher proportion of the population categorized as population outside the labor force in urban areas suggests that employment-seeking migrants do not solely drive urbanization. Some individuals move to urban areas for reasons other than work, such as education, lifestyle, or family considerations.

Employment Status

Approximately 59.9% of migrants are categorized as self-employed, with 52.9% operating their businesses without employees and 7.0% having employees. In contrast, among non-migrants, 71.5% are self-employed (65.1% without employees and 6.4% with employees). Therefore, it is evident that migrants engaged in wage employment (as employees) constitute a minority, although their representation is significantly higher than that of non-migrants (34.2% vs. 22.3%). Significant differences also emerge when comparing urban and rural areas. In rural regions, nearly three-quarters (73.0%) of migrants fall into the category of being self-employed, either without employees (67.7%) or with employees (5.3%). In urban areas, this proportion is lower at 53.0%, consisting of 45.1% without employees and 7.9% with employees. For non-migrants, the corresponding figures are 71.5%, with 65.1% being self-employed without employees and 6.4% having employees. Examining gender disparities, it is apparent that female migrants are more likely to be self-employed compared to their male migrants across all levels. Specifically, 67.8% of females are self-employed at the national level, while 52.9% of males fall into this category. In urban areas, 62.6% of females are self-employed compared to 44.5% of males, and in rural areas, the figures are 78.2% for females and 68.4% for males. Conversely, a greater proportion of male migrants engage in self-employment with employees, with 8.0% of males at the national level, 9.1% in urban areas, and 6.0% in rural areas, compared to 5.8%, 6.6%, and 4.4% for females in these respective regions. This suggests that not only do a higher proportion of male migrants create opportunities for self-employment, but they also establish job opportunities for others. All this information is illustrated in Figures 17, 18, and 19.

17a.

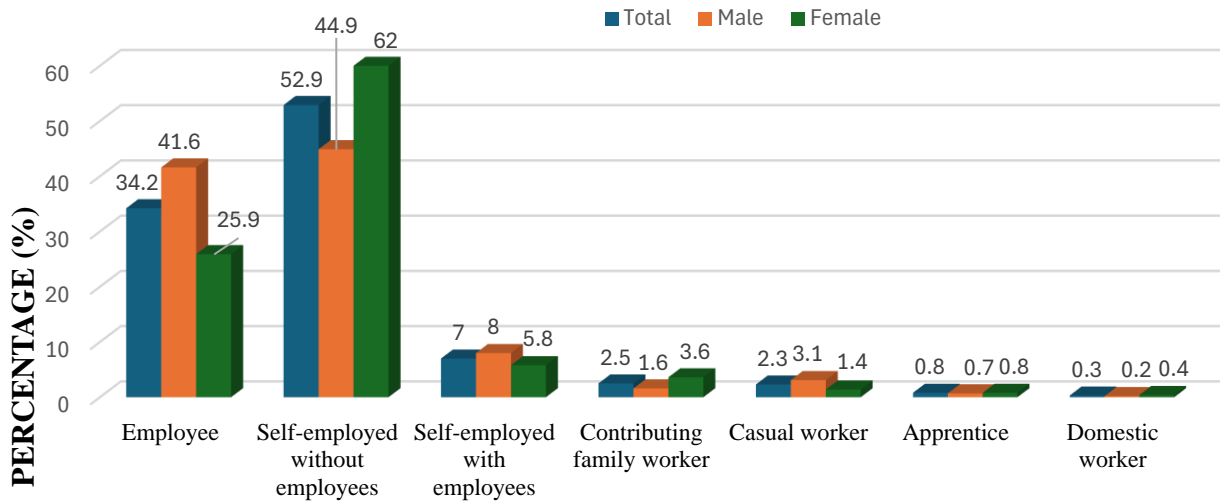


Figure 17a: Employment status of migrants in the total population

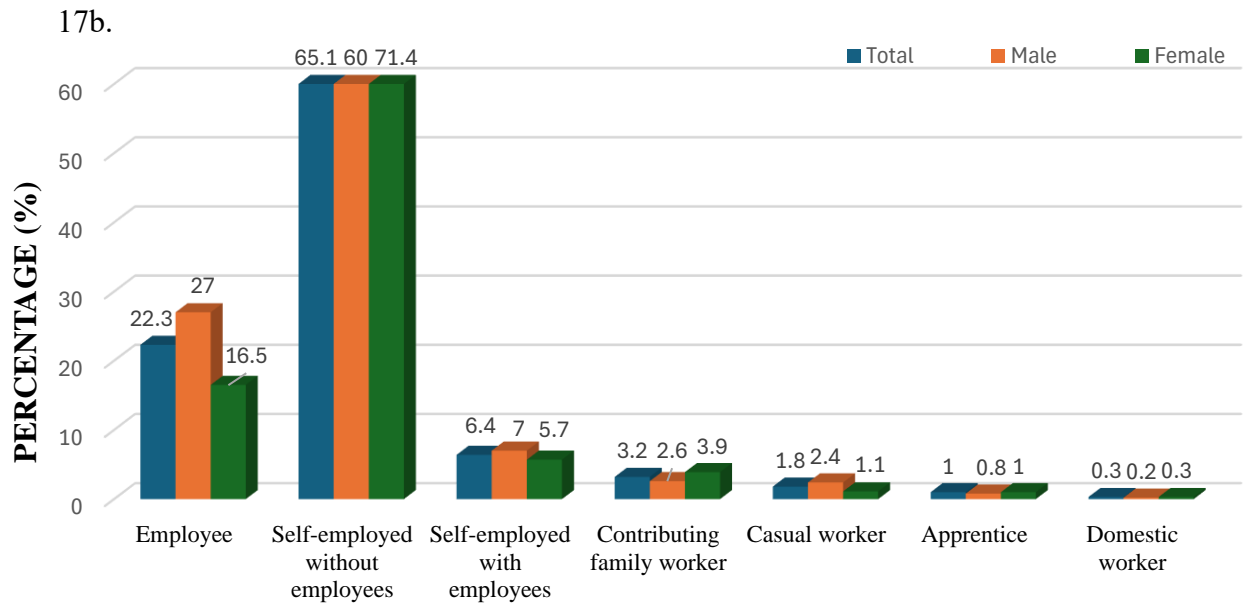


Figure 17b: Employment status of non-migrants in the total population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

18a.

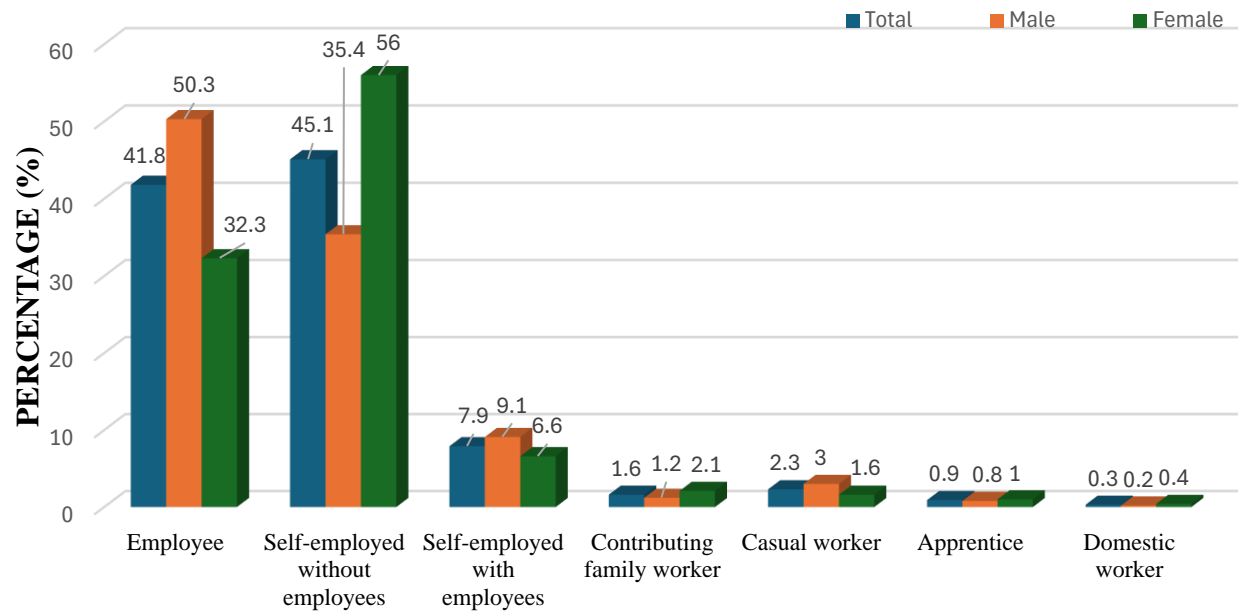


Figure 18a: Employment status of migrants in the urban areas

18b.

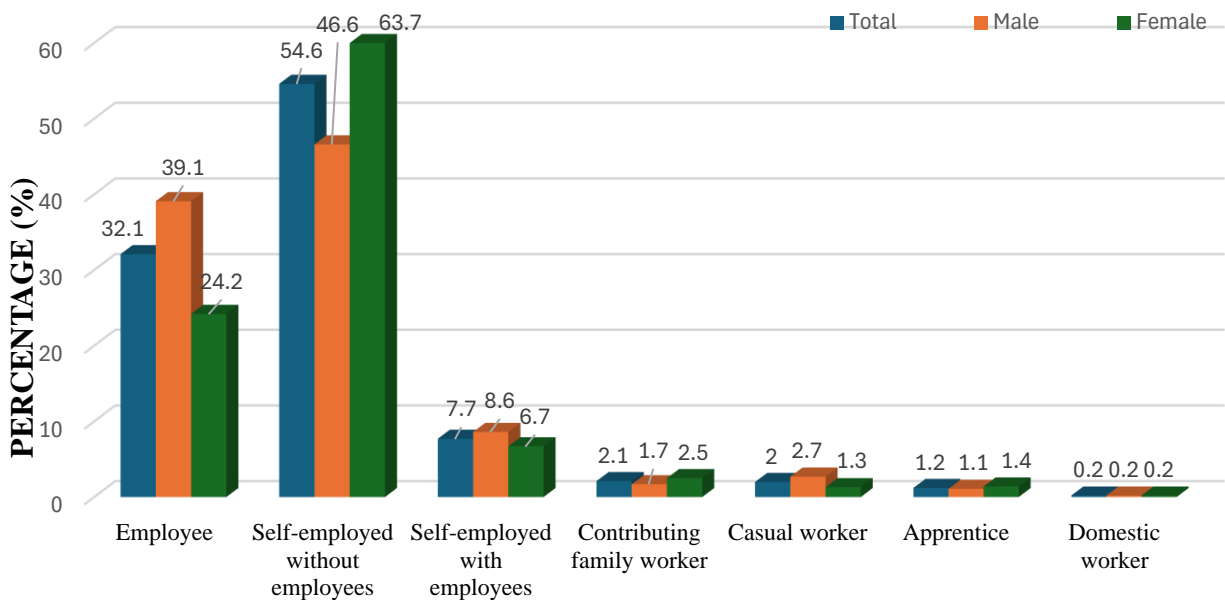


Figure 18b: Employment status of non-migrants in the urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

19a.

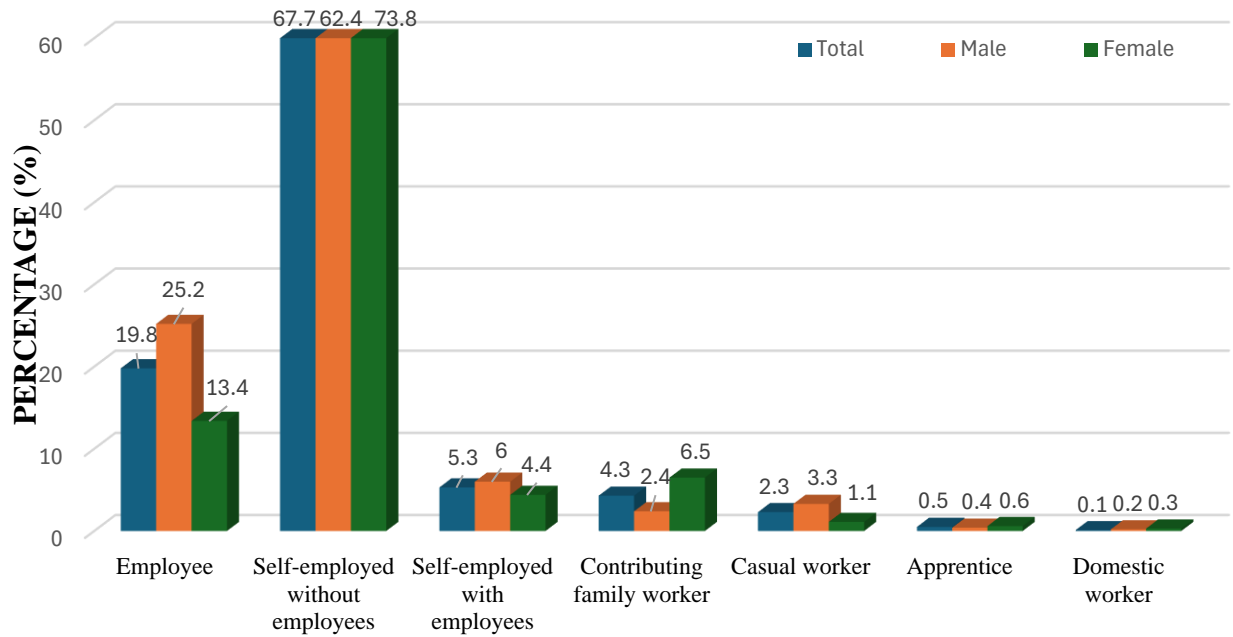


Figure 19a: Employment status of migrants in the rural areas

19b.

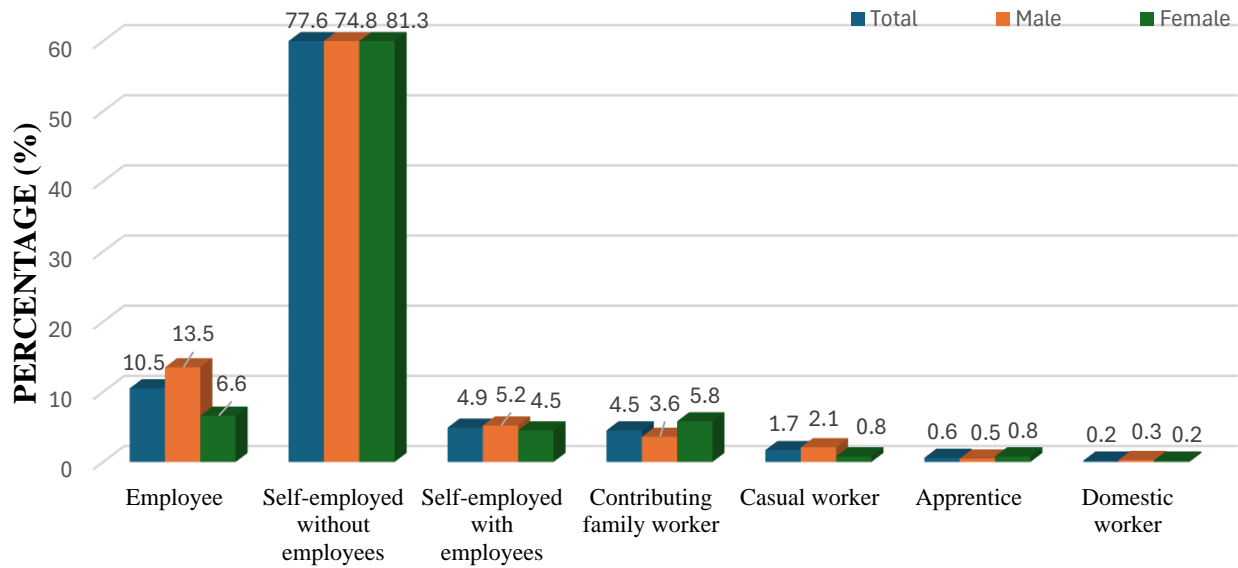


Figure 19b: Employment status of non-migrants in the rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data regarding the employment status and self-employment patterns among migrants and non-migrants, as well as the urban-rural distinctions and gender differences, offers insights into how this contributes to urbanization.

