IMPLEMENTATION OF MINING RESETTLEMENT POLICIES: A CASE IN GHANA

by

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements for
the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the subject

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

PROMOTOR: PROF CORLIA ALERS

January 2025

Open Rubric

DECLARATION

I, Portia Oware Twerefoo, student number 67126669, hereby declare that *Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: A case in Ghana*, which I submit in accordance with requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration at the University of South Africa, is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I declare that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.



SIGNATURE

4 January 2025

DATE

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all persons who have lost their livelihood resources because of government decision to encourage developmental activities such as mining.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to my supervisor, Prof Corlia Alers, for her insightful recommendations and corrections throughout this PhD journey. I would not have been able to come this far in my academic journey, if not for her constant support, encouragement, and prompt response. May God bless you bountifully.

I also appreciate Unisa's Department of Student Funding for the financial assistance which enabled me to complete this degree.

Furthermore, I would also like to thank the officials from the mining company, the Wassa Association of Communities Affected by Mining, as well the community members who partook in this study.

Likewise, I thank my research assistants, Portia Brempong and Stephen Berchie, who helped in the data collection and entry process. I would not have come this far if not for your help.

I am also grateful to my husband, Stanley, and Children Otis and Thirza for the sacrifices they had to make to ensure the successful completion of my thesis.

I also appreciate the priceless effort of my language editors, Bridget Johnson and Reena Ametorwu for taking time to edit this work. I also appreciate the assistance of Sayeed Walon and Prince Asante.

Lastly, I would like to acknowledge the support I had from my parents and siblings as well as the extended family. I appreciate the encouragement, love, and support you gave me.

Finally, I thank the Almighty God who gave me the strength to undertake this journey and to overcome the challenges I encountered. Unto Him be all the glory!

ABSTRACT

The extractive industry is often located in remote, environmentally sensitive, and less-developed areas that include many local lands and territories. Communities within these areas are often displaced or resettled to enable mining activities. Although mining is considered key to economic growth in most developing countries, both governments and mining industries often fail to factor in the extent to which mining resettlement programmes affect the livelihood dynamics of communities. Using a resettled community in the Western region of Ghana, the aim of the study was to investigate how public resettlement programmes and policies affecting multinational mining companies can be implemented in a manner that aids in the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. Additionally, the study sought to specifically examine the implications of mining sector resettlement programmes in Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities.

The study employed the mixed-method approach, underpinned by the Impoverishment, Risk, and Reconstruction model, as well as the Sustainable Livelihood Framework. The purposive and snowballing sampling techniques were used to select a total of seventy-two (72) participants. From the study, it was evident that the policies on compensation and resettlement were adhered to by the mining company. However, a major challenge was the weakness in the laws governing how mining resettlement and compensation were to be undertaken. Critical decisions concerning the future survival of the people after they part ways with their farmlands were relegated to these rural folks. From the findings, these rural folks appeared to lack the capacity to make informed decisions about their future livelihoods. Hence, they mostly settled for short-term measures such as cash payments and houses. This has resulted in economic challenges such as unemployment, poverty, and distortion of formal education. Issues of misrepresentation, time constraints, and lapses in the land ownership system in Ghana have complicated the resettlement process.

Among other recommendations, the study suggests a review of the existing policies governing resettlement and compensation in Ghana to include wider stakeholder consultation, and the strict insistence on the implementation of alternative livelihood programmes. Government agencies, civil society organisations, and traditional leaders must collaborate to educate and empower communities to advocate for their rights effectively.

KEY CONCEPTS

Public Administration, Public Policy, Mining Induced Displacement and Resettlement, Resettlement, Sustainable Development Goals, Sustainability, Sustainable Livelihood, Livelihood Resources, Livelihood Strategies, Institutional Processes, Organisational Structures.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	MEANING / DEFINITION
ALP	Alternative Livelihood Programmes
EPA	Environmental Protection Authority
IRR	Impoverishment, Risk and Reconstruction
LF	Legislated Framework
LI	Legislative Instrument
LR	Livelihood Resources
LS	Livelihood Strategies
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MIDR	Mining Induced Displacement and Resettlement
MSRP	Mining Sector Resettlement Programmes
DIDR	Development Induced Displacement and Resettlement
MMSD	Mining, Minerals and Sustainable Development
RPF	Resettlement Planning Framework
SC	Sustainable Compensation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
WACAM	Wassa Association of Communities Affected by Mining
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
TPA	Traditional Public Administration
PS	Performance Standard

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The extractive industry is often located in remote, environmentally sensitive, and less-developed areas that include many local lands and territories. For this reason, communities are often displaced or resettled to enable mining activities. Although mining is considered key to economic growth in most developing countries, both governments and mining industries often fail to factor in the extent to which mining resettlement programmes affect the livelihood dynamics of communities. Evidence from studies across some African countries indicates that Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement (MIDR) has adversely affected the livelihoods of affected communities. For instance, Lillywhite, Kemp, and Sturman (2015) indicate that the Benga coal mine in Mozambique displaced approximately 3,680 people (736 households). The communities were displaced from their fertile lands at the Revuboe River in Capanga to an infertile land located at Mualadzi. These affected communities were confronted with food and water security challenges, as well as the loss of economic opportunities (Machanguana & Dias Sardinha, 2021: 598-599)

Studies in Kenya indicated that the titanium mining firm in the country faced significant resistance during the displacement in Kwale village. This occurred during the resettlement process concerning compensation issues. The resistance resulted from the inability of the affected communities to cope with the stress and shock of losing their major crop, which was coconut (Abuya, 2013:9-12; Bekidusa, 2024: 32).

In Ghana, between 2003 and 2008, Goldfields Ghana Limited resettled 30,000 landlords and their families. Newmont Ahafo Mines also displaced between 10,000 and 20,000 landlords during the first and second phases of the company's operations, respectively (Ghana News Agency, 2008; Ghana News Agency, 2023). The construction of the Abosso mines by Goldfields Ghana Limited led to the resettlement of the Damang and Kyekyewere communities, as well as the relocation of the Suromani communities in 1996/1997. The main occupations of the people of Damang were farming, fishing, and small-scale mining. The primary crops the farmers engaged in were cocoa and oil palm. The present-day Damang, referred to as "New Damang",

has faced landlessness, unemployment, and food security issues as a result of the resettlement (Oware Twerefoo, 2021; Seth, 2025:2).

