IFAD – Office of Evaluation

Working paper: non-beneficiary survey in UWR

Interim Evaluation of UWADEP

Roger Blench Tamale, Sunday, 01 January 2006

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1. Introduction

UWADEP (Upper West Agricultural Development Project) was an IFAD project that was operational from 1996 to December 2004. To assess the impact of the project effectively, it should ideally be measured both against a baseline survey of potential beneficiaries prior to the start of the project and against non-beneficiaries once the project is complete. A baseline survey was conducted for UWADEP in 1996, but was not based on stratified random sampling of target populations (Nornoo 1999). A new survey was carried out in April-May 2005 conducted by Hippolyte Bayor (2005) analysing retrospective perceptions of change by beneficiaries, and a small sample of non-beneficiaries was included. A fresh, larger-scale survey of non-beneficiaries, preferably also in settlements where no NGOs were operating, was conducted between the 14th and 24th of June 2005 in four districts of UWR. 133 households were censused and responded to a variety of questions about changes in their life and production system since 1995, i.e. just before UWADEP became operational. This working paper presents the results of that survey with some interpretation of the results.

Details of the survey are given in the Appendix. Appendix Table 2 shows the numbers of interviews, the districts and villages where they were conducted and their distribution. The survey was a single page and was not intended to seek numerical information, except in the case of household size and structure, making it easier to answer rapidly.

UWR region is in the extreme northwest of Ghana and has an overall land area of 18,475 km² divided into five districts as follows;

Table 1. UWR population and density by district, 2000

District	Capital	Population	Land area, km ²	Persons/km ²
Wa	Wa	224,066	5899.0	38.0
Nadowli	Nadowli	82,716	2742.5	30.2
Sissala	Tumu	85,442	7115.0	12.0
Jirapa-Lambussie	Jirapa	96,834	1051.2	92.1
Lawra	Lawra	87,525	1667.6	52.5
Total		576583	18475.3	31.2

Source: GSS (2002)

2. Profile of interviewees

The policy in choosing respondents was to interview household heads or responsible individuals, since many actual households are away on labour migration. The mean age of the interviewees was 46.2 years (range 20-98) and some (66.2%) were household heads. 112 (84%) were male and 21 female (16%) reflecting single mothers, widows as well as those whose husbands have gone south and never returned. UWR is an ethnically complex region and the survey attempted to capture this diversity. Table 2 shows the ethnic groups of those interviewed.

Table 2. Ethnic group of interviewees

Language	No.	%
Dagaare	57	42.9
Kasem	1	0.8
Lobi	5	3.8
Sissala	42	31.6
Waale	25	18.8

3. Household structures

Households and family structures in UWR are dominated by migration. No family is without some members away and the percentage away reflects the stresses on food availability in a particular district. Table 3 shows the sample size for each district, the numbers of migrants per household, mean number of household

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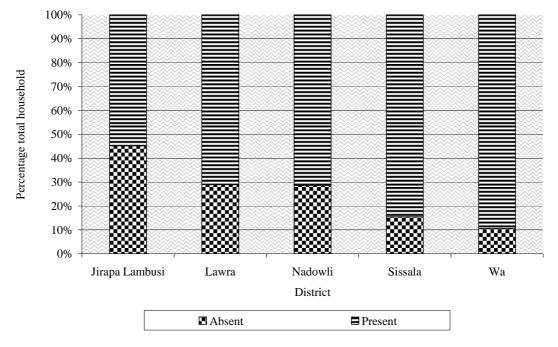
members present and both represented as a percentage of the entire household (i.e. those present and on migration) and Figure 1 shows these figures as a bar chart.

Table 3. Household size and migrant numbers

		Migrants	%	Household members	%	
District	No.	per household		present in UWR		Total
Jirapa Lambusi	9	9.3	45.2	11.3	54.8	20.7
Lawra	32	3.5	28.9	8.5	71.1	12.0
Nadowli	8	3.3	28.6	8.1	71.4	11.4
Sissala	44	5.0	15.5	27.3	84.5	32.3
Wa	40	1.6	10.7	13.2	89.3	14.8
Total	133	3.8	18.9	16.3	81.1	20.1

Overall household size is slightly larger than in Upper East (17.7) and although one figure exceeds any in UER for percentage migration, the total rate is in UWR is well below UER (18.9 vs. 33.4%). It is also no accident that the very large household size in Sissala District reflects its low population density (Table 1), whereas the extremely high migration rate for Jirapa Lambusi reflects all too well, the high population densities for this district. Migration is a well-established tradition and many plantations in the humid zone of Ghana depend heavily on this movement. Low-paid jobs in the urban sector are also very much the preserve of migrant northerners. Contributions to household budgets vary; some migrants regularly send back food and money, others forget after some years and choose to establish themselves permanently in the south.

