

**International
Institute of
Social Studies**

Erasmus

**Sustainability of Family Farming and Rural Youth
Migration in Tuasa Community of the Upper West
Region of Ghana**

A Research Paper presented by:

YIRIMEA SULEMANA HABEEB

(Ghana)

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for obtaining the degree of
MASTER OF ARTS IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Major:

Agrarian Food and Environmental Studies

(AFES)

Members of the Examining Committee:

Supervisor:

Dr. Otieno Ong'ayo (Antony)

Second Reader:

Dr. Christina Sathyamala

The Hague, The Netherlands

December 2020

Disclaimer:

This document represents part of the author's study programme while at the International Institute of Social Studies. The views stated therein are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Institute.

Inquiries:

International Institute of Social Studies
P.O. Box 29776
2502 LT The Hague
The Netherlands

t: +31 70 426 0460
e: info@iss.nl
w: www.iss.nl
fb: <http://www.facebook.com/iss.nl>
twitter: [@issnl](https://twitter.com/issnl)

Location:

Kortenaerkade 12
2518 AX The Hague
The Netherlands

Contents

Contents	ii
List of Tables	v
List of Appendices	vi
List of Acronyms and Abbreviations	vii
Abstract	
viii	
Relevance to Development Studies	x
Chapter 1	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Research Problem	4
1.3 Research objectives and questions	6
1.5 Relevance of the study	7
1.5.1 Scientific	7
1.5.2 Social relevance	7
1.6 Organisation of the study	8
Chapter 2	9
2.0 The Context of Family Farming, Youth's Migration, and Implications	9
2.1 Family Farming	9
2.2 Youth and Family Farming	10
2.3 Role of the Rural Youth in Family Farming in Ghana	11
2.4 Rural Youth Migration and Family Farming in Ghana	12
Chapter 3	15
3.0 Theoretical Framework	15
3.1 Political Economy of Family Farming	15
3.2 Sustainable Rural Livelihood Approach	16
3.3 Theorising Youth Migration in Relation to Family Farming and Livelihood	18
3.3.1 Neo-classical Assumptions of Migration and Family Farming	18
3.3.1.1 <i>Optimistic assumption</i>	19
3.3.1.2 <i>Pessimistic assumption</i>	19
Chapter 4	21
4.0 Research Methodology	21
4.1 Introduction to the Chapter	21

4.2 Study Area	21
4.3 Research Design	22
4.4 Data Collection	22
4.5 Sampling and Population of the Study	22
4.6 Participant Background Information	23
4.7 Recruitment of research assistant	24
4.8 Data Collection Strategy	25
4.8.1 Community entry strategy	25
4.8.2 Interviews	25
4.8.3 Community exit	26
4.8.4 Strength of data collection	26
4.8.5 Limitations of data collection	26
4.9 Data analysis	26
4.10 Ethical Considerations	27
4.11 Positionality	28
Chapter 5	29
5.0 Findings and analysis	29
5.1 Situation of Family farming activities versus traits	29
5.2 Youth’s rural-urban migration influence on family farming	31
5.3 Effects of youth’s turn away from family farming on rural livelihoods	33
5.4 The impact of government initiatives addressing the effect of rural-urban youth migration on family farming	36
5.5 How households are coping with the effects of rural youth migration on family farming	39
Chapter 6	42
6.0 Conclusion	42
References	44
Appendices	53

List of Tables

Table 4. 1: FGD (Men farmers group members)	23
Table 4.2: FGD Women farm group members	24
Table 4.3: Migrated Youth Respondents	24

List of Appendices

Interview guiding questions (individual and FGDs)	53
Interview guide for household heads	53
Interview guide for farmer group members and agricultural extension officers	54
List of respondents	55
FGD Women farm group members	55
Migrated Youth Respondents	55
Confidentiality/ Non-disclosure form	56
Non-Disclosure form	56

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

Abbreviations

AEO	Agric Extension Officer
AEA	Agric Extension Agent
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FF	Female Farmer
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HH	Household Head
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ISS	Institute of Social Studies
MF	Male Farmer
MOFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PFJ	Planting for Food and Jobs
SRID	Statistics, Research, and Information Directorate
YTH R	Youth Respondent
GSOP	Ghana social opportunity programme

Abstract

Presently family farming stands at a defining moment in most developing countries, especially in Africa. At the state level most policy measures have environmental, social, and economic dimensions. Family farming faces mounting pressure to offer nutritious, affordable, and sufficient food for fast-growing populations alongside environmental degradation and drastic change in climatic conditions. Simultaneously family farming in the world's rural areas is declining as a result of the shift to non-farming activities in a phenomenon termed as 'de-agrarianization' of rural places. The process of 'de-agrarianization' is driven by several factors including adverse climatic conditions, inadequate market, lack of access to ready markets and rural-urban youth migration. Some studies also hypothesize and provide evidence that the decline in family farming is resulting into the tendency of youth moving from the villages to urban areas in search of non-farming income generation opportunities. The increasing rural-urban migration tends to be because supposed unattractiveness of family farming in rural areas as it generates low income relative to other economic activities. The interventions developed to strengthen family farming and therefore reduce rural-urban youth migration seem to be gaining much progress as indicated by growing tendency of youth turning away from farming and moving to urban areas, to seek for non-farming income generating activities. This study employs a qualitative research design to investigate the push and pull factors influencing the youth to turn away family farming and migrate. It also explores how rural-urban youth migration is affecting the sustainability of family farming and the livelihood approaches of farming households of Tuasa Community. The study sought to examine and understand the situation of peasant farmers in the Tuasa community. Employing the concept of political economy, the study found that government-initiated programmes such as planting for food and jobs and rearing for food and jobs (PFJ and RFJ) did not help keep the youth in the Tuasa community. More so, political interference in social intervention programmes affected the proper functioning of these programmes. The insights of the sustainable rural livelihood approach to find out the alternative livelihood measures farm families are adopting showed that, most farm families have shifted to non-farming activities like charcoal burning, shea picking and firewood gathering as their alternative source to cope with the youth migration phenomena. The neo-classical migration theory which also sought to examine the push and pull factors causing migration revealed how most pull factors are

driven by remittances from migrant youth, the city life, better jobs etc. It also revealed how the push factors were alarming as poverty, lack of access to land to farm, poor farming methods that yield very low produce, lack of better jobs to support farming activities, and weak political economy drive the problem. Findings from the study also showed the efforts been made by a few NGOs in dealing with the problem in the Tuasa community.

Keywords

Family Farming, sustainability, family Labour, youth migration, de-agrarianization, livelihoods, sustainability, pluriactivities.

Relevance to Development Studies

The study looked at critical concepts such as the political economy of family farming, the sustainable rural livelihood approach and the neo-classical assumptions of migration and family farming in agrarian food and environmental studies to understand and analyse the effect of rural youth migration on family farming and sustainability of local livelihood in the context of Tuasa community in the upper west region of Ghana. The findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study add to empirical literature on evidence and the implications of youth migration on family farming in the rural sphere.

Chapter 1

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Family farmers stand to become tools for developing strategies in alleviating hunger, reducing poverty, and providing employment. Also known as small scale farming or peasant agriculture, it is the main form of agricultural food production in most advanced and advancing nations, supplying 80% of the production of food in value terms globally (FAO, 2019). The definition of family farming differs across contexts and nations. Garner & Paula (2014) reviewed 36 definitions of family farming and concluded that it refers to a type of farming which is managed by a family, conducted on small-scale and mainly relies on family Labour. The description of the term (family farming) is the one that is adapted for this study. Family farming in Africa is perceived to have positive consequences on household food security by strengthening local markets and food systems while serving as a source of employment for family members (Sourisseau, 2015).

In Ghana, family farming forms the backbone of the local economy. The agricultural sector in Ghana is made up of various activities and is a developed sector of the economy that generates employment both formally and informally. Most families in northern Ghana are engaged in subsistence farming while a few are into commercial farming. Some crops cultivated on commercial basis are cotton, kenaf, oil palm, tobacco, sugarcane while the food crops are beans, cowpea, cassava, rice, soya beans, maize, and other root crops (Wahab *et al.*, 2020, p.42). The subsistence crops mainly include maize, millet, cowpea, soya beans, groundnuts.

A larger part of the agricultural productivity in Ghana is dependent on rain as well as Labour provided by family members. In family farming, both men and women play different roles. Some roles are associated to males such as the control of agricultural assets, decision making and mobility (FAO, 2018). They also found that the activities or roles carried out by women are mostly manual work in agriculture such as on-farm and off-farm agricultural activities, processing of agricultural produce and household responsibilities.

Statistics in Ghana indicate that, half of the agricultural Labour force that account for about 70% of Ghana's food crops is provided by women (MOFA, 2003). In Northern Ghana there

are differentiated gender roles in family farming systems which are complementary in nature. Women are largely responsible for sowing or planting of crops, transporting produce from the farm to the market or the house, food processing, harvesting, and marketing. Women do the greater part of the activities such as harvesting and post-harvest care of agricultural crops, especially storage of cereal crops and processing (Drafor *et al.*, 2005)

Despite the potential of family farming in dealing with global hunger, evidence from various studies show that there is a decline in the practice of family farming because of various factors. For example, Lowder *et al.* (2019) and FAO (2019) found that the number of family farms is reducing globally at a high rate mostly due to rural youth migration. The distress migration of these rural youth to cities has resulted in a shift in the age structure of the population towards older ages, with clear implications on Labour for agricultural production and food security at the rural level (SEND-Ghana, 2014).

Many studies focusing on livelihoods in the rural areas in the last few years indicates that, the youth residing in rural areas are not exclusively reliant on agricultural activities globally (Bezu & Holden, 2014). Research has shown that there are other substantial non-farming undertakings that offer either an extra source of livelihood to the youth or even act as the sole supply of livelihood for these people (Scoones, 2009; Borras Jr, 2009). Some scholars have even contended that there is an inclination toward the re-organization of economic activities, change in occupation, and spatial reorganization of human settlement far from agricultural patterns, a process known as the de-agrarianization of rural places (Bryceson, 2002; Borras Jr, 2009). The situation is no different in Africa as seen from the study of Bezu & Holden (2014) which found that even though rural African regions have been typically associated with family farming, the non-farming activities have been a crucial source of income and job opportunities, especially for the youth. Sumberg *et al.* (2012) and White (2015) note that while family farming is the mainstay of the economy of the nation and the main livelihood source in most African nations, it is not a desirable activity for young people, and a relatively low number of youths want to do family farming because they see it as a hard job with minimal income.

In Ghana, the decline of family farming and the trend of rural livelihood diversification is also prevalent. Diao *et al.* (2019) found that from 2005 to 2013, there was a general decrease in the share of rural households practicing family farming in Ghana, particularly in Northern Ghana - 91% to 89%. Likewise, Asravor, (2018) notes that productivity of family farming in Northern Ghana is reducing. For instance, the study by Winters *et al.* (2009) reporting on both secondary and primary employment found a non-farming sector participation rate of

75% for Ghanaian youth. The focus on non-agricultural employment opportunities is driving the turn away from family farming and relocation of youth to the cities in search for better employment opportunities (Sumberg *et al.*, 2017; Leavy & Smith, 2010). Ghana Statistical Service report (2014) notes that in Ghana, 44.5 percent of the city population aged 5 years or older are migrants who arrived between 2000 and 2010 from rural areas. Similarly, Duplantier *et al.* (2017) found that Ghanaian youth are increasingly migrating to urban areas in search of non-farm employment opportunities. The shift towards non-agricultural activities in rural areas and the migration of youth to cities to search for formal jobs contributes to and is accompanied by a decline in the practice of family farming.

Making sure that the young people in the rural areas are properly trained and have education is registering significant improvement as the challenges related to the adoption of sustainable, methods of climate-smart production and connecting with opportunities for marketing in modern value chain are increasing (FAO, 2014). Based on the premise that youth are turning away from family farming because it is less economically rewarding and intellectually stimulating than other job opportunities in urban areas, governments and NGOs have been encouraged to make agricultural activities very attractive and rewarding to the young generation (Afere *et al.*, 2019). Globally, such interventions include the United Nations Decade of Family Farming 2019-2028 Global Action Plan. Recognizing the significance of and challenges facing family farming, this Global Action Plan, seeks to address the challenges facing family farming (FAO and IFAD, 2019). In Ghana the Youth-in-Agriculture Programme was initiated by the state for motivating the youth to accept agriculture as their main occupation by providing the necessary inputs and services (incentives) that the youth themselves under their present condition cannot provide (Ohene, 2013). Despite the existence and workings of such interventions by governments and NGOs, (United Nations, 2016) find that most youths in Africa have a negative perception regarding farming. Furthermore, in Ghana, Sumberg *et al.* (2017) find these interventions are or may not be effective as indicated by the authors' findings on youth's persistence to turn away from family farming to seek non-farming employment.