South Africa is another country that has seen the emergence of large-scale mining companies, just like Ghana. The country is one of Africa's most significant mining nations due to the variety and quantity of resources produced. The mining sector of South Africa contributed 8% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2017. In 2022, mining remained a strong pillar of SA's economy. The value of production registered R1.18 trillion in 2022, up from R1.1 trillion in 2021. The sector created 23 552 jobs between December 2021 and December 2022, resulting in the overall employment of 472 088 workers. The mining sector of South Africa contributed R89 billion in corporate tax in the 2021/22 financial year and a further R28.45 billion through royalties in the same period, keeping its percentage contribution to the GDP at 7.53% (Government Communication and Information System, 2023).

Nonetheless, the sale of land for mining purposes has caused large-scale insecurity and placed tenants (whether lawful or unlawful occupiers of land) at great risk. In 2008, the AngloGold mining company displaced about 20,000 South Africans. According to the Southern Africa Mining, Minerals, and Sustainable Development (MMSD) Project regional report, mining in South Africa has displaced 37,000 people over five years (Hoadley, Limpitlaw & Weaver, 2002). Glover and Money (2021: 630) also claim that mining operations resettled 35,000 people in southern Africa during the 1990s. However, this figure refers only to persons covered by resettlement plans. According to Mostert and Mathiba (2023: 63), much of the resettlement was unrecorded and not accounted for due to the lack of resettlement plans. The most famous example of MIDR programmes in South Africa was the resettlements undertaken by Anglo Platinum near its Mogalakwena mine. Almost 10,000 people (957 households) from Ga-Pila and Motlhotlo were resettled.

Against the above background, it is evident that the mining industry has an unprecedented opportunity to mobilise significant human, physical, technological, and financial resources to advance the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (United Nations Development Programme, 2016; United Nations in South Africa, 2025). Therefore, if the mining industry is regulated properly, it is likely to create employment and encourage investment over a long time. Though several studies have been

conducted to assess the implications of MIDR programmes in communities between 1996 and 2018, very few studies have attempted to examine the regulatory framework of national governments within which these resettlement and compensation programmes are undertaken.

The next section provides a background and the rationale for conducting the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR CONDUCTING THE STUDY

Mining operations are a cornerstone of economic development in many countries worldwide. Countries such as Australia, Canada, China, Russia, the United States, and several African and South American nations rely heavily on mining as a key driver of local and national economies (Kumar, Marji, Isik & Chen, 2024: 42-44). These operations contribute significantly to employment generation, revenue collection, infrastructure development, and economic diversification. However, they are also associated with substantial environmental, social, and economic challenges, including habitat destruction, demographic changes, and social inequalities (Nweke, Khatib & Bazhair, 2023: 6).

MIDR is one of the most significant socio-economic challenges arising from mining activities. Communities displaced by mining operations often face livelihood disruptions, cultural disintegration, and economic insecurity. MIDR is distinct from other forms of displacement, such as those caused by natural disasters or conflict, due to its incremental nature, the coexistence of mining firms and communities, and the complex governance structures it involves (Wang, Owen & Shi, 2020: 3414). Despite the potential for mining to create wealth, the ‘resource curse' paradox highlights how resource abundance in developing countries often correlates with poverty, inequality and authoritarian governance (Reader, 2015).

Ghana, particularly its Western Region, exemplifies this paradox. Rich in natural resources and fertile land, the region also faces high poverty rates and unemployment, with the Ghana Statistical Service (2023) reporting an unemployment rate of 7.8%, the highest in the country. Resettlement and compensation challenges exacerbate the plight of host communities, as conflicts over land ownership and inadequate compensation persist (Owen, Vivoda & Kemp, 2020: 4909). Although frameworks such as the International Finance Corporation’s Performance Standard 5 (PS 5) on

Land Acquisition and Involuntary Resettlement and Ghana's 2012 mining regulations aim to mitigate these issues, gaps remain in their implementation and enforcement.

Globally, several countries have revised or introduced resettlement policies to align with international best practices. For instance, India's 2013 legislation, Mozambique's 2012 resettlement regulations, and Papua New Guinea's ongoing policy development efforts aim to bridge gaps between national laws and global standards (Owen, *et al*., 2020: 4909-4910). However, in Ghana, conflicts between mining companies and host communities persist, highlighting deficiencies in governance and implementation. These conflicts not only undermine the effectiveness of resettlement programmes but also hinder the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The SDGs underscore the importance of sustainable development that benefits all stakeholders. SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) and SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production) are particularly relevant to Ghana's mining sector. Despite the industry's economic contributions, high unemployment and poverty levels in host communities call into question its alignment with these goals. Moreover, the lack of systematic integration of MIDR policies into the mining sector's sustainability practices impedes efforts to minimize negative impacts and maximize contributions to the SDGs (Thorsteinsdottir, 2020).

While existing literature on MIDR explores its socio-economic impacts (Mandishekwa & Mutenheri, 2020: 116; Wang, Shi, Zhang, Xu & Shangguan, 2021: 368; Ofori, Takyi, Amponsah & Gagakuma, 2023: 61), limited attention has been given to the implementation of resettlement policies in Ghana's mining industry and their contribution to the SDGs. This study seeks to address this gap by examining how public resettlement programmes and policies affecting multinational mining companies can be implemented to support the achievement of the SDGs. Specifically, the study will focus on the implications of Ghana's mining sector resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities, with an emphasis on promoting sustainable development outcomes.

The research problem and research questions are discussed in the ensuing sections.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Mining operations can be found worldwide, with numerous countries relying on mining as a critical component of their economies. As hinted, Australia, Canada, China, Russia, the United States, and various African and South American countries are all major mining countries (Kumar, *et al*., 2024:44). The contribution of mining activities towards economic development at both local and national levels cannot be underestimated. According to a report by Thorsteinsdottir (2020), mining activities generate employment opportunities and revenue while stimulating related industries, attracting investments, infrastructure development, and economic diversification in cities hosting mining operations. Mining operations also have substantial environmental consequences, including habitat destruction, deforestation, soil erosion, water pollution, air pollution, and greenhouse gas emissions, which adversely affect the health and well-being of urban and rural populations (Thorsteinsdottir, 2020).

Furthermore, mining can lead to population influxes, demographic changes, and increased social inequalities, as well as the disruption of traditional livelihoods, cultural practices, and community cohesion (Kumar, *et al*., 2024:45). Rather than providing economic and development benefits, an abundance of minerals in developing countries can be associated with authoritarianism and poverty. This paradox is often referred to as the ‘resource curse’ (Reader, 2015). The local communities living in the vicinity of large-scale mines do not always reap benefits from the mining operations, but rather the companies operating the mines and their shareholders (Thorsteinsdottir, 2020).

