



THE EFFECTS OF INTERNAL MIGRATION ON POVERTY REDUCTION IN GHANA

Awuse, N.

Department of Accountancy, Bolgatanga Polytechnic, Bolgatanga, Ghana.

akaare2002@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

In recent times, the relationship between internal migrations on poverty reduction is a matter of discussion amongst policy makers and researchers. This study examines internal migration which acts as a route out of poverty in areas where conservative poverty reduction policies have failed by drawing on empirical findings on the civil movement in Ghana. It also examines how internal migration lead to rural economic development. A proportionate sample size of 660 used for the migrants and their families. Purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data. Snowball sampling used for the selection of the population (migrants). Data collected from six regions, and thirty-eight districts in Ghana, using questionnaires and interviews. The data was analysed through descriptive statistic. In all, 660 questionnaires and interview with 40 items on each questionnaire prepared and given out. Out of the sample size of 560, only 480 of the questionnaire were actually retrieved representing 85.71%. The internal migration has a positive effects on poverty reduction for households in Ghana bringing about the provision of good drinking water, electricity extension, sanitation facilities, improved income, health insurance registration improved, better nutrition, saving, and investment opportunities, amongst others to the migrants, their families, and communities. The study recommended policies such as (welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency and empowerment), theoretical, and practical interventions to be implemented to maximise the effect of internal migration on poverty reduction in Ghana.

Keywords: internal, migration, poverty, poverty, reduction.

INTRODUCTION

Internal migration is attracting increasing attention among academics, researchers, development practitioners, and policy makers, many of who attribute the rapid growth of rural-urban migration in particular, to increasing unemployment and rural poverty in developing countries (Anarfi et al, 2001).

Internal movement can be in the form of the long or short term. Rural-urban migration is significant in rural development and poverty reduction in Ghana, (Abdul-Korah, 2007; Duodu, 2004).

The arrival of globalisation, urbanisation, and migration movements has been on the upsurge (Skeldon, 2005; De Haas, 2008). In Ghana, previous studies indicated that population arrangements are not only increasing, due to poverty, differentiating and urbanising (Awumbila



et al., 2014), and that their relationships with poverty reduction and wellbeing conclusions are multifaceted and mixed. The aggregate evidence through micro-studies and more extensive surveys migration reduce poverty, inequality and lead to the accumulation of household wealth and contribute to overall economic growth and development in both sending and receiving areas (Murrugarra *et al.* (2011); Islam *et al.*, (2008) and Farid *et al.*, 2009).

According to Kwankye and Tagoe, (2009); Quartey and Yambila, (2009); Awumbila and Ardiofio- Standoff, (2008), there is evidence indicated internal migration is increasing as poverty increases over the years.

People migrate for different purposes at different periods of time. Energetic and resourceful individuals migrate to urban areas in their quest to seek for better conditions of service for themselves and their families, to acquire different skills, advance innovative experiences, find a job or flee insecurity and disaster, or famine. Migration is an economic, social and political process that affects those who move, those who stay behind, and destinations. Internal migration based on voluntary and known choice, (Owusu *et al.*, 2008; 2007; Kubon, & Batigna. (2004), Kwankye *et al.*, 2007), Mensah-Bonsu, 2003.

Migration is a viable strategy for many impoverished groups across the country. Although it is not a cure for poverty, it has numerous benefits (Awuse, Agyei & Tandoh-Offin 2016), lured attention to the massive contributions migrant labour provides to the overall socio-economic development of Ghana. Again, Anderson, (2002) argues that rural-urban migration can bring many benefits to Ghana where there are low population density and poverty. Studies indicate that internal migration has some positive implications for poverty reduction (Castaldo *et al.*, 2012), however, Dang, 2003 provides different arguments to the contrary.

Evidence existed that substantial remittances and poverty reduction potential of internal migrants are more than the international movement, (Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008; Adams, Cuecuecha, & Page (2008)) which has a lot of limitations on travel. Nevertheless, there is not much attention is given to internal migration and poverty reduction phenomenon in Ghana. Unpredictably only a few lengthy articles have published on internal migration and its relationship with poverty reduction in Ghana. The reason why enough studies have not been carried out in Ghana on internal movement and poverty reduction is due to policy imperfection. This conclusion was arrived at by Mensah-Bonsu, 2003; Kwankye *et al.*, 2007).

Only handful studies, (Abdul-Korah, 2007; Duodu, 2004) have specifically studied the relations between internal migration and poverty reduction, in a real world, the significant domestic movement has some benefits and whether the degree of direct effect on migration outcomes, however, remains an open question.

The study of internal migration and its relations with poverty reduction in Ghana has explicitly overlooked the deficiencies of migration and poverty studies, for example, the studies had methodological flaws, including; research design and approach which influences the decision to make audio recordings, instead of video recordings. Again, the visual record is limited by the logical possibilities, to the participation framework and the relational behaviour of participants. Also, research design is limited in the value of the ethnographic information, and little attention paid to poverty reduction variables. In Ghana, there are numerous internal migration studies, but past studies overlooked topics like internal migration and how poverty can reduce through migration, special statistical treatments, significant implications, and so forth. Most existing



research on internal migration and poverty reduction studies is relatively on small samples which have made it challenging to conduct adequate investigations on internal migration and poverty reduction studies in Ghana.