To begin, the data shows that a larger percentage of migrants in rural areas are self-employed, either without employees or with employees, compared to urban areas. This suggests that people in rural areas are engaged in entrepreneurial activities, often related to agriculture or small-scale businesses. This trend contributes to rural-to-urban migration as individuals seek better economic opportunities in urban centers.

The information also highlights that female migrants were self-employed compared to their male counterparts. This is particularly true in rural areas. Women in rural areas engage in agricultural activities or start small businesses, which also contributes to rural-urban migration as they seek to expand their businesses or access urban markets.

Furthermore, more male migrants were self-employed with employees, meaning they were creating jobs not only for themselves but also for others. This trend is seen at the national, urban, and rural levels. The presence of job creators among male migrants attracts individuals from rural areas to urban centers in the quest for employment opportunities.

Lastly, the data highlights significant differences in employment patterns between urban and rural areas. Urban areas have a lower proportion of self-employed migrants, especially those with employees, suggesting a higher prevalence of formal wage employment. This urban-rural employment disparity encourages rural-to-urban migration as people seek stability and higher wages often associated with urban jobs.

The findings align with the research conducted by Sackey et al. (2006), Honorati et al. (2016), Awumbila et al. (2014), and Alhassan (2017), which discovered that the majority of migrants during the north-south migration shared similar traits, such as being self-employed and operating businesses without employees like load carrying and scrap metal collecting. Because making money is the migrants' primary goal, they also participate in a variety of income-generating activities. They will do everything worthwhile to maximize their earnings. They perform these tasks also because people they know in the city perform comparable tasks.

The self-employed migrants who work for themselves use their own abilities and imagination to locate jobs. In the migrant community, most requirements are met by the individuals themselves, forming a self-sufficient system. They accomplish this by helping one another out. Because of this, they have mutual trust and rely on one another for assistance rather than seeking outside assistance. Some skilled migrants find methods to make a living by engaging in jobs as masons, carpenters, plumbers, hairdressers, food entrepreneurs, and small-time traders, usually in the migrant communities' enclave. Working for other migrants is another tactic used by migrants to obtain employment. They typically hire each other to work for them during their operations. For example, dealers in scrap metal might hire load carriers to transport their products (Alhassan, 2017).

Occupation

The proportion of migrants in various occupations is generally higher than that of non-migrants, with the exception of skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers. Notably, a larger percentage of migrants hold managerial positions (2.5%) compared to non-migrants (1.6%). Similarly, the share of migrants in professional roles such as technicians (13.1%) surpasses that of non-migrants (8%). This trend is also observed among clerical support workers (2.6% for migrants vs. 1.7% for non-migrants). In contrast, the proportions of migrants and non-migrants are similar in the occupational groups of services and sales workers, craft and related trades workers, and plant and machine operators and assemblers. These differences in occupational distribution between migrants and non-migrants are observed consistently in both urban and rural areas. However, urban areas exhibit slightly higher proportions than the combined data for all localities and notably higher proportions than rural areas. This indicates that migrants in managerial, professional, technical, and associate professional roles are more concentrated in urban areas compared to rural regions. All this information is illustrated in Figures 20, 21, and 22.

20a.

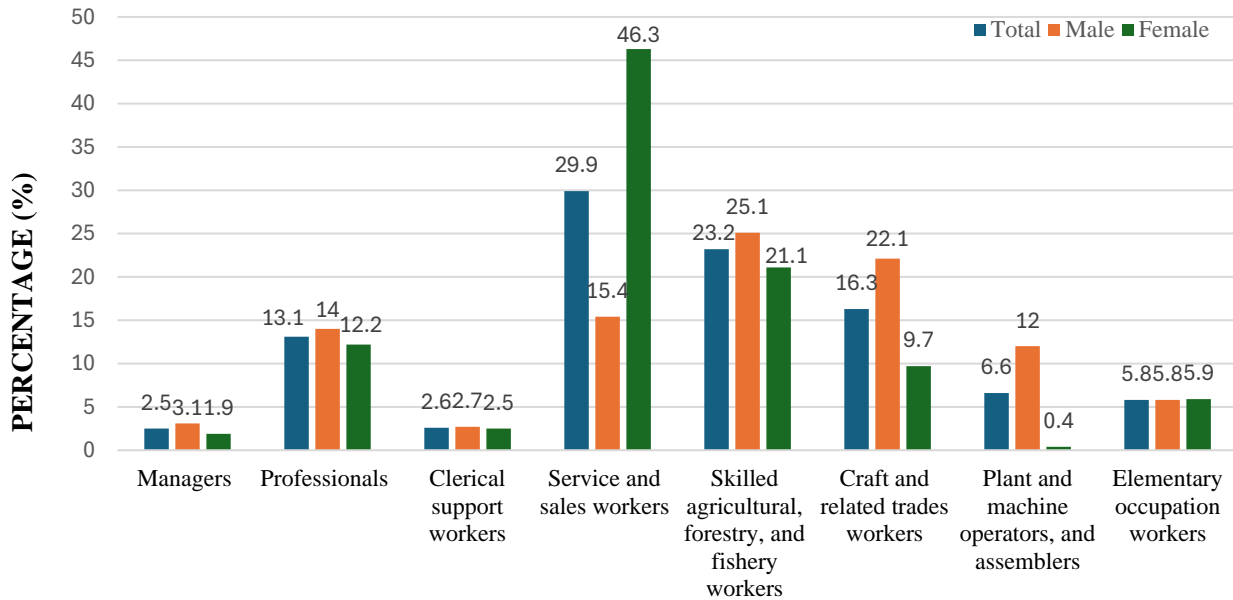


Figure 20a: Occupation of migrants in the total population

20b.

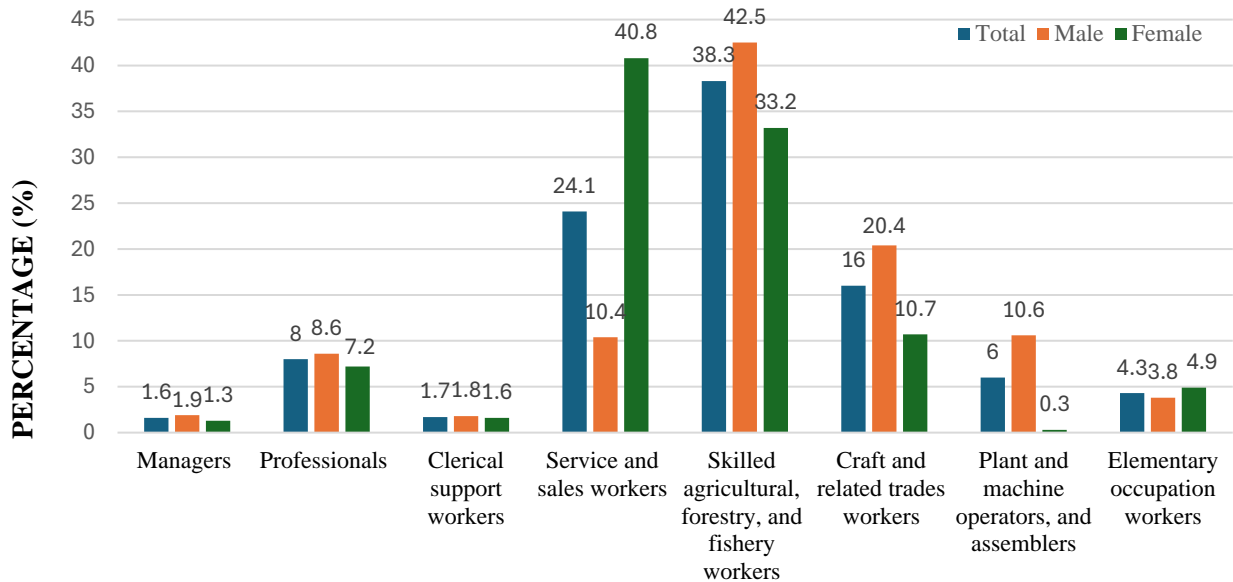


Figure 20b: Occupation of non-migrants in the total population

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

21a.

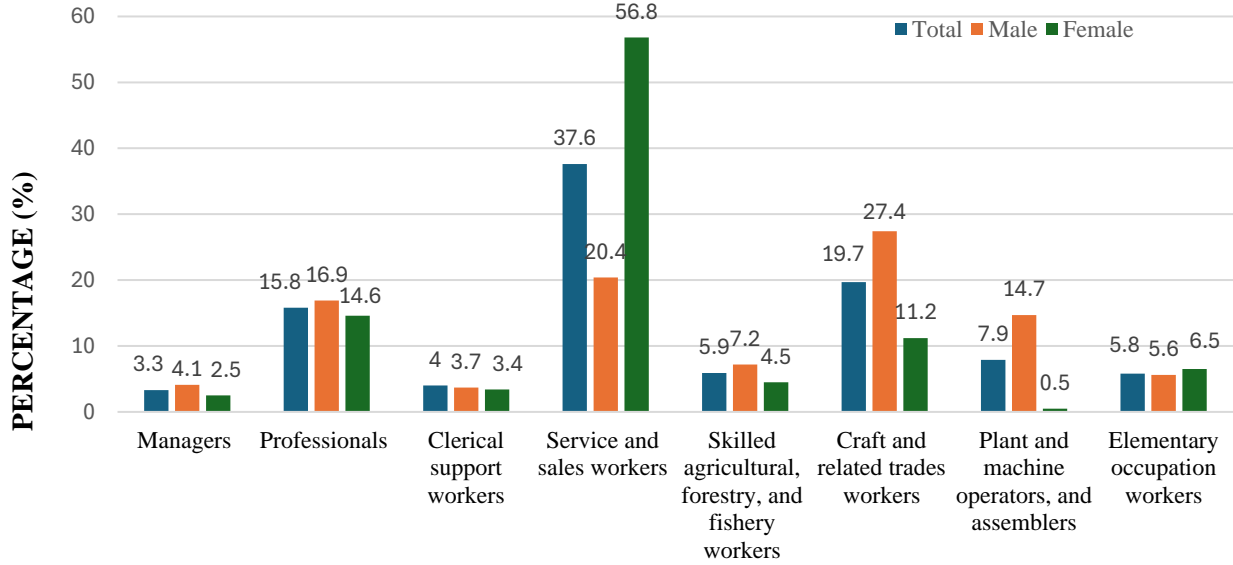


Figure 21a: Occupation of migrants in the urban areas

21b.

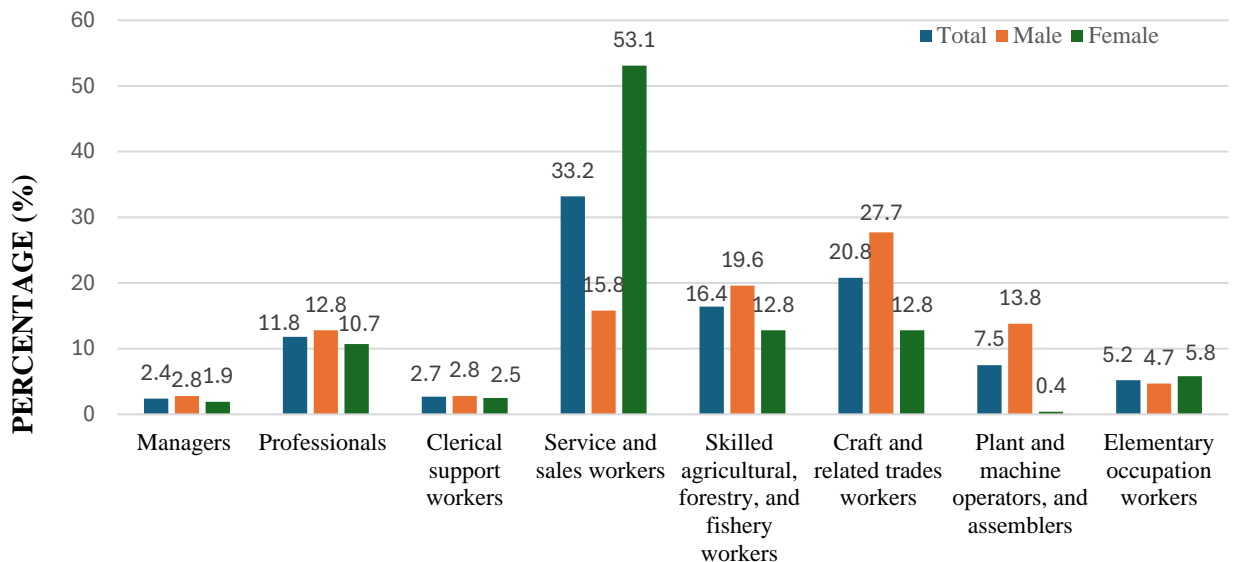


Figure 21b: Occupation of non-migrants in the urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

22a.

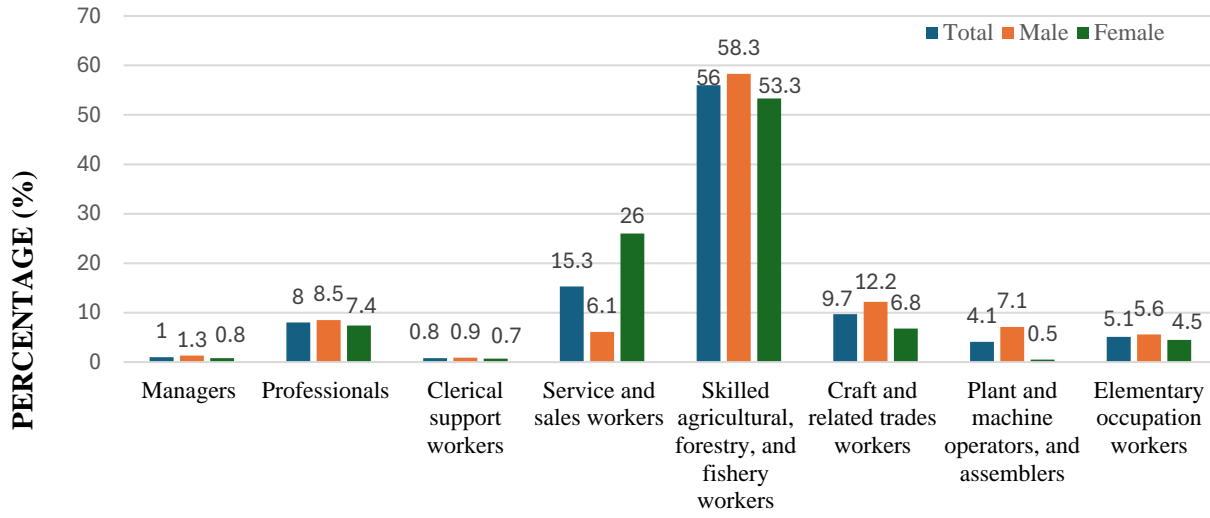


Figure 22a: Occupation of migrants in the rural areas

22b.