This assertion is evident in the study area of this research. The Western Region of Ghana is endowed with rich natural resources and fertile land but also has a significant number of impoverished people (Community Water and Sanitation Agency Regional Profile, 2024). Additionally, issues of land acquisition, resettlement, and compensation challenges further exacerbate the plight of the host communities. According to a study by Owen, *et al*. (2020: 4910), land acquisition and involuntary resettlement are mostly managed by the state through a collection of laws and regulations. However, it is also important to note that the primary point of reference is the International Finance Corporation’s Performance Standard 5 (PS 5) on Land Acquisition and Involuntary Resettlement. Owen, *et al*. (2020: 4911) also note that the conflicts between mining-

affected communities (including those involving artisanal and small-scale miners) and the companies regarding land ownership, compensation, and resettlement occur due to the lack of good governance.

To bridge gaps between the national law and international best practices, several countries have recently updated, or are in the process of updating, national frameworks that govern MIDR and/or broader development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) activities. For example, India introduced a standalone national resettlement and rehabilitation policy in 2007 and implemented associated legislation in 2013, Ghana implemented regulations to guide compensation and resettlement in the minerals and mining sector in 2012, Mozambique implemented regulations to guide resettlement resulting from economic activities in 2012, and Papua New Guinea and Uganda are currently developing new resettlement policies (Owen, *et al*., 2020: 4912). These policies and legislation seek to protect citizens and to enhance the smooth implementation of resettlement and compensation issues within mining communities. Conflict between host communities and mining companies due to resettlement and compensation challenges persists in Ghana and other countries. This raises a critical question about the implementation of these policies and their corresponding effect on the host communities.

Despite the above challenges, there is, however, an abundance of literature on MIDR and how it has impacted the lives of host communities (Mandishekwa & Mutenheri, 2020: 116-118; Wang, *et al*., 2021: 369; Ofori, *et al*., 2023: 61). Nonetheless, there is a lack of knowledge about the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies operating specifically in Ghana, as well as the contribution of the Ghanaian mining industry towards the attainment of the SDGs. Though it can be argued that the reporting on the SDGs is in the hands of governments, businesses such as mining companies have a key role to play in enhancing their sustainability performance to minimize their negative impacts and maximize their contribution to achieving the SDGs (Thorsteinsdottir, 2020) through adherence to MIDR policies and legislation.

The 2023 quarterly Labour Force Statistics Bulletin by the Ghana Statistical Service indicated that the unemployment rate was 7.8% in the Western Region, which is considered the highest within the country (Ghana Statistical Service, 2023). It is also

worth indicating that Ghana has a very youthful population. How then can the mining industry contribute to the attainment of SDGs, particularly SDG 8 on decent work and economic growth and SDG 12 on responsible consumption and production, when the host communities are plagued with high unemployment rates and high levels of poverty? Should this problem persist, the implications of the resettlement programmes and policies on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons cannot be examined effectively, thus rendering the achievement of the SDGs weak.

It is against this backdrop that this study seeks to fill the knowledge gap by examining how public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs. More specifically, to examine the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study sought to answer the following questions.

1. **Research question 1**: What does the literature say about public policymaking, public resettlement policies that affect multinational mining companies, sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs?
2. **Research question 2**: To what extent do government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana?
3. **Research question 3**: What is the most appropriate research design and approach to study the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies, which affect multinational mining companies operating in Ghana?
4. **Research question 4**: What were the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme?
5. **Research question 5**: What are the implications of the Mine resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members?
6. **Research question 6**: How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?
7. **Research question 7**: Which recommendations can be made to mitigate the adverse effects of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development?

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The inclusion of the following hypotheses aligns with the problem statement by providing a focused framework to evaluate the effects of resettlement by multinational mining companies on the livelihood resources of affected communities. Hypothesis 0 serves to test the assumption of no significant impact, while Hypothesis 1 explores the presence of an effect. These hypotheses are critical for addressing the identified knowledge gap regarding the implications of resettlement programmes and policies on the livelihood dynamics of host communities and their potential contribution to achieving the SDGs.

1. **Hypothesis 0:** The resettlement of host communities by multinational mining companies does not have any effect on the livelihood resources of the affected persons.
2. **Hypothesis 1**: The resettlement of host communities by multinational mining companies has an effect on the livelihood resources of the affected persons.

1.6 AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section will highlight the aim and objectives of the study.

1.6.1 Aim of the study

The study examined public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies and proposed, through a framework, the pathways for enhancing the achievement of the SDGs. More specifically, to examine the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities.

1.6.2 Research objectives

The following research objectives were set to achieve the main purpose of the study:

1. **Objective 1**: To identify, collect and peruse the literature on public policymaking, public resettlement policies that affect multinational mining companies, sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs.
2. **Objective 2**: To examine the extent to which government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana.

3. **Objective 3**: To determine the most appropriate research design and approach to study the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies, that affect multinational mining companies operating in Ghana.
4. **Objective 4**: To analyse the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme.
5. **Objective 5**: To establish the implications of the resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members.
6. **Objective 6**: To assess the implications of mining resettlement and compensation policies on the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12.
7. **Objective 7**: To make recommendations to mitigate the adverse effects of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development.

To ensure that the research is focused, a brief review of the literature pertaining to the topic under investigation is provided in the subsequent section.

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

Ghana is a country in the western part of Africa situated on the coast of the Gulf of Guinea (Tannor, Nyarko, Quao & Adams, 2024: 206). The country is bounded by Burkina Faso to the north, Togo to the east, Côte d'Ivoire to the west, and the Gulf of Guinea to the south. The country is located on the Atlantic Ocean, with a population of 30.8 million according to the 2021 Population and Housing Census. The country has a youthful population, with 38% of the citizens between the ages of 15 to 35 years, 35% being children between the ages of 0 to 15 years, and about 4% being above 65 years (Ghana Statistical Service, 2023). The country had 10 regions, with Greater Accra as its capital, until 2018 when a referendum was held for the creation of six new regions. Currently, the country has 16 regions, which are further divided into 216 local districts for administrative purposes. The country occupies a total area of 238,533 sq. km, with a tropical climate: warm and comparatively dry along the southeast coast; hot and humid in the southwest; and hot and dry in the north. The country is also blessed with abundant natural resources, such as gold, timber, industrial diamonds, bauxite, manganese, fish, rubber, hydropower, petroleum, silver, salt, limestone, and oil (Ghana Statistical Service Factsheet, 2024).