The study comprises discussion on internal migration movement, poverty, empirical model of poverty reduction and effects of poverty reduction. The rest of the survey organised as follows: the research approach, study context, and data collection and analysis procedures discussed, poverty and poverty reduction and goal orientation. These themes would be useful for understanding the optimal way to decreasing poverty through internal migration.

In detailed, the research approach, study context, data collection and analysis procedures, model specification, discussed in Section 3. Then, data presentation and analysis revealed by applying it to examine internal migration and poverty reduction in Ghana. The paper concludes with the practical and research contributions are explained, and avenues for future research identified.

REVIEW ON INTERNAL IMMIGRATION IN GHANA

The decision to migrate from rural Ghana has often been a reaction to a mixture of factors, thus economic, landlessness, social, political, and environmental like poverty, and economic dislocations. According to Anarfi and Kwankye, (2003); Adu-Gyamfi, (2001); Anarfi et al. (2003); Anarfi and Kwankye, (2005), trade, urbanisation and increased of administrative sectors, agriculture, land degradation and rural poverty, through internal migration, are associated with these factors.

Thus people shift low to relatively high-income regions or from thickly to sparsely populated areas (De Haas, 2008). An upsurge in employment avenues (on farms), the use of modern equipment in the industry and higher wages from mines and ports in some areas made such regions economically attractive and therefore induced migration from other disadvantaged or resource-poor regions. Internal migrants earned income which can be used to acquire assets or send remittances (cash or kind) to support their household members left behind to enhance their lives (Kwankye et al., 2012; Adaawen and Owusu, 2013).

Most rural dwellers, whose workforce and natural resources were exhausted (Nabila, 1975, 1986; Mensah-Bonsu, 2003), and witnessed high population growth. The overall objective of the research is to investigate the interrelationship between internal migration and poverty reduction in Ghana. The study, therefore, is to collect and analyze the socio-economic and demographic data in order to understand the societal migration, and its effects on households. The study draws a conclusion and explores areas for future research. The study is intended to make a contribution to the presently small, but growing research area of migration and rural poverty, by providing further insight into the effects of internal migration.

Poverty in Ghana

The World Bank (2009) defined poverty as the lack of, or inability to achieve, a socially acceptable standard of living. Poverty accordingly, is explained as lack of food, shelter, job, clothing's, education, power, water, sanitation and representation among others. World Bank again, in August, 2008 released new estimates for extremely poor shown that 1.4 billion people lived in less than one \$ 1 a day. This new estimates are higher than previous. Again, latest statistics from World Bank, 2016 indicated that total number of poor increased by 2.5 million



from 766 to 768.5 million leaving the share of the global population that is considered extremely poor unchanged at 10.7 percent, international poverty line of \$1.90 /day. McKay, Pirttilä, & Tarp, (2015).

The Global Monitoring Report suggested in 2004 that Ghana should do well to improving the enabling environment for private sector development; strengthening capacity in the public sector and improving the quality of governance; scaling up investment in infrastructure and ensuring its effectiveness; and enhancing the effectiveness of service delivery in human development. This same points were re-echoed by President Obama when he visited Ghana.

Poverty reduction in Ghana by operational definition is the ability of the migrant or a person to afford food, education, and healthcare, do business, engage in agriculture, provide three square meals a day, do things that they could earn income that they were not able to do before migration. Aryeetey and Kanbur (2008) disclosed in their research that the three northern regions in Ghana were more endemic with Upper West being the worse with poverty 9 out of every 10 people living below the poverty accepted level. Again, poverty in Ghana is more severe in rural than in urban and lastly, the proportion of the poor population is increasing since 2012, Ghana Statistical Service, (2014).

Measurement of poverty in Ghana

Poverty is defined in absolute and relative terms. Absolute poverty is usually measured in real terms of a given level of goods ensuring minimum level subsistence, for instance, the value of basic food or the minimum income required to have decent lives, relative poverty is the standard of living defined in relation to the position of other people's income or expenditure distribution.

In Ghana, basic needs approach is the most widely used to setting poverty line. It considers expenditure / income necessary to obtain a given basket of goods that satisfies basic needs, mainly food, shelter and clothing.

This study made use of nationally defined poverty lines. Total real per capita expenditure was used as proxy for household standard of living (GSS, 2014). Households were considered in relation to their level of total expenditure (food and non-food) as poor or non-poor. Two poverty lines were identified thus lower poverty line and Upper poverty line. The Lower poverty line was set at GHs 288.4 per adult per year: This is equal to GHs 70 new Ghanaian Cedi, after inflated in 1999 to 2006 consumer price index (CPI), the line represents 37.8 percent of mean consumption levels in 2005/2006. This is expected to meet the nutritional value of household members. Persons whose expenditure falls below this line are extremely poor.

The upper poverty line was set at GHs 370.89 cedis per adult per year. This equivalent to GHs 90 used previously inflated with the 1999 to 2006 CPI. It represents 48.6 percent of mean consumption levels in 2005/2006.

In looking at poverty levels, this study confirms that between 1992 and 2013 Ghana's national level of poverty fell by more than half (from 56.5% to 24.2%), the MDG1 has been achieved. Nevertheless, the annual rate of reduction of the poverty level slowed substantially from an average of 1.8 percentage points per year in the 1990s to 1.1 percentage point per year reduction since 2006, Berg, Ostry, and Zettelmeyer (2012).