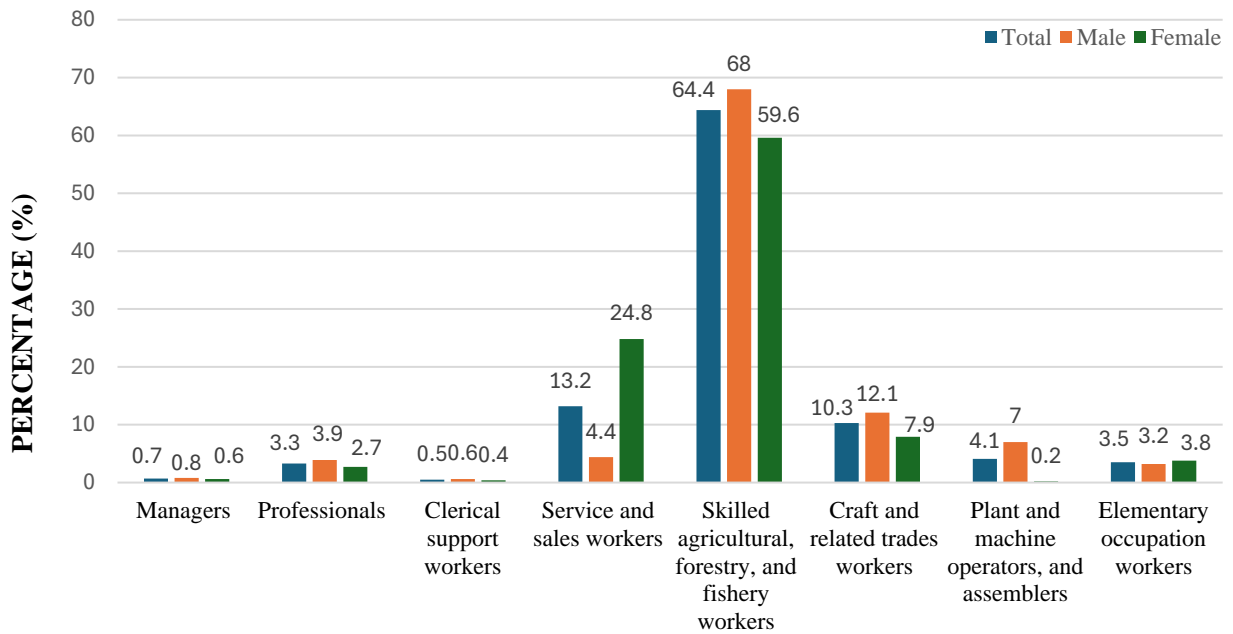


Figure 22b: Occupation of non-migrants in the rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data on occupational distribution between migrants and non-migrants, with a notable concentration of migrants in this occupation, particularly in urban areas, has significant implications for urbanization.

Firstly, the higher percentage of migrants in managerial and professional roles in urban areas suggests that cities are attracting a skilled and educated workforce. This is often because urban areas offer a broader range of job opportunities, particularly in sectors such as finance, technology, and services, which require these skills.

In addition, the concentration of migrants in roles that drive economic growth, such as managerial and professional positions, contributes to the overall economic development of urban areas. Skilled workers are often associated with higher productivity and innovation, which boosts the urban economy.

Furthermore, the fact that migrants in certain occupational groups, such as managers, professionals, and service/sales workers, are more concentrated in urban areas indicates that cities are desirable destinations for career advancement. This further attracts individuals from rural areas and other regions, contributing to urbanization.

Moreover, urban areas benefit from a diverse workforce, which fosters creativity and competitiveness. Migrants with various skills and expertise in agriculture, fishery, and forestry bring fresh perspectives to urban industries, promoting innovation and development.

Lastly, as urban areas continue to grow, there is an increased demand for various services, including education, healthcare, and housing. The presence of skilled migrants, including professionals and technicians, helps meet these demands and improve the overall quality of urban services.

Patterns of migration over time

Globally, the proportion of international migrants increased from 1.4% in 2010 to 1.5% in 2021 (UN DESA, 2020). It is reported that Greater Accra (26.9%) and Ashanti (26.8%) regions represent more than half (53.7%) of the emigrant population. Seven regions (Greater Accra, Ashanti, Central, Western, Eastern, Volta, and Oti) have larger proportions of female emigration than male emigrants. Ghanaian immigrants' primary destinations, which have remained constant since 2010, were the Americas (23.6%) and Europe (37.6%). Ghanaian immigrants travel to Africa, mostly to members of the Economic Community of West States (ECOWAS), for one-third of their destinations. The majority of Ghanaian emigrants in the West African subregion (7.3%) are from Cote d'Ivoire, with Nigeria (6%) coming in second. The percentage of Ghanaian migrants who have been in their new homes for ten years is 83.8%. Ghanaians primarily go abroad for economic reasons, particularly to pursue employment opportunities. Almost twice as many women as men left their country of origin to marry or have families (GSS, 2022). Also, the proportion of internal migrants has decreased from approximately 34% in 2010 to around 27% in 2021. During this period, a larger percentage of people have been relocating between different regions (inter-regional movements) rather than within the same region (intra-regional movements). Specifically, there were about 4,435,246 inter-regional migrants, constituting approximately 14.5% of the total population, lower than the 2010 figure of 19%. It is worth noting that intra-regional movements are beginning to catch up with inter-regional movements in terms of rates. Establishing six additional regions has led to some regions, particularly the Western Region, losing both non-migrant and in-migrant populations (GSS, 2022).

The in-migration rate indicates the rate at which individuals migrate into a region during the intercensal period, and the out-migration rate is the rate at which individuals migrate from a

region during the intercensal period. Greater Accra continues to be the most appealing region for migrants from other parts of the country. The migration rate into this region has decreased compared to the 2010 census data. All regions in Ghana have experienced a decline in in-migration rates in the 2021 population and housing census compared to the 2010 census (GSS, 2022).

In-migration rates were at their lowest in three northern regions: Upper East, North East, and Upper West. Conversely, except for the Volta Region located in the south of the country, Upper West and Upper East showed some of the highest out-migration rates in Ghana. Among the regions, namely, Greater Accra, Western North, Bono East, Western, Ashanti, and Ahafo, experienced a positive net migration between 2010 and 2021. The other ten regions experienced negative net migration, with six of them—Volta, Upper East, Upper West, Eastern, Northern, and Central Regions—continuously losing population through migration. The remaining four—North East, Savannah, Oti, and Bono Regions—are among the six newly created regions, and they also witnessed negative net migration. It is worth noting that most regions experiencing negative net migration, except to some extent Eastern and Central Regions, are among the less developed areas in the country (GSS, 2022).

The Migration Effectiveness Ratio (MER) was used to gauge migration's impact on population redistribution. The MER is the ratio of total migration, also referred to as gross migration, which is the sum of arrivals and departures in any given area, to net migration, which is the difference between arrivals and departures in any given area, expressed as a percentage. Values between -100 and $+100$ are assumed by the MER. The positive or negative values suggest that net migration is a successful method of population redistribution, producing a significant net effect for the amount of movement. On the other hand, values that are closer to

zero indicate that inter-area flows are more evenly distributed, resulting in relatively minimal redistribution (Stillwell et al., 2000). According to Hugo and Harris (2011), the net gain or loss in a given location is bigger when the ratio is higher, whether positive or negative. The MER is a ratio or percentage that makes it possible to compare areas and ascertain whether migration is more effective in one area than another or is the same in two areas, even though the actual numbers in each area may differ. This is the basis for the effectiveness concept (GSS, 2022). The Greater Accra Region led with a MER of 58.9%, although it decreased from 66.4% in the previous census (2010 census). This indicates Greater Accra's influence over population redistribution through migration is declining. Bono East was the second-placed region with a MER of 22.1%. This new region was created from the former Brong-Ahafo Region, which yielded a positive MER of 14.8% in the most recent census and continuously demonstrated positive net migration until 2010. A MER of -7.0% was recorded in the Bono Region, the third newly formed area from the previous Brong-Ahafo Region. The two newly constructed regions, Bono East and Ahafo displayed positive MERs of 22.1% and 9.2%, respectively. This implies that the two segments of the previous Brong-Ahafo Region attracting migrants to the former region were the Bono East and Ahafo Regions. Techiman, the regional center with its food-producing surroundings, and Bono East are home to the thriving weekly market that impacts the entire country. The Ahafo Region borders the Western North Region, and the two make up Ghana's most productive cocoa-producing frontier.

The Western Region and its carved-out neighbor, the Western North, could be described in a similar way. The Western Region had the second-highest positive MER of 33.5% in its previous census in 2010 (behind Greater Accra), but it recorded a MER of 14.3% in the 2021 PHC, placing it fifth in the rankings. As previously mentioned, MER values near zero suggest a

less effective impact on population redistribution in Ghana. As an illustration of a higher influence on population redistribution in the nation than the Western Region of which it was originally a part, Western North had a MER of 21.5%, ranking third after Greater Accra and Bono East Region. The Ashanti Region seems important for population redistribution in the nation, with a MER of 15.6%. Nonetheless, the Ashanti Region's impact on population redistribution in Ghana seems to be diminishing, down from 16.4% in the 2010 census.

Out of the ten regions with negative out-migration, four indicated MERs of more than -60%, showing a very significant negative impact on population redistribution in these four regions. Volta Region is the only region in the south of the country among the four, with a MER of -64.3%, almost the same as the 2010 census figure of -64.7%. The MER of the Upper East was -81.9%, indicating that 81.9% of all internal migration movements in the region were departures. This is a remarkable change from the previous census figure of -68.6%, indicating that out-migration from the region is deepening. It may be observed that the Upper West Region, with an MER of -72.3%, had the highest negative MER of -70.7% in 2010. Four of the ten regions with negative out-migration had MERs of more than -60%, suggesting a significant negative influence on population redistribution in these areas. To reiterate, out of the four regions, only the Volta Region is located in the southern part of the country. Its MER of -64.3% is nearly identical to the -64.7% figure from the 2010 census. The Upper East's MER was -81.9%, meaning that 81.9% of all internal migratory movements in the area were outflows. This is a significant shift from -68.6% of the 2010 census, suggesting a deeper out-migration from the area. In 2010, the Upper West Region had the highest negative MER of -70.7%, with an MER of -72.3%.

It is also important to note that in the 2010 census, the MER for the former Northern Region was -62.3%. It was divided into three regions before the 2021 census: Savannah, North East, and Northern. Out of all three, the North East's MER in 2010 was -72.7%, substantially greater than that of the original region. The ratios in the Savannah and Northern Regions were considerably lower, at -25.4% and -49.5%, respectively. That implies that the current North East Region area was the source of the largest pressure on individuals to migrate from the former Northern Region. All this information is displayed in Figure 23 below.

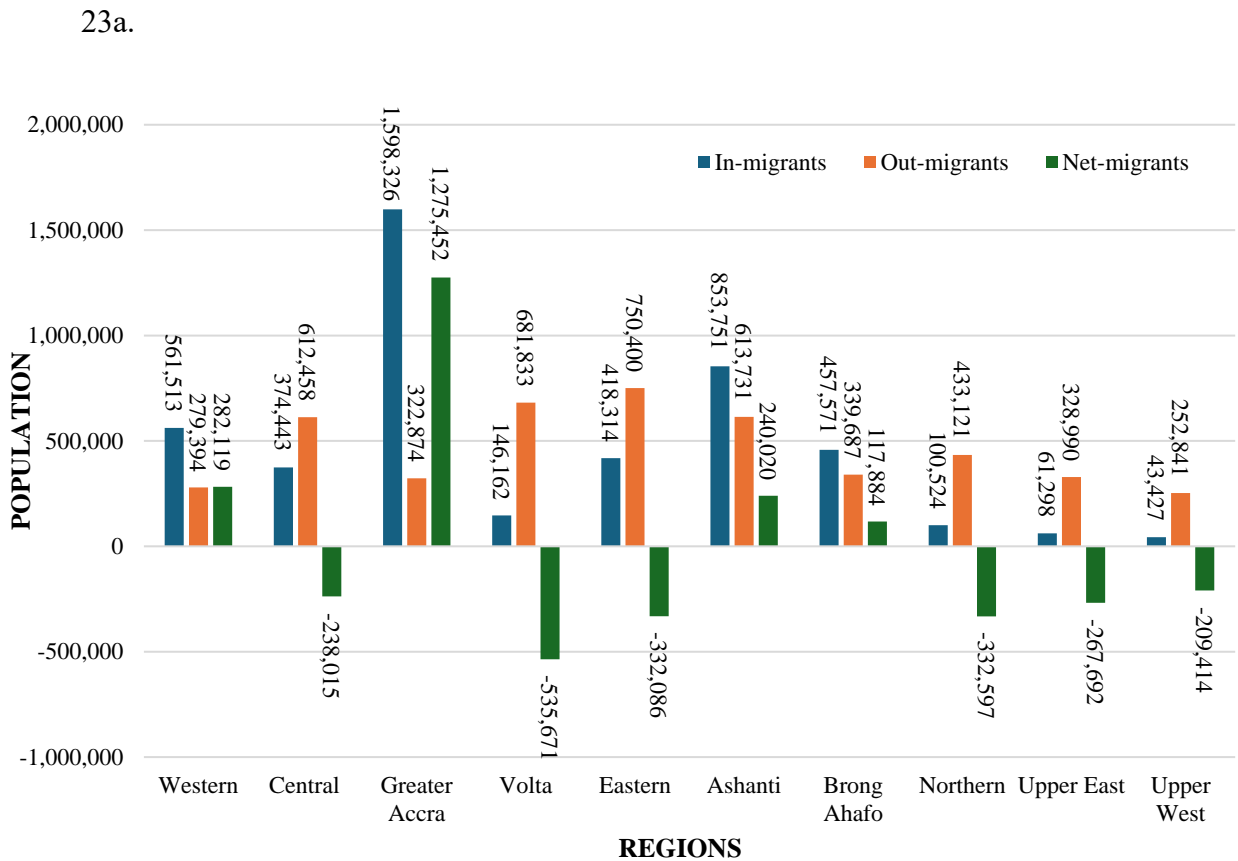


Figure 23a: In-migration, Out-migration, and Net-migration by region

Source: 2010 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2010, 2010 PHC National Analytical Report)

23b.

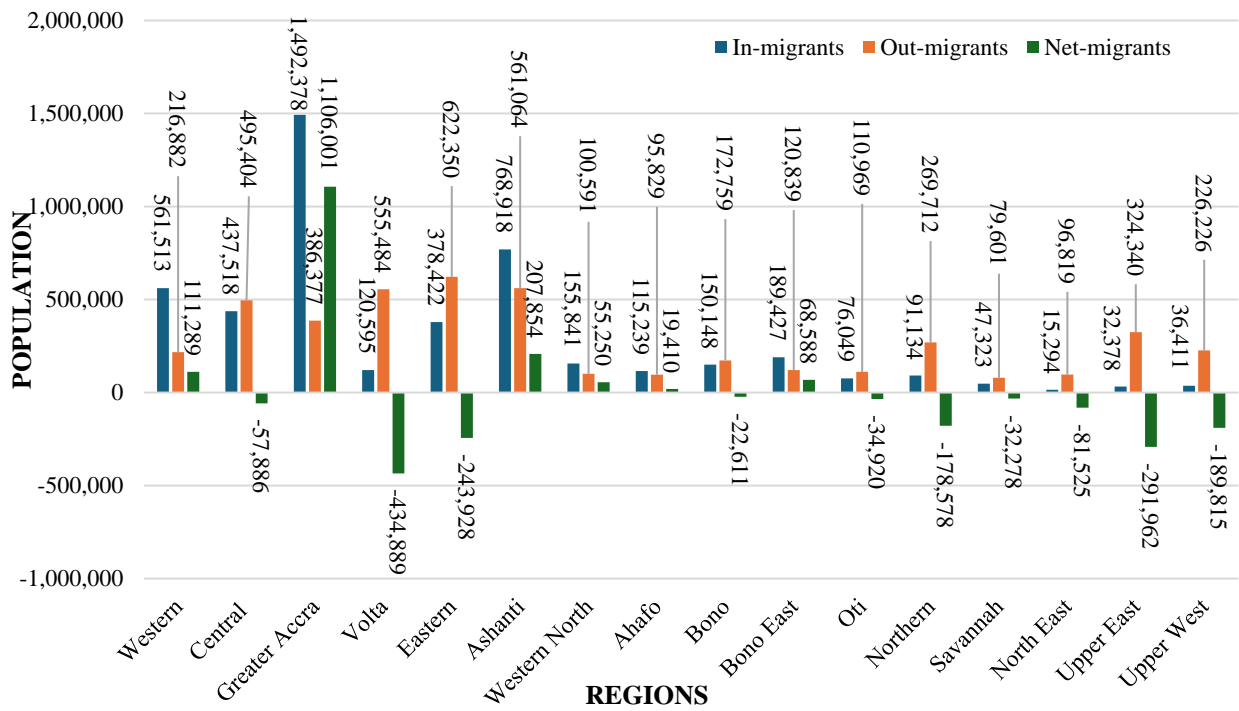


Figure 23b: In-migration, Out-migration, and Net-migration by region

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The comparison of migration rates between 2010 and 2021 census sheds light on changing demographic patterns and their implications for regional development and planning in Ghana. The decline in in-migration rates across all regions and the notable disparities in out-migration rates suggest a shift in the population’s mobility patterns.