In terms of the political system, the country has enjoyed a peaceful democracy since 1992 when the Fourth Republic was established after a series of coup d'états following the overthrow of the country's first president, Dr Kwame Nkrumah, who led Ghana to independence in 1957. As of 2023, the World Bank indicated that the country had a Gross Domestic Product of $76.2 billion, with mining and quarrying as one of the main drivers of GDP growth for the fourth quarter of 2023 (World Bank Report on Ghana, 2024).

Concerning the study area, the Western Region is situated in the southwestern part of Ghana. It shares borders with Côte d'Ivoire to the west, the Central Region to the east, the Western North Region to the north, and the Gulf of Guinea to the south. It has an area of 23,921 sq. km with a coastline of 192 km. It is an agricultural-producing region, with about 60% of the population engaging in subsistence farming (Ghana Health Service, 2024). The population of the region is about 2,376,021 (UNICEF, n.a). The region is also endowed with natural resources such as gold and timber, which provide employment opportunities for its inhabitants. Furthermore, crude oil, which is also referred to as 'Black Gold,' has been discovered in Cape Three Points (Ghana Health Service, 2024). According to the UNICEF report, the region is the largest producer of cocoa, rubber, palm oil, and coconut in the country. About 75% of the region falls within the high forest zone of Ghana, representing 44% of the total closed forest area in the country and containing 40% of the total forest reserves nationwide. The major industrial activities in the region are agriculture (58.1%), mining and quarrying (2.4%), manufacturing (10.2%), and wholesale and retail trade (10.3%) (African Development Bank, 2024a).

The study is based in a resettled community in the Western Region of Ghana by a multinational mining company. However, due to an ongoing legal issue, the name of the community and company is not disclosed. The rationale for selecting Ghana is that the country is the sixth-highest producer of gold in the world and the highest producer of gold in Africa as of 31 December 2022 (Mousavi, 2024: 159; Energy Capital and Power, 2025). Secondly, Ghana has democratically elected governments, providing a good scope for consultation and public participation in mitigating displacement, designing public policy, and specifically in resettlement policies and programmes.

Another reason for selecting the Western Region is that, although it is endowed with rich natural resources and fertile land, most of the people living in rural communities are poor (Community Water and Sanitation Agency Regional Profile, 2024). Similarly, the 2024 Quarterly Labour Force Statistics Bulletin by the Ghana Statistical Service indicated that the unemployment rate was 7.8% in the Western Region, the highest in the country (Ghana Statistical Service, 2024). Since mining and agriculture are inextricably intertwined, it is imperative to examine how the resettlement policies are adhered to by the mining company, as well as the contribution of these policies to SDG 8 and SDG 12 within the region. Figure 1.1 depicts the Regions of Ghana.



Figure 1.1: Regions of Ghana

Source: (WorldAtlas, 2024).

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study, a total of seventy people from the seventy households that were resettled were successfully identified and agreed to partake in the study. Hence, the sample size was exhaustive. Despite this, the study had some limitations. To begin with, it was limited to one operational region of the company, which is Ghana. Hence, the findings from this study cannot be generalised across all the operational regions of the company.

The interviews with some key participants could not be undertaken as scheduled due to unforeseen circumstances. After several weeks of follow-ups, some key respondents decided not to participate in the study. This was due to two reasons. The first reason was the impending legal issues filed by some affected persons against the company. The second reason was private to the respondents and could thus not be disclosed. The interviews could therefore not be undertaken as planned. Hence, the role of the community and traditional leaders in the resettlement and compensation process could not be assessed.

It is imperative to note that these leaders represented the affected persons during the negotiation process. Hence, their perspectives on how the negotiations were undertaken, what informed their decisions on the resettlement and compensation packages, as well as their expectations, would have been of great importance to the study. This would have provided much clarification on why the affected persons settled on houses and one-time cash compensation without insisting on Alternative Livelihood Programmes or the provision of suitable alternative land for farming.

Despite the limitations, the study is significant in several ways. The following section provides the significance of the study.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study will have both academic and practical contribution.

1.9.1 Contribution to academia

Governments are faced with complex and multiple societal problems such as poverty, food insecurity, unemployment, among others. These public challenges are complex

and policy-relevant research provides a basis for appreciating the intricacy of these problems. The understanding of how societal values influence the needs of the public is a core principle of public administration. Current literature on MIDR has identified the challenges of persons affected by mining resettlement programmes. It is therefore imperative for policymakers to examine the societal values, which have resulted in these public challenges and needs. Furthermore, the rational stage of governance following the agenda-setting and the policy formulation stages, is policy implementation. Given that communities affected by mining resettlement programmes are impoverished due to the loss of their main source of livelihood and land, it is critical to examine how the MSRP is implemented, and to identify the most appropriate method of addressing these issues. Thus, the findings of the study will be highly essential to the public administration discipline.

1.9.2 Contribution to practice

The findings of this study contributed practically to the case under investigation by providing actionable insights into the effectiveness of resettlement programmes. Through engagement with community members and other stakeholders, the study gathered valuable perspectives on the expectations, needs, and concerns of affected communities. These insights were instrumental in guiding both the multinational mining companies and the government of Ghana in refining and improving the design and implementation of resettlement programmes.

Moreover, the findings served as a benchmark for future resettlement initiatives, ensuring that they were more inclusive, equitable, and aligned with sustainable development goals, particularly SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) and SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production). By bridging the gap between community expectations and policy execution, the study influenced future policies, enhanced corporate social responsibility practices, and fostered stronger collaboration between stakeholders. Ultimately, this contribution helped mitigate conflicts, improved the livelihoods of resettled communities, and ensured more sustainable outcomes in Ghana’s mining regions.

1.10 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

The study was organised into seven chapters. The general overview of the study was discussed in the first chapter of the study. This chapter highlighted information on the background of the study, the problem statement, the aim and research objectives, the research questions, and the outline of the study. The second chapter was devoted to the review of the literature on public policymaking. The focus will be on the five stages of public policymaking, namely: agenda setting, policy formulation, adoption (or decision making), implementation and evaluation. Advanced analysis of public policymaking would be presented with public resettlement programmes and policies, as the basis for the discussion.

The third chapter of this study discussed the concept of sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs as well as the theoretical framework. The legislated framework for the mining policies and regulations in Ghana has been critically analysed in Chapter 4. The extent to which Government policies influence the mining resettlement and compensation policies was established.