The motivation of this study lies in the backdrop of persisting youth's turn away from family farming and migration to urban areas to seek formal employment, resulting in a decline in the practice of family farming and the threat of food insecurity in Northern Ghana. The thesis of this study is that efforts to address the decline of family farming and youth's turn

away from farming may not be appropriately addressing the underlying causes of these phenomena.

1.2 Research Problem

The decline in family farming in many nations across the globe is a major challenge to the rural communities and it is believed to be a result of several factors such as the rise of large-scale agribusiness operations, climatic issues, inadequate credit facilities, limited access to land and market (Shaw-Taylor, 2012; White, 2012). White (2012) argued that family farming is the most important source of livelihoods to the rural people and hence the decline in family farming globally will mean that the rural people will be worse affected. Toulmin & Guèye (2005) observes that, in West Africa the future of small-scale farming stands at a balance as markets in the rural areas and food systems take on a more globalised nature. This implies that small holder farming households and their variable ability to respond to opportunities in the market, make investments in productive assets and fulfil their needs has resulted some people forecast that family farming is coming to an end in West Africa. Due to the challenges facing family farming and its low economic performance, most youths are considering urban, non-farming sectors and overseas Labour markets to secure better-paid salaried work in Ghana (Edwin & Glover, 2016). The social transformations caused by the youth's turn away from family farming and rural-urban migration is resulting in an ageing farming population (White, 2012).

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (2014) notes that while a high proportion of food globally is cultivated by the older generation in third world nations, they may not put into practice the novel innovations required to maximize farm productivity and eventually feed the rising global population while conserving the environment.

In Ghana, the case of migration is not different from the global effect. Generally, statistics indicate that a higher percentage of people who migrate are within the ages of 25 and 29 years old. The study also showed that about 67% migrate because of family reasons, 22% because of employment reasons aside other reasons such as religion, education etc (GSS, 2008). Many youths in Ghana have shifted from farming to wage Labour, as a result of lack of incentives in family farming coupled with unfair land tenure systems which make land acquisition very difficult (MOFA,2019).

The phenomenon of youth migration from the rural areas is pronounced in the northern part of Ghana which has only one planting season compelling the youth to move to the

southern part to engage in cash crop farming like cocoa, cashew and palm oil plantation which has adverse effects on family farming. A study conducted by Adaku (2013) revealed that rural-urban migration of youth in Northern Ghana resulted to reduced rural agricultural production which buttresses the opinion that ageing family farmers may not be able to meet required food production to achieve food security in rural areas. Such findings indicate that the decline of family farming production poses a challenge for Northern Ghana's food security. In the case of Tuasa community, I saw in first-hand during my working visit in the community in 2019 that most the youth in the community had migrated. This observation was noted after the ministry of agriculture in Ghana recorded a drastic decline in food production in the Upper West Region (MOFA-SRID, 2019). Different studies have confirmed the decline in food production in the northern sector of Ghana and have warned against further consequences. A study by (MOFA-SRID, (2020) revealed that in Northern Ghana, about 65,645 individuals were projected to be food insecure during the 2019 post-harvest season, while an estimated number of about 21,712 persons are anticipated to be food insecure all through the forthcoming lean season . World Food Programme (2020) also revealed that despite advancement in the past few years in lowering acute malnutrition countrywide, food insecurity is still a problem in Ghana, particularly in Northern Ghana

As a result of this decline in food production emanating from youth migration from the farming communities to the cities interventions such as PFJ and RFJ aimed to remedy the situation were focused on helping the youth get access to land and knowledge and how to make agriculture more attractive to the youth (Kidido *et al.*, 2017: Solidaridad, 2020). Despite the efforts by these interventions, Sumberg *et al.* (2017) asserts that a big number of youth in Ghana are still abandoning family farming to pursue employment opportunities in urban areas. The available research studies on Africa inclines towards the suppositions that most youth in the rural regions want to practice agriculture but they are inhibited by structural issues., Predominantly they lack access to land (Amanor, 2010: White, 2012). Sumberg *et al.* (2017) reckons that such interventions are based on such assumptions as 'by offering opportunities in agriculture, the youth will cease migrating from rural areas and abandoning family farming'. The authors also mention that these interventions are often generalized for all youth which reduces their targeting efficiency and lowers their ability to make family farming worthwhile of youth's attention. The findings of Sumberg *et al.* (2017) indicate that access to land, lack of knowledge, may not be the only major problems causing youth to abandon family farming and seek better livelihoods in urban areas.

The purpose of this study was to identify the implications of youth migration on family farming, food insecurity in Northern Ghana. This study sought to understand the interrelations between youth's turn away from family farming, rural-urban migration and decline of family farming's sustainability. The study examined the push and pull factors influencing the youth to turn away family farming. Attention was also paid to the livelihood approaches (shifts) of farming households of Tuasa Community.

1.3 Research objectives and questions

1.3.1 Main research objective

To investigate the interrelations between youth's turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban areas, declining sustainability of family farming and consequent changes in livelihood approaches. The case study for this research are households in Tuasa of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

1.3.2 Specific research objectives

- i. To examine the state of family farming in Tuasa community in terms of the practices, its role in securing livelihood and emerging shifts
- ii. To identify the push and pull factors for youth migration and turn away from family farming in Tuasa community
- iii. To examine the impact of youth migration on family farming
- iv. To examine the ways through which Tuasa households are coping with the effects of youth migration on family farming
- v. To investigate the measures by the government to address the youth's turn away from family farming

1.4 Main research question

Overall, this study seeks to answer the following central question:

How does youth's turn away from family farming and migration to urban areas affect the sustainability of family farming and livelihoods of families in Tuasa community in the Upper West Region of Ghana?

1.4.1 Specific research questions

- i. What is the state of family farming in Tuasa community?

- ii. What are the push and pull factors of rural youth migration?
- iii. What are the effects of rural youth migration on family farming?
- iv. How do households cope with the effects of rural youth migration on family farming?
- v. What are the effects of governmental initiatives geared towards addressing the effects of youth migration on family farming?

1.5 Relevance of the study

1.5.1 Scientific

Although there is a wide theoretical justification that the decline in family farming is causing the youth to move to the cities to search for better job opportunities, the reverse could also be true, that increasing rural youth migration to urban centres causes a decline in family farming, and interventions meant to make family farming more attractive are still failing to convince more youth to stay in rural areas (Sumberg *et al.*, 2017; Kidido *et al.*, 2017; Tsekpo, 2018; Twumasi, 2019). This may indicate a lack of comprehensive understanding of the dynamics between the decline of family farming and youth's turn away from family farming, which appears to be missing from the literature. Based on this gap, the theoretical significance of the present study was to analyse the relationship between migration to urban areas and family farming in the context of the decline of small holder farming in Northern Ghana and how the workings of this relationship impact the livelihood of people of the Tuasa Community. The findings of the study also add to literature and forms a basis of empirical evidence to policy designs and implications.

1.5.2 Social relevance

The plausible causal relationship between youth rural-urban migration and decline in family farming raises the question of what the direction and magnitude of this relationship are and what the implementation is for rural development policy. This study's practical significance is to contribute to answering this question. Growth in family farming is considered a vital factor in attaining sustainable development and a means of poverty alleviation in Ghana (Özçatalbaş & Imran, 2017). The findings of this study may contribute to policies related to agricultural development in northern Ghana targeted towards assisting family farmers cope

with factors resulting in the consequences of declining family farming in rural areas. The study also contributes to understanding the realities lived by these family farmers in the rural sphere and the impact of youth migration on family and community development.

1.6 Organisation of the study

The research paper has been structured into five chapters

Chapter one of the paper outlined the background of the study giving details of the problem statement. The chapter outlines the research problem and justification for the study.

Chapter two describes the literature review of the study taking into account the conceptual framework. The chapter specifically focused on the context of migration on family farming, the concept political economy, sustainable rural livelihoods approach and the neoclassical theory of migration.

Chapter three gives an outline of the methodology of the study with emphasis on the background of the area under study, the outline of the research, data collection, sample population, research method and data analysis. The strength and weakness of the data collection because of the Covid-19 restrictions were also outlined in the study.

Chapter four presents the main findings of the study. The findings of the study were based on the themes that arise from the findings which included; push and pull factors of youth migration, the implication or effects of youth migration on family farming, coping strategies of households and policies by the government to address the problem of youth migration. Relevant concepts such as SRLA, neoclassical theory and political economy were used to situate the analysis of the findings.

Chapter five presents the conclusion of the research and offers recommendations for further research studies and policy intervention.

Chapter 2

2.0 The Context of Family Farming, Youth's Migration, and Implications

2.1 Family Farming

Globally, over 90 percent of family farms are under the management of individuals or families and their main source of Labour is the family (Belieres *et al.*, 2015). The implication is that a huge number of people depend on farming as a means of sustenance and to fend for their families especially in Africa where it is common to find medium-sized and subsistence farming activities. More so, Suess-Reyes & Fuetsch (2016) states that family farms are the largest producers of the food consumed in both the developed and developing world. This puts them at the core of very critical discourse on food security, climate change and poverty globally. Close to 90% of the 570 million farms in the world are under the control of families (FAO and IFAD 2019).

According to FAO *et al.* (2014) and Filmer & Fox (2014), agriculture is the biggest source of jobs worldwide as it accounts for about 40% of the global workforce. According to the FAO report evidence in Africa shows that many young people across the continent are discouraged from farming due to unattractive farming methods and lack of access to land, inputs etc. For instance, a study by Berckmoes & White (2014) found that rural youths in Burundi desire for a farming future but are discouraged by the lack of sustainability in the present practices of land heritage and farming. In another research conducted in Ethiopia, Bezu & Holden (2014) established that less than 10% of rural youth intended to adopt agriculture as their livelihood with land scarcity being the main cause of the low number of young people willing to pursue agriculture. Also, Tadele & Gella (2012) revealed that agricultural production and rural life in Ethiopia are perceived as backwardness and degrading particularly for highly educated young people with higher expectations.

Furthermore, due to the negative image of agriculture portrayed among the youths and their negative attitude towards it, Leavy & Hossain (2014) uncovered that agriculture is not an option for most young farmers in deprived communities among developing countries because of various constraints to farmland and other resources. In other words, young people

are turning away from farming due to their educational aspirations, the poor social status of family farming and the evolving state of job markets. As a result, agriculture in the modern world should be developed and transformed based on modern technology and improved innovations to tackle the demands of modern society. Today, policies in the agricultural sector around the world revolve around the young population, employment and farming since the biggest challenge is to sensitize, enlighten and convince rural youths that agriculture has the potential to provide desirable livelihood prospects (Filmer & Fox, 2014).

2.2 Youth and Family Farming

The debate about the relationship between rural youth migration and family farming is still huge. Research by FAO et al. (2014) and MasterCard Foundation (2015) revealed an increasing belief that agriculture as a sector has the potential to provide a long-lasting solution to the perennial problem of joblessness among the young people in Africa. This is only achievable if the agricultural sector is revolutionized and shaped as a sector of both transformation and prospect which are the two factors that drive the aspirations and desires of many young people in Africa (Leavy & Hossain, 2014). Under this new tenet, Filmer *et al.* (2014) observed that youth involvement and empowerment in the sector will speed up reforms in the sector hence shifting their general attitude from looking for jobs to creating jobs. The ultimate ambition here is to influence personal attitudes and behaviour of the young people to view agriculture as a business opportunity available to innovative farmers through access and engagement to novel markets, value chains, agri-business, +and information technology.

According to the International Labour Organization (2018), Labour markets in most parts of the world are divided into various categories ranging from public/private, formal/informal as well as modern/traditional. In Northern Africa, these Labour markets are characterized by significant informality and instability, low youth involvement and significant agricultural underdevelopment. Indeed, statistical evidence shows that North Africa account for about 30% of the youth unemployment in the world (International Labour Organization, 2017). Therefore, the challenging socio-economic development and extreme political atmosphere in the region are the main cause of rural youth migration to cities seeking for better educational systems, job markets, etc. Thus, the main aspects underlying youth unemployment include underdevelopment leading to poor job creation hence resulting to inadequate Labour demand, skills incongruity between academic curriculum and Labour

market thereby explaining lower employability in rural areas across the world (World Economic Forum, 2017).

With the youth population around the world typified by high aspirations to have a better and sustainable future, young people in rural areas are under immense pressure to access better education, jobs, lifestyles among other consumption items that fulfil a comfortable living. The lack of infrastructural development and failure by the national political and economic systems to offer better services in rural areas establishes strong push factors for the migration of youth from rural areas (Filmer et al., 2014; JMDI & IOM 2015).