Greater Accra’s ability to attract people through migration is attributed to its status as the nation’s capital, housing the headquarters of all ministries and major governmental and non-governmental organizations. Additionally, the region, together with its twin city Tema, hosts most of the industries in Ghana, drawing people from all over the country seeking jobs and other economic opportunities (GSS, 2022). Similarly, the Western Region and its breakaway region, Western North, along with the Ashanti and Ahafo Regions, located in the better-developed and

naturally wealthy region of the country in the south, attract people in large numbers due to industry, mining, and agriculture opportunities.

However, the ten remaining regions experienced population loss through migration between 2010 and 2021. Six of them—Volta, Upper East, Upper West, Eastern, Northern, and Central—have consistently been population losers through migration, perpetuating the trend observed in the 2010 census. The remaining four—North East, Savannah, Oti, and Bono—were among the six newly created regions.

The regions experiencing negative net migration, except for Eastern and Central Regions, are among the least developed in the country. The Northern Region, for instance, recorded a positive net migration in the 1984 census, which was attributed partly to government initiatives aimed at making the region the country's breadbasket. However, the region has since reverted to negative net migration. Initiatives such as the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA), One District, One Factory (1D1F), and Planting for Food and Jobs are hoped to reverse the situation in the future (GSS, 2022).

The case of the Eastern Region, however, presents a grave concern. It has not been easy to explain the factors behind the loss of population through migration in the region, except to say that it is a sign of declining fortunes. Factors such as declining cocoa production, diamond mining, and the closure of factories contribute to this downturn (GSS, 2022).

In conclusion, understanding the internal migration dynamics revealed by the 2010 and 2021 censuses is crucial for policymakers to allocate resources better, plan for the future, and implement interventions that support balanced regional growth and development. The challenge remains in creating an environment where all regions in Ghana are seen as viable places to live,

work, and thrive, thus encouraging a more evenly distributed population growth across the country.

Chapter 7

Navigating Challenges: The Realities of Rural Migrants in Urban Pursuits

Introduction

Transitioning from the quantitative nature of Ghana's urban landscape to the qualitative consideration of the quality of life and livelihood strategies, it becomes evident that rural migrants encounter many challenges in pursuing employment opportunities in urban areas. These challenges extend beyond mere statistics and delve into the complex realities of individuals navigating unfamiliar urban landscapes in search of better livelihoods.

Challenges rural migrants encounter in their job search in urban areas

Rural migrants who move to urban areas looking for better employment opportunities often face various challenges in their job search. These challenges can significantly impact their ability to find stable and suitable employment. Limited education and skills, language barriers, and housing problems are common challenges that rural migrants may encounter when seeking jobs in urban areas.

Limited Education and Skills

In terms of the education data illustrated in Figures 14-16, more than half (53.6%) of the migrants have attended school in the past, compared with only 4% of the general population. The mirror effect of this is that the proportions of migrants who have attained secondary (25.1%) and tertiary (16.2%) education are higher than those of non-migrants (17.2% and 7.4%, respectively). Male migrants have higher levels of education than their female counterparts at all levels (GSS, 2022).

The information suggests that migrants generally have higher education levels than the general population. However, there are still potential challenges related to limited levels of education that migrants may face in competing for skilled or professional jobs in the urban job market, which can subsequently limit their employment options. Here is how this data can be connected to these challenges.

Firstly, while migrants have higher levels of education on average, that does not align with the demands of urban industries, making it difficult to compete for skilled or professional positions. Many urban job sectors require specialized knowledge, technical expertise, or professional certifications that a general education curriculum may not cover. Industries like technology, healthcare, or finance often demand specific technical skills or qualifications beyond the scope of basic education.

Also, even though migrants have attained secondary and tertiary education, the job market's requirements may demand specific skills or qualifications that they lack. This skills mismatch results in migrants being considered underqualified for skilled positions.

Lastly, looking at the urban job market is often highly competitive, with many job seekers vying for a limited number of skilled and professional jobs. Migrants find it challenging to compete with local candidates who have relevant experience and networks within the urban area, even if they have higher education.

The information discussed above can be recorded in existing literature of scholars such as Alhassan (2017) and Ackah et al. (2010). They argued that native residents are not able to look up employment information due to their lack of little or no education and skills, especially for a large proportion of migrants and new migrants. Also, most migrants are unable to sustain their

local households and earn enough money for their own survival in cities due to a lack of formal skills and education.

Language Barriers

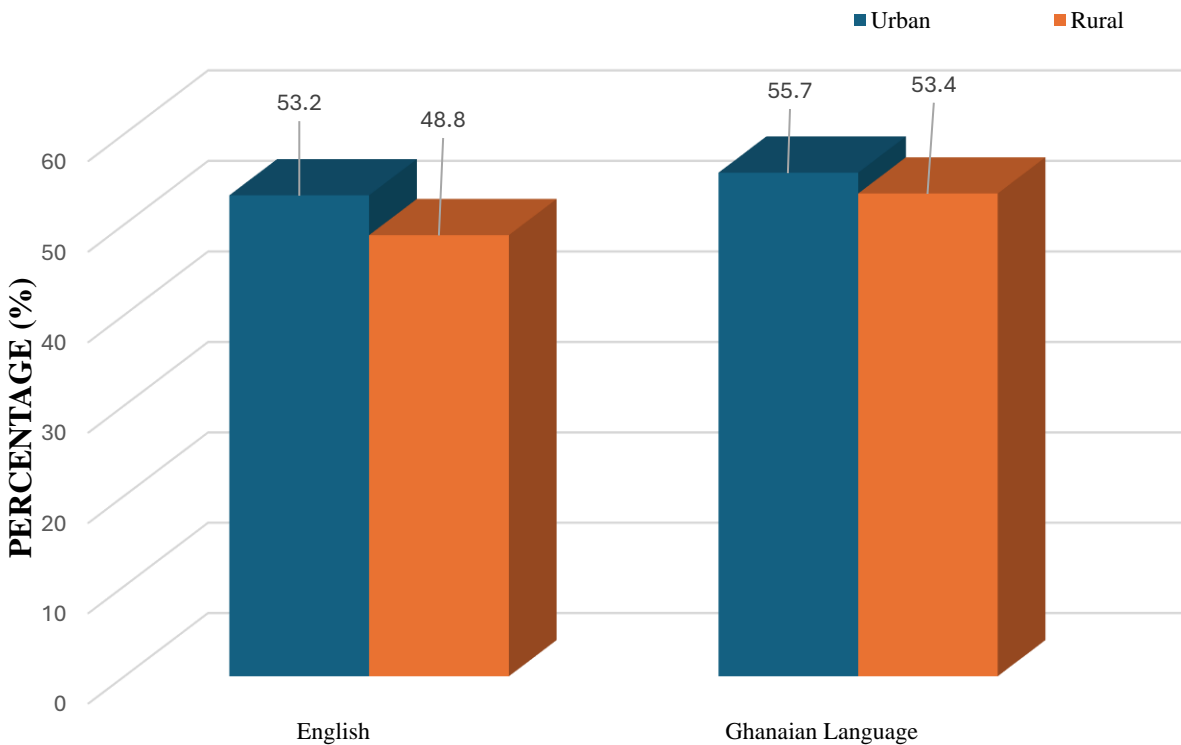


Figure 24: Proportion of the population who are literate by type of locality

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, POPULATION OF REGIONS AND DISTRICTS REPORT)

Urban areas often have more diverse populations, and the dominant language may differ from what rural migrants are familiar with. The dominant languages in urban areas are English and Ghanaian languages such as Asante Twi, Ga, and Ewe. As reported in the GSS data, 53.2% of the urban population is literate in English as opposed to 48.8% of the rural population, and

55.7% of the urban population is literate in the Ghanaian language as opposed to 53.4% of the rural population. In rural-urban migration, language barriers hinder communication and limit access to essential services and resources within urban settings. Migrants who are not proficient in the dominant languages struggle to navigate bureaucratic processes, access healthcare, or even interact with local communities, leading to feelings of isolation and exclusion. Furthermore, language proficiency is often a key requirement for many jobs, particularly those in customer service or administration roles, further restricting employment prospects for migrants with limited language skills. As such, addressing language barriers is crucial for promoting social inclusion and facilitating the successful integration of rural migrants into urban communities (GSS, 2022).

Housing

Across all types of localities, owner-occupied housing is the most prevalent, with 60.2% of dwelling units falling into this category. Renting is the second most common arrangement, representing 26.1% of dwelling units, while rent-free housing accounts for a significant proportion at 11.9%. However, other arrangements like perching, squatting, and caretaking are relatively rare (GSS, 2022). This information is illustrated in Figure 25.

In urban areas, owner-occupied housing is less common (48.2%) than in other locality types, with renting being more prevalent at 37.8%. This suggests that owning a home is more challenging in urban settings, possibly due to higher property prices and the nature of urban employment, which may be more transient. Rent-free housing is also relatively common in urban areas, accounting for 12.3%. Other arrangements exist but are found in smaller proportions (GSS, 2022). Conversely, in rural areas, owner-occupied housing is highly prevalent at 75.4%, indicating a strong culture of homeownership. Renting is less common in rural areas (11.2%), but

rent-free housing is still at 11.3%. Similar to urban areas, other arrangements exist in rural areas but represent relatively small proportions (GSS, 2022). This information is illustrated in Figure 26.

In the urban contexts, migrants (48.1%) rent their dwelling units more than non-migrants (33.3%). This is expected as migrants, both intra- and inter-regional, move for opportunities and may not have the means or desire to purchase the property immediately. Owner occupancy is higher among non-migrants in urban settings (52.3%) than migrants (38.5%), suggesting that longer-term residents are more likely to own their homes. This pattern repeats in rural settings. Migrants, especially in urban areas, show a higher propensity towards less stable housing arrangements (renting, squatting, or perching) than non-migrants, highlighting the challenges migrants face in securing stable and affordable housing. Caretaker arrangements are more common among migrants in both settings, perhaps as a strategy to secure housing through employment. This information is illustrated in Figure 27.

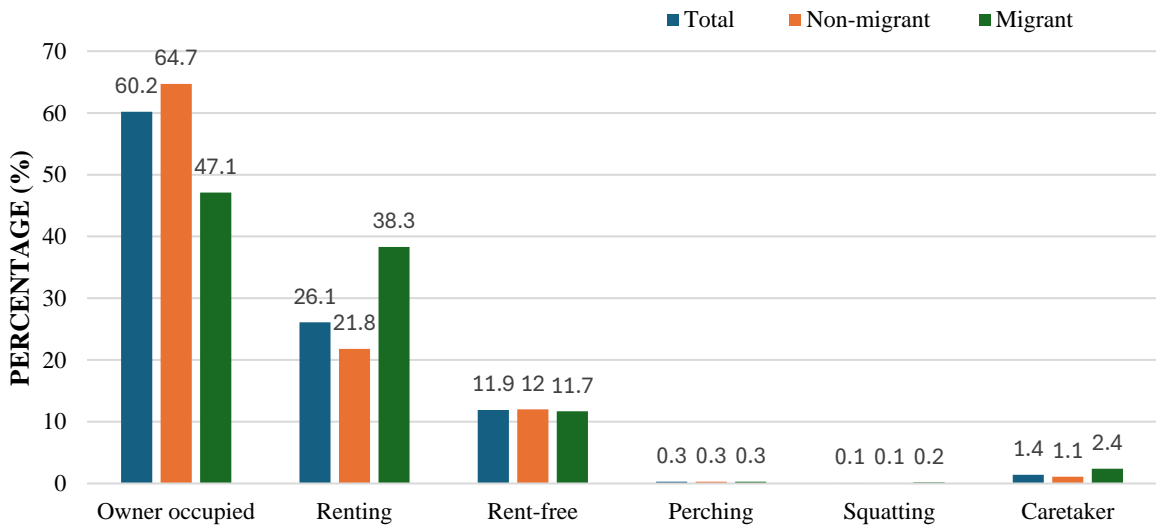


Figure 25: Dwelling units in the total population
 Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

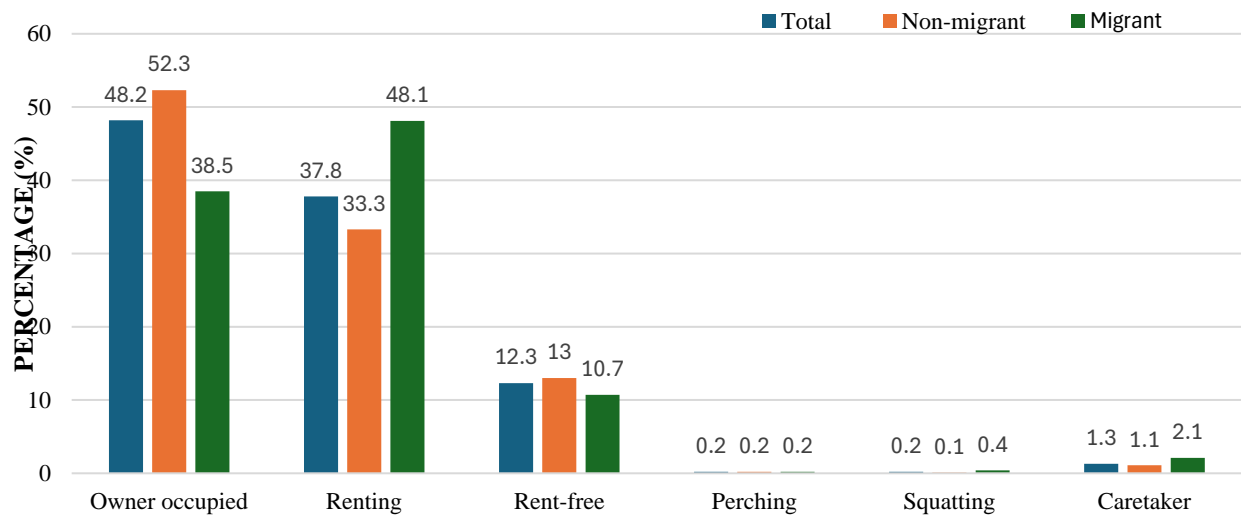


Figure 26: Dwelling units in the urban areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

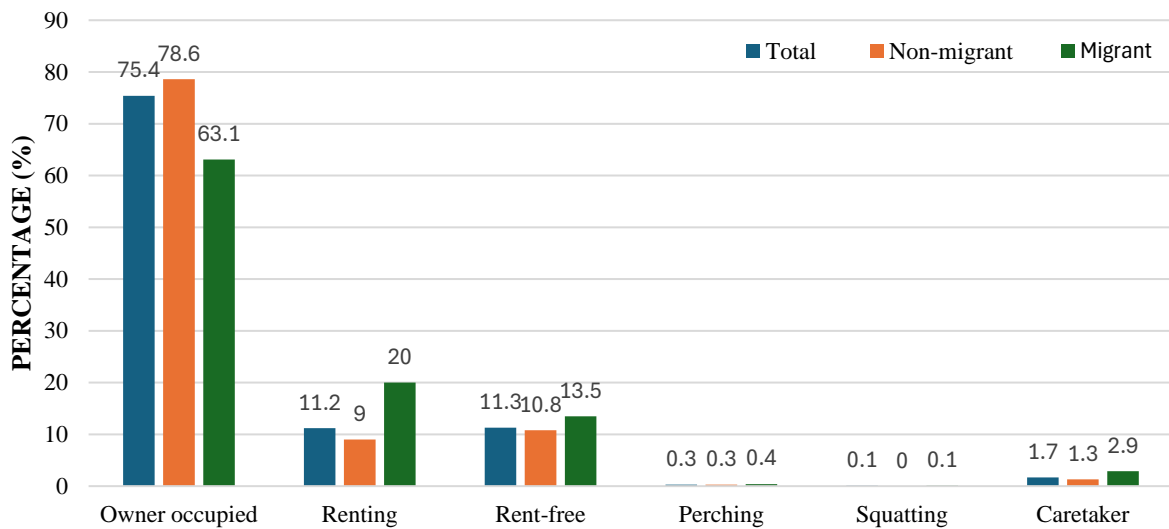


Figure 27: Dwelling units in the rural areas

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022, MIGRATION REPORT)

The data on dwelling units above provides insights into people's challenges in finding affordable housing, especially in urban areas. The data highlights some of these challenges.