The data management procedures with emphasis on the research design, sampling techniques, and data collection procedure was presented in the fifth chapter of the study. The data collected was analysed and the findings were presented in the sixth chapter of this study. The final chapter, which is the seventh chapter, summarised the key conclusions, recommendations, and ideas for future research.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter sought to provide a brief layout of the study under investigation. The chapter has highlighted the problem, which has necessitated this study, the questions which the study sought to answer, a preliminary literature review, and the theories which directed the focus of this study. The chapter also presented the research methodology, which was employed for the study, the data collection tools, as well as how the data collected was analysed.

CHAPTER 2: PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, PUBLIC POLICY, AND PUBLIC RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMMES

> *...in the very beginning, when human society was taking shape as a consequence of the co-operative propensities of individual men, the allocation of different tasks, or jobs of work, to different persons according to their capacities, led to the emergence of the division of labour, about which students of social sciences and economics are constantly reminded. The household head or tribal chief as the first director general of his miniature realm began to find the task of running the show too much for him. His natural solution was to assign some of his responsibilities perhaps to delegate some of his responsibilities to an assistant or deputy. Hitherto he had himself carried out whatever administration was needed in his primitive society. The chief himself was certainly not aware that there was any such thing as administering.* Gladden (1965: 11)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Paul and Criado (2020: 101717), a literature review provides a comprehensive overview of literature related to a theme, theory, or method and synthesizes prior studies to strengthen the foundation of knowledge. Fink (2019: 6) also considers a literature review to be a systematic, explicit, and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing the existing body of completed and recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners. Thus, review articles provide readers with a state-of-the-art understanding of the research topic, help identify research gaps, and signal future research avenues.

For this study, the literature review is organised into three chapters (Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this thesis). Chapter 2 of the literature review seeks to place mining resettlement programmes within the proper sphere of the discipline of Public Administration. To achieve this, the chapter discusses the genesis and etymology of governance systems, the paradigm of Public Administration, and the philosophical and theoretical premise of Public Administration, which presupposes that public problems are created by public values. Furthermore, a review of literature on public policy, sources of public policy, and public policymaking, with emphasis on the five stages of public policymaking, namely, agenda setting, policy formulation, adoption (or decision-

making), implementation, and evaluation, was also discussed. The purpose of this review is to situate the topic under investigation within the field of Public Administration. The final section of the chapter highlights public resettlement programmes, with an emphasis on mining resettlement programmes.

2.2 GENESIS AND ETYMOLOGY OF GOVERNANCE SYSTEMS

According to Warner and Brown (2024: 74), Public Administration has a long history that has run parallel with the very notion of government. Public Administration has evolved throughout history as nations have established stronger relationships between their governments and people. According to Shafritz and Hyde (2017: 3), writings on Public Administration can be traced to ancient civilizations, where the ancient Egyptians and Babylonians left considerable advice on the techniques of management and administration. One of the major fields of Public Administration, as indicated by Qawasmeh (2022: 22-24), is public policy. Though Section 2.5 *Public Polic*y of this thesis attempts to discuss the concept of public policy and the policymaking process in detail, it is imperative to explore its root developments in Public Administration. For this reason, this section will attempt to discuss the genesis and etymology of governance systems and how they shape public policymaking, starting from the Pre-Classic Public Administration Era, The Classic Public Administration, The New Public Management, and The New Public Governance.

2.2.1 Pre-Classic Public Administration Era

In the book *Classics of Public Administration*, the authors Shafritz and Hyde (2017: 5) consider the works of Jeremy Bentham and Carl Philipp Gottfried as ‘pre-classics’. From their perspective, Jeremy Bentham, a British philosopher, jurist, and social reformer, published his most important book, *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*, in 1780. This book had a section titled *On the Principle of Utility*, where he explains how this principle should shape efforts to make society better. He argued that governments should seek to do the greatest good for the greatest number of people (Bentham, 1970: 12). Institutions should also strive for an optimal level of welfare, ensuring that an action produces more pleasure than pain, and more happiness than unhappiness, compared to any alternatives (Shafritz & Hyde, 2017: 5). It is also important to note that Bentham’s work launched utilitarianism.

This presupposes that policies implemented by governments should provide the greatest happiness for the greatest number of the population. This is a test of public policy. This test can be perceived from two dimensions. First, public policies must explain who would benefit. Second, policies should be measured using social facts and data, not merely disliking a policy proposal due to political persuasion. This helps to appreciate what public policies governments should pursue and how they should make policy choices (Vitali, 2023: 264).

Carl Philipp Gottfried, a Prussian general and military theorist, also presents public policy in another light. As opined by Shafritz and Hyde (2017: 6), excerpts from his classic work *On War*, published in 1832, address administrative problems such as information uncertainty and implementation. According to Clausewitz, as cited by Shafritz and Hyde (2017: 8), the '*fog of war'* magnifies both sides of information problems. First, there is the problem of knowing whether what we think we know is true. Second, there is the issue of trusting one's judgment about whether and how to act. Clausewitz, therefore, emphasised the need for generals and policymakers to be humble and wary of the dangers of overconfidence.

The views articulated by these two scholars have significant implications for public policy and the policymaking process. First, Bentham's perspective encourages policymakers to uphold the principle of fairness by ensuring that policies addressing public interest provide the greatest benefit to beneficiaries. Second, policymakers should avoid adopting an '*I know it all'* approach. Constant monitoring and evaluation of policies are necessary to determine whether their objectives are being achieved (Vitali, 2023: 266-268).

Thus, it is safe to indicate that the pre-classic era of Public Administration was and remains relevant in shaping government policies and the policymaking process. Relating it to the topic under investigation, although mining resettlement is perceived as a private activity, the resettlement and compensation policies are enacted and implemented by the government. Hence, from Bentham's perspective, these policies should and must provide the greatest benefit or happiness to the affected persons whose lands are claimed for mining purposes. These affected persons should not be made unhappy or endure pain because of government decisions. Additionally, Clausewitz's views encourage constant monitoring of mining resettlement and

compensation policies through data gathering to determine whether the objectives of the policies are being achieved or if amendments are necessary (Bentham, 1970: 9-14).

2.2.2 Classic Public Administration

History indicates that the field of Public Administration emerged in the United States in the late 1910s and was consolidated by the late 1940s (Roberts, 2018: 74). This was a time of extraordinary disruption in domestic and world affairs. Nonetheless, Rosenbloom (2014: 9-10) indicates that the civil service reforms that began in 1877 represented a core stage in developing the Public Administration field. This was articulated in the famous article by Woodrow Wilson published in 1887, where he advocated for the separation of administration from politics. The politics-administration dichotomy proposed by Woodrow Wilson is considered an important dimension of the classical model of Public Administration. His theory was premised on the idea that politics involved policymaking and value choices, while administration was merely an instrument to translate policies into results (Wilson, 1887: 120-125; Demir & Nyhan, 2008: 82).