A research conducted in Nigeria by Aworemi, Abdul-Azeez & Opoola (2011) argued that the problem of rural youth migration is a “double-edged” problem which affects the rural area and the urban destination of these youth. They argued that the loss of the Labour force from these youth is a key cause of the decline of family farming in rural communities. Thus, family farm suffers the most in rural out-migration of the youth.

Youth migration in Ghana, historically started during the colonial era when youth were forced to work for colonial masters leaving their farms for the aged. This practice by the youth especially from the north of Ghana to migrate to the southern part to work on cocoa farms, gold mines and services in the cities has since persisted Lobnibe (2010).

This canker is still deep rooted in Tuaso community as many youths migrate to either neighbouring countries like Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire and urban cities in Ghana such as Tamale, Kumasi and Accra. This practice has decreased the Labour force in the community on family farms.

2.3 Role of the Rural Youth in Family Farming in Ghana

Through the world, youth aspirations are dynamic and can be described as the expectation of young people for a better life under diverse environmental and situations in the rapidly evolving social context. This is attributed to the fact that in African context of farming, youths are considered the forerunner of their family and seen as the future of their family farm and farming activities (Diao *et al.*, 2019). However, the aspirations of rural youth in family farming in Ghana are influenced by the theory of achievement and successes among factors have significantly affected their attitude and perception towards farming and agriculture. Diao *et al.* (2019) noted that majority of the young people in Ghana aspire to remain in farming and agriculture only if the reward is better to satisfy their individual and family needs while the provision of basic service amenities is assured just like in cities and

urban areas. This points out to better infrastructural development and rural upgrading to improve the living standards of the people.

FAO et al., (2014) explained that satisfying the aspirations of rural young people positively influence the attitude, perception and behaviour towards farming and agriculture at large. Therefore, rural development in terms of infrastructure and improved standards of living plays an important motivational role among youth to dedicate their livelihoods in family farming and transforming agriculture for the better in rural areas of Ghana (MasterCard Foundation, 2015). In this way, young people in rural areas in Ghana will be willing to assume a proactive role in decision making, management of farming and transforming agriculture and family farming to reach the modern standards of Agriculture. This is because the changing dynamics of farming and Agric-entrepreneurship both locally and internationally shows that agriculture presents new prospects for employment creation and better livelihood for young people across Ghana. In line with this, the government of Ghana has realised that agriculture has the potential to help address the problem of unemployment. This is by formulating policies, strategies and frameworks that transform the sector to allow young people to actively join farmers association, communities and engaging in a range of economic activities to gain better income as well as have the ability to innovate the sector and develop their associations (Dixon *et al.*, 2001).

According to IFAD (2010) investing in youths in farming communities is vital to improving agricultural productivity, promoting food security, and driving economic development in rural Ghana. This is because the youth population have great potential for modernization which is important in making the lives of families in the rural communities better. Additionally, youths are better equipped to address emerging requirements of family farming, agriculture, and the rural non-farm economy. Petesch & Rodríguez (2012) opined that young farmers from rural communities contribute effectively to the development and wellbeing as well as for the betterment of their families and society. This is because engaging rural youth fully in farming allows them to participate and contribute significantly to agricultural and rural development. Their involvement prepares them to enhance their expertise and capabilities in food production and to drive rural development in Ghana (Herbel *et al.*, 2012).

2.4 Rural Youth Migration and Family Farming in Ghana

In Africa nations, many of these farms are small and they occur in rural areas. According to Tait (2017) most of these small-scale family farmers are peasants and they suffer from lack

of food and they have a limited reach to services and markets (Lu & Horlu, 2019). In the present day there is an acute need for sustainable agriculture to deal with the challenge of more food production, job creation, and natural resource preservation. However, Moyo (2016) found that small family farming is affected by high rates of poverty in the rural areas which force young people who are a major source of Labour to the family to migrate to urban areas. Rural-urban migration ensures that rural areas are depopulated and drained of any new farming skills that can improve food production (Dinar *et al*, 2012). The study will fill the gap of how migration affects family farming in terms of sustainability.

A study by Mercandalli *et al.*, (2017) found that educated and skilled rural youth in North Africa region move to the cities or abroad to look for better jobs and life. In Ghana, the young population have no intension to work or go into agriculture and rural activities, since they consider them less attractive and of degrading standards (Brooks *et al.*, 2012). Mueller & Thurlow (2019) observed the following as the reasons that contributed to rural youth migration in Ghana; predominant unstable and seasonal employment patterns; informal contracts of employment; commercialization that lacks social protection measures (such as access to social security among other benefits); hard and dangerous working conditions; marginalized employment characterized with low productivity, low reward (compensation) and ultimately with low social status.

In addition, Amanor (2010) pointed out that youth in Ghana have appropriate skills, finances, and farmland to venture into farming and agriculture for generation and remunerative employment and entrepreneurship opportunities in the sector. According to Mercandalli *et al.* (2017), moving from rural areas to cities is comprehended as a plan to access more prosperous areas to escape poverty as well as a response to extreme local conditions experienced in deprived areas of Ghana. In general, rural youth migration in Ghana is attributed to socio-economic, political, and environmental factors that influence their future well-being and sustainability of their lives. The movement from rural areas of Ghana to cities or even abroad is not only meant for gain better employment but also explore the economic opportunities, educational and sociocultural motivations which are limited in rural areas (MasterCard Foundation, 2015; FAO, 2019).

Moreover, peer pressure and the aspiration to match success narratives of fellow youths who moved from rural areas also triggers rural youth migration in Ghana with the notion that moving from rural areas to cities guarantees a successful life in future. This makes agriculture and farming in rural areas to suffer due to the lack of energetic Labour that can spearhead production and development. As a result, the government of Ghana has embarked and

establishing effective frameworks and policies that can make agriculture a highly attractive venture for the youths in the country to aid self-employment and increase job creation opportunities (MasterCard Foundation, 2015). Therefore a more comprehensive approach that considers different socio-economic, political, demographic, cultural, environmental and technological factors that affect young people is used to ensure change the notion that farming and agriculture is unrewarding (FAO *et al.*, 2014; Yeboah *et al.*, 2016).

Chapter 3

3.0 Theoretical Framework

3.1 Political Economy of Family Farming

Political economy is one of the branches of social science which has its main focus on the existing interrelations among public policy, the states and individual (Suri, 2006). In applying political economy lens in the context of family farming, Food and Agriculture Organization (2015) explains that the continuing failure of family farmers to have their livelihood concerns addressed by government institutions is the reason for grave attention especially in dual agriculture-based societies. A family farmer is a small-scale farmer whose source of living is based primarily on having access to land that is either owned or rented. In trying to obtain land, family farmers may have to deal with landlords; in trying to sell produce, they may have to deal with traders; in trying, when necessary, to work for others because they do not have a stockpile, they may have to accept what is offered (Barkley, 1976). Small holder farmers are thus never self-sufficient. As a result, small holder farmers do not stay isolated from the broader socio-economic forces found beyond their control, but instead, they are subjected to those bigger socio-economic forces since they are in need of getting commodities that are not produced on their farms.

This means that, in understanding the position of the family farming, it is necessary to understand the relationships of family farmers to their seniors in social matters to one another, within the family set-up in within their communities based on gender, age, blood relations, the nation, and to the way the product and the labour markets operate (Moran *et al.*, 1993). Bernstein (2016) observes that the inability of African nations to prioritize to agricultural activities, especially on the basis of dedication to the development of family farming is the gravest mistake done by governments after independence.

In similar thought Birner & Resnick (2010) note that the development of institutions and government departments that provide agricultural services have been noted in history to only meet the needs of large-scale agriculture. As a result, governments and other agricultural institutions will not have a greater impact on the lives of the poor farmers in the rural areas. Thus, attention must be paid to understand the institutional roles in shaping family farming and political influence on family farming. Most countries in Africa are challenged with acute

food shortage, malnutrition, rural unemployment, population increase, limited access to land and rural migration to deteriorating cities (Bernstein, 2016). Although there have been economic reforms, a study done recently by the World Bank confirmed that the programs designed for structural adjustment in Africa cannot produce sustainable supply response in farming and this is more pronounced among family farmers (Glover & Kusterer, 2016). The conventional comparison between family farming and large-scale commercial agriculture on either side effects the policies and chances enacted for food and agriculture. Large-scale farmers are well recognised in economy of the country since they are the determinants of the factor and product markets. There is a lot of evidence that show that, commercial Agricultural farmers have the capability of acquiring adequate financial and political assistance from agriculture-based institutions such as marketing, research, extension, and credit, and marketing (Özçatalbaş & Imran, 2017). On the other hand, family farmers are still faced with the challenged of escalating prices of fertilizer, the inability of public sector credit systems for family farmers and decline of food prices in the market.

Using a political economy approach, the responsibilities, and interactions among varying interest groups in agriculture (the state, agribusinesses, and family farmers) can be evaluated (Anderson *et al.*, 2013). In such an evaluation, the government machinery or set-up is seen as a special interest group with no idea that government normally works at the behest of many of its citizens (Chaiřnov & řajanov, 1986). In this study, the political economy lens is used as a framework for analysing the dynamics of political and economic factors affecting productivity/sustainability of family farming which consequently influence how the youth's view of family farming and their choice to move and find better income sources in urban areas. Particularly, the use of the political economy concept is used to discuss the push and pull factors causing the youth to abandon family farming and migrate to pursue non-farming employment in urban areas. The political factors majorly concern the government's initiatives to promote the sustainability of family farming and therefore the framework is applied in evaluating the extent to which the measures by government address the impact of rural-urban youth migration on the sustainability of family farming.

3.2 Sustainable Rural Livelihood Approach

The Sustainable Rural Livelihood Approach (SRLA) outlines the fundamental understanding that links rural households and outside socio-economic environmental, and institutional force. Livelihoods can only sustain people when they can use or own these assets and can

resist disasters and shocks. The bigger and more differentiated their assets are, the more sustainable and protected their livelihoods become (Castillo, 2008). Rural livelihoods have undergone dramatic changes over the last five decades. A large number of studies focusing on rural livelihoods in the last few decades has revealed that youth residing in rural areas are not exclusively reliant on agricultural activities globally (Bezu & Holden, 2014). Research has shown that there are other substantial non-farming activities that offer either an extra source of livelihood to the youth or even act as the only supply of livelihood for these people (Scoones, 2009; Borras Jr, 2009). The concept of SRLA also focuses on livelihoods diversification strategies such as migration (Scoones, 2009). He also argued that SRLA as a concept can be used to analyse different units such as individual, community, national with different levels of sustainable livelihoods outcomes. SRLA also form a basis of enhancing the lives of the rural poor.

Migration which is an element of livelihoods diversification strategy is one major factor that affects or threatens the survival of family farming in Tuasa community. As indicated in earlier, SRLA concept was used to analyse how the choice of migration by the youth of Tuasa as a livelihood strategy affect family farming in the community. SRLA emphasises on the capital asset as a component in driving livelihoods. The case of Tuasa was analysed looking critically to the natural resource available, use and access in the community that influence youth migration. Institutional structures which determine land acquisition, inheritance, ownership, access, use and control drew attention to the study to conceptualise how it influence youth migration.

Some scholars have even contended that there is an inclination toward 'de-agrarianization' of rural places (Bryceson, 2002; Borras Jr, 2009). The de-agrarianization situation is no different in Africa as seen from the study of Bezu & Holden (2014) which found that even though rural African regions have been typically associated with family farming, the non-farming activities have been a crucial source of income and job opportunities, especially for the youth. In Ghana, the trend of rural livelihood diversification is also prevalent. For instance, the study by Winters et al. (2009) found that about 75% of the youth in Ghana are employed. While family farming is the backbone of the national economy and the key livelihood source in most African nations, it is not a desirable activity for young people, and a relatively fewer youth want to do family farming because they see it as a hard job with minimal income (Sumberg *et al.*, 2012; White, 2015). The focus on non-agricultural employment opportunities is driving the migration of youth to urban areas in search of non-agricultural jobs (Sumberg *et al.*, 2017; Leavy & Smith, 2010). This livelihood diversification

strategy of shifting towards non-agricultural activities in rural areas and migration of youth to cities to search for non-farming jobs contributes to and is accompanied by a decline in the practice of family farming.

These findings from literature drew the attention of this study to employ the concept of SRLA in examining and discussing the choice of livelihood strategies of farming households in Tuasa community in the context of youth's turn away from family farming for other employment opportunities in the cities.

In the case of Tuasa community it was important to highlight the work of Scoones (2015) on SRLA. He highlighted the role of capital asset influence the livelihood outcomes of rural people who are mostly family farmers.