Firstly, a substantial percentage of dwelling units (37.8%) are rented in urban areas. This indicates that many urban residents, including migrants, rely on rental housing. Renting often requires monthly payments, a significant financial burden, particularly in areas with high housing costs. The cost of renting can consume a large portion of individuals' income, leaving less money for other essential needs.

Also, the presence of rent-free housing (11.9% in all locality types) suggests that some individuals may live in properties without paying rent. While this seems advantageous, it indicates informal or unstable living arrangements, such as staying with relatives or friends. Such arrangements do not provide long-term housing stability, and individuals in these situations face challenges in securing more permanent and affordable housing.

In addition to rent-free housing, which indicates informal or unstable living arrangements, there is a significant issue of slum dwellings among migrants, particularly those from Northern Ghana. Awumbila (2014) points out that migrants from Northern Ghana are frequently forced to live in slums because housing there is less expensive than in the main metropolis due to low income. Rapid urbanization exacerbates this problem, leading to the proliferation of slums and heightened levels of unemployment across many urban areas in the developing world. UN-HABITAT (2009) points out that approximately 70% of all urban residents in sub-Saharan Africa live in slums, emphasizing the severity of the issue. In Ghana, rural-urban migration has intensified recently, placing strain on resources such as employment and housing in urban areas (Castaldo, Deshingkar & McKay, 2012).

Nearly 37.9% of Ghana's total urban population resides in slums, as reported by UN-HABITAT (2014). Rural migrants often find themselves isolated and living in precarious conditions within these slums, contributing to urban poverty and straining urban infrastructure (Adaawen & Owusu, 2013, as cited in Alhassan, 2017, p.3).

Moreover, urban areas have a lower percentage of owner-occupied housing (48.2%) compared to rural areas (75.4%). This difference suggests that urban residents, including migrants, face greater challenges in achieving homeownership due to higher property prices and limited access to affordable housing options. As a result, renting has become the more common choice in urban settings and is expensive.

Also, migrants, especially inter-regional migrants, have a higher percentage of renting and rent-free arrangements compared to non-migrants. This indicates that migrants face unique challenges in securing stable and affordable housing in urban areas, where they often move for job opportunities. The competition for rental housing in urban areas drives up rental prices, making it more difficult for migrants to find affordable options.

Lastly, while these arrangements (perching, squatting, or caretaking) represent small housing proportions, their presence suggests informal or non-standard housing situations. Individuals resorting to these arrangements out of necessity face challenges in accessing traditional rental or ownership options due to financial constraints or limited availability of affordable housing. In addition to putting the residents in jeopardy concerning tenure security, these informal living arrangements frequently lack legal registration, leaving them subject to dangers and a dearth of basic amenities. The dependence on such arrangements highlights the necessity for inclusive urban planning and policy changes, highlighting the serious gaps in urban housing markets. It will take a multifaceted approach to address these issues. Improving living

conditions for all residents—especially the poor—means expanding the supply of affordable housing, guaranteeing equitable access to resources, and incorporating informal settlements into the larger urban fabric.

Chapter 8

Spatial and Visual Analysis

Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the research objectives aligning with the quantitative and qualitative nature of Ghana's urban landscape. The quantitative nature examines the distribution, patterns, and urbanization trends under study across different geographical locations. Also, the qualitative nature of the image-making captures my imagination and feelings about Ghana's urban landscape specifically denoting how migrants experience their move to Accra. Employing various spatial analysis techniques aims to display insights into the spatial dependencies and relationships that characterize the research subject, thereby enriching the understanding of its impact and implications within the spatial context.

Land use changes in Accra

The most obvious manifestation of Accra's horizontal growth is the transformation of land usage from the natural physical environment to urban use, mostly in residential complexes (Afriyie et al., 2014). The livelihood of those living in peri-urban areas is seriously threatened by changes in land usage. Land cover types are derived from the International Geosphere-Biosphere Program (IGBP) with 17 classes and used to develop global 1 km land cover databases (Loveland et al., 2000). In 2001, 2010, and 2020, satellite images of Accra were classified into urban lands, farmlands, water, and vegetative cover class types for this study to determine the extent of urbanization compared to the various land cover patterns, and the outcomes were contrasted based on the time period.

Tables 4-6 and Figures 28-30 represent the extent of Accra and land cover types calculated from the 2001, 2010, and 2020, using MODIS land cover type product (MCD12Q1) image classification.

In 2001, a significant portion of the land was urban, characterized by built-up areas, infrastructure, and human settlements constituting 20% of Accra. Vegetation, water, and farmland followed, with 9.3%, 1.8%, and 1.5%, respectively. Also, in 2010, urban land constituted 22.5% of Accra. Vegetation, water, and farmland followed, with 7%, 1.9%, and 1.6%, respectively. Furthermore, in 2020, urban land constituted 22.5% of Accra. Vegetation, water, and farmland followed, with 7%, 1.9%, and 1.6%, respectively.

Table 4: Proportion of Accra’s land cover type in 2001

Land cover types	Area (Sq. km)	Percentage
Urban	736.7	20
Farmland	54.4	1.5
Water	65.2	1.8
Vegetation	340.8	9.3

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis (MCD12Q1), Google Earth Engine

Table 5: Proportion of Accra’s land cover type in 2010

Land cover types	Area (Sq. km)	Percentage
Urban	828.8	22.5
Farmland	60.4	1.6

Table 5 (Cont.)

Land cover types	Area (Sq. km)	Percentage
Water	68.4	1.9
Vegetation	255.8	7.0

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine

Table 6: Proportion of Accra's land cover type in 2020

Land cover types	Area (Sq. km)	Percentage
Urban	952.1	25.9
Farmland	104.8	2.8
Water	65.4	1.8
Vegetation	216.1	5.9

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine

The data across the three years reveals a consistent trend of urban expansion, with the area covered by urban land increasing from 736.7 sq. km in 2001 to 828 sq. km in 2010 and 952.1 sq. km in 2020. This corresponds to a rise in urban land percentage from 20% to 22.5% and rising to 25.9% during the same period, indicating significant urban growth and population increase over the three years (2001, 2010, and 2020).

In contrast, the area of farmland has seen a slight increase from 54.4 sq. km in 2001 to 104.8 sq. km in 2020. However, the percentage of farmland relative to urban land has decreased

over the three years, suggesting that urbanization has encroached upon agricultural land, leading to a decline in farmland relative to urban areas.

The water cover has remained relatively stable over the three years, with minor fluctuations in the area. However, the percentage of water cover relative to urban land has slightly decreased, indicating the potential impacts of urbanization on water bodies.

The area covered by vegetation has decreased over the three years, declining from 340.8 sq. km in 2001 to 216.1 sq. km in 2020. Similarly, the percentage of vegetation relative to urban land has declined, suggesting potential deforestation or loss of natural vegetation due to urban expansion and land development.

In conclusion, the data highlights the pressing need for sustainable urban planning and environmental conservation efforts to alleviate the negative impacts of urban growth on farmland and natural ecosystems.

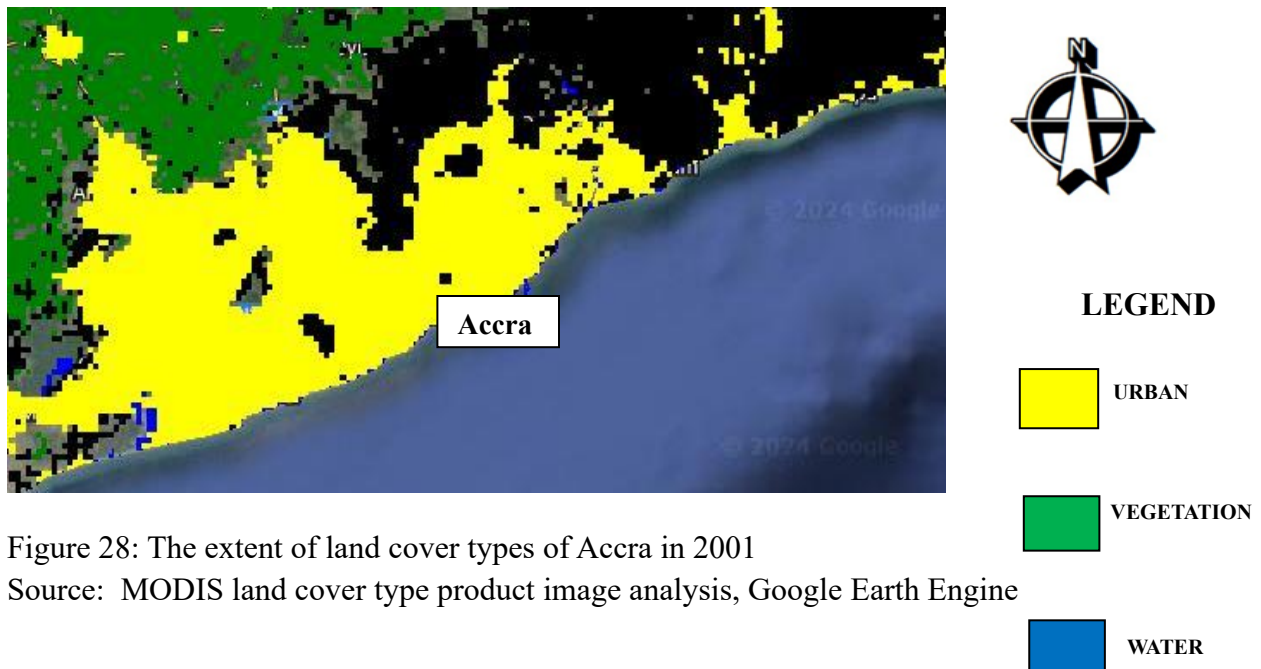


Figure 28: The extent of land cover types of Accra in 2001
Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine



Figure 29: The extent of land cover types of Accra in 2010

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine

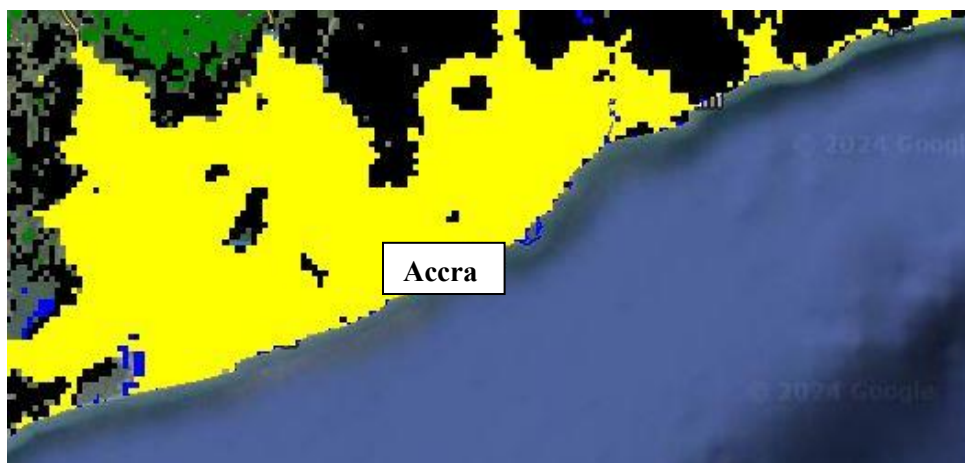


Figure 30: The extent of land cover types of Accra in 2020

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine

Spatial expansion of urban growth

Urbanization refers to the growth and development of cities, increasing the percentage of a country's population that resides in cities (urban areas). Several factors, including economic

development and industrialization, also drive this phenomenon. The development of urbanization primarily stems from the needs and actions of human beings (Yu et al., 2021). This transformation results in the growth of urban areas and significant changes in land use patterns. Figure 31 depicts the extent of urbanization of Accra across the three years (2001, 2010, and 2020), highlighting urban growth's dynamic and continuous nature and its effects on land usage and the environment.

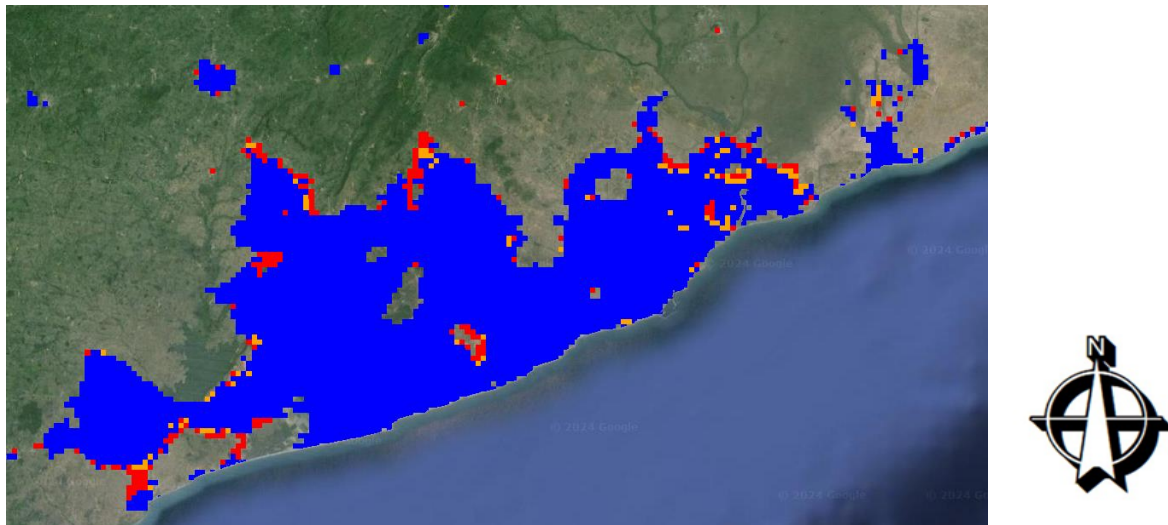


Figure 31: The extent of urban growth in Accra.

Source: MODIS land cover type product image analysis, Google Earth Engine

LEGEND

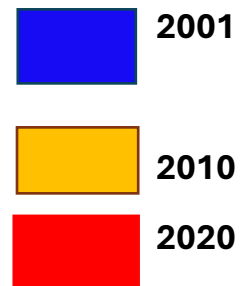


Image making

Within the context of this exposition, I will delve into the factors propelling migrants from northern regions of Ghana to southern Ghana, specifically Accra, and refer specifically to the use

of image-making as a route to my personal understanding of places. This approach is perhaps more familiar in landscape architecture than in the cognate fields of cultural and human geography. This section of the thesis is my authorized work that has been previously published (Kissi-Somuah, 2023). Also, this section of the thesis will display pictures captured to depict Ghanaians' communal experiences and societal interactions in Accra (Kissi-Somuah, 2023).