This theory by Woodrow Wilson, according to Farah (2014: 46), led to a search for comprehensive principles for administering different types of organisations. In 1911, Fredrick Taylor published his book *The Principles of Scientific Management*, where he indicated that there was one best way to get the job done by following scientific principles to achieve maximum effectiveness, efficiency, and economy.

Although the Classic Public Administration (PA) era faded away in the 1950s and 1960s (Roberts, 2018: 75), and the politics-administration dichotomy theory was subsequently rejected, the views of these early scholars profoundly influenced the development of Public Administration. Regarding its implications for public policy, Qawasmeh (2022: 28) observes that public policy shares commonalities with classical Public Administration in that both assert the value of democratic polity while emphasising the scientific analysis of social problems. This is evident in the views of Lasswell (1951: 87), who suggests that policymakers require information for formulating and implementing policies, hence the need to adopt the scientific method.

This suggests that adopting any public policy should avoid partisan politics and instead rely on sound data to produce maximum benefits for citizens and the economy at large. Relating this to the topic under discussion, the adoption and implementation of mining sector resettlement policies should be influenced by factual data. This will enable policymakers to determine the best options for protecting the livelihood dynamics of affected persons. Furthermore, the scientific method encourages periodic monitoring and evaluation of these policy prescriptions to implement corrective measures where necessary.

2.2.3 New Public Management

The era of New Public Management (NPM) began in the 1980s, a time when the world witnessed the emergence of neoliberalism (Qawasmeh, 2022: 22). NPM sought to limit the state's role in the economy and in administering people's affairs (Alsarhan & Al-Twal, 2024: 1032). NPM was underpinned by two philosophies: managerialism, derived from the managerial practices of the private sector, and economics (Qawasmeh, 2022: 26). Alsarhan and Al-Twal (2024: 1034) noted that the rational economic view was that all human behaviour is dominated by self-interest and would like to maximise benefits. The logical implication of these philosophies was to make governments more business-like and reduce the government's role by introducing markets and the private sector into the public sector. Thus, from an epistemological view, NPM relied on the scientific analysis and technical rationale of Western thought (Mastracci, 2024: 1031). It is worth noting that no single scholar is recognised as the founder of NPM.

Qawasmeh (2022: 25) observes that NPM resembled the approaches in Peters and Waterman's book on private sector management, *In Search of Excellence* (1982). Similarly, Osborne and Gaebler (1992) marked an essential developmental stage of NPM with the publication of their book *Reinventing Government: How the Entrepreneurial Spirit Is Transforming the Public Sector*. Although there are similarities, they argued that the government could not be run like a business. They suggested that private sector principles needed to be reinvented to suit the government. According to them, the government should be catalytic (steering rather than rowing), community-owned, competitive, mission-driven, results-oriented,

customer-driven, enterprising, anticipatory, decentralised, and market-oriented (Qawasmeh, 2022: 26).

However, NPM was criticised for its adherence to private sector principles, thereby neglecting values such as democratic accountability, equality, process-orientation, and probity. Most importantly, it failed to place the needs of citizens as the primary focus (Lukea Bhiwajee, 2023: 104). NPM, therefore, resulted in fragmenting policy and delivery across different service providers, which diminished coherence across government (Qawasmeh, 2022: 26). Hence, the market-based notion seemed unable to solve many countries' economic and social problems.

Despite its shortcomings, NPM has had some implications for how governmental policies are formulated and implemented. Relating the philosophies of NPM to the topic under investigation, it can be inferred that since the mining sector contributes significantly to the Gross Domestic Product of the country, the government’s interest will be in maximising its gains from granting concessions to large multinational mining companies. This is often undertaken without the consent of affected persons. This is because the principles of NPM fail to place the needs of citizens at the core of government decisions. This may explain why Section 73(1) of Ghana's Minerals and Mining Act, Act 706, encourages affected persons to negotiate their own compensation packages, although they often lack the capacity. This further increases the plight of ordinary farmers whose primary source of livelihood, mainly their farmland, is claimed for mining activities by the government.

2.2.4 New Public Governance

The concept of good governance, with an emphasis on accountability, transparency, participation, and predictability, emerged after the failure of NPM. However, as noted by Qawasmeh (2022: 26), it was within the first decade of the new millennium that the concept of governance received more academic and theoretical attention from scholars and researchers. This led to the introduction of a new approach referred to as New Public Governance (NPG). History has it that a scholar named Osborne brought attention to NPG in academic discussions (Osborne, 2006: 378). He argued that NPG is a theoretical model that complements NPM and classical public

administration. Thus, NPG placed the citizen, rather than the government or the customer, at the center of its frame of reference (Osborne, 2006: 380).

This implies that citizens were to be involved in the policymaking process, from policy formulation to its implementation, as well as in the provision of public goods and services. This assertion is supported by McMullin (2021: 7-9), who indicates that the emphasis of NPG was to transform the role of citizens (perceived in NPM as relatively passive and anonymous consumers) into co-producers. Hence, citizens are involved in policymaking, formulation and service provision. Osborne (2006: 381) further added that another emphasis of NPG was on inter-organisational collaboration rather than competition in the market and on citizens rather than customers. This point is further articulated in the views of McMullin (2021: 11), who imply that government depends on various actors in the formulation and implementation of public policies. These actors include governmental actors, non-governmental actors (such as non-profit organisations, labour unions, elite civic organisations, social service organisations, and others), and the private sector. Thus, these actors play a crucial role in shaping how public policies are formulated and implemented in a manner that promotes the interests of citizens. Adhering to the tenets of NPG would mean that policymakers must undertake broader consultations with various stakeholders, including citizens.

Relating the concept of NPG to mining sector resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana, there is a need for laws to encourage a participatory and collaborative approach with affected persons in decisions relating to mine planning, resettlement packages, and the incorporation of alternative livelihoods programs. This will place affected persons at the core of policies and ensure that they are not further impoverished by the government's decisions to increase revenues through mining activities. Furthermore, non-state actors with interests in mining activities should be consulted prior to the negotiation and adoption of compensation packages for affected persons (Qawasmeh, 2022: 26).

In Ghana, the concerning trend has been that the activities of these non-state actors only emerge after resettlement and compensation agreements are finalised. This usually occurs when affected persons complain about unfair compensation packages, prompting NGOs to step in and renegotiate.