3.3 Theorising Youth Migration in Relation to Family Farming and Livelihood

3.3.1 Neo-classical Assumptions of Migration and Family Farming

According to the neo-classical migration theory, migration is a type of optimal allocation of production factors in a manner that is intended to help both the receiving and sending areas. The neoclassical migration theory argues that youth migration is a doubled edge phenomenon that affect both the origin (rural community) and the destination (Urban city). The assumption is that although, Labour force will be lost in the community as a result of the youth migration, the remittances from these migrated youths to the rural communities would compensate for the Labour lost in the farm families. However, Taylor *et al.* (2003) argued that the Labour force lost as a result of the youth migration is so huge that remittance might not able to fully compensate for the lost Labour force and thus has an adverse effect on family farming in the rural communities. This finding buttresses or reinforcement the pessimistic assumption argument that youth migration adversely affects family farming. Contrarily, the optimistic assumption hypothesis that youth migration positively affects rural communities in the sense that returned migrated youth gain improved innovative skills which could be used to improve family farming. This assumption was confirmed by a study conducted by IFAD (2007) which revealed that youth migration benefitted the families through remittances which were used to hire Labour, purchase food staff, farm inputs, health care and education.

From this description, it is seen that there is balanced growth for the areas involved. In this setup, there is a reallocation of Labour from rural regions that focus on agriculture to urban industrial areas and this is considered as necessary for economic growth and thus an important part of the process of development (Todaro, 1969). Another optimistic assumption of neoclassical migration theory is that the free movement of Labour in this unrestricted market setting will lead to higher levels of a scarcity of Labour and this will coincide with greater marginal productivity of Labour and rising wages in the places sending the migrants. On the other hand, capital flows are anticipated to go in the opposite direction which is from the places without Labour to the places without capital (De Haas, 2010).

The hypothesis of optimistic assumptions of neoclassical migration theory that is relevant for this study is that both areas (origin and destination communities) benefit from migration of people. Some of the benefits to the sending area as identified by the theory include remittances, and improved innovativeness of return migrants De Haas (2010). Based on the optimistic assumptions of the neoclassical migration theory, this study analysed the effects of youth rural-urban migration on the sustainability of family farming and livelihoods of households in the study area in terms of their positivity/negativity. The debates also drew the attention of this study to analyse and understand the implication youth migration has on family farming in Tuasa community

3.3.1.1 Optimistic assumption

Optimistic assumptions of the neo-classical migration theory have been increasingly challenged since the late 1960s. The reason for this was because of the combined influence of a paradigm change in social and development theory towards a more historical-structuralist model and dependency model and also the policy experiences and empirical studies that critiqued the optimistic perception (Frank, 1966). Because of this, the main arguments put forth by the neo-classical and developmental models were completely changed: rather than reducing, migration was now considered as increasing spatial (international and inter-region) disparities in the development discourse.

3.3.1.2 Pessimistic assumption

The hypothesis of the pessimistic assumptions of neoclassical migration theory is that migration has negative implications in the sending region as it deprives these regions of Labour resources. Also, one of the pessimistic assumptions of neoclassical theory suggests

that remittances from migrants increased consumption and inflation instead of improving the productivity and development of the origin regions (De Haas, 2010).

Chapter 4

4.0 Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction to the Chapter

This research made use of narrative qualitative approach to solicit detailed views from participants in the study. In-depth narrative interviews (qualitative) approach was selected because sought to gather data on the lives lived experiences of both returnee migrants and family farmers living in Tuasa. According to Anastas (2008), a qualitative approach allows the researcher to have access to knowledge about the state of the current topic being investigated and to account for what can be observed in relation to the factors or conditions within a given situation. By extension, the narrative interviews used in the study gave me the opportunity to conduct in-depth interviews with participants to obtain detailed information. The research design for this study was also a cross-sectional (one-time survey) study in nature.

4.2 Study Area

Tuasa is an agrarian community located in the northern sector of Ghana in the Upper West Region. The region shares borders with Burkina Faso and Cote voire to the north and the east, respectively. The community (Tuasa) forms part of the inland climate zones which has two climatic seasons. The wet season (May to October) and dry season (November to April). The geographical positioning of Tuasa makes it impossible to have all-year-round farming (GSS 2012). Crops usually cultivated in Tuasa community include maize, groundnut, cowpea, millet, and few animals reared such as goats, sheep, poultry, and cattle for ploughing. Family farming is the main method of farming in the community. Tuasa is a Agrarian community with a population of about one thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine of which about 41% are youth (GSS 2012). This means that the youth work force contributes about half of the Labour force in the community. A study by Bosiakoh *et al.* (2014) revealed that youth migration trend in Tuasa and poverty increased steadily in the community. A survey by MOA in 2018 concluded that about 80% of Wa-East population depends largely on family farming for their survival (GSS, 2018) The community's dependence on family farming

makes it a relevant choice for the study as the members would be able to provide well-informed responses from their experiences on changes in family farming as a result youth migration.

4.3 Research Design

Research design is all the method that is selected to include the various components of the research in a manner that is reliable and understandable to ensure that the research problem has been tackled properly (De Vaus 2006). It is mostly considered a “blueprint” for empirical research aimed at answering specific research questions or testing specific hypotheses (Anol, B. 2012). The research design used in the study was cross-sectional which mean the survey was conducted on a one time base rather a longitudinal study (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

It employed the narrative interviews technique to gather data from respondents in the study to answer the research questions. Responses from participants constituted the data which was used for the analysis. Moreover, the study was deductive which means the findings were based on reflections, observations, and thematic approach rather than developing theories.

4.4 Data Collection

In-depth narrative interviews were administered to collect data for the analysis. The data was collected using interview guides and semi-structured to conduct a one on one interviews with participants. This helped provided adequate information to identify and understand the implications of youth migration on family farming in Tuasa community.

The interviews were used to gather information with regards to push and pull factors influencing youth migration in Tuasa community. Furthermore, Longhurst (2003) notes that semi-structured interview guides allow researchers to prepare questions beforehand which can help guide the interview process and keep participants on the research topic. Primary data obtained was made possible with the assistance of my research assistant and two (2) Agric Extension Agents.

4.5 Sampling and Population of the Study

The study employed a purposive sampling technique to selected participants. This method was chosen because, it gave the researcher the chance to recruit participants who had in-

depth knowledge and information on youth migration in Tuasa community which was useful for the study. The purposive sampling method also enabled the researcher to select respondents who have experienced rural-youth migration as well as observers or actors involved in the phenomena of youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming opportunities in urban areas and the decline of family farming in Tuasa community.

The population used for the study were ten (10) households heads with family farming land holding capacity of about 1-2 acres of land, having youth migrants either away or back from the journey. Two (2) Agricultural Extension Agents (AEA) in the community were also interviewed. Two opinion leaders (chief and assembly member) with in-depth knowledge on the topic of the study were selected. Also, two focus group discussions were organised for both men and women farmer groups as well as four returned migrant youth within the study area.

4.6 Participant Background Information

This section shows the background characteristics of the participants in the study. The study engaged eighteen participants which included; 2 agricultural extension officers, 12 respondents for FGD groups (6 male and 6 female) of which 8 of the respondents were household heads and four interviewed were migrated youth who returned from the cities. The FGD was done in two sessions, the first for male respondents and the second for female respondents. This was to give freedom for the female respondents to be able to express their views. Out of the 12 farmers who took part in the FGD 5 had basic education, 4 secondary education and 11 were married. The tables below show a summary of the background data of the respondents.

Table 4. 1: FGD (Men farmers group members)

Name	Age	Sex	Education	HH head
Farmer 1	56	male	secondary	Yes
Farmer 2	28	male	basic	no
Farmer 3	37	male	basic	yes
Farmer 4	49	male	no	yes
Farmer 5	80	male	secondary	yes
Farmer 6	41	male	basic	yes

As seen in Table 4.1 6 men who took part in the Focus Group Discussions. All the respondents were within the ages of 28 years (youngest) and 80 years (oldest).

Table 4.2: FGD Women farm group members

Name	Age	Sex	education	HH head
Farmer 1	30	Female	basic	no
Farmer 2	28	Female	no	no
Farmer 3	40	Female	secondary	yes
Farmer 4	35	Female	Secondary	no
Farmer 5	36	Female	no	yes
Farmer 6	45	Female	basic	yes

Table 4.2 above also shows the background data for the women who took part in the Focus Group Discussions. The respondents were within the ages of 28 and 40 years old.

Table 4.3: Migrated Youth Respondents

Name	Age	Sex	education
Youth respondent 1	20	Female	no
Youth respondent 2	27	Male	secondary
Youth respondent 3	22	Male	no
Youth respondent 4	19	Female	basic

4.7 Recruitment of research assistant

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, I could not travel to the field to take data. Because of this, I employed the services of a qualified research assistant who is fluent in the English language and also understands the language of the people of Tuasa community, to assist me to gather data for the study. My research assistant was a male of age 36 years old who holds a masters in environment and resource management. He is a research assistant in the Environment and Resource Management Department of the University for Development Studies in the upper west region of Ghana. His experience in research for the past five years makes him

competent in making initial contact with respondents, selection of the sample for the study, getting the contact of respondents through which, I can interview them online. I also engaged two Agricultural extension officers or agents to identify some households which have been affected by the migration of the youth in their family to take part in the study. This is because, these agricultural officers presently directly work with the farmers and have relevant information about their family farming practices. The researcher ensured that the research assistant had a one-week online orientation on data collection using interview guides. Communication between the researcher and the research assistance was constant through audio and video phone calls. This was to ensure proper supervision of data collected on the field.

4.8 Data Collection Strategy

4.8.1 Community entry strategy

As part of the data collection, the Agricultural extension agents together with the research assistant conducted the community entry. This was to build rapport and give first-hand information about the study. They first met with the assembly member and introduced themselves and the purpose of the research. The assembly member then led them to the chief of the community to seek permission. The research assistants took into consideration all Covid-19 protocols and assure the chief and the community leaders of their strict adherence to the Covid-19 health protocol. The assistants were granted permission to carry on with the research in the community. Participants were provided with nose masks and hand sanitizers during the visit. The team was later introduced to some households in the community by the assemblyman of the area.

4.8.2 Interviews

After the community entry process the team schedule appointments with the participants to conduct the interviews. The data collection was done in two phases. In phase one participants were interviewed one on one through phone calls. This data included demographic characteristics, push, and pull factors influencing youth migration. Phase two of the interviews were FGD which was in three session, one for male farmers, female farmers and youth who migrated and returned to the community. The FGD was to gather information

on the experiences lived on the effects of youth migration on family farming. These FGD discussions were conducted via WhatsApp phone calls.

4.8.3 Community exit

After the data was obtained the research assistant thanked the chief, opinion leaders and key stakeholders particularly those who agreed to involuntarily participate in the interviews on behalf of the researcher and the research team for granting the permission to conduct the study in the community. Covid-19 protective items like sanitizers, face masks were given to participants and the chief.

4.8.4 Strength of data collection

The strength of the data collection was that because the agricultural extension agents were already working in the community it was easier for them to locate and sample participants who met the inclusion criterion. They research assistants could communicate effectively with the participants making the interviews very effective.

4.8.5 Limitations of data collection

Although the data collection was successful few challenges were encountered. Because of the planting season it was difficult getting the participates any time of the day except in the mornings before the left for the farms or after they return from the farms in the evenings. To ensure effective interviews research assistants scheduled the interviews in the mornings. Time zone differences was also a challenge but were scheduled days before the interviews, so that participant could plan for the online interviews to be conducted.

4.9 Data analysis

Data gathered from the field was analysed using thematic data analysis. According to Silverman (2016), thematic analysis is a method of analysing qualitative data which involves identifying, analysing, and interpreting patterns of meaning or themes within qualitative data. This technique of data evaluation was selected because it is useful for summarizing key features of a large qualitative data set, as it forces the researcher to take a well-structured approach to handle data, helping to produce a clear and organized final report (Nowell *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, thematic analysis was chosen for this research because it is theoretically

flexible and hence it can be utilized within variant frameworks to answer different kinds of research questions.

Thematic analysis was conducted in six important steps. The steps included familiarization with the data sources, generation of initial themes concerning the questions of the research, review of the themes and their discussion in the context of the research objectives, and finally the production of the final research. The first stage was familiarizing oneself with the collected data, and it involved the researcher reading and re-reading the gathered data, to become intimately familiar and immersed with its subjects (Silverman, 2016). The second stage was coding, and it required the researcher to generate succinct labels that define the significant features of the collected data which are useful in responding to the research questions. In this stage, the researcher coded the complete dataset and then collated all the codes as well as pertinent data extracts together for subsequent phases of analysis. The third stage was the identification of themes, and it involved the researcher examining the collate data and the codes in search of imperative broader patterns of meaning that are termed as potential themes (Alhojailan, 2012).