According to Tonah (2012), Northern Ghana has been severely affected by chieftaincy conflicts that affect the development of infrastructures such as houses. This series of conflicts occurred all over the region, including Tamale, Bimbila, and Yendi (Issifu, 2021). Also notable among these conflicts are the Kokomba and Nanumba conflict, the Mamprusi and Kuasasi conflict, the Andani and Abudu conflict, and the Nadowli conflict (Brukum, 2001; Longi, 2014). As a result of these conflicts, people are still moving from the northern to the southern regions of Ghana since the southern region is perceived as a safe place to settle.

Reflecting on these differences in regions and place, my paintings in Figure 32 have leaned into color, texture, and composition to relate threat, hopelessness, and varying degrees of promise and optimism.

However, the quest for peace in Southern Ghana is complex and influenced by various factors. Ghana's peace-loving nature, particularly in Accra, which is in the southern part of Ghana, is attributed to traditional peace education practices (Benson, 2021). Reflecting on Accra and its environment, my paintings have embraced soothing hues, serene textures, and harmonious compositions to evoke a sense of peace, resilience, and profound calmness, counteracting any notions of threat, hopelessness, and uncertainty.

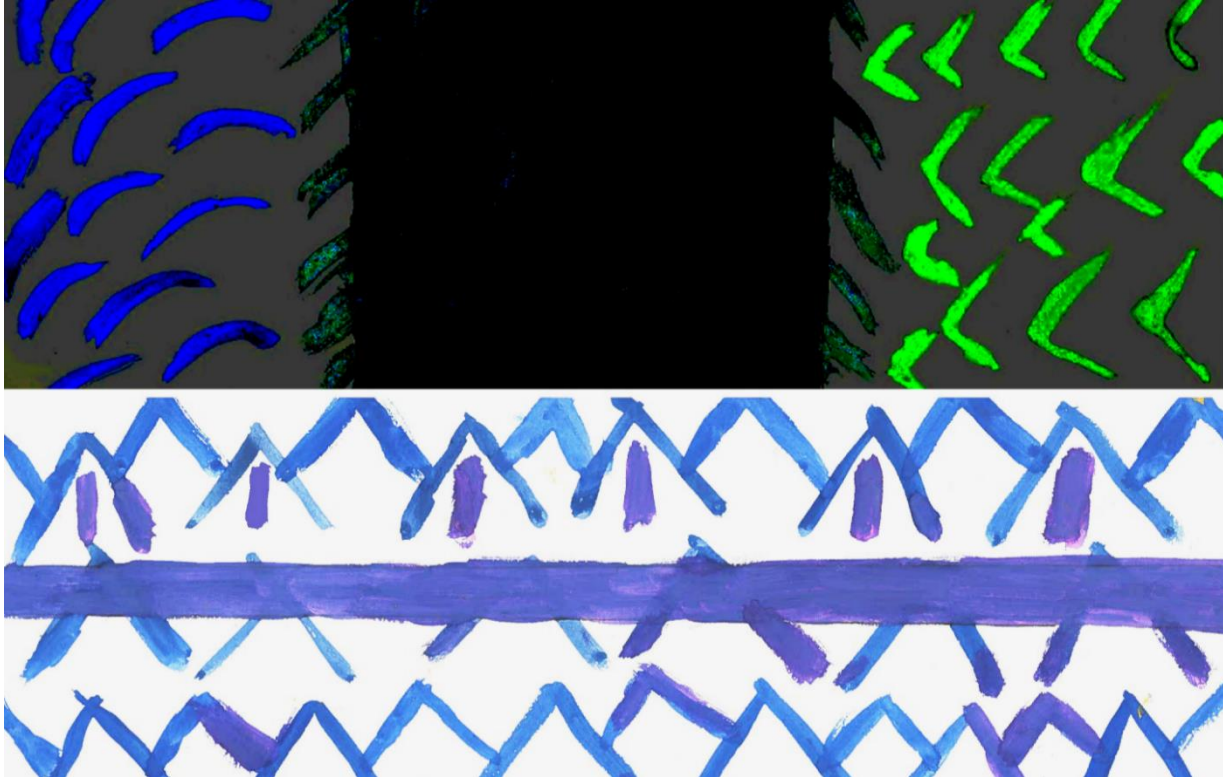


Figure 32: A painting depicting the transition from intercommunal conflicts in Northern Ghana to peace, resilience, calmness, and support in Southern Ghana.

Source: Author's imaginative painting

Northern Ghana faces limited economic activities, which are influenced by various factors such as geographical, cultural, historical, and socio-economic realities (Yaro, 2013). The limited economic activities are attributed to healthcare, education, standard of living, and food production (Whitehead et McNiff, 2006). Northern Ghana's environmental degradation and changing climate affect agricultural productivity, limiting economic opportunities. Through my image-making, I can convey this feeling of immobility and the vulnerability of the northern culture to various challenges that they face. The artwork symbolizes the life journeys of Northern Ghanaians and reflects the state of the land itself. The diminishing agricultural output, depicted in my art through barrenness, directly corresponds to reduced employment opportunities and

income potential in rural regions. This scarcity of economic avenues acts as a primary driver, prompting individuals and families to relocate to Accra in search of better employment prospects. In my artistic expression, Northern Ghana emerges as a landscape shaped by the constraints of restricted economic opportunities, interwoven with threads of imagination and storytelling.

On the other hand, the service industry, especially in fields like education, healthcare, and commerce, has played a pivotal role in prompting migration from northern Ghana to the southern regions (Geest, 2011). This migration offers prospects for employment and income, as depicted in Figure 33 of my artwork. In these paintings, Accra emerges as a symbol of aspiration, offering promise, advancement, job prospects, and many services.

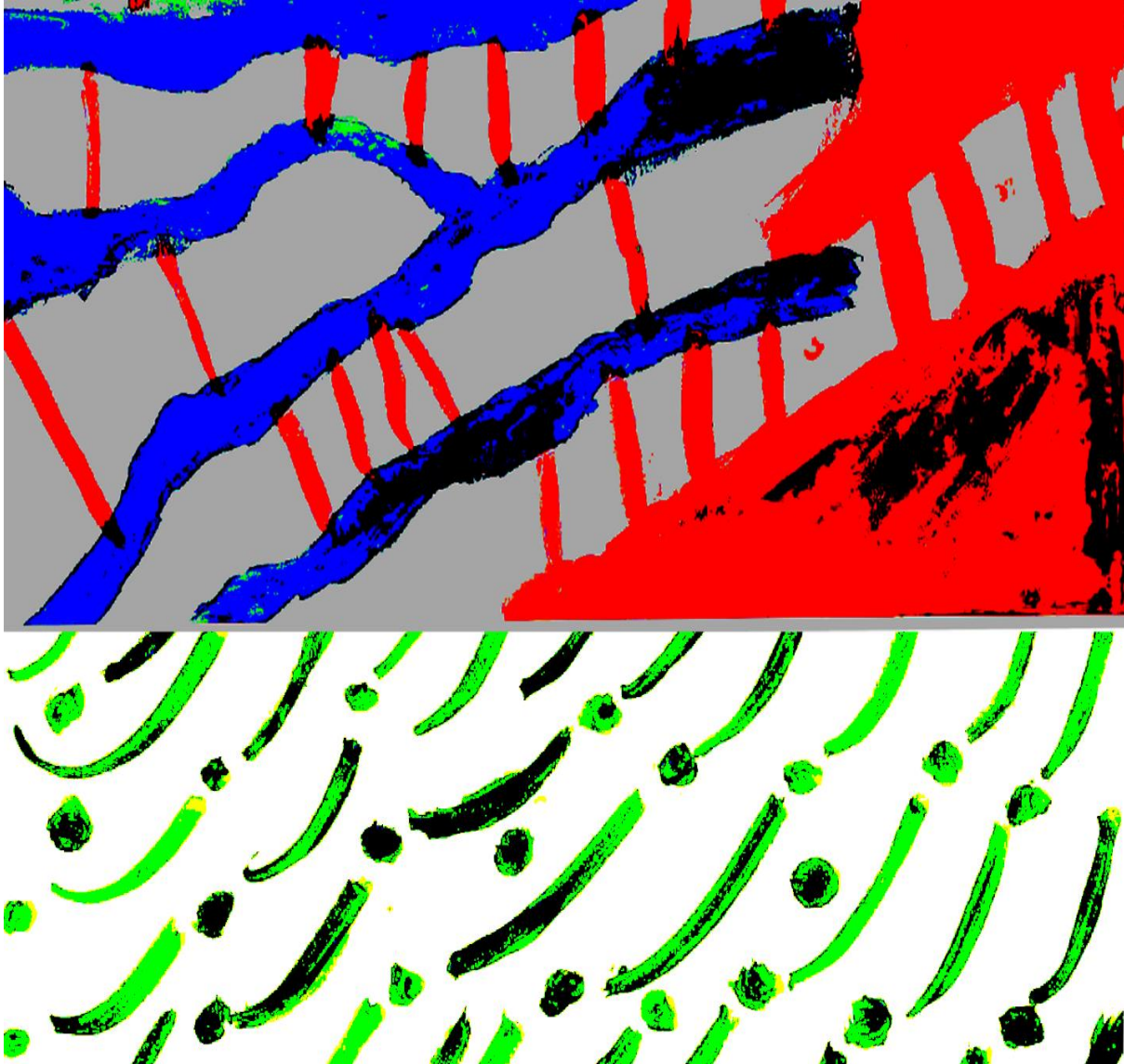


Figure 33: A painting portraying the transition from limited economic activities in Northern Ghana to a haven of promise, growth, employment opportunities, and a bounty of services in Southern Ghana.

Source: Author's imaginative painting

In West Africa, particularly in Ghana, a significant portion of rural economies relies on crop cultivation for livelihood, facing adverse effects from climate change (Collier et al., 2008). Ghana, located on the west coast of Africa, has over 55% of its population engaged in agriculture, and the underdeveloped northeast region, heavily dependent on subsistence farming,

has experienced limited socio-economic and infrastructural progress, contributing to heightened poverty, especially in rural areas (Aryeetey & McKay, 2004; Laube et al., 2012). The sun—the giver of life and prosperity for many—is depicted as a potential liability; the burning threat hanging not-so-benevolently in the northern skies above.

On the other hand, Southern Ghana, with its diversified economy and stable climate, stands in stark contrast to the challenges faced by the northern region. Acheampong (2014) highlights the vulnerability of the north to climate variability, a risk that is less pronounced in the south. Reflecting on Accra and its environment, my paintings in Figure 34 have embraced people’s striving to attract perseverance and advancement.

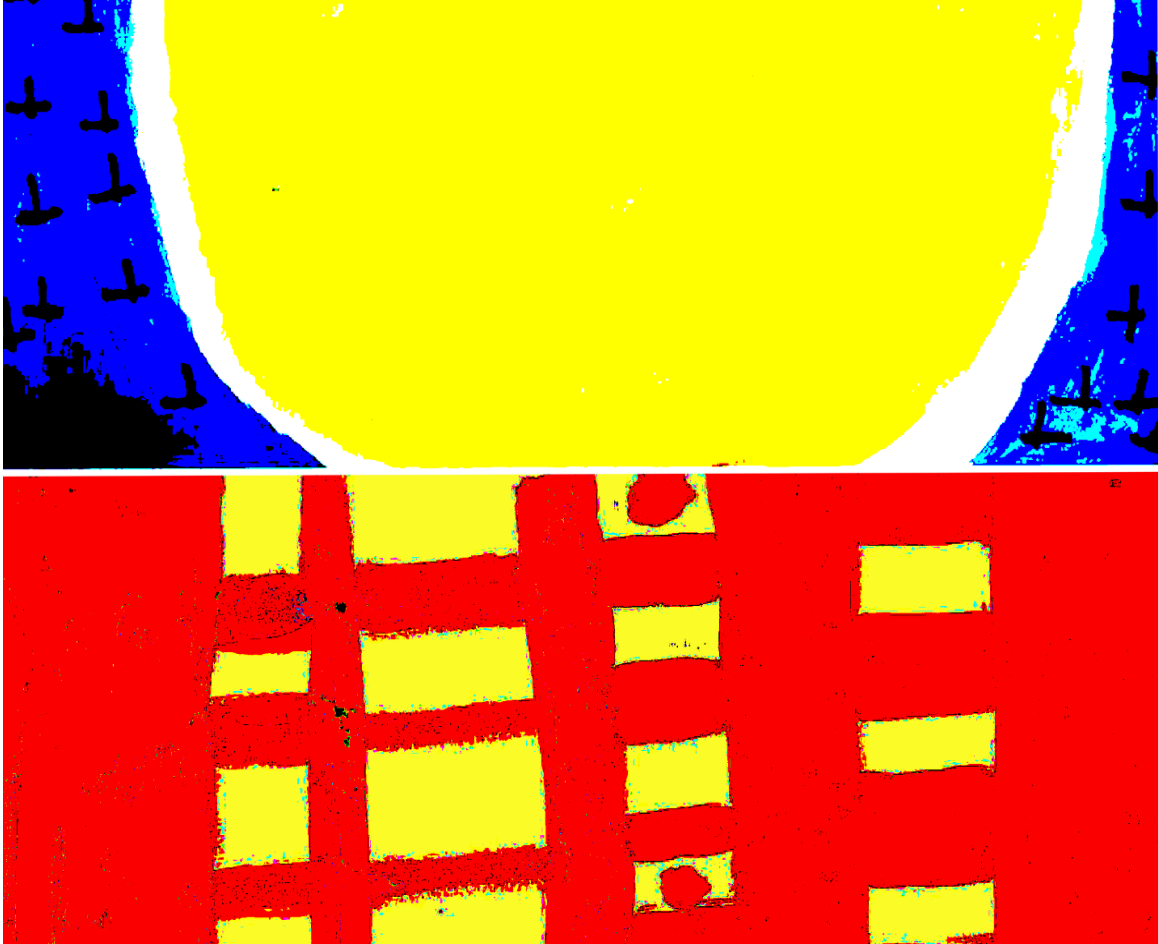


Figure 34: A painting illustrating the transition from the warm climate (sun), regarded as a potential liability in Northern Ghana, to perseverance and advancement in Southern Ghana.

Source: Author's imaginative painting

According to Coulombe et al. (2007), the manifestation of poverty highlights that the northern savannah area, significantly the most impoverished among the ecological zones, has been marginalized in the national attempts to reduce poverty efforts despite a decrease in poverty from 1991/92 to 2005/06. The challenges of poverty have intensified due to the collective impact of droughts and floods. The three northern regions are now at risk of starvation due to the unfavorable circumstances occurring at the same time. In response to the famine, individuals

migrated to southern Ghana in search of improved living conditions, and my painting work in Figure 38 refers to these blasted and ravaged places.

However, the Southern region of Ghana is rich in natural resources, including agricultural land, gold, and diamonds (Amanor, 2001). However, the quality and management of freshwater resources in the area are a concern, with high microbial contamination in surface waters (Yeleeiere, 2018). My painting work in Figure 35 refers to Accra's region's wealth, prosperity, and abundance.