These challenges can be mitigated if the Minerals and Mining Act, Act 706, and the LI 2175 are amended to reflect some of the tenets of NPG, such as participation, accountability, and transparency, by mandating all actors and interested parties to be present during the initial stages of mining concession allocations and during negotiations of resettlement packages. Furthermore, although the Minerals and Mining Policy launched in 2014 encourages a participatory and collaborative approach to mine planning and development, this approach is limited to interactions between the mining company and the local community. Thus, this policy can be strengthened by encouraging the participation of other actors at the initial stages to ensure transparency and accountability and to mitigate conflicts between the community, the mining company, and the government after the resettlement process.

2.3 PARADIGM OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The etymology of Public Administration examines the historical perspective of the discipline, which is crucial for enhancing our appreciation of this field of study. Aside from this, the field of Public Administration is underpinned by distinct philosophical and theoretical frameworks that help to enhance our understanding of the discipline. These philosophical and theoretical frameworks can be termed paradigms. As defined by the Cambridge Online Dictionary (2024), *paradigms* are a set of theories that explain the way a particular subject is understood at a particular time.

Though directly above Section 2.2 briefly highlights the theoretical premises of Public Administration, this section focuses on the three major theoretical developments or paradigms of the discipline as explained by Dogan (2021: 1-4). The purpose of this section is to situate MIDR policies and programs within the context of Public Administration.

As indicated by Kadir Dogan in the first chapter of the book entitled *Public Administration and Public Finance Research*, he identifies Traditional Public Administration, New Public Management, and Governance as the three major paradigms of the discipline (Dogan, 2021: 1-2). From the perspective of Henry (1975: 379), the Traditional Public Administration paradigm is underpinned by the Politics-Administration Dichotomy debate (1900 to 1926) and the principles of Administration (1927 to 1937). In Goodnow's publication entitled *Politics and Administration*, he observed that government had two distinct functions: first, the expression of the state

will or the formulation of policies; and second, the execution or implementation of the state will or policies (Goodnow, 2003: 4-6).

However, the separation of powers debate envisaged by Woodrow Wilson provided a basis for distinguishing between the roles of the executive and legislative branches of government (Wilson, 1887: 199). Nonetheless, Henry shares the view that Goodnow and the early scholars believed Public Administration should focus on government bureaucracy. Furthermore, Frederick Taylor discussed scientific management principles in 1917, highlighting the best ways to achieve efficiency and effectiveness in the workplace. In addition, in 1927, F.W. Willoughby published a book entitled *Principles of Public Administration*. Though these principles were distinctly American, he believed that administrators could become experts by learning certain scientific principles of administration.

From the discussions advanced in the above section on classical public administration, which forms the basis of Traditional Public Administration (TPA), it can be concluded that the TPA paradigm focused on efficiency, effectiveness, and economy, with a specific focus on the hierarchy of authority, bureaucracy, and a top-down approach.

According to Dogan (2021: 4), TPA remained influential until the 1970s, after which the concept of New Public Management (NPM) emerged as a second Public Administration paradigm. History records that during the late 19th century, the management apparatus of many states was in disrepute, with positions often based on partisan politics and party loyalties. For this reason, most state institutions were characterised by frequent changes in administrative personnel, inefficiency, and rampant corruption (Bojang, 2020: 1).

Stoker (2006: 46) posits that NPM was a reaction to the perceived weaknesses of the traditional bureaucratic paradigm of public administration. The quest to address these challenges marked the genesis of the NPM paradigm in the 1980s (Bojang, 2020: 2-3). Nwosu and Ananti (2024: 52) indicate that the NPM was first introduced by scholars in the United Kingdom and Australia during the 1980s to make public service more ‘business-like’ and improve efficiency by using private sector management models. Within the United States, Dogan (2021: 6) asserts that NPM literature emerged in the 1990s. Bojang (2020: 4) reinforces this assertion, noting that the NPM paradigm began in the late 1970s and early 1980s, first developing in Britain under Prime Minister

Margaret Thatcher and in local governments in the United States during an economic recession and tax revolts. It can thus be inferred that NPM was an administrative measure to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in public service delivery by adopting private-sector strategies. These strategies aimed to reduce corruption, encourage decentralisation, and promote competition to make government more responsive.

While adopting private-sector strategies was considered an option to enhance effectiveness and efficiency in public service delivery, there were concerns regarding the effective use of scarce state resources. As a result, downsizing the public sector became necessary in the 1980s (Çeliksoy, 2023: 16). This effort to ensure the effective use of scarce resources led to the emergence of the Governance paradigm in the 1990s, which emphasised political, democratic, and participatory approaches (Bojang, 2020: 3).

In terms of definition, the concept of governance can be described as a synergistic model in which all social groups actively participate in determining political power in a state (Bojang, 2020: 3). According to Şahin (2024: 230), governance focuses on transparency, accountability, citizen participation in administrative decisions, cooperation, the rule of law, mechanisms of globalisation and localisation, effective management based on heterarchy rather than hierarchy, equality, and strategic vision.

As the government undertakes its duties of policy-making and implementation to provide public goods and services, these functions should be carried out in collaboration or partnership with multiple stakeholders. This approach allows the government to access shared ideas and resources, likely resulting in comprehensive, operational, and sustainable policy outcomes. Another approach associated with Governance is the concept of Public Value, as discussed in Section 2.4 *Theoretical Premises of Public Administration*.

From the discussions of the paradigms above, it is evident that these concepts reveal how the role of government has evolved over the years, the nature of public administration, and the relationships between the state, citizens, and stakeholders. Relating these concepts to the study under discussion, mining resettlement programmes are private-sector activities. Nonetheless, their implications affect host communities and the government at large. Thus, to ensure a more inclusive and

sustainable implementation of MIDR policies, the government must consider the views of stakeholders and citizens.

Although the TPA paradigm encourages the government to solely formulate policies, the Governance approach emphasises the involvement of civil society groups and citizens in the policy formulation and implementation process. Therefore, while MIDR programs are activities undertaken by private companies, their implications affect citizens and the government at large. With the evolving concepts within the field of Public Administration, this topic remains relevant and fitting for discussion within the discipline.