Equally, the rate of reduction of extreme poverty has not reduced since the 1990s and impressive progress in cutting extreme poverty was achieved even since 2006 (cut from 16.5% to 8.4%).



This means that relatively more progress has been made for the extreme poor in recent years than those living close to the poverty line.

Effects of Poverty Reduction in Ghana

In particular, it explored empirical literature on how poverty alleviation strategies and programmes have alleviated poverty levels worldwide, continentally and nationally. Variables that contribute to the effective implementation of poverty alleviation (poverty reduction) programmes and policies analysed.

According to GSS (2016) revealed that the Northern, Upper East, and Upper West regions continue to have the highest poverty rates. However, substantial progress has been achieved since 2006 in the Upper East region as poverty has dropped from 72.9% in 2006 to 44.4% in 2013. Of great concern is the Northern region which saw its high level of poverty fall only marginally from 55.7% to 50.4%. Since the 1990s overall, the Northern region has seen the smallest progress in poverty reduction, (Dollar, Kleineberg and Kraay, 2013).

Following the above, a similar yet more impressive pattern is observed for extreme poverty over the period. The incidence of extreme poverty declines substantially from 33.2% in 1992 to 8.4% in 2013. Unlike poverty as a whole, the rate of reduction of extreme poverty has barely slowed since the 1990s. Indeed, as a proportion of total extreme poverty levels, recent progress has been impressive as Ghana has managed to halve extreme poverty in just the most recent period between 2006 and 2013, (Berg et al. (2012); Ostry et al. (2014); Dabla-Norris et al., (2015).

Sachs (2005) has established that worldwide there are 850 million people who are destitute or poverty stricken. Furthermore, 800 million people die per year worldwide due to lack of food sustenance (Sachs, 2005). With the ever-escalating world food prices, fuel and raw materials it means that more poor people will continue to die.

In addition, it has been observed that even a greater challenge lies beyond what poverty figures can convey and measure namely: poverty breeds a growing sense of powerlessness, helplessness, hopelessness, indignity and worthlessness, of being unable to think productively or creatively, plan or dream beyond the daily struggle to survive.

In this study, poverty reduction variables used included income, job/employment, education, health insurance registration, housing, agricultural production such as rearing animals and food production, accesses to loans, extension of electricity to rural areas, acquisition of new knowledge and skills and other factors. These factors have become common to migrants and their families due to migration. However, a great number of migrants experienced also negative effects such as attracting diseases, becoming drugs addicts, prostitutes, homelessness, hopelessness and many other factors, (Cooke, et al. 2016).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

We collected primary data which consisted of demographic and socio-economic information on households surveyed in the migrants' communities. Data was also collected on the indicators of poverty reduction, which include access to resources and basic infrastructure. The sample technique was snowball targeted migrants and their families only. Both questionnaire and interview schedule made up of 40 items on each. The researchers sample size was 560 of which



480 were retrieve representing 85.71%.

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research approaches in revealing data from migrants, general public and families. The qualitative approach enabled the study to focus on subjective information, such as experiences and opinions on the phenomena whilst the quantitative approach provided a platform for the use of statistical analysis to establish the relationships between the co-variables. The purposive sampling technique was found appropriate since the study's research design was based on the gathering of qualitative data and focused on the exploration and interpretation of experiences and perceptions regarding the need to migrate in Ghana.

In particular, the concentration is on quantitative, objective measures of poverty. Subjective and qualitative measures of income or consumption poverty receive only brief treatment, as do measures related to nonmonetary dimensions (such as health, education, and assets).

The questionnaire survey was used mainly to collect numerical data about households that have been affected by rural-urban migration, and also to quantify some of the issues of the research. The survey questionnaire had 40 questions, which invited information on household socio-economic, and demographic data.

These regions are set to explore the rural development and poverty reduction for two reasons. A large number of the rural population lacked access to employment and affordability to most of the facilities like electricity extension, rural housing, and, portable drinking water. In the rural areas, a greater need for the people to move around the cities for jobs and second, the source regions had a high prevalence of rural poverty (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

Whereas the number of internal migrants is increasing recently, and macroeconomic variables indicate a reduction in poverty level was decreasing last decade, most communities now have at least a migrant in every household (Ackah and Asiamah, 2014 and Klapper et al., 2016).

Model Specification

The most common method used to measure poverty in Ghana is the head count ratio (H) while the poverty head count is the number of people in a population who are poor, the head count ratio is the fraction or percentage of the poor defined as $H = (q/n)$.

Where q is the number below the poverty line and n is the size of population. The head count ratio measures the incidence of poverty. However, there is a type of poverty index that does not only measure incidence of poverty but as well the depth and severity of poverty. This is called

Foster et al. (1984) index (pa), given as: $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left(\frac{z-y_i}{z} \right) \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 1}$

where z is the poverty line; y is the welfare measure, say total income/expenditure of household. Thus z-y is the proportionate short fall below the poverty line. a is a parameter which measures the degree of poverty which takes a value of 0, 1, 2 depending on what we are interested in: if a = 0, pa reduces to the head count; if a = 1, pa measures the depth of poverty, on the other hand, if a = 2 pa measures the severity of poverty. Q and n are as defined.