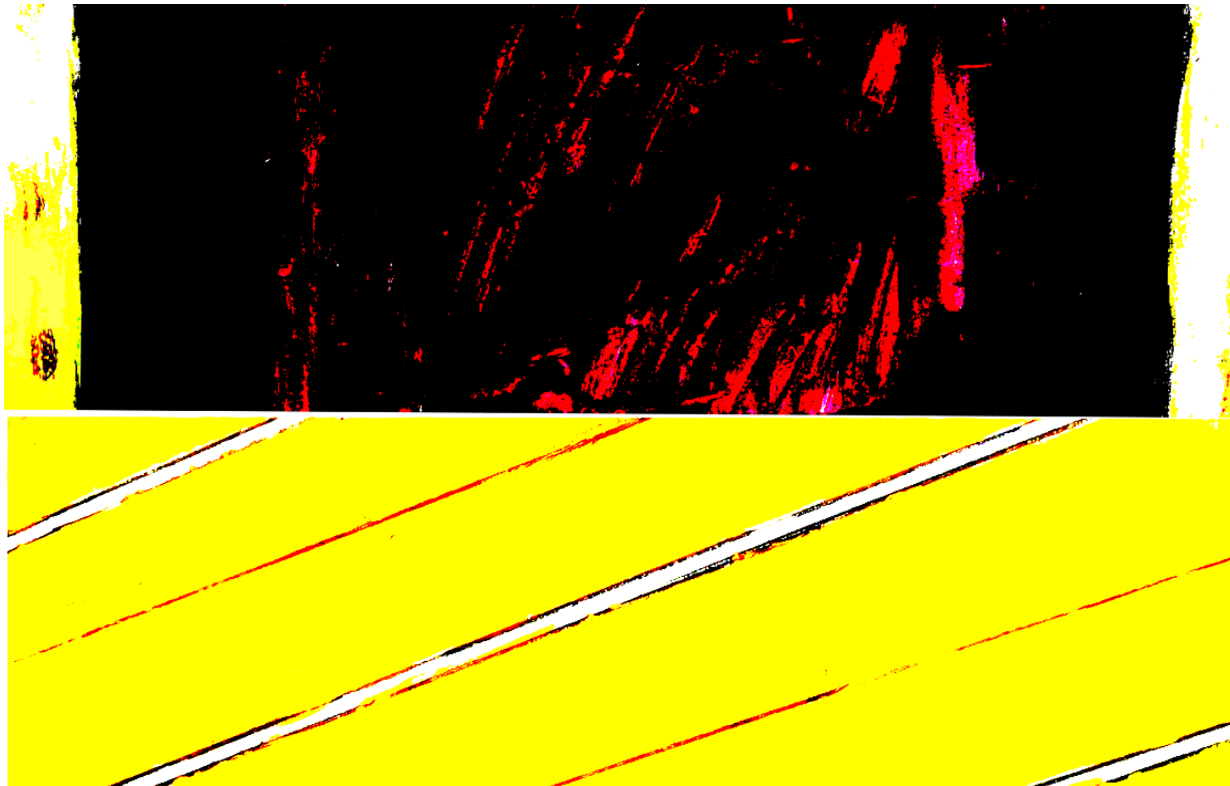


Figure 35: A painting showing the transition from famine in Northern Ghana to wealth, prosperity, and abundance in Southern Ghana.

Source: Author's imaginative painting

The concept of beauty and youthfulness in Southern Ghana is multifaceted, influenced by various factors such as makeup usage, cultural standards, and religious aesthetics. Marfo

(2019) found that female youths in tertiary institutions in Accra and Kumasi use makeup for glamour, attractiveness, and empowerment, focusing on special occasions and specific situations. Osei (2021) explored the Akan concept of beauty, which extends beyond physical appearance to include non-physical features and social capital. Azuah et al. (2020) discussed the beauty standards projected in Ghana's Most Beautiful pageant, highlighting the need for the pageant to align with its cultural values. Meyer (2008) examined the emergence of Christian popular culture in Southern Ghana, emphasizing the material dimension of the Christian imagination and its influence on the perception of beauty and youthfulness. The paintings in Figure 36 emphasize the complex interplay of cultural, social, and religious factors in shaping the ideals of beauty and youthfulness in Accra.



Figure 36: A painting representing the nature of beauty and youthfulness in Southern Ghana influencing human migration.

Source: Author's imaginative painting



Figure 37: How Ghanaians in Accra engage in community life and interact socially

Source: Mr. Charles Asante



Figure 38: The shared community experiences and social dynamics of Ghanaians in Accra

Source: Mr. Charles Asante



Figure 39: Ghanaians' social bonds and collective activities in the city of Accra

Sources: Mr. Charles Asante

In conclusion, with its diverse geographical regions, Ghana is a nation marked by a rich history and a dynamic cultural tapestry. The factors propelling migration from the northern regions of Ghana to Accra are deeply rooted in historical conflicts and economic disparities. Plagued by conflicts and limited economic opportunities, the northern region sees migration to the south as a quest for stability, employment, and improved living conditions. Southern Ghana, particularly the Greater Accra Region, is a beacon of economic growth, stability, and resource abundance. The allure of better employment opportunities, thriving services sectors, and a more stable climate contributes to the significant migration from the north. The paintings crafted in response to these regions reflect the stark differences in threat perception, hope, and economic prospects. The north, portrayed with starkness and challenges, contrasts with the south's vibrancy and promise. The impact of climate change further complicates the dynamics, with the northern region facing heightened vulnerability and the southern region emerging as a potential hub for economic growth. The disparities in poverty and marginalization highlight the need for comprehensive national strategies to address regional imbalances and foster inclusive development. Additionally, exploring beauty and youthfulness in Southern Ghana adds a cultural dimension to the narrative, emphasizing the multifaceted nature of these concepts. In essence, the intricate interplay of historical, economic, environmental, and cultural factors shapes the geographical landscape of Ghana. The paintings serve as a visual representation of these complexities, capturing the essence of each region and the narratives woven into the fabric of the nation. Also, the communal experiences and societal interactions of Ghanaians in Accra highlight the vibrant social fabric that characterizes the capital city (Figures 37-39 above). Through shared rituals, everyday encounters, and collective endeavors, residents of Accra foster a strong sense of community and belonging. These interactions serve as the foundation for cultural exchange,

identity formation, and social cohesion, contributing to the richness and diversity of urban life in Ghana. As Accra continues to evolve and grow, it is imperative to recognize and celebrate the importance of communal experiences in shaping the city's identity and fostering a sense of unity among its inhabitants. By embracing and nurturing these connections, Accra can continue to thrive as a dynamic and inclusive urban center for generations to come.

Chapter 9

Understanding Socioeconomic Dynamics of Rural-Urban Migration in Ghana and its Implications

Introduction

Migration from Northern Ghana's rural areas to urban centers, especially Accra, highlights the nation's profound demographic and socioeconomic change. This migration represents more than just a change in the population; it also represents more profound adjustments to economic activity, housing dynamics, education, and lifestyle. The considerable differences between Greater Accra and the northern regions in terms of employment, education, living standards, and urbanization rates demonstrate the complex dynamics of rural-urban migration. This chapter explores the statistical trends and demographic factors by focusing on the characteristics of rural migrants, the reasons behind them, and the effects they have on Accra's metropolitan environment and the rural hinterlands of Northern Ghana based on the most recent census data. It looks at the socioeconomic reasons behind migration, such as the desire for higher living standards, work opportunities, and educational opportunities, and how these migrants deal with obstacles in their urban life. This migration phenomenon offers insights into the changing interaction between rural and urban environments in the context of developing countries, and it serves as a lens through which the larger themes of urbanization, economic disparity, and social change in Ghana are examined.

A Case Study of Rural Migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra

Migration and Urbanization

Greater Accra is the most urbanized region in Ghana, with 91.7% of its population residing in urban areas. This attention to the urban population in Accra depicts a clear indicator

of the rapid urbanization trend in the country. Northern Ghana comprises the Northern Region, Upper East Region, Upper West Region, North East Region, and Savannah Region. In each of these regions, the rural population is larger than the urban population: the Northern Region has a rural population of 52.6%; the Upper East Region has a rural population of 74.6%; the Upper West Region has a rural population of 73.6%; the North East Region has a rural population of 67.4%; and the Savannah Region has a rural population of 70.4%. The high proportion of rural populations in the Northern Regions suggests that there is less rural-urban migration in these areas compared to regions like Greater Accra, which has a predominantly urban population. This means people in the Northern Regions are inclined to migrate to urban areas for economic opportunities, better services, or improved living standards (GSS, 2022).

Characteristics of Rural Migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra

Age structure

Table 7: Age structure of Ghana's Population by region

REGIONS	0-14 (%)	15-64 (%)	65+ (%)
Greater Accra	30	66.5	3.5
Northern	43.8	53	3.2
Savannah	42.3	54.4	3.3
North East	45	51.4	3.6
Upper East	37.6	56.1	6.3
Upper West	37.9	56.8	5.3

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- AGE AND SEX COMPOSITION REPORT)

With the distribution, Greater Accra Region has an age structure or distribution that is higher (66.5%) in the 15-64 age bracket. The Northern Region has a higher age distribution (53%) in the 15-64 age bracket. This means the working age bracket in Northern Ghana and Southern Ghana is dominant in the 15-64 age bracket. This information is displayed in Table 7.

Factors Causing Urbanization in Ghana

Marriage

Marriage is almost universally accepted and expected in Ghana, especially in rural regions. For many Ghanaians, marriage is vital in determining an individual's reproductive, economic, and non-economic functions. To better understand the characteristics of migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra, it was deemed desirable to examine the respondents' marital status (Alhassan, 2017). From the data, it is evident that the registration status of marriages varies significantly across regions. For instance, Greater Accra has a relatively balanced distribution between registered and unregistered marriages, with 40.1% being registered and 59.9% unregistered. In contrast, in the Northern Region, only 2.9% of marriages are registered, while a significant majority, 97.1%, are not. Similar trends are observed in Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West Regions, where registered marriages constitute a minority compared to unregistered ones. These disparities in registration status reflect varying cultural practices and legal procedures across regions. Furthermore, considering the marital status of migrants from Northern Ghana to Accra, the data suggests that most are likely to be single or cohabitating, given the low percentage of registered marriages in their regions of origin.

In the northern part of Ghana, the prevalence of unregistered marriages can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, cultural practices often prioritize traditional marriage ceremonies conducted by community or religious leaders, sidelining formal legal registrations. Additionally,

a lack of awareness about the importance of registration contributes to couples opting out of the process. Moreover, limited accessibility and availability of government registration offices, particularly in remote areas, pose logistical challenges for couples. Financial constraints, including the cost associated with registration and transportation to registration offices, further deter couples from pursuing legal registration. Furthermore, in some communities, there exists a perception that formal registration is unnecessary, with customary practices taking precedence. This implies that age structure and cultural norms influence their marital status and migration decisions. Also, those who are married and have families to care for may face challenges migrating to the city, as they may be unwilling to leave their families behind. They might instead opt for a family member to migrate in their place. This information is illustrated in Figure 40.

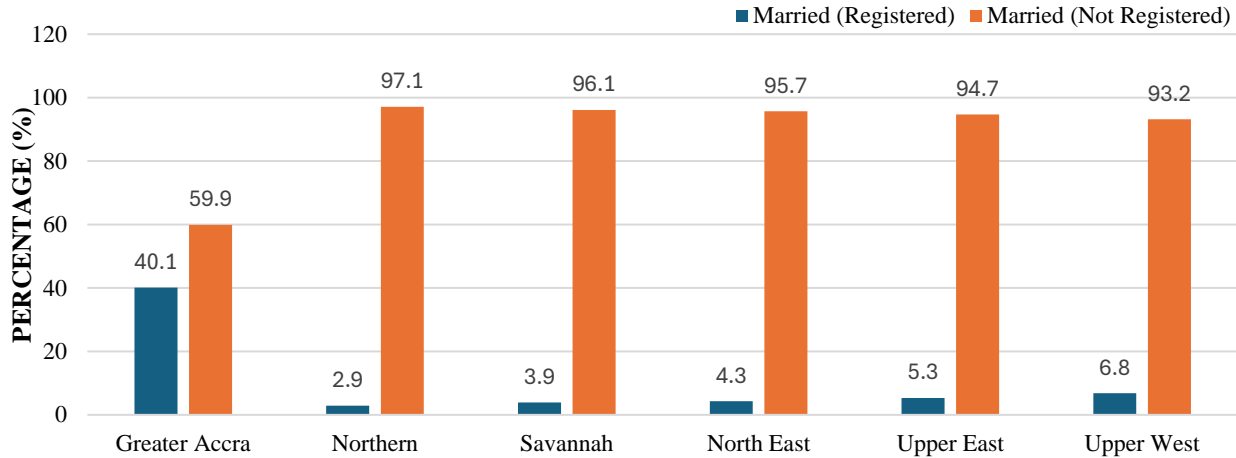


Figure 40: Registration status of marriage status of Ghana’s Population by region

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- “BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS REPORT”)

This data directly examines a relationship between rural-urban migration and its role in urbanization in Greater Accra:

Firstly, migration from rural to urban areas involves a substantial lifestyle change, which includes adjustments to marital customs impacted by metropolitan norms and legal frameworks. Because access to administrative services is restricted and legal requirements are not as well-known, marriage rituals in rural areas frequently adhere to traditional practices and may not always involve formal registration. On the other hand, urban regions such as Greater Accra usually possess established administrative frameworks that make marriage registration easier and more accessible for locals. Social changes brought about by urbanization, such as greater exposure to contemporary lifestyles and various cultural influences, may impact people's views toward marriage and the significance of formal registration.

In addition, the disparity in governance and service provision between urban and rural areas significantly impacts marriage registration rates. Greater Accra, an urbanized region with a more developed infrastructure and administrative systems, offers better access to legal and administrative services than rural areas. This includes easier access to marriage registration offices, more streamlined bureaucratic processes, and higher awareness about the importance of legal formalities. In contrast, rural areas often face challenges such as limited infrastructure, fewer government offices, and lower levels of awareness about legal rights and obligations. These factors contribute to lower marriage registration rates in rural regions like the Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West Regions.

Moreover, rural-urban migration significantly shapes urbanization dynamics in the regions provided, particularly in regions like Greater Accra. As individuals migrate from rural areas to urban centers, they bring their cultural practices, including marriage customs. This influx of migrants contributes to the growth of urban populations in regions such as Greater Accra, fueling urbanization processes. Migrants in the Greater Accra Region encounter urban norms and

legal frameworks that prioritize formal marriage registration. The data showing higher marriage registration rates in urban regions compared to rural areas reflects this trend. For instance, Greater Accra, an urbanized region, exhibits higher marriage registration rates (40.1% registered marriages) than rural regions such as the Northern Region (2.9% registered marriages).

School attendance

Analyzing the educational attendance status across various regions reveals a complete difference in access to and participation in education, particularly when comparing the Greater Accra region with the northern regions of Ghana. Greater Accra stands out with the lowest percentage of individuals who have never attended school at 9%, alongside the highest rates of current (36.8%) and past attendance (54.2%). This indicates a relatively high level of educational engagement, likely due to better access to educational facilities and resources. Conversely, the northern regions, including the Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West, report significantly higher percentages of individuals who have never attended school, with Savannah leading at 57.4%. These areas face more substantial challenges, including economic barriers, cultural factors, and limited school access, collectively contributing to lower educational participation. Notably, the Northern and North East Regions have a considerable portion of the population attending school, hinting at ongoing efforts or improvements that may encourage more individuals to pursue education despite previous obstacles. The Upper East and Upper West Regions show a relatively balanced distribution across never attended, currently attending, and past attendance categories, suggesting that effective policies or community initiatives might be in place promoting education. The overall data is displayed in Figure 41 and highlights the pronounced disparity between the urbanized Greater Accra and the more rural northern regions,

highlighting the necessity of focused interventions to alleviate the educational inequalities and guarantee that more individuals can access and benefit from education.