The researcher then collated the relevant data to each of the candidate themes so that the data could be worked on and the viability of each candidate theme can be reviewed. The fourth step was a review of the identified themes, and it involved the researcher checking potential themes against the dataset to determine whether they reflect the data and they answer the research questions. The themes were normally refined at this stage where some of them were discarded, and others were combined while others are split. The fifth step was defining and christening themes, and involved the researcher establishing a detailed analysis of each identified themes, working out of scope and focusing on each theme to determine the background of each of them (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013). In this stage, the researcher was required to decide on an informative name for the themes. The final stage was preparing a write up where I weaved together the data extracts and analyse narratives and then contextualized the data analysis about current literature.

4.10 Ethical Considerations

As proposed by Josselson (2007), participants often only take part in research studies that they are sure will safeguard their privacy and will help them. This informs the need for ethical consideration, which also enhances the integrity of the study. Therefore, several ethical considerations were taken into consideration. One of these ethical considerations was

obtaining verbal informed consent from participants. Also, voluntary participation of the prospective respondents was ensured where participants chose to participate in the study at their own will after the importance and purpose of the study were explained to them. The anonymity of respondents was ensured by removing any identifiable aspects from data from the respondents by not including it in writing the research report. It was based on this that in reporting the findings of the study, the researcher used pseudonyms instead of the actual names of the respondents. Also, confidentiality was ensured by not sharing the participants' information with other parties not involved in the study and the research assistant signing a non-disclosure form. To maintain the confidentiality of respondents, electronic data was stored in password-protected computers and files. Apart from the research participants and myself, I ensured that there was no access to data by other people.

4.11 Positionality

I come from Northern Ghana and I studied Agriculture in the high school and college level and obtained a certificate and Higher National Diploma (HND), in agriculture, respectively. Thereafter, I pursued environmental studies and resource management at the university level to obtain my first degree. After my education at that level, I worked with the ministry of food and agriculture from 2005 to date. During this period of my work, I have visited various districts including the district I chose to be my study area. During my working period in this district, I carried out a community profiling of the Tuasa community through which I became conversant with their family farming practices. I also observed some challenges that are facing the farmers in this community particularly the drop of youth's interest in family farming. Owing to my education and work background, I have become interested in further investigating why the youth are choosing non-farming opportunities in the cities over family farming in their community and how this choice affects or is affecting the dynamics of rural people's livelihoods.

Chapter 5

5.0 Findings and analysis

The study examined rural youth migration and its effect on the sustainability of family farming in Tuasa Community of the Upper West Region of Ghana. To achieve the aim of the study, the study employed in-depth narrative interviews to answer the research question. The analysis was based on the research question which sought to identify the push and pull factors of youth migration, the implication or effects of youth migration on family farming, coping strategies of households and policies by the government to address the problem of youth migration.

5.1 Situation of Family farming activities versus traits

The research conducted in the Tuasa community revealed that family farming is still the major source of livelihoods for the people in the community. Although most of the respondent agreed that the trend of youth migration away from the community was on increase, they still think family farming was their major source of livelihood. The study found out that the main capital of the people in the Tuasa community was land and hence depended on family farming for their livelihoods. This was confirmed by one of the respondents

“My son travelled to Kumasi two years ago. Now I am alone with my aged wife, we do not have anything except our plot of land, so we plant maize here to feed ourselves. My son sometimes sends us small money but not always” (Respondent HH 6, 57yrs. Interviewed:20th July 2020.)

This statement is consistent with the optimist’s assumption that youth who migrate to the urban cities remit to their family to partially or fully compensate for the Labour force lost. The concept of SRLA by Scoone (2009) also argued that rural poor people rely on the natural resources available to them for livelihoods. In the case of Tuasa community these family farmers solely depend on land as their capital asset to derive livelihoods. The study found youth migration to be on an increase. The youth who migrated and returned from the urban cities cited lack of employment opportunities, poor crop yield as a result of the continuous use of indigenous farming methods as some of the reason for their migration. One of the youths shared his opinion.

“In Tuasa here there is nothing for us. We are poor, we cannot hire tractors or buy fertilizers. We used to get 3 bags of maize every year but is not enough. That is why I travelled to look for a better job. Now I saved some money so I can hire a tractor and also, I have learnt how to spray weeds, so I bought the machine and I spray my farm and spray for money for other farmers” (Respondent YTH R1, 20yrs.

Interviewed:27th July, 2020.)

The above statement confirms the neo-classical optimist assumption that the youth who migrate gain innovation and skill which they can apply in the rural communities when they return. This story seems to influence on many of the youth who were in the community since they saw an improvement in the lives of some of the youth who migrated. Contrary, to this finding one of the household head revealed some of the youth who migrated to the cities engaged in drug use and social vices causing more harm to the families back home. He lamented.

“this youth migration we have been advising them, but they do not listen. My brother’s son travelled to the Obuasi to work at the mines but a year ago we heard he was mad. We had to contribute money to bring him home. Now he cannot do anything. Some also come back from the mining community very sick” (Respondent HH 4, interviewed Tuasa, 20th July, 2020)

Thus, youth migration has both effects on the family as a result of health implications, and family farming result from loss of Labour force. The implications are that, in some instances youth who migrate rather bring some burden and distress to families who spend their little capital at home to cater for their health when they come back sick. For example, some might sell their produce from the family farms, animals reared which even make them poorer. Although some remit might not be enough to compensate for the Labour lost. This, Taylor *et al.* (2003) argues that the Labour force lost as a result of youth migration is so huge that remittance can only partially compensate for. The study found that government-initiated programmes such as planting for food and jobs to help keep the youth in the communities. However, this initiative was not felt in the community of Tuasa and the programme was criticised for been politicised. One female farmer indicated that,

“I applied for the PFJ programme to be a beneficiary, I wanted seeds and fertilizers, but I was refused. The assembly said I am not a member of their party. This is not fair because we are all suffering” (Respondent FF 4, 35yrs. Interviewed:24th July 2020)

Her concern further raises doubts on the aims and mission of the programme. Thus, interference of partisan politics in social intervention programmes interrupt policy implementation which affects the proper functioning of these programmes. This means the government needs to refocus the programme and centre it towards making it more accessible to everyone and make farming more attractive to the youth. In line with this, the agricultural extension officers also said institutions should be allowed to ensure proper implementations of social programmes targeted at the poor farmers.

5.2 Youth's rural-urban migration influence on family farming

Youth migration remains a challenge to rural farming communities which has a direct or indirect influence on family farming. The factors which influence the youth migration can be looked in two main directions the push or pull factors.

The findings revealed that there was several youth-migration related issues in the Tuasa community as far as family farming is concerned and that affected the way farming was done and its outcomes for the farmers. The findings in the study showed that many farmers in the community have shifted to the use of tractors for ploughing their land. This was occasioned by the change in crops cultivated in the community from the traditional yam to maize and groundnuts. The shift from human Labour to the use of mechanical method of farming using tractors was because most of the youth who form the human Labour force in the community have migrated making it impossible to get human Labour. This also resulted in high cost of Labour from the tractor operators and other farming machines. One of the farmers who is 60yrs and head of a household (HH) head shared his opinion about this as stated below:

“When my sons were around, I mainly cultivated yam which requires a lot of work and strength. But now I cannot plant yams because the money for Labour is high. My sons even prefer sending me food or money to buy food from the city because they say planting is much expensive and takes more time.” (Respondent HH 3, interviewed Tuasa, 20th July, 2020)

His opinion was in support of four other farmers who shared similar opinions about the high cost of farming using the mechanical method. They (The four farmers) revealed that the cost of hiring tractors, fertilizers and weedicides is too expensive for them to afford.

Spraying of crops on the farm with chemicals (weedicide) was also a new trend in the community. Others have also reduced the size of farmlands while others have shifted to non-farming activities like charcoal burning, shea picking and firewood gathering as their alternative sources to cope with the youth migration in the community.

Due to youth migration to cities, farming in the Tuasa community has been downgraded to a large extent. Labour is one of the key inputs required for farming activities in this community, but this was no longer available because most youth moved to urban centres. A female farmer who used to cultivate a 5-acre piece of land with his son lamented how she has reduced it drastically to 1 acre after the son migrated to the city.

“I am now alone, so I cultivate about only 1 acre of land. When my son was with me, he used to bring his friend and they help us cultivate 5 acres of land. I am old now and weak. So, I pick shea nuts and sell in the dry season to buy ingredients to cook.

It is difficult for me now” (Respondent FF 3, Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July 2020.)

This concern showed that youth migration has a negative effect on family farming. This not only reduces family farming but leads to diversification of livelihoods such as shea-nut picking and other pluriactivities to derive livelihoods. Also, migration has also led to the collapse of communal Labour which is a key source of Labour in the Tuasa community for family farming.

All the participants including the agricultural extension officer agreed with the observation that due to youth migration, there are shifts taking place in Tuasa farming practices. While reacting on the same issue, Agricultural extension officer 2 said:

“I think most people now use tractors for ploughing and others are into the rearing of animals as well as shifting from yam cultivation to others like maize, beans, and ground nuts” (Interviewed: Tuasa, 22nd July,2020)

As the youth migrate from the Tuasa community to the cities, farmers encounter great loss of labour and skills that the youth would have provided. This leads to a diminished capacity for farming hence the low yields and widespread poverty. All the respondents agreed that this is the situation in the Tuasa community. In support of these findings, Adaku (2013) studied the relationship between migration and Labour in rural agricultural areas of Ghana and found that rural-urban migration leads to loss of Labour in agricultural areas which in turn ends in reduced agricultural production. The results agree with the hypothesis of the pessimistic assumptions of neoclassical migration theory which suggests that migration has negative implications in the sending region as it deprives these regions of labour resources (De Haas, 2010). The situation of loss of Labour due to youth migration from the Tuasa

community can also be viewed through the historical-structuralist theory which considers migration as people fleeing from misery as a result of the global capitalist expansion and hence it is not able to resolve the structural conditions that necessitate or lead to migration (De Haas, 2010). In a different study Tait, (2017) found that family farms in Ghana are affected by barriers such as lack of education on other productive farming techniques and lack of technology to help in growing high quality and quantity to improve productivity. This problem can be accounted for in part by the migration of the more educated and enlightened youth from the area. According to the neo-classical migration theory, migration is a type of optimal allocation of production factors in a manner that is intended to help both the receiving and sending areas (Amarl, 2018). This implies a balanced growth for the areas involved. However, the findings of the study contradict this theory in part because as the urban areas gain through youth migration, the rural areas (Tuasa community) are losing their source of Labour and manpower. White (2015) in his work argued that, if the asset base of a farming community is not varied, the livelihoods of especially the youth who form the backbone of farm labour are insecure and unsustainable. The youth therefore are forced to resort to non-agricultural activities or move to urban areas to get non-farming employment due to lack of sustainability in livelihoods and farming. This tends to result in the decline of family farming in these farming community of which Tuasa is a critical example of such a community.

5.3 Effects of youth's turn away from family farming on rural livelihoods

According to White (2012) several factors account for why the youth are averred with farming. The big debate by many scholars still is “Are the youth not interested in agriculture or they are not getting the necessary support?”. From the study, it was also discovered that the migration of youths from the Tuasa community to urban areas can be blamed for the excessive poverty and poor farming methods being practised by the community members. Youth provide labour and their absence leads to the inability of their parents to till the land. It was also revealed that the migration of the youth from the community leads to the collapse of family farming. On this point, 49-year-old male farmer 4 said:

“In our community, our culture demands that children help their parents with tasks in the home. Young people are very important when it comes to farming because for

years, the community used young people to provide farm Labour. We inherited these farms from our parents, now that some of our children are running away from farming, there is a likelihood that after our generation, farming will collapse in this community” (Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

This means the youth labour force form the fundamental base of labour to the family farms. This makes the youth so important to the survival of family farms in the community. Also, farmers are uncertain of the survival of family farms after they die because the youth are not interested in farming again. For parents to address the loss of the youth Labour due to migration to urban areas, families employ various strategies such as reducing farm sizes, charcoal burning, firewood gathering, petty trade and she nut picking to supplement the family farming. Some families in the community keep close ties with migrant members. One of the agricultural extension officers lamented how youth migration is affecting widows especially.

“There is evidence that several farmers especially the widows depend on their children in urban areas. Such people get help from these youth who are employed in different sectors in Accra, Kumasi and other places”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 22nd July, 2020)

The agricultural extension officers realised that, most women in the community depend on remittance from their children (youth) who migrated to the cities to hire manual labour, mechanical (tractors), fertilizers and weedicides. This continuous to encourages more youth to migrate hence decreasing the human labour force in the community. This will affect family farming negatively since it depends largely on human labour. There seems to be contrary position of some farmers who think allowing the youth to migrate and remit could be more helpful than staying in the community to help in farming.

Despite the negative implications of youth migration on farm labour, some respondents revealed that some of the youth remit money for farming purposes, although not enough to provide the required labour. This assertion resonant with the optimistic assumption of migration. The study showed that girls send more often than their male counter parts, the reason being that most of these girls have children back at home with their families in the community.