Figure 1. Mean household size and percentage migrants in UWR districts



Migration has an important impact on household structure, as men migrate preferentially and women thus outnumber men in every district. Table 4 shows the structure of households in the five districts studied.

Table 4. Structure of households present in UWR

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District	No.	Men	%	Women	%	Children	%	Total
Jirapa Lambusi	9	2.8	24.5	3.3	29.4	5.2	46.1	11.3
Lawra	32	2.8	32.2	2.8	33.3	3.1	36.3	8.5
Nadowli	8	3.4	42.2	4.1	50.8	0.6	7.7	8.1
Sissala	44	7.9	29.0	8.3	30.4	12.3	45.2	27.3
Wa	40	3.6	27.3	3.4	25.9	6.5	49.2	13.2
Total	133		•				•	16.3

N.B. 'children' are all those less than 15 years

The low numbers of children in Nadowli district are probably due to a small sample of households in one village and unlikely to be representative of the district as a whole.

Figure 2 shows the varying proportions of classes within the household as a bar chart;

Wa Sissala Nadowli Lawra Jirapa Lambusi 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% 0% % of household present ■ Men ■ Women □ Children

Figure 2. Distribution of men, women and children within households

4. Farming systems

Soil fertility management as a whole is a major issue for food security. Traditionally, farmers collected and carried animal manure and placed it on the field, but other methods of improving the quality of compost were unknown. Although it is clearly desirable, neither NGOs nor MOFA/IFAD have been very active in promoting advanced practices in this area. Table 5 shows the percentages of farmers practising any type of compositing, comparing their present practices with 1995, as well as the incidence of heap and pit methods. More advanced techniques, such as *zai*, are unknown. The low levels of composting compared with UER and the very low incidence of modern methods, reflect the absence of this on the agricultural extension agenda.

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Table 5. Composting			
Techniques	No.	%	
All composting	70	52.6	
Heap?	53	39.8	
Pit?	9	6.8	
n=133			

The use of green manures is well advanced, however, in traditional farming systems. Yam cultivators usually plant around trees known to improve nitrogen in the soil such as *Acacia albida*, but this has been ignored by MoFA/SARI.

Access to other agricultural inputs is very limited. Fertiliser was widespread in the 1970s and 1980s when it was available at highly subsidised prices, and cotton farmers were supplied with it for their farms, but it has only been sold at market prices for nearly a decade. Since the year 2000, prices of all types of fertiliser have more than quadrupled. Pesticides are freely available but similarly expensive. Table 6 shows the numbers of farmers using more fertiliser and pesticides since 1995, a relatively low level given the fertility crisis, but almost double the rates for UER. This almost certainly reflects the more extreme poverty in some districts of UER. Many other farmers commented that they now used none at all due to the cost.

Table 6. Input use			
Item	No.	%	
Fertiliser	33	24.8	
Pesticides	33	24.8	
n-133			

The identical values are a coincidence; not all farmers used both inputs together. Herbicides and other inputs are at vanishingly low levels.

5. Crops

The crop repertoire in UWR is typical of rainfed farms across semi-arid West Africa, except that the high proportion of millet grown is rather unusual, millet more generally being found in <600 mm. Table 7 shows the percentages of farmers who had increased production of specific crops since 1995.

Table 7. Increased crop production

Species	No.	%
Maize	74	55.6
Millet	60	45.1
Guinea-corn	55	41.4
Beans	73	54.9
Vegetables	45	33.8
Cotton	40	30.1
n=133		_

The increase in maize is very marked, especially compared with UER, and this must reflect the greater soil fertility in the low density districts. In Sissala, for example, there is an extensive, but recently developed trade in maize to the south, probably for human consumption and to supply the poultry-feed mills of Kumasi. Vegetables, by contrast are almost half those in UER, which is almost certainly function of marketing problems. The surprising crop is cotton, which still survives, despite having virtually disappeared in UER and again probably reflects the availability of land in some districts.

6. Livestock

Table 8 shows the individual species and the percentage of farmers who stated that their holdings had increased since 1995.