When a = 0,1, and 2, poverty measure becomes the headcount ratio, poverty gap ratio and the severity of poverty, respectively. Instead of income, one can use consumption to measure poverty. Consumption is more widely used than income. The methodology presented in this section does not change when we replace income by consumption. From poverty analysis,

ISSN: 2408-7920



literature proceeds to find out how poverty has been reduced through special problems.

In an example of internal migration where the dependent variable is internal migration and poverty reduction or not reduction in poverty about domestic movement, the linear probability model depicted it as $P_i = E(Y = 1 | X_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i$.

Where X is the internal migration and $Y = 1$ means that poverty reduction among the family members. Let us consider the following representation of movement.

$$P_i = E(Y = 1 | X_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-B_1 + B_2 X_i)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-Z_i)} \quad (2)$$

Where $Z_i = B_1 + B_2 X_i$. This is known as (cumulative) logistic distribution function. Here Z_i ranges from negative finite to positive finite, P ranges between 0 and 1, P , is non-linearity relations to (e. I). $X_{(i)}$ this satisfying the z condition required for the probability model.

Here, P_i is the probability of migration reducing poverty, and it is given by equation 4.23 which is recalled below

$$P_i = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-Z_i)} \quad (3)$$

then $(1-P_i)$, the probability of not reducing poverty is $(1-P_i)$, the likelihood of not migrating is estimated as follow

$$(1 - P_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(Z_i)} \quad (4)$$

The Data Collection

The study was conducted in the six regions to collect information related to the study. These are Greater Accra, Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Western, Eastern and Central. Semi-structured interviews and questionnaire were the instruments of data collection. Semi-structured interviews had some advantages included the researcher some degree of springiness, depth, and control, and allow the researcher to investigate interviewees where necessary (Myers and Newman, 2007). Such interviews are suitable for exploring complex issues, as they can generate rich data (Schultze and Avital, 2011).

Interview guides made up of open-ended questions developed and tailored to three stakeholder groups: migrants themselves, and their families. The interview guide introduces the study, whereas the second and third speak to interviewees' experiences about internal migration and poverty reduction.

The fieldwork took place at the thirty-eight districts and towns in the six regions between October 2017 and February 2018. The six regions and 38 districts used purposive sampling and snowball sampling for identifying the migrants in their various places. The purposive sampling was used to identify migrants' concentrated areas in Ghana. The procedure used was representatives of the migrants' and migrants interviewed, and some were asked to fill the questionnaire and interpreted to those who cannot read nor write. The choice of interviewees was purposively grounded on relevance to the subject under investigation and not representativeness. Overall, 660 questionnaire and semi-structured interviews with 40 items approved with the sample size of 560. Duration of meetings ranged from 31 minutes and one hour. The languages



of the meeting Twi, Fante or Akan, Gonja, Dagani, Frafra, Dangati, and transcribed into English for analysis.

A central problem encountered during fieldwork was access to migrants at the destinations for an interview. Second problem comprised of identifying and recruiting suitable and willing interviewers at the study sites. In both cases, information was key to informal contacts helped to facilitate access.

The Data analysis

The collected database developed, frequencies and percentages established after the data gathered, edited and coded. Statistical analysis was carried out using the probit analysis procedure in SPSS Version 22. The use of the test enabled the study to assess statistical significance and the association between the various variables. For the qualitative findings, descriptive analysis employed. The comprehensive nature of the study required significant effort in data administration including the management of a voluminous data set and combining data from multiple survey assessments. Furthermore, the data analysis for this study was performed using the multivariate analysis technique

The respondents interviewed in the areas of internal migration, migrants' family members, domestic remittances, access to employment, use of payments at the household level and rural development in the six regions.

FINDINGS

A database developed, frequencies and percentages established after the data gathered, edited and coded. Statistical analysis was carried out using the probit analysis procedure in SPSS Version 22. The use of the test enabled the study to assess statistical significance and the association between the various variables. For the qualitative findings, descriptive analysis employed.

Demographic Characteristics of Internal Migrants

Females and males in the survey formed 24 percent and 76.2 percent of the 626 respondents. The migration ages of the respondents in the study ranged from 18 to 27 years with the small number of them being persons below 38+ years. The respondents who were aged less than 30 years formed 64 percent while 9 percent and 28 percent were 31-45 years and above 45 years respectively. Concerning of educational attainment, the results of the data analysis indicate that one out of eight respondents (12.5%) had primary education. It also found that 55.4 percent and 22.3 percent of them stated that they had attained secondary and tertiary levels respectively. It found that only one out every ten migrants in the study (9.9%) did not have formal education.

The respondents ages show, a substantial number of the respondents fell within age ranges: 18-27 (64%), 28-37 (27%) and 49 + (9.5%) could not tell their age. Together, the three age groups constituted 74%. Those who were more than 49 years were few possibly because many of them were growing old and, therefore, did not see the need to migrant to other places in search for greener pastures and preferred to stay home than to move around after several years of waiting away from home. The age of the internal migrants who have constituted 64% of the migrants



belonging to the youth who move around seriously from rural Ghana to urban areas to search for non-existing jobs.