Out of the 6 male respondents in the FDG, 4 members noted that the migration of the youth from the community had the impact of causing the loss of Labour for farming which eventually leads to the loss of the land. This means there is a shift in the traditional farming

system of using human labour to the use of mechanical labour since labour is not readily available and affordable. Some of the farmers who shared their opinions on the effects of youth migration on family farming said:

“The effects of youth migration on family farming in Tuasa community include lack of Labour for farm activities, loss of farm produce and loss of farmlands to other activities like mining because the lands are not cultivated, and people encroach on them”. (MF Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

“My mother relied so much on me and my brother for the provision of labour on the farm. That was common when we were still in primary school and high school. Now, we don't have time to go to the farm because we have joined college which demands that we stay in Accra with our father for many months before coming back to the village. In the whole year we only come to the village for 3 weeks”. (YTH R, Interviewed: Tuasa, 27th July, 2020.)

The study found the migration of the youth from the rural areas to the urban areas to be a major contributor to the poverty being experienced in the Tuasa community. The migration of youths from the Tuasa community into urban areas can be blamed for the poor farming methods being practiced by the community members leading to the collapse of family farming. There was no contradiction in the responses given on this theme. The findings from the study revealed that youth who migrated remitted which consistent with the pessimistic assumptions of the neoclassical theory suggest that remittances from migrants will be used to compensate for the loss of the Labour and improve livelihoods in the community. However, this expectation and assumptions were not met in the case of Tuasa community as household heads revealed that the remittance was not enough for them because of the high cost of hiring Labour and tractor to work on the farms. This finding was consistent with earlier research conducted by De Haas, (2010) which showed that remittances by migrants to support family could not meet their target because of the high cost in farming and inflation. According to Acharya (2006) the migration of young people from peasant communities to urban centres and for non-farm jobs or activities offers them an alternative pathway from poverty, but it also leads to the decline in sustainability of farming. Contrarily, a report by FAO (2018) shows that in Bangladesh, the promotion of seasonal migration from rural to urban areas not only brings benefits to the families of the migrants, but also enhances the welfare of the entire rural community when migrants invest in economic projects such

as farming. A study by Ajaero & Onokala (2013) on the effects of rural-urban migration on rural communities of South-eastern Nigeria also found that migrants send remittances and invest in their local communities thus enhancing farming outcomes and reducing poverty in the rural areas.

5.4 The impact of government initiatives addressing the effect of rural-urban youth migration on family farming

Due to the emerging trends in youth movement from peasant communities to urban centres in recent times in Ghana, The government is not oblivious of this increasing influx of youth migration from the northern part of the country which includes Tuasa community has designed policies to curb the situation. The data obtained from the government extension officer indicated that the government has many policies and programmes for dealing with the effects on family farming of youth migration to urban areas in the Tuasa community. In 2010, the government started the Ghana social opportunity programme (GSOP) whose purpose was helping in farm road infrastructure development as well as supporting the farmers in their farming activities. However, out of the 12 males and female farmers who participated in the FGD only one said she had information about the program.

“I think the GSOP was an important measure that could have helped to deal with the problem of youth migration because it was engaging the youth in working for money in their villages. However, its impact on reducing youth migration to towns was very little”. (FF. Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

This response implies that the programme implemented did not make enough impact on reducing youth migration from rural communities to the cities. This again, highlights the concept of political economy which focuses on the influences and efforts by the government to support the sustainability of family farming. However, 11 of the farmers said they were not aware of the programme. They expressed dissatisfaction in the way the implementation in the way government policies are implemented with their inclusions. They also attributed this to lack of agricultural extension officer who would have been the right people to disseminate this information to them. This means government needs to decentralise the policies to the grassroot levels by posting more agricultural officers to the rural communities. Another program was launched by the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA) and in this one, farmers benefited by having 2.5 acres of land ploughed for them by the government. Inputs were added for them so that after harvest they can pay back. Through

this programme several farmers got better yields than before. In 2017, there was another program called Planting for Food and Jobs (PFJ) that allowed community members to plant for jobs and food. This programme was geared towards empowering the youth in rural communities to engage in farming. In the programme provide free improved seeds, fertilizers, and ready market for their produce. The programme is still ongoing and many of the farmers confirmed it has improved the situation and could have a larger impact if sustained for a longer period.

“It was a good initiative, now few youths are in the community taking part in the farming. We hope the government can keep the programme for many years.” (HH Interviewed: Tuasa, 20th July, 2020.)

Due to the success achieved by the government, in the PFJ programme the government also introduced another program called “Rearing for Food” where people were asked to register to get poultry for keeping on their farms. However, this policy is still at the pilot stage and many farmers. Animal rearing is one of the policies through which the government has made efforts to engage farmers. Government officials including the Agricultural Extension Officer are among the people tasked with the implementation of this policy. One of the agricultural extension officers shared his opinion:

“We go round communities and register interested people and engage them. We sometimes also identify vulnerable persons who cannot engage in crop farming but can take care of animals and give them any type they would like to rear. Through this programme we have reports that some youth are opting to remain in the community and not go to look for jobs in the city because they can engage in animal farming”. (AEO Interviewed: Tausa, 22nd July, 2020.)

It was interesting to find that although the government had made several interventions within the agriculture sector such as planting for food and jobs, subsidizing fertilizers for farmers, and many others that the Agricultural Extension Officer mentioned in the interview, respondents at the Tuasa community complained that they have not benefited enough from the flagship programme. They lamented that even the agricultural extension officers that are charged with the responsibility of visiting and educating farmers on farming activities do not visit the Tuasa community frequently. 3 out of the 10 household heads interviewed acknowledged that they never had information about the government programs mentioned

by the Agricultural Extension Officer. This also shows the weakness of the institutions to decentralise information to the local people in rural communities. A 35-year-old female farmer who has been involved in family farming for 15 years said:

“I have not seen much government effort to address youth migration and its impact on family farming in the Tuasa community. Because I have not gotten anything tangible to improve my farming productivity from the government programs”

(Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

Similar information was also provided by the farmers group during Focus Group Discussions. For example, the 41-year-old male farmer said:

“There has never been any intervention of government on youth migration in this community that we know about. Last time an organization came here and told us that they will be coming to support us with money for farming, it is over 2 years now and we have not seen them again”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

The residents of Tuasa community acknowledged the presence of Non-Governmental Organizations in their region. The data collected shows that there is a microfinance institution called Senapi Aba that operates in the Tuasa Community and its role is to provide financial support to Tuasa farmers by ploughing their lands and giving them seeds to plant on their farms. The respondents said to repay the loans at a cost of a bag of produce for every acre for the support provided to them. While praising the efforts of the NGO, 10 out of the 12 farmers said the NGO has done a lot to help them in farming. The Female farmer said:

“Senapi Aba has made me a proud woman because my farming has greatly been boosted by them. We get enough produce just because they support us by ploughing and they also give us quality seeds to plant every planting season. I have enough to feed my children and therefore, I do not think they will flee to the city like the others”. (FF. Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

From the responses given, the impact of government policies for the reduction of rural-urban migration among the youth is yet to be felt by the community members. According to the agricultural extension officer’s government continue to implement policies and projects aimed at reducing rural-urban migration in the area. Ampadu-Ameyaw *et al.* (2020) examined interventions targeting the youth for employment creation in Ghana. The authors concluded that Ghana has youth intervention programmes, but they are not big enough to

benefit all the unemployed youth in the country. This finding was similar to study findings on the lack of government intervention to stop rural-urban migration, conducted by Salia (2013) on rural-urban migration and the development of the rural area in the Kpongu community of Upper West Region of Ghana. The study found that farmers in the Kpongu community believe the government has not done enough to stop the youth from migrating out of the community (Salia, 2013). The study concluded that the government can reduce youth out-migration from their community by providing off-farm job opportunities and a vocational training centre to stop the youth from migrating to other areas to learn a trade such as dress making, hair dressing, and carpentry so that they can become independent and self-employed. Boadu and Isioma (2017) state that a number of the youth policies and intervention programmes meant to provide jobs for the youth in Ghana are normally abandoned whenever there is a change of regime. In another study in which Ile and Boadu (2018) examined youth empowerment intervention programmes in Ghana, they found that for more than 60 years, the wellbeing of the youth has been addressed through policy frameworks, but the irony is that the economic situation of youth in the country has not changed because they are neglected in these youth policies.

5.5 How households are coping with the effects of rural youth migration on family farming

Due to the poverty in the Tuasa community, resulting from the migration of the youth, families have devised strategies by which they cope with the situation. There are various activities that the community members identified as the strategies they employ to survive the challenges they are facing. The key coping strategy mentioned by a majority (9 out of 12) Focus Group respondents was the shift from the traditional crops especially the yam to the farming of other non-traditional crops such as maize, groundnuts and beans. The 10 household (HH) heads interviewed mentioned the use of improved methods of farming such as the use of tractors for ploughing and the spraying of crops with chemicals. 33-year-old female household (HH) head talked about the use of tractors. She said:

“Although hiring a tractor to plough a farm is expensive, we are forced to do that because we don’t have our youth to help us on the farm. Yams need manpower that we don’t have. Therefore, we are planning maize and beans but on a small scale because tractors can work well with those types of crops”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 20th July, 2020.)

Farmers in the community especially those who have the means have also resorted to hiring labourers to till their lands for them and also perform other tasks such as harvesting and spraying of crops. Out of the 12 Focus Group members 8 said they hire labourers whenever they feel they have too much work that they cannot do alone, but that is always subject to the availability of finances. The 28-year-old female farmer said this:

“My husband always gets some people to help us with the work on the farm because most of the time it is overwhelming”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

A 19-year old youth respondent said:

“My two elder brothers left the village last year for Kumasi after finishing their secondary school education. They are working in a supermarket there. Now my parents have to hire somebody every time there is work to be done on the farm because the work, they used to do must be done by somebody else”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 1st Aug, 2020.)

As stated by the FB group respondents, acquiring loans from ‘Susu’ groups or rotating fund self-help women groups was also one of the strategies employed by farmers who desire to sustain and boost their farming activities. For those families that cannot hire labourers or get loans from ‘Susu’ groups the only option left for them is reducing the size of their farms so that by that they can cut down expenses.

A 28-year old female farmer said:

“We get money from our rotating fund self-help women groups to invest in our farms. When that is not possible, we just reduce the sizes of the land we are farming during that season.” (Interviewed: Tuasa, 24th July, 2020.)

Farmers also employ other coping strategies such as trading, gathering firewood, and burning charcoal for sale. Others engage the youth migrants from their households who are in cities to send them money with which they can survive especially when they are not getting much from the farms. However, there are times when the money is not forthcoming, or it is sent irregularly.

Agricultural extension officer said:

“There are several ways through which people in this community survive. Those with children in town get some support from them which they use to buy farm inputs. Some also engage in the trade of different products such as charcoal and firewood”. (Interviewed: Tuasa, 22nd July, 2020.)

According to the study findings rural Tuasa farmers have devised various coping mechanism that they are using to tackle the problems caused by youth rural-urban migration. All the respondents agreed that due to youth rural-urban migration, farmers were employing different strategies to cope. The study findings are corroborated by Aasoglenang (2013) in a study of coping mechanisms for rural communities in Wa West in northern Ghana. The researcher found that rural farmers cope through diversification of crop cultivation, keeping livestock, petty trading, and remittances from out-migrants. In another study by Quaye (2008) on coping mechanisms in Northern Ghana, it was revealed that to cope with the reality of life in the poverty-stricken rural areas, farmers migrate to the Southern parts of Ghana for wage employment, get support from friends and relatives staying in other regions, sell livestock and other household valuables, reduce the intake of food and consume the less preferred foods. Some of the findings of this study seem to confirm the proposition of the neoclassical pessimist view of migration theory that migration may have a positive impact on the origin area. For instance, some respondents mentioned that remittances from the migrated youth help them with their farming expenses. The push and pull factors identified in the study include, lack of social amenities, access to market, desire of youth for jobs in the city, climate change which affect farming, and challenges with access to farmland. All these factors influence youth migration to the cities which inherently affect family farming in Tuasa community.

Chapter 6

6.0 Conclusion

The increasing trend of youth migration from Tuasa community to the cities persists and leads to deterioration and downgrading of farming within the Tuasa community. Although Labour is among the important raw materials required for farming in Tuasa, youth migration to urban areas has led to the loss of this important human capital. Due to shortage of Labour caused by the absence of the youth, farmers have abandoned the cultivation of traditional crops which require manual labour such as yam, potatoes and resorted to the cultivation of crops such as maize, millet, cowpea and groundnut which require the use of tractors which can be hired for ploughing their farms. The findings imply is that the migration of the youth from the Tuasa community could be termed as the leading cause for the decline of family farming in the area. Tackling the problem of youth rural-urban migration may just be the ultimate solution to the deterioration of farming in the community.