Table 8. Increased livestock holdings

Species	No.	%
Cattle	40	30.1
Sheep	16	11.3
Goats	53	39.8
Pigs	18	13.5
Chickens	61	45.9
Guinea-fowl	36	27.1

n=133

The cattle situation is unusual, because the whole of UWR has been threatened by endemic cattle theft, which farmers associate with the coming of Fulbe herders to the region since the late 1990s, following an ECOWAS ruling on free movement. So although some farmers have increased their herds, many have lost all their animals to theft and disease, Since 1995, government has introduced cost recovery for veterinary drugs and this has led to a dramatic fall in vaccination against common epizootics. Chickens and goats have shown marked increases in contrast to UER, and it is likely that this reflects the use of these species for income generation, particularly by women.

7. Living standards

Measuring overall living standards is difficult, as economic change causes perceptions of deprivation to change. A typical measure of increased wealth in rural populations is the use of income proxies, typical purchases in rural communities, such bicycles and tin roofs. For a long time, these have been valid in much of Africa, where the priority purchases in a newly monetarised economy are fairly standard. The report by Bayor used numbers of individual proxies to try and demonstrate that IFAD beneficiaries were wealthier than non-beneficiaries. But crucially, even non-beneficiaries are acquiring more possessions. Table 9 shows interviewees' perception of increased material acquisitions since 1995.

Table 9. Income proxies

Item	No.	%
Bicycles	88	66.2
Tin roofs	81	60.9
Carts	88	66.2
Radios	88	66.2

n=133

The sample villages are significantly remoter than the IFAD beneficiary villages as they were chosen for the absence of interventions. As consumer goods become relatively cheaper and certainly more available, especially where there is a constant flow to the southern urban centres, they become a less reliable guide to well-being, even in rural areas.

With this in mind, respondents were asked an open-ended question about the changes they observed in their lives since 1995. There was no restriction on the nature of responses or on the number of responses; some informants felt that there had been no change at all in their lives. For this reason, the results can be treated as indicative and not statistically valid. The cumulative responses are set out in Table 10;

Table 10. Perceived changes in life since 1995

Life-changes	No.	%
More education for children	52	39.1
Better health-care	45	33.8
More material possessions	42	31.6
Lower crop yields/poor soil fertility	27	20.3
Lack of cash to pay for needs	19	14.3
Better crop production	19	14.3
More hunger	18	13.5
Unable to pay for medicine/no health care	16	12.0
More cash-crops	16	12.0
Improved sanitation	9	6.8
Widespread livestock disease	6	4.5
Less community spirit	5	3.8
Greater community spirit	5	3.8
Reduced hunger	4	3.0
High migration levels	3	2.3
Women have greater access to trading	1	0.8
Reduced access to water	1	0.8
Poor trading conditions	1	0.8
More domestic animals	1	0.8
n =133		

As in UER, improved access to education and health come high on the list. A major difference, however, is that those citing increased hunger is less than half the figure in UER in percentage terms. Paradoxically, both better crop production and declining fertility are cited more than in UER, which suggests very marked regional differences.

At the level of individual observations, the elimination of guinea-worm from many districts was regarded by interviewees as a major achievement. Some interviewees commented on falling child mortality, other mentioned grim statistics such as four children dying in the last decade. Individuals were proud to comment on the number of houses with tin roofs and particularly the fact that they had enough money for clothes, a topic hardly commented upon in UER. This reflects the fact that the decade 1995-2005 had been a period of rapid material change in UWR.

8. Conclusions; general trends

The survey described here was intended to try and provide a picture of lives in villages largely unaffected by development projects in Upper West Region of Ghana. IFAD interventions, especially dams and animal traction, have significantly improved the lives of beneficiaries in a region where conditions can be difficult. This survey indicates that conditions are still very difficult for many of those outside the orbit of development projects and without substantially more investment may not get better.

Bibliography

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Appendix: Survey details

Appendix Table 1. Enumerators for this survey

Enumerator Names	Questionnaires
Karim Saagbul	47
Isaac Bayor	43
Philip Nyigre	43

Appendix Table 2. Villages and numbers of non-beneficiary survey

Village	No. Interviews
Bakuala	
Bamahu	5
Bapula	3 5 3
Bu	5
Chamsa	4
Dandatoro	4
Dimajan	4
Gbiere	4
Gbierung	4
Gohi	5
Kambah	4
Kpanglagi	4
Kpiyaal	4
Kpong	4
Kunkyene	8
Nakori	4
Nankpawie	10
Nyemati	7
Oribili	4
Panyaani	4
Pieng	7
Pina	4
Sakallo	9
Takpo	4
Tampaana	4
Tampie	3
Tangazu	4
Wanweh	4
Total	133