Model estimates

The Probit model measurements in Table 1 showed factors of the parameters were statistically significant and positive at 0.05 percent, dummy variables with 0 means No and 1 means Yes, prior expectations signs of being positive or negative which means a one Cedi increased in the benchmark increases the probability that internal migration would be in the better adequately compensated. These confirmed the assumptions that rural-urban migrants' socio-economic conditions enhanced. Some of the coefficients were statistically significant and negative at five percentages (5%), thereby implied to the specific parameters. All essential variables have positive associations with the dependent variables as expected.

This can be interpreted, for example, that a one unit change in the level of income variable, increases the probability of educational status by 0.012. Similarly, being of the health status *decreases* the likelihood of condition by 0.240

Table 1 Parameter Estimates of the Probit Model

Variable type	Parameter	Dummy Variable	Prior expectation	Estimate
Categorical	Educational status before migration	1	+	0.097 (0.038) **
Categorical	Level of income	1	-	0.056 (0.039)
Categorical	Educational status after migration	1	+	0.012 (0.049)
Categorical	Improved housing status	1	-	-0.240 (0.061)*
Categorical	Improved health status	1	+	0.107 (0.038)*
Categorical	Married because of migration	1	+	-0.254 (0.038)*
Categorical	Availability of water	1	-	0.046 (0.039)
Categorical	Possible of being engaged at the destination	1	-	0.285 (0.04)
Categorical	Reasons for escaping poverty	1	+	0.045 (0.019)**
Categorical	Enough resources for training	1	-	0.029 (0.029)
Categorical	Meaning of economic freedom	1	+	-0.014 (0.021)



Categorical	Advantages of internal migration	1	-	-0.156 (0.032)*
Categorical	Remittances does not reduce poverty?	1	+	-0.272 (0.04)*
Categorical	Improved savings status	1	+	-0.044 (0.053)
Categorical	Availability of electricity	1	-	-0.094 (0.045)**
Categorical	Religious reasons	1	+	-0.105 (0.028)*
Categorical	Cultural reasons	1	-	0.00 (0.039)
Continuous	Age of migrant	0	+	-0.102 (0.03)*
	Intercept			-0.921 (0.033)*

* $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$

Standard errors in parenthesis

The values which put in parenthesis are the coefficients obtained from the regression analysis and the expected signs.

The table described the parameters of the probit model, the dummy variables, prior expectations, coefficients of the estimates and significant values.

Table 1. These estimated values revealed the contributions each of the variables makes to the relationship between internal migration and its effects on poverty reduction of migrants' household members. From the probit analysis, the following variables were identified to be significant. Improved level of education (0.011); improved health status (0.107); jobs at destination (0.285); remittances (0.045). These variables were positive implying that their existence will affect the social and economic conditions of migrants' household members. The second group of variables in the table found to be negative but significant include; housing status (-0.240); marriage (-0.254); effects of migration (-0.156); remittances reduce poverty (-0.272); electricity (-0.094); religious reasons (-0.105); age of migrant; (-0.102).

Table 4.5 shows the results of the probit model estimates which evaluates the influences of internal migration on the social conditions of migrants the reason for objective one. Internal movement plays a vital role in poverty reduction. Immigration is a socio-demographic process. A long time ago, people intentionally or involuntarily migrated from society to another to seek for greener pastures. Occasionally, people move for natural reasons such as soil erosion, river erosion, floods, and drought and sometimes for different man made causes.

Discussion

This section presents the results of data obtained in both descriptive statistics and quantitative manner. In all, 760 migrants and their families sampled for the study. However, after removing questionnaires with incomplete responses, the study obtained 626 migrants and their family members representing a response rate of 82.37%.

The enthusiasms for this paper contribute to the ongoing dialogue on the internal migration on poverty reduction using probit analysis. The analysis illustrates how the connections between



social and economic factors play in reducing poverty among the migrants and their families. The findings from the report, notwithstanding the critical contests of the unreliable availability of jobs in the cities and towns where most of these people migrated and uneven distribution of jobs across the regions, relatively stable business network has developed in the form of small business enterprises and their evidence of a growing uptake. A possible explanation for the increasing take-up of migrants' activities in the cities is the effectiveness of the ethnic integration of Ghanaians in addressing their differences if any and varied interests of the opinion leaders.

The significant and positive coefficient of the household education variable is indeed good. Education increases the stock of human capital, which in turn increase the labour productivity and earnings. It also asserts that education is essential for the progressive development of agriculture since access to relevance sources of information can increase one's chances of obtaining credit and adopting modern technology leading to increases in poverty reduction.

Another advantage the literate has over the illiterate counterpart is that he/she has greater chances of getting a well -paid job which he/she can even combine with farming or trade to diversify their income.

According to Datt and Jolliffe (2005) have established a positive effect of education on the household's reduction of poverty. However, Townsend, Porter, & Mawdsley, (2002) found that primary education has no effects on poverty reduction. Prieto-Rodriguez and Rodríguez-Gutiérrez (2000) argues that since labour is the main asset of the poor, increasing education of the poor will tend to reduce poverty.

The significant and positive sign of the level of income variable is not surprising since it is expected that the probability of being poor would be greater in the rural areas than in the urban areas. There are more job opportunities and infrastructural facilities in the later than the former.