The findings also reveal that the migration of youth from the Tuasa community to the cities is the cause for the poverty and bad farming methods that farmers are using. For the farmers to address the gaps left when the youth move away from the village, community members are forced to reduce the sizes of their land and resort to other income-generating activities such as the burning of charcoal, cutting firewood and the picking of shea nuts. These findings show that youth play a very crucial role in the farming that is done in Tuasa. The implication is that as long as the issue of youth rural-urban migration is not solved, farmers will employ alternative survival strategies to ensure that their activities as farmers and food producers for their families are not halted. This could include engaging in other pluriactivities (part-time jobs) to gain extra income to supplement the produce from family farming.

The study showed that, as a result of the shortage of Labour on their farms, community members employed different strategies such as shifting from indigenous farming methods to modern methods such as tractor farming and the spraying of crops to increase their yields. Some farmers also hire labourers to work on their farms during the ploughing season and during the spraying and harvesting times. The strategy of acquiring loans from rotating funds is also used by some women to get money which they invest in their farms. In light of previous studies and related theories, the findings of this study imply that the challenge of rural-urban migration among the youth can result in some very creative survival techniques

that may even be more convenient than the traditional farming methods. With the loss of youth Labour, farmers are discovering modern faster and easier farming methods such as ploughing using tractors. Remittances from youth who migrated to their families help them hire tractors, buy fertilizers, weedicides, and human labour on the farms to partially compensate for the labour loss.

The findings show that the Ghanaian government has made several initiatives and programmes to try and solve the challenge of youth migration to the cities. These policies are designed to increase the yields from the farms in the community and create projects that some youth can get involved in. Although the government has these initiatives, the findings reveal that very little has been achieved in reducing the rate of rural-urban migration among the youth. Some respondents claimed not to know anything about these programmes, and they maintained that they have not received any support from the government through such policies. However, Tuasa community farmers acknowledged receiving help from NGOs such as Senapi Aba. In the past, farmers have received financial support from this NGO such as getting seeds and having their lands ploughed for them.

A comparison of the findings of this study with past studies and theories indicates that the government of Ghana still needs to do much to help the people of Tuasa community overcome poverty and inappropriate farming methods. The government needs to raise its level of involvement in the affairs of the farmers above what the NGOs are doing. The study therefore recommends, future studies to delve into understanding why government policies are not felt among the rural people the programmes are intended to benefit from. Future research should also consider assessing and understanding what the youth need to keep them in the rural community. The government should also empower agricultural extension officers to be able to deliver their job in rural communities.

The researcher realised that good programmes such as PFJ and RFJ, implementation process was problematic. Government therefore needs to decentralise the implementation process in an all-inclusive way to involve the farmers who are key stakeholder in the programme. Proper monitoring and evaluation process should also be put in place to improve the implementation of such important social interventions.

References

- Aasoglenang, A. (2013). Rural Livelihoods Diversity-The Coping Strategies in Wa West District in Northern Ghana. *Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare*, 3(3),
- Acharya, S. S. (2006). Sustainable agriculture and rural livelihoods. *Agricultural Economics Research Review*, 19(347-2016-16775), 205-218.
- Adaku, A. A. (2013). The effect of rural-urban migration on agricultural production in the northern region of Ghana. *Journal of Agricultural Science and Applications*, 2(4).
- Afere, L., Adedeji, O., Baker, V., Barbou des Courières, C., Mabonga, L., Ocansey, M., & Neate, P. J. (2019). *Making agriculture attractive to young people*. CTA.
- Ajaero, C. & Onokala, P. (2013). The Effects of Rural-Urban Migration on Rural Communities of Southeastern Nigeria. *International Journal of Population Research*, 2013(165).
- Alhojailan, M. I. (2012). Thematic analysis: A critical review of its process and evaluation. *West East Journal of Social Sciences*, 1(1), 39-47.
- Amanor, K. (1999). *Global restructuring and land rights in Ghana: Forest food chains, timber, and rural livelihoods* (No. 108). Nordic Africa Institute.
- Amanor, K. (2001). *Land, Labour and the family in Southern Ghana: A critique of land policy under neo-liberalisation* (No. 116). Nordic Africa Institute.
- Amanor, K. S. (2010). Family values, land sales and agricultural commodification in South-Eastern Ghana. *Africa*, 80(1), 104-125.
- Ampadu-Ameyaw R, Jumpah ET and Owusu-Arthur J, Boadu P and Mahama A (2020). A review of youth employment initiatives in Ghana: policy perspective. *FARA Research Report* 5 (9), p. 38
- Anderson, K., Rausser, G., & Swinnen, J. (2013). Political economy of public policies: insights from distortions to agricultural and food markets. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 51(2), 423-77.
- Asravor, R. K. (2018). Livelihood diversification strategies to climate change among smallholder farmers in Northern Ghana. *Journal of International Development*, 30(8), 1318-1338.

- Aworemi, J.R., Abdul-Azeez, I.A. and Opoola, N.A., 2011. An appraisal of the factors influencing rural-urban migration in some selected Local Government Areas of Lagos State Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 4(3), pp.136-141.
- Barkley, P. W. (1976). A contemporary political economy of family farming. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 58(5), 812-819.
- Berckmoes, L. H., & White, B. (2016). Youth, farming, and precarity in rural Burundi. In *Generationing Development* (pp. 291-312). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Berckmoes, L., & White, B. (2014). *Youth, farming and precarity in rural Burundi*. *European Journal of Development Research*, 26(2), 190–203. doi:10.1057/ejdr.2013.53.
- Bernstein, H. (2016). Agrarian political economy and modern world capitalism: the contributions of food regime analysis. *The Journal of Peasant Studies*, 43(3), 611-647.
- Bernstein, H., Crow, B., & Johnson, H. (Eds.). (1992). *Rural livelihoods: crises and responses*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Bezu, S., & Holden, S. (2014). *Are rural youth in Ethiopia abandoning agriculture?* *World Development*, 64, 259–272. doi: [10.1016/j.worlddev.2014.06.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2014.06.013)
- Bezu, S., & Holden, S. (2014). Are rural youth in Ethiopia abandoning agriculture? *World Development*, 64, 259-272.
- Bird, M. (2017). Combining quantitative and qualitative methods: a case study of the implementation of the Open College policy. In *Mixing methods: qualitative and quantitative research* (pp. 127-143). Routledge.
- Birner, R., & Resnick, D. (2010). The political economy of policies for smallholder agriculture. *World Development*, 38(10), 1442-1452.
- Boadu, S. E., & Isioma, I. (2017). Rethinking participation in monitoring and evaluation. Beneficiaries' perspectives from the Local Enterprises and Skills Development Programme (LESDEP) in Ghana". *Loyola Journal of Social Sciences*, 31(2), 209-227.
- Borras Jr, S. M. (2009). Agrarian change and peasant studies: changes, continuities, and challenges—an introduction. *The Journal of Peasant Studies*, 36(1), 5-31.
- Brooks, K., Zorya, S., & Gautam, A. (2012). *Employment in agriculture: Jobs for Africa's youth*. In *2012 global food policy report*. Washington DC: IFPRI
- Bryceson, D. F. (1996). Deagrarianization and rural employment in sub-Saharan Africa: a sectoral perspective. *World development*, 24(1), 97-111.
- Bryceson, D. F. (2002). The scramble in Africa: reorienting rural livelihoods. *World development*, 30(5), 725-739.

- Cai, J., Wang, T., Xia, X., Chen, Y., Lv, H., & Li, N. (2019). Analysis on the choice of livelihood strategy for peasant households renting out farmland: Evidence from western poverty-stricken areas in China. *Sustainability*, 11(5), 1424.
- Cardano, M. (2020). *Defending Qualitative Research: Design, Analysis, and Textualization*. Routledge.
- Castillo, G. E. (2008). The Right to a Sustainable Rural Livelihood: Strategies, lessons learned and actions (2008-2016).
- Chaiñanov, A. V., & Čajanov, A. V. (1986). *AV Chayanov on the theory of peasant economy*. Univ of Wisconsin Press.
- Chukwuedozie K. Ajaero, & Patience C. Onokala. The Effects of Rural-Urban Migration on Rural Communities of Southeastern Nigeria. *International Journal of Population Research*, vol. 2013, Article ID 610193, 10 pages, 2013. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/610193>
- Córdoba, D., Selfa, T., Abrams, J. B., & Sombra, D. (2018). Family farming, agribusiness, and the state: Building consent around oil palm expansion in post-neoliberal Brazil. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 57, 147-156.
- Diao, X., Hazell, P. B. R., Kolavalli, S., & Resnick, D. (2019). *Ghana's economic and agricultural transformation: Past performance and future prospects*.
- Diao, Xinshen (Ed.); Hazell, Peter B. R. (Ed.); Kolavalli, Shashidhara L. (Ed.); Resnick, Danielle (Ed.) (2019): *Ghana's economic and agricultural transformation: Past performance and future prospects*, ISBN 978-0-19-884534-8, Oxford University Press, Oxford, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198845348.001.000>
- Dixon, J. M., Dixon, J., Gibbon, D. P., Gibbon, D., Gulliver, A., Hall, M., Food and Agriculture Organization., ... World Bank. (2001). *Farming systems and poverty: Improving farmers' livelihoods in a changing world*. Rome: Agricultural Support Systems Division, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Drafor, I., Kunze, D. and Al-Hassan, R., 2005. Gender roles in farming systems: An overview using cases from Ghana.
- Duplantier, A., Ksoll, C., Lehrer, K., & Seitz, W. (2017). The internal migration choices of Ghanaian youths.
- Edwin, D. A., & Glover, E. K. (2016). Factors Responsible for Youth Migration to the City: The Case of Ghana. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(1), 10-22.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics*, 5(1), 1-4.

- FAO (2018). Achieving positive rural migration outcomes in rural areas: Rural migration: a significant component of migration.
- FAO, (2019). *Preparing and accessing decent work amongst rural youth in cambodia*. Place of publication not identified: FOOD & AGRICULTURE ORG.
- FAO, CTA, & IFAD (2014). *Youth and agriculture: key challenges and concrete solutions*. Rome: FAO in collaboration with CTA and IFAD
- FAO. (2014). Developing the Knowledge, Skills and Talent of Youth for Further Food Security and Nutrition.
- FAO. (2018). Country Gender Assessment Series National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods GHANA. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/i8639en/I8639EN.pdf>
- FAO. (2019). FAO'S WORK ON FAMILY FARMING Preparing for the Decade of Family Farming (2019–2028) to achieve the SDGs. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/CA1465EN/ca1465en.pdf>
- Filmer, D., & Fox, L. (2014). *Youth employment in Sub-Saharan Africa (Africa development series)*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Filmer, D., Fox, M. L., Brooks, K. M. C., & World Bank. (2014). *Youth employment in Sub-Saharan Africa*.
- Food and Agriculture Organization. (2015). The political economy of food, agriculture, and irrigation development in East and Southern Africa. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/w7314e/w7314e09.htm#TopOfPage>
- Foundation, M. C. (2015). *Youth at work: Building economic opportunities for young people in Africa*. Toronto: MasterCard Foundation.
- Garner, E., de la O, C., & Paula, A. (2014). Identifying the family farm. An informal discussion of the concepts and definitions. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4306e.pdf>
- Ghana Statistical Service. (2014). 2020 Population and Housing Census Report.
- Gibbs, A. (2012). Focus groups and group interviews. *Research methods and methodologies in education*, 186-192.
- Glover, D., & Kusterer, K. (2016). *Small farmers, big business: contract farming and rural development*. Springer.

- Herbel, D., & Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2012). *Good practices in building innovative rural institutions: To increase food security*. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Hewson, C., & Stewart, D. W. (2014). Internet research methods. *Wiley StatsRef: Statistics reference online*, 1-6.
- Houssou, N., Chapoto, A., & Asante-Addo, C. (2016). *Farm transition and indigenous growth: The rise to medium-and large-scale farming in Ghana* (Vol. 1499). Intl Food Policy Res Inst
- IFAD (2007). International Fund for Agricultural Development. Sending money home, Rome, Italy <http://www.ifad.org/events/remittances/maps/brochure>
- IFAD, F. (2014). Youth and agriculture: Key challenges and concrete solutions. *Published by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) in collaboration with the Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation (CTA) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)*. Rome.
- Ile, I. & Boadu, E. (2018). The paradox of youth empowerment: Exploring youth intervention programme in Ghana. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 4(2018).
- International Fund for Agricultural Development, (2010). *New Realities, New Challenges: New Opportunities for Tomorrow's Generation*. Quntly: Italy, 60 pp.
- International Labour Organization-ILO (2017), *ILOSTAT Database, 2017*, Data on Youth Unemployment, Geneva, International
- International Labour Organization-ILO (2018), *World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2018*, Geneva, International Labour Organization.
- JMDI & IOM (2015), *White Paper: Mainstreaming Migration into Local Development Planning and Beyond*, Geneva, International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Joint Migration and Development Initiative (JMDI). https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/whitepaper_mainstreaming.pdf
- Josselson, R. (2007). The ethical attitude in narrative research: Principles and practicalities. *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology*, 21, 545.
- Kidido, J. K., Bugri, J. T., & Kasanga, R. K. (2017). Dynamics of youth access to agricultural land under the customary tenure regime in the Techiman traditional area of Ghana. *Land Use Policy*, 60, 254-266.
- Kidido, J. K., Bugri, J. T., & Kasanga, R. K. (2017). Youth agricultural land access dimensions and emerging challenges under the customary tenure system in Ghana: evidence from Techiman area. *Journal of Land and Rural Studies*, 5(2), 140-163.