2.4 THEORETICAL PREMISES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The field of Public Administration is founded on the guiding principles of values. Values flow from needs, therefore, values and needs go hand in hand. Values to an extent, represent needs to be satisfied. As opined by Nabatchi (2011: 4) and Schnell, Kim, Munno and Nabatchi (2024: 360), values as the worth of something. Values can be individual, group, community, conflicts, in hierarchies, or the objects of uncertainty or ambiguity. Simply put, values refer to the things that are most important to a person or an organisation. According to Molina (2009: 267), despite the efforts to render the field of Public Administration value-neutral, there has been a strong and steady current of thought in the field, particularly beginning with the Post-World War II writings of scholars such as Paul Appleby (1949) and Dwight Waldo (1984), which recognise the essentially value-laden character of public administration.

Values are the soul of Public Administration. In government, public value refers to an appraisal of what is created and sustained by the government on behalf of the public. Nonetheless, values are complex personal judgments, based on knowledge as well as an emotional reaction. Therefore, values are shaped largely by the needs of people, which are known are public values. A society's 'public values' are those providing normative consensus about (a) the rights, benefits, and prerogatives to which citizens should (and should not) be entitled; (b) the obligations of citizens to society, the state, and one another; and (c) the principles on which governments and policies should be based (Voorn, 2023: 1501).

As a result, public value depends on citizens' preferences, and is created when public managers deliver actual service, achieve social outcomes, and maintain trust and legitimacy of the agency (Conteh, Greitens, Jesuit & Roberge, 2014: 78).

Conversely, public value is destroyed when the wrong decisions are made about the needs to be satisfied, the strategies to satisfy the selected needs, and the processes to produce and deliver services (Spano, 2009: 335). Voorn (2023: 1502) supports this assertion. He opines that public value failure occurs when neither the market nor the public sector, provides the goods and services required to achieve public values. It can therefore be implied that, the goal of public value is to promote the common good of the citizens. Morgan (2001: 151) asserts that, prior to the outbreak of the English civil wars in the 1640s, the term 'public interest' was not in wide use. Instead, terms like the 'common good' or 'public wealth' were involved, when referring to the good of the larger political society. Therefore, by replacing 'common good' with 'public interest', then the ultimate goal of public value is to promote the public interest.

What is public interest?

Public interest as defined by Bozeman (2007: 12-17), are those outcomes best serving the long-run survival and well-being of a social collective construed as "Public." An important distinction between public interest and public values is that "public interest" is an ideal, whereas "public values" have specific, identifiable content. Public interest is the more encompassing term, and as an ideal, the more elusive one. According to Schnell, Kim, Munno & Nabatchi, 2024: 360), Thus, public values influence the interest that the citizenry aim to satisfy. When these interests are not met by the public administration system due to public value failure, it creates public problems.

What then are Public Problems?

Public problems are simply challenges or issues that confront the society. Academics have also tried to provide a definition of what constitutes public problems. Lauer (1976: 124) claims that social problems are said to exist when people define conditions as problematic. That is, a situation is considered to be a 'public problem' when the 'society' views it as problematic. This is supported by Fuller and Myers (1941: 320) who attest that, a social problem is a condition which is defined by a considerable number of persons as a deviation from some social norm which they cherish. Thus, a

problem cannot be considered as a ‘public problem’ if it is not defined by a significant section of the public. Peyrot (2022: 16-17) who also defines problems as situations that involve a substantial number of people whose well-being is threatened, buttresses this.

A social problem, is therefore, a public issue of narrow focus, which is defined by a member of the public (Green, 1975: 22; Burns & Peyrot, 2022: 17). A more useful approach has been offered by Mauss (1975:11-12) as well as Isaacs (2021: 19-20) who identifies public problem as an issue specific to the public, which is part of the public, and is made up of all the people who care about a certain issue, no matter what side of the issue they may be on. This suggests that, within the public, there is a narrower group, which is aware of and concerned about particular issues, and out of that group, emerges the activists who attempt to deal with the challenge.

These public problems are diverse and complex which are most often than not, brought to the attention of the government for solutions. Food insecurity, poverty, bad roads, high inflation rates, corruption, and unemployment, just to mention a few, are some examples of public problems. It is the responsibility of a good public administration system to provide solutions to resolving these challenges. The understanding of how societal values influence public problems and the resolving of conflicts of values, is a central feature and activity in the field of public administration. Relating the above to the topic under investigation, mining activities are usually undertaken in rural areas where the inhabitants are mostly agrarians. They depend mostly on their farmlands for survival. Since mining and farming require the same resource (land), the affected persons are always resettled. These persons are further impoverished as they part ways, not only with their means of economic survival, but also with their ancestral ties. This creates a much more complex problem for people and the government. These problems created by the mining resettlement programmes, always see governments bearing long-term liabilities caused by the displacement, including pressure to address the risks of impoverishment in these remote locations (Owen & Kemp, 2015: 479).

Evidence in the literature suggests that mining resettlement programmes create social problems such as landlessness, homelessness, unemployment, distortion in formal education, marginalisation, social disarticulation, illegal small-scale mining, etcetera

(Owen & Kemp, 2015: 480; Adam, Owen & Kemp, 2015: 582-584; Abuya 2013:11-12, Terminski 2018: 42; Kumah, Hilson & Quaicoe, 2020: 619).

These problems are not limited to poor and developing countries such as Ghana. Problems of this kind also take place in European countries like Germany, Serbia, and Poland. The high standards of rights-protection institutions and the responsiveness of businesses to public opinion, hold back such negative practices there (Terminski 2013: 7). Therefore, mining resettlement programmes, though activities undertaken by private multinational firms, have outcomes, which are considered as 'undesirable' or 'problematic' by the public. It is therefore a private activity, which results in public problems and, therefore, can be considered an appropriate topic for discussion within the field of public administration.

To address public problems of this nature, government needs a clear plan of action. This plan of action, which outlines what government decides 'to do' or 'not to do', is termed as public policy. In the view of this, DeLeon (2001: 887) asserts that a key issue of public policy and management, is identifying and assessing the best means of moving from disparate individual public values to the society's public values. Thus, public policy is the process of determining the best means of linking public values in specific action context, to the public interest (Voorn, 2023: 1504).

The subsequent sections will therefore discuss into detail, the sources of public policy and the public policy making process.

2.5 PUBLIC POLICY

Policies are a set of actions coordinated to achieve a goal. To Anderson (2003: 2) a policy is defined as a relatively stable, purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a matter of concern. The field of public administration entails the plans and programmes adopted by government in addressing public problems, which is known as public policy. The study of public policy as an academic discipline began in 1922 when political scientist Charles Merriam sought to connect the theory and practice of politics to understanding the actual activities of government (Birkland, 2016: 7). Since then, scholars have attempted without any success to provide a definite definition of what public policy is.

According to Thomas Dye, an Emeritus Professor of Political Science at Florida State University