Poverty Reduction

The growth elasticity of poverty Reduction (GEPR) is the percentage reduction in the poverty rate that is associated with a percentage change in mean (per capita) income. A numerical example clarifies the concept. In Ghana between 2005 and 2012 the GEPR assumed value 0.7. This value implies that a 1 percent increase in per capita income was associated with a 0.7 percent decrease in the poverty reduction rate. The highest poverty reduction, 13.0 percent, was recorded between 1991 and 1998. Since then, the speed of poverty reduction has declined, to 11.0 percent in 1998–2005 and to 7.1 percent in 2005–13. This is despite increasing GDP growth. Extreme poverty declined more rapidly. The share of the population with consumption below the food poverty line declined from 37.6 percent in 1991 to 9.6 percent in 2012, (IMF 2015) and Osei (2012).

However, in Ghana, having a job is often not sufficient to bring workers out of poverty because the returns to work tend to be extremely low. It is growing earnings from work that make a difference in the effort to escape poverty. Family composition and demographics are also important because they affect the dependency ratio, that is, the number of consumers relative to the number of earners in the household. Azevedo et al., (2013), Jedwab, and Osei (2012), in a quantitative analysis, suggest that changes in labour income accounted for nearly half the reduction in poverty in Ghana between 2005 -2013.

Services account for more than half of per capita GDP growth. The main driver of the relative



growth of the service sector, accounting for 23.9 percent of total GDP growth, was a heterogeneous group of “other activities”.

The main findings of this study indicates that poverty reduction drivers of Ghana’s recent success described three major poverty reduction of the last two decades that may have played a key role in reducing poverty and increasing consumption: structural transformation, the educational achievements of the labour force, and effective urbanization. Our analysis quantified the extent to which each of these factors has contributed to poverty reduction in Ghana and, thereby, to identify the main drivers of poverty reduction, Annim, Mariwah, and Sebu (2012).

The findings of my study also show that the beneficiaries of remittances in some households surveyed spend the remittances mostly on daily needs including food, which improves food security and nutritional status; medical expenses or education which can improve the livelihood prospects of future generations; leasing land which can improve the livelihood prospects of future generations; leasing land or livestock, hiring of farm labour, and the purchase of cash inputs for agriculture, which results in better cultivation practices and higher yields; remittances are also spent on other livelihood strategies such as petty trading.

Poverty indices across the ten regions for 2006 and 2013 indicated Northern, Upper West and Upper East regions have the highest rates of poverty depth and severity. Yet, these three regions secured the largest reductions in poverty depth and severity since 2006. Notwithstanding such progress, the results indicated that the poor live deep in poverty in these regions and that there are a significant number of poor individuals with consumption far below the poverty line on average people in the Upper West Region live a third below the poverty line. Statistics indicated some increases in the poverty depth over this period in some southern regions, including Western, Central, Volta, and Eastern, which means on average the poor in those regions are now living deeper in poverty than in 2006.

Contribution of Knowledge

The results of the survey hoped to contribute to and also help to advance the existing knowledge (theoretical and conceptual), and debate in the relationship between internal migration and poverty reduction in developing economies such as Ghana and also serve as a source of literature since research is scanty in the area. The results can be used to refine/modify policies on internal migration courses and programmes to promote researchers’ interest in migration studies.

Then, the significance of internal migration as a theoretical framework revealed by applying it to explore how national movement can reduce poverty in Ghana. The study concludes with the practical and research contributions are delineated, and avenues for future research identified. The study seeks to contribute to knowledge by examining the effects of internal migration on poverty reduction on migrants’.

The success of such initiatives not determined by the properties of the technology per se, but by the cooperation of the contested interests within a systems theory network (Heeks and Stanforth, 2015).

Regarding research, the study demonstrates that the internal migration helps address the possible shortcomings of frameworks, such as push-pull theory or the migration syndrome model, which tend to focus on the migration-development at the expense of the social systems.



CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study considered main factors responsible for internal migration and its influence on poverty reduction in Ghana. The findings show mixed outcome recorded as some migrants' agreed that positive benefits were associated with it while some few individual migrants had negative impacts on internal migration as some of them went home with diseases, despite the rapid increase in the number. Although poverty reduction is rare with internal movement, it's better relatively, with growing number of evidence, development projects initiated by hometown associations migrants are examples. In sum, potential poverty reduction factors are likely to join cooperation if it is accessible in a way that is consistent with their welfares. The study contributes toward the appreciative of the undercurrents of the internal migration on poverty reduction issues such as the extension of electricity to various houses, housing projects, toilet and sanitary facilities, good drinking water, development of small enterprises, hairdressing, and tailoring shops among others in contexts. The study also confirms the value of push-pull theories as a theoretical framework for examining and understanding the concepts of internal migration and poverty reduction research.

During discussions, community members stressed that the lack of employment opportunities and poverty, underpin rural-urban migration in the villages. They emphasized adequate job creation, which will provide employment for the youth and adults, and thereby provide income and curb the drift to urban areas. Others suggested skills training for the youth in order to equip them with alternate livelihood strategies.

Recent years show increasing poverty in the coastal zone and increasing urban poverty; some of this is linked to those without work. The limited employment creation in Ghana has been another important deficiency.