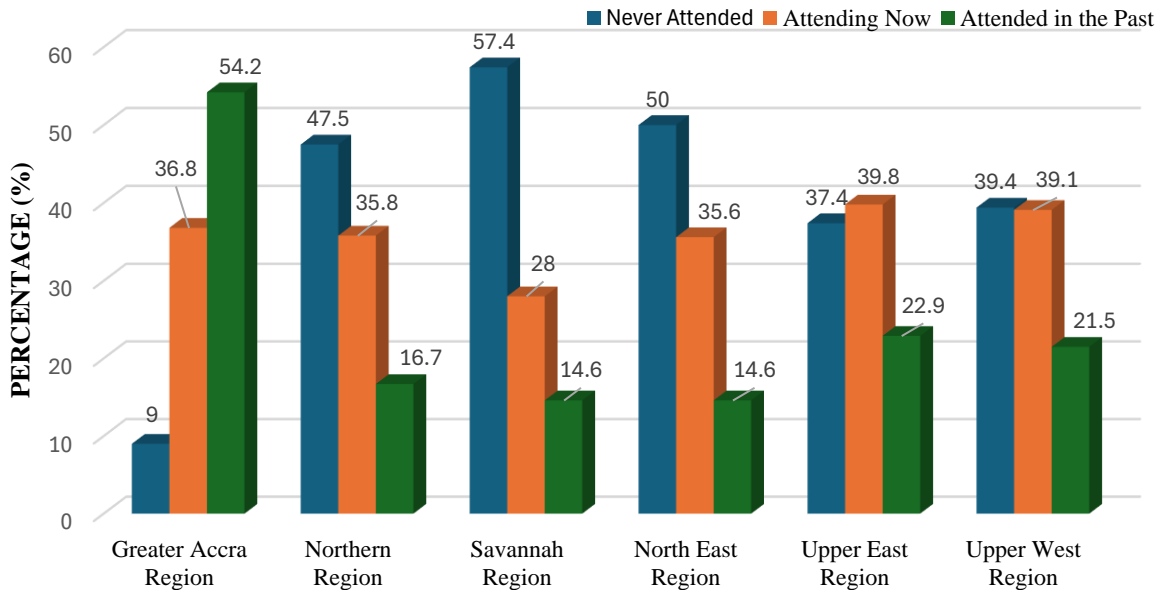


Figure 41: School attendance of Ghana’s Population by region

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- LITERACY AND EDUCATION REPORT)

The data reflects the dynamics of rural-urban migration that contribute to urbanization.

In regions like Greater Accra, a substantial proportion of the population (36.8%) currently attends school, indicating a concentration of educational institutions in urban centers. This is often a characteristic of urban areas. Since rural people want a better educational experience, they migrate to Accra, causing urbanization. In contrast, regions such as Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West have higher percentages of individuals who have never attended school because they have no access to it. These regions are often characterized by lower educational access and population density, typical features of rural areas. The concentration of individuals attending school and potentially pursuing higher education in urban regions reflects

the role of educational institutions and opportunities in driving rural-urban migration and urbanization. The government of Ghana has invested in educational infrastructure in urban areas, which has attracted migrants and contributed to the urbanization process. The data highlights the importance of education as both a pull factor for migration and a contributor to urbanization.

Economic activity

The economic activity status of the population represents all persons of either sex who supply their labor to produce economic goods and services. This includes people who were economically active or inactive during the census. The economically active includes both the employed and the unemployed, representing the population's labor force at the time of the census.

Analyzing labor force data across various regions reveals distinct patterns of employment, unemployment, and labor force participation that reveal each region's economic landscape.

Greater Accra boasts the highest labor force participation rate, at 63.9% (2,428,054 people), illustrating that a substantial portion of the population is either employed or actively seeking employment. This region also has the highest employment rate, at 55.6% (2,114,880 people), but it accompanies this with an 8.3% unemployment rate (313,174 people). The relatively lower unemployment rate combined with high labor force participation underscores Greater Accra's status as an economic hub, attracting a large workforce.

Conversely, the Northern region has a labor force participation rate of 52% (674,347 people), a slightly lower employment rate of 44.6% (577,962 people), and an unemployment rate of 7.4% (96,385 people). Nearly half of the region's population is outside the labor force,

reflecting potential challenges such as limited job opportunities or lower economic activity compared to Greater Accra.

The Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West regions all exhibit lower labor force participation rates (47%, 43.8%, 42%, and 44.9%, respectively) and employment rates (36.5%, 34.7%, 33.2%, and 38.5%, respectively), with relatively higher percentages of their populations outside the labor force. These regions, particularly Savannah, which has the highest unemployment rate at 10.5% (39,554 people), face significant challenges in job creation and labor market engagement. The high percentages of the population outside the labor force in these areas suggest economic inactivity that could be due to numerous factors, such as lack of access to education, skills training, and economic opportunities.

The Upper East region has the highest percentage of non-participation, with 58% (469,113 people) of its population outside the labor force. This indicates potential issues such as economic disengagement or a large dependent population not seeking employment.

Overall, this data shows the economic disparities between Greater Accra and the other regions, with Greater Accra showing stronger labor market engagement. Ghana's northern and eastern regions face considerable challenges in boosting employment and reducing the number of individuals outside the labor force, which is critical for economic development and poverty reduction. These insights call for targeted policy interventions to enhance job creation, skill development, and economic opportunities in the less economically active regions. All this information is displayed in Figure 42.

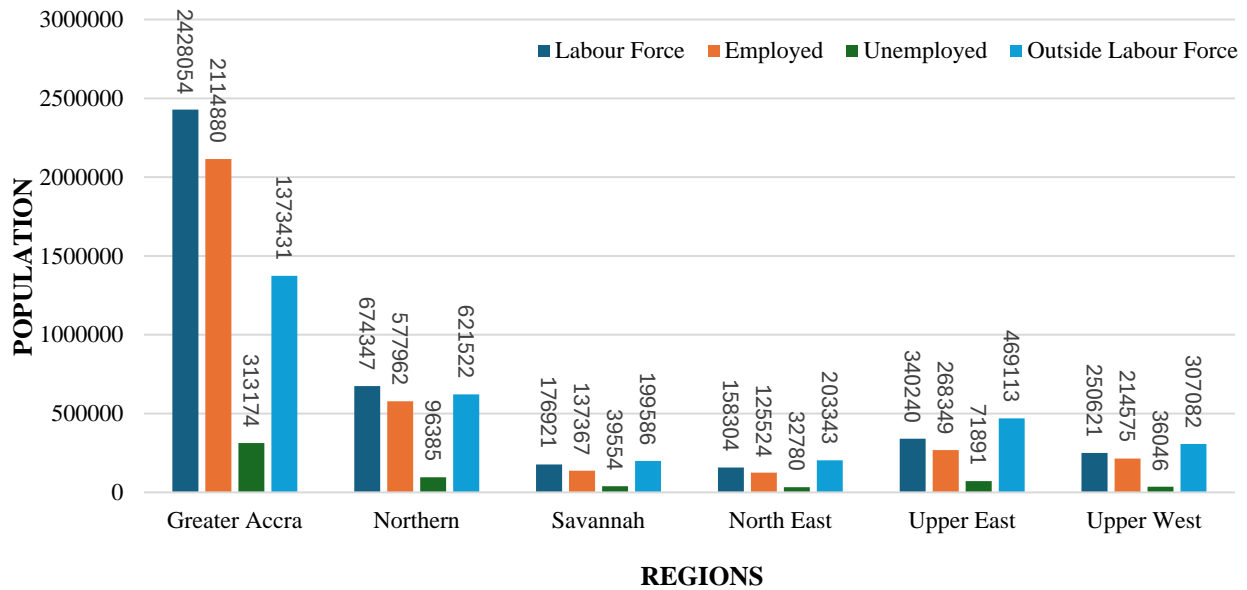


Figure 42: Economic activity of Ghana’s Population by region

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- ECONOMIC ACTIVITY REPORT)

The data in Figure 42 explains how economic factors and labor opportunities influence rural-urban migration, ultimately contributing to urbanization. This data relates to rural-urban migration and its role in urbanization:

Greater Accra has a substantial labor force (2,428,054), with a substantial proportion of the population being employed (2,114,880), representing 21.2% of the total population. This reflects the availability of employment opportunities in urban centers, which act as a pull factor for rural residents seeking work. In contrast, regions with lower population densities, such as Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West, have lower employment rates. These areas face economic challenges, limited job opportunities, and lower wages, leading residents to consider rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration driven by economic factors contributes to the growth of urban populations. As more people move to urban centers searching for employment, the urban population increases, leading to urbanization.

Employment rate

The employment rate data across various regions reveals a complete contrast, emphasizing the economic differences between urban and rural areas within Ghana, notably with Greater Accra significantly surpassing other regions. This disparity emphasizes the concentration of job opportunities in urban centers, notably in Greater Accra, which boasts an employment rate of 55.6%. This high rate indicates the region's role as the economic and administrative center of Ghana, offering a wide array of employment opportunities in both the public and private sectors and service industries.

In contrast, the Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West regions exhibit lower employment rates as compared to Accra and the Northern region, ranging from 36.5% in the Savannah region to 34.7% in the North East. These figures highlight the challenges that more rural and less urbanized areas face, where job opportunities are scarce, and the economy is often heavily reliant on agriculture. This rural-urban employment gap points to the urgent need for economic diversification in these regions to create job opportunities beyond traditional agriculture and stimulate local economies. All this information is shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Employment rate of Ghana's Population by region

REGIONS	EMPLOYMENT RATE (%)
Greater Accra	55.6
Northern	44.6
Savannah	36.5

Table 8 (Cont.)

REGIONS	EMPLOYMENT RATE (%)
North East	34.7
Upper East	33.2
Upper West	38.5

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- ECONOMIC ACTIVITY REPORT)

Occupation

Analyzing the occupations across different regions of Ghana provides insights into the distribution of employment sectors and workforce composition.

In Greater Accra, a significant proportion of the workforce is engaged in managerial and professional roles, with 34,950 and 112,094 individuals, respectively. This reflects the region's status as the country's economic and administrative hub, where managerial and professional opportunities are abundant. Additionally, a large number of service and sales workers are employed in Greater Accra, totaling 374,549 individuals, indicating the prevalence of service-oriented industries in the region.

In contrast, the Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West Regions exhibit different occupational patterns, emphasizing skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers. For instance, the Northern Region has a substantial workforce engaged in skilled agricultural roles, with 178,228 individuals employed in this sector. This highlights the importance of agriculture as a primary source of livelihood in these regions, where the economy is mainly agrarian.

Craft and related trades workers also form a significant portion of the workforce in several regions, including Greater Accra, Northern, and Upper East. This suggests the presence of artisanal and craft-based industries, contributing to local economies and providing employment opportunities for skilled workers.

Elementary occupation workers, who typically perform routine tasks requiring limited skills, are present across all regions but are particularly prominent in Greater Accra and Northern regions. This indicates the existence of labor-intensive industries or informal sectors in these regions, absorbing workers with lower levels of education and skills. Table 8 shows this information.

Table 9: Occupation of Ghana's Population by region

OCCUPATIONS	GREATER ACCRA	NORTHERN	SAVANNAH	NORTH EAST	UPPER EAST	UPPER WEST
Managers	34,950	4,244	546	464	2,588	2,588
Professionals	112,094	25,477	3,984	5,489	17,531	11,876
Service and sales workers	374,549	42,280	7,212	6,156	21,112	1,422
Craft and related trades workers	218,355	43,783	7,417	6,509	28,778	15,939
Elementary occupation workers	71,970	10,325	3,949	929	4,011	2,723
Other occupations	4,845	842	448	79	218	210

Source: 2021 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2022- ECONOMIC ACTIVITY REPORT)

The data on occupational distribution across these different regions help us to understand how the availability of various job opportunities in urban areas influences rural-urban migration and contributes to urbanization.

Firstly, the data indicates that Greater Accra has a higher concentration of managers and professionals compared to rural regions like Northern, Savannah, North East, Upper East, and Upper West. This suggests that urban areas offer more opportunities for managerial and professional positions.

In addition, Greater Accra also has a higher number of service and sales workers. These positions are often associated with urban industries, markets, and businesses, which attract individuals from rural areas seeking employment.

Moreover, rural regions, such as the Northern, have a substantial number of skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers. This reflects the reliance on agriculture in these areas, which have limited opportunities for non-agricultural employment. Greater Accra also has a higher number of craft and related trades workers and elementary occupation workers. These positions are often found in urban construction, manufacturing, and service sectors, causing an increase in urban populations and leading to urbanization.

In conclusion, the migration of individuals from Northern Ghana's rural areas to urban centers, particularly Accra, reflects significant demographic and socioeconomic transformations within the nation. This migration phenomenon transcends population shifts, encompassing profound adjustments in economic activities, housing dynamics, education, and lifestyle. The evident disparities between Greater Accra and the northern regions highlight the intricate complexities of rural-urban migration and urbanization processes. Also, Greater Accra emerges

as the most urbanized region in Ghana, with a high concentration of urban population, highlighting the rapid pace of urbanization in the country. The higher marriage registration rates, the concentration of educational institutions, and a wider array of job opportunities in urban centers like Accra attract migrants seeking better living standards and economic prospects. Furthermore, understanding the drivers, characteristics, and impacts of rural-urban migration is crucial for policymakers and stakeholders in effectively handling the problems and opportunities brought about by urbanization. By comprehensively examining these dynamics, informed strategies can be developed to foster sustainable urban development, improve livelihoods, and enhance the overall well-being of Ghana's rural and urban populations.

Chapter 10

Conclusion

This thesis has contributed significant insights into the complex phenomenon of internal migration in Ghana's urban landscape, particularly focusing on the quantitative and qualitative motivations behind rural-urban migration. The finding that educational factors are surprisingly important in motivating migration adds a new dimension to the existing literature on internal migration, highlighting the need to further explore the interplay between education and migration decision-making. However, it is crucial to recognize the potential for future research that this study has uncovered. While we have gained valuable insights into the motivations behind migration, there are still unanswered questions and areas for further exploration. For instance, deeper research could be conducted into the experiences of migrants upon arrival in urban centers like Accra, examining the impact of migration on both the places people leave behind and the communities they move into. Furthermore, the inclusion of migrant perspectives, as depicted through paintings and artistic expressions, adds a valuable dimension to our understanding of migration and landscape change. By centering the Ghanaian perspective in discussions of urban transformation, we gain insights into the lived experiences of migrants and the social dynamics of migration within the urban environment. In terms of future directions, this thesis lays the groundwork for continued inquiry into the spatial policies and urban planning frameworks that shape migration patterns in Accra and emphasizes the responsibility of integrating findings from this research into existing policy discussions. By doing so, policymakers can develop more informed and effective strategies for managing urban growth and fostering sustainable development in the city, thereby empowering them to make a real difference.

The policy recommendations presented in this thesis address the challenges associated with urbanization in Accra while acknowledging the city's existing urban planning policies and frameworks. The findings about migration dynamics in the thesis are directly relevant to specific spatial policies in Accra, as they highlight the need for coordinated efforts to manage urban growth and foster sustainable development.

Regarding housing, the recommendation for increased supply and affordability aligns with existing urban planning policies addressing housing shortages and socio-economic disparities in Accra. The suggestion of public-private partnerships and subsidized housing programs resonates with ongoing initiatives by the government and private sector stakeholders to provide affordable housing options for low and middle-income individuals and families (Ohene Sarfoh, Kavaarpuo, & Ayitio, 2016).

Regarding infrastructure investment, the emphasis on transportation networks, water supply, sanitation, and energy aligns with urban planning frameworks to improve urban infrastructure in Accra. Investments in road infrastructure, public transportation, water treatment plants, and waste management facilities are consistent with existing efforts to enhance infrastructure resilience and support urban growth (Shand, 2019).

Furthermore, the recommendation for rural development programs aligns with broader national development strategies to promote balanced regional development and reduce migration pressure on urban areas like Accra. By focusing on economic diversification, job creation, and access to essential services in rural communities, these programs complement urban planning policies by addressing the root causes of migration and fostering more sustainable development patterns (Kutor et al., 2022).

In essence, this thesis offers important insights into the motivations and experiences of internal migrants in Ghana while highlighting the need for further research and policy development to address the complex challenges and opportunities presented by urbanization and migration in Accra and beyond. The policy recommendations provided herein offer both a policy overview and a critique, building on existing urban planning policies in Accra and identifying areas for improvement and further intervention. By emphasizing holistic approaches to urban development that consider socio-economic, environmental, and spatial factors, this research highlights the potential for more inclusive and sustainable urbanization for all Ghanaians.

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