- Labour Organization. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.1524.ZS>
- Largan, C., & Morris, T. (2019). *Qualitative secondary research: A step-by-step guide*. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Leavy, J., & Hossain, N. (2014). *Who wants to farm? Youth aspirations, opportunities and rising food prices IDS working paper 439*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- Leavy, J., & Smith, S. (2010). Future farmers: youth aspirations, expectations, and life choices. *Future Agricultures Discussion Paper, 13*, 1-15.
- Lobnibe, I., 2010. Of Jong Migrants and Jongsecans: understanding contemporary rural out-migration from Northwest Ghana. *Journal of Dagaare Studies, 7*(10).
- Longhurst, R. (2003). Semi-structured interviews and focus groups. *Key methods in geography, 3*(2), 143-156.
- Lowder, S. K., Sánchez, M. V., & Bertini, R. (2019). *Farms, family farms, farmland distribution and farm Labour: What do we know today?* (No. 854-2020-093).
- Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (Vol. 41). Sage publications.
- Mercandalli, S., Losch, B., Jolivot, A., Lorente, J.-C., Ba, C. O., Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, & CIRAD (Organization) (2017). *Rural Africa in motion: Dynamics and drivers of migration South of the Sahara*.
- Moran, W., Blunden, G., & Greenwood, J. (1993). The role of family farming in agrarian change. *Progress in Human Geography, 17*(1), 22-42.
- Mueller, V., & Thurlow, J. (2019). *Youth and jobs in rural Africa: Beyond stylized facts*.
- Naamwintome, B. A., & Bagson, E. (2013). Youth in agriculture: Prospects and challenges in the Sissala area of Ghana. *Net Journal of Agricultural Science, 1*(2), 60-68.
- Niehof, A. (2004). The significance of diversification for rural livelihood systems. *Food policy, 29*(4), 321-338.
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International journal of qualitative methods, 16*(1), 1609406917733847.
- Ohene, V. F. (2013). *Determinants of farmers' participation in the youth-in-agriculture programme in the eastern region of Ghana* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Ghana). Retrieved from http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/bitstream/handle/123456789/5926/victorfredohene_determinantsoffarmers'participationintheyouth-in-agricultureprogrammeintheeasternregionofghana_2013.pdf?sequence=1

- Özçatalbaş, O., & Imran, M. (2017). Current Situation and Importance of the Family Farming in Agriculture of Turkey. *Modern Agricultural Science and Technology*, ISSN 2375-9402, USA.
- Petes, P., & Rodríguez, C. I. (2012). *Voices of young villagers in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Background paper. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Quaye, W. (2008). Food security situation in northern Ghana, coping strategies and related constraints. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*, 3 (5), 334-342.
- Salia, R. (2013). Rural-urban migration and rural community development: A case of Kpong community of Upper West Region of Ghana. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309907838_Rural-urban_migration_and_rural_community_development_A_case_of_Kpong_community_of_Upper_West_Region_of_Ghana.
- Scoones, I. (1998). Sustainable rural livelihoods: a framework for analysis. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/251873585_Sustainable_Rural_Livelihoods_A_Framework_for_Analysis
- Scoones, I., 2009. The politics of global assessments: the case of the International Assessment of Agricultural Knowledge, Science and Technology for Development (IAASTD). *The Journal of Peasant Studies*, 36(3), pp.547-571.
- Shaw-Taylor, L. (2012). The rise of agrarian capitalism and the decline of family farming in England 1. *The Economic history review*, 65(1), 26-60.
- Silverman, D. (Ed.). (2016). *Qualitative research*. Sage.
- Singh, S. R., & Panda, C. K. (2016). Role and aspirations of youth in family farming: a village perspective. *Agric INTERNATIONAL*, 3(2), 46-51.
- Solidaridad, (2020). Spotlighting Youth in Agriculture in Ghana
- Sourisseau, J. M. (Ed.). (2015). *Family farming and the worlds to come*. Netherlands: Springer.
- Sumberg, J., Anyidoho, N. A., Leavy, J., te Lintelo, D. J., & Wellard, K. (2012). Introduction: The young people and agriculture 'problem' in Africa. *IDS Bulletin*, 43(6), 1-8.
- Sumberg, J., Anyidoho, N.A., Leavy, J., te Lintelo, D.J. and Wellard, K., 2012. Introduction: The young people and agriculture 'problem' in Africa. *IDS Bulletin*, 43(6), pp.1-8.
- Sumberg, J., Yeboah, T., Flynn, J., & Anyidoho, N. A. (2017). Young people's perspectives on farming in Ghana: A Q study. *Food security*, 9(1), 151-161.
- Sumberg, J., Yeboah, T., Flynn, J., & Anyidoho, N. A. (2017). Young people's perspectives on farming in Ghana: a Q study. *Food security*, 9(1), 151-161.

- Suri, K. C. (2006). Political economy of agrarian distress. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 1523-1529.
- Tadele, G., & Gella, A. A. (2012). 'A last resort and often not an option at all': farming and young people in Ethiopia. *IDS Bulletin*, 43(6), 33–34.
- Taylor, J.E., Rozelle, S. and De Brauw, A., 2003. Migration and incomes in source communities: A new economics of migration perspective from China. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 52(1), pp.75-101.
- Tongco, M. D. C. (2007). Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection. *Ethnobotany Research and applications*, 5, 147-158.
- Toulmin, C., & Guèye, B. (2005). Is there a future for family farming in West Africa? *IDS Bulletin*, 36(2), 23-29.
- Tsekpo, E. M. (2018). *Youth Participation and Productivity in Cocoa Farming in the Western North Cocoa Region of Ghana* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Ghana).
- Twumasi, M. A., Jiang, Y., & Acheampong, M. O. (2019). Capital and credit constraints in the engagement of youth in Ghanaian agriculture. *Agricultural Finance Review*.
- United Nations. (2016). Why are rural youth leaving farming? <https://www.un.org/youthenvoy/2016/04/why-are-rural-youth-leaving-farming/>
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., & Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing & health sciences*, 15(3), 398-405.
- Van Esch, P. (2016). The dimensions of religion as underpinning constructs for mass media social marketing campaigns [Southern Cross University]. https://researchportal.scu.edu.au/discovery/fulldisplay/alma991012821420802368/61SCU_INST:ResearchRepository
- Wahab, I., Jirström, M., & Hall, O. (2020). An Integrated Approach to Unravelling Smallholder Yield Levels: The Case of Small Family Farms, Eastern Region, Ghana. *Agriculture*, 10(6), 206.
- White, B. (2012). Agriculture and the generation problem: rural youth, employment, and the future of farming. *IDS Bulletin*, 43(6), 9-19.
- White, B. (2015). Generational dynamics in agriculture: reflections on rural youth and farming futures. *Cahiers Agricultures*, 24(6), 330-334.

- Winters, P., Davis, B., Carletto, G., Covarrubias, K., Quiñones, E. J., Zezza, A., ... & Stamoulis, K. (2009). Assets, activities, and rural income generation: evidence from a multicountry analysis. *World Development*, 37(9), 1435-1452.
- World Economic Forum - WEF (2017), *The Future of Jobs and Skills in the Middle East and North Africa*, Cologny, World Economic Forum (WEF). www.weforum.org/docs/WEF_EGW_FOJ_MENA.pdf.
- World Food Programme (2020). WFP GHANA Country Brief January 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.wfp.org/countries/ghana>
- Yeboah, T., Sumberg, J., Flynn, J., & Anyidoho, N. A. (2016). *What is a desirable job? What makes a job desirable? Findings from a Q study with students and parents in rural Ghana*. European Journal of Development Research. doi:[10.1057/s41287-016-0006-y](https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-016-0006-y).

Appendices

Interview guiding questions (individual and FGDs)

Interview guide for household heads

Push and pull factors of youth's migration and turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban areas in Tuasa community

1. What caused the youth in your family to turn away from family farming?
2. Why do you think the youth in your family were attracted to non-farming opportunities in urban areas?

Coping strategies and livelihood approaches caused by youth's turn away from family farming in households in Tuasa community.

1. Have you had to adopt non-farming income generating activities because of your family's youth turn away from family farming?
2. Have your family had to downgrade your family farming operations because of youth migration?

The impact of youth migration on family farming sustainability in Tuasa community

1. Does your family's youth turn away from family farming for non-farming activities benefit your family farming activities? Please explain your answer.
2. How is your family farming activities affected by the youth migrating? Please explain your answer.
3. What impact do you think your family's youth turn away from family farming for non-farming activities will have on the the future of your family farming?

The extent to which the measures by government address declining sustainability of family farming and youth's turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban areas

1. Do you think government's efforts to address declining family farming are appropriate for the situation in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer
2. Do you think government's efforts to address youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming opportunities are appropriate for the situation in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer

Interview guide for farmer group members and agricultural extension officers

Push and pull factors of youth's migration and turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban areas in Tuasa community

1. What is causing the youth in Tuasa community to turn away from family farming?
2. Why do you think the youth in Tuasa community are attracted to non-farming opportunities in urban areas?

Coping strategies and livelihood approaches caused by youth's turn away from family farming of households in Tuasa community.

1. What changes has youth's turn away from family farming brought on family farm use in Tuasa community?
2. Have families in Tuasa community had to adopt non-farming income generating activities because of youth turn away from family farming?
3. Have households in Tuasa community downgraded their family farming operations because of youth turn away from family farming for employment in the city?

Effect of youth's turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban on sustainability of family farming in Tuasa community

1. Does the youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming employment opportunities in the city benefit family farming activities in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer.
2. Does the youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming employment opportunities in the city negatively affect family farming activities in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer.
3. What impact do you think youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming employment in cities will have on the future of family farming in Tuasa community?

The extent to which the measures by government address declining sustainability of family farming and youth's turn away from family farming for opportunities in urban areas

1. Do you think government's efforts to address declining family farming are appropriate for the situation in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer

2. Do you think government's efforts to address youth's turn away from family farming for non-farming opportunities are appropriate for the situation in Tuasa community? Please explain your answer

List of respondents

FGD (Men farmers group members)

Farmer 1	56	male	secondary	Yes
Farmer 2	28	male	basic	no
Farmer 3	37	male	basic	yes
Farmer 4	49	male	no	yes
Farmer 5	80	male	secondary	yes
Farmer 6	41	male	basic	yes

FGD Women farm group members

Name	Age	Sex	education	HH head
Farmer 1	30	Female	basic	no
Farmer 2	28	Female	no	no
Farmer 3	40	Female	secondary	yes
Farmer 4	35	Female	Secondary	no
Farmer 5	36	Female	no	yes
Farmer 6	45	Female	basic	yes

Migrated Youth Respondents

Name	Age	Sex	education
Youth respondent 1	20	Female	no
Youth respondent 2	27	Male	secondary
Youth respondent 3	22	Male	no
Youth respondent 4	19	Female	basic

Confidentiality/ Non-disclosure form

Responses from participants would be kept confidential by the researcher and the research assistant as stated in the non-disclosure form signed by the research assistant.

Non-Disclosure form

I Justice Aduko (Mphil) will help Yirimea Habeeb Sulemana with the research study titled Rural Youth Migration and Sustainability of Family Farming in Tuasa Community of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

My role will be to help him in data collection and any other form of support he will be needing for the successful completion of the research work.

In this role:

1. I will not disclose the names of any participants in the study.
2. I will not disclose personal information collected from any participants in the study.
3. I will not disclose any participant responses.
4. I will not disclose any data.
5. I will not discuss the research with anyone other than the researcher(s).
6. I will keep all paper information secured while it is in my possession.
7. I will keep all electronic information secured while it is in my possession.
8. I will return all information to the researcher when I am finished with my work.
9. I will destroy any extra copies that were made during my work.
10. Other (researcher add items if needed).



13th July, 2020

Signature Date

Researcher Signature Date

Full contact information of research assistant

Name: Justice Aduko

Phone: 0249836404

Email: adukojusticea@yahoo.com / adkjustice@gmail.com