REFERENCES

- Abdul-Korah, G. (2007). 'Where Is Not Home?': Dagaaba Migrants in the Brong-Ahafo Region, 1980 to the Present'. *African Affairs* 106:71-94.
- Ackah, C. and Asiamah, J. P. (2014). Financial regulation in Ghana: Balancing inclusive growth with financial stability (ODI Work. 1–24).
- Adams, R. H. J., Cuecuecha, A., & Page, J. (2008). The Impact of Remittances on Poverty and Inequality in Ghana. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper* 4732, 2008.
- Adams, R., Cuecuecha, A., & Page, J. (2009). Remittances, consumption and investment in Ghana. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, 4515.
- Adaawen, S. A., & Owusu, B. (2013). North-South migration and remittances in Ghana. *African Review of Economics and Finance*, 5 (1), 29-45
- Anarfi, J. K. (2001). Migration and livelihoods in the era of AIDS: a West African focus with emphasis on Ghana. *Institute of African Studies Research Review*, 17(1), 17-24.
- Anderson, J. A. (2002). *Going places, staying home: rural-urban connections and the significance of land in Buhera district, Zimbabwe*. sn].
- Annim, S., S. Mariwah, and J. Sebu (2012). 'Spatial Inequality and Household Poverty in Ghana'. *Economic Systems*, (36): 487–505.
- Aryeetey, E., and Kanbur, R. (2008). The economy of Ghana: analytical perspectives on



- stability, growth & poverty.
- Awumbila, M., Benneh, Y, Teye, J.K, and Atiim, G (2014). Across Artificial Borders: An Assessment of Labour Migration in the ECOWAS Region. Brussels: ACP Observatory on Migration.
- Awumbila, M., Owusu, G. and Teye, J.K. (2014) ‘Can Rural-Urban Migration into Slum Reduce Poverty? Evidence from Ghana’ Migrating Out of Poverty Working Paper 13, University of Sussex.
- Awumbila, M., & Ardayfio-Schandorf. (2008). Gendered poverty, migration and livelihood Strategies of female porters in Accra, Ghana. *Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift-Norwegian Journal of Geography*, 62 (3), 171-179.
- Awuse N. Agyei J. & Tandoh-Offin P. (2016). The Cost-Benefit Analysis of Migration From Northern to Southern Ghana. *Researchjournal's Journal of Economics* 4(5), 1-15
- Azevedo, J. P., Inchauste, G., Olivieri, S., Saavedra, J., & Winkler, H. (2013). *Is labor income responsible for poverty reduction? A decomposition approach*. The World Bank.
- Beegle, K, Christiaensen L., Dabalen A., and Gaddis I. (2016). Poverty in a Rising Africa. Africa Poverty Report. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Berg, A, Ostry, J.D., Zettelmeyer, J., (2012). What Makes Growth Sustained? *Journal of Development Economics*, 98(2): 149–166.
- Castaldo, A., P. Deshingkar and A. McKay, (2012). Internal migration, remittances and Poverty: Evidence from Ghana and India. The University of Sussex, Migrating Out of Poverty Working Paper, Falmer.
- Cooke, E., Hague, S., & McKay, A. (2016). The Ghana poverty and inequality report: Using the 6th Ghana living standards survey. *University of Sussex*.
- Dabla-Norris, M. E., Kochhar, M. K., Suphaphiphat, M. N., Ricka, M. F., & Tsounta, E. (2015). *Causes and consequences of income inequality: a global perspective*. International Monetary Fund.
- Datt, G., & Jolliffe, D. (2005). Poverty in Egypt: Modeling and policy simulations. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 53(2), 327-346.
- De Haas H. (2008). Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective. IMI Working Paper. No.9.
- De Haas, H. (2007). The impact of international migration on social and economic development in Moroccan sending regions: A review of the empirical literature. *International Migration Institute, Working Paper*, 3
- Dollar, D., Kleineberg, T., Kraay, A. (2013). Growth still is good for the poor (No. WPS6568). The World Bank.
- Duodu, I. A. (2004). Out-migration, Farm Labour Supply and Agricultural Production Around Aburi. *Unpublished Undergraduate Long Essay submitted to the Department of Geography and Resource Development. Accra, University of Ghana*.
- Farid, K. S., Mozumdar, L., Kabir, M. S. & Hossain, K. B. (2009). Trends in international Migration and remittance flow: Case of Bangladesh. *Journal of Bangladesh Agricultural University*, 7(2), 387–394.
- Foster, J. E., J. Greer, and E. Thorbecke. 1984. “A Class of Decomposable Poverty Indices.” *Econometrica*, 52(3): 761–66.



- Ghana Statistical Service. (2014). The Ghana Living Standard Survey Round 6 (GLSS - 6) Report. 2006-2013
- Ghana Statistical Service (2007). Pattern and Poverty Trends in Ghana: 1991-2006 Accra - Ghana: Ghana Statistical Service.
- Harry, R., Sewchurran, K., & Brown, I. (2014). Introducing a mobile payment system to an Emerging economy's mobile phone subscriber market. An actor-network perspective. *The Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries*, 62, 1–26.
- Heeks, R. (2013). Actor-network theory for development (Actor Netw. Theory Dev. Work.
- Heeks, R., & Stanforth, C. (2015). Technological change in developing countries: Opening the black box of the process using actor-network theory. *Development Studies Research*, 2, 33–50. doi:10.1080/21665095.2015.1026610
- ILO (2013). Report of the Conference, ICLS/19/2013/3 (2-11 October, 2013). 9th *International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva*.
- International Monetary Fund (2015). 'Ghana'. IMF Country Report 15/103. Washington, DC: IMF.
- Islam, M. M., Alli, R. N., Salehin, M. M., & Islam, A. H. M. S. (2008). Rural women poverty: A study on the role of RDRS for poverty alleviation in Bangladesh. *Journal of Bangladesh Agricultural University*, 2, 6(2), 415–421.
- Jedwab, R., and R. Osei (2012). 'Structural Change in Ghana 1960–2010'. Institute for International Economic Policy Working Paper. Washington, DC: Institute for International Economic Policy, George Washington University.
- Kubon, & Batigna. (2004). *The effect of rural Out-Migration on agriculture in Salaga (East Gonja) district. A case of Kpandai*. The University of Ghana.
- Klapper, L., El-Zoghbi, M., & Hess, J. (2016). Achieving the sustainable development goals: The role of financial inclusion. Washington, DC: UNSGSA/CGAP.
- Kwankye, S. O. and Tagoe, C. A. (2009). 'City Life outside the Home: The Experiences of independent Child Migrants in Ghana', in Anarfi, J. K. and Kwankye, S.O. (eds.). *Independent Migration of Children in Ghana*, University of Ghana Press, Accra, 132-170.
- Kwankye, S. O., Anarfi, J. K., Tagoe, C. A., & Castaldo, A. (2007). Coping strategies of independent child migrants from northern Ghana to southern cities. *Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty Working Paper Series, University of Sussex*.
- Massey, D. (1999). Why does immigration occur? A theoretical synthesis. In: De Wind, C. and Kasinitz, P. (Eds.). *The Handbook of International Migration: The American Experience*. Russell Sage Foundation, 34-52
- Matavire, R., & Brown, I. (2013). Profiling grounded theory approaches in information Systems research. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 22, 119–129. doi:10.1057/ejis.2011.35
- McKay, A., Pirttilä, J. & Tarp, F., (2015). Ghana: Poverty reduction over thirty years. UNU-WIDER Working Paper 2015(052) Helsinki: UNU-WIDER.



- Mensah -Bonsu, A. (2003). Migration and environmental pressure in northern Ghana Ph.D. dissertation. Amsterdam: Vrije Universiteit.
- Murrugarra, E., Larrison, J and Sasin, J. (eds.) (2011) *Migration and Poverty: Towards Better Opportunities for the Poor*. World Bank.
- Myers, M. D., & Newman, M. (2007). The qualitative interview in IS research: Examining The craft. *Information and Organization*, 17, 2–26. doi: [10.1016/j.infoandorg.2006.11.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infoandorg.2006.11.001)
- Nabila, J. S. (1986). Rural migration and its implications for rural development in Ghana. *Rural Development in Ghana, ed. CK Brown Accra: Ghana Universities Press, 1986, 75-89.*
- Orlikowski, W. J., & Baroudi, J. J. (1991). Studying information technology in organisations : Research approaches and assumptions. *Information Systems Research*, 2, 1–28.
- Osei, R. (2012). ‘Aid, Growth and Private Capital Flows to Ghana’. WIDER Working Paper 2012/22. Helsinki: UNU-WIDER.
- Ostry, J D, Berg, A., Tsangarides, C.G., (2014). Redistribution, Inequality, and Growth, IMF Staff Discussion Note 14/02.
- Owusu, G., Agyei-Mensah, S. and Lund, R. (2008) ‘Slums of hope and slums of despair: Mobility and livelihoods in Nima, Accra’, *NorskGeografiskTidsskrift*, 62:180-190.
- Prieto-Rodriguez, J., & Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, C. (2000). *Participation of married women in the labour market and the added worker effect'in europe* (No. 2000-12). IRISS at CEPS/INSTEAD.
- Quartey, P. and Yabila, E. (2009), Cost-benefits of Child Migration in Ghana: The Case of Child Migrants from Northern Ghana; in *Independent Migration of Children in Ghana*, edited by Anarfi, J. K. and Kwankye, S. O.
- Ratha, D. & Shaw, W. (2007). South-South Migration and Remittances. World Bank Working Paper, 102. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Ravenstein, E. G. (1889). The laws of migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society* 52(2), 241-305.
- Sachs, J.D,(2005). Can Extreme Poverty be Eliminated? *Scientific American* 56-65
- Skeldon, R. (2005). *Globalization, Skilled Migration and Poverty Alleviation: Brain Drains in Context* (Sussex: Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty).
- Schultze, U., & Avital, M. (2011). Designing interviews to generate rich data for information Systems research. *Information and Organization*, 21, 1–16. doi: [10.1016/j.infoandorg.2010.11.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infoandorg.2010.11.001)
- Srivastava, R. (2005) ‘India: internal migration and its links with poverty and development’. In *Migration, Development and Poverty Reduction in Asia*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.
- Townsend, J. G., Porter, G., & Mawdsley, E. (2002). The role of the transnational community of non-government organizations: governance or poverty reduction?. *Journal of International Development*, 14(6), 829-839.
- Walsham, G. (1993). *Interpreting information systems in organisations* (1st ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- World Bank. (2014). *Mobile at the base of the pyramid: Ghana, Mozambique, Nigeria, Zambia Summary Report*. Washington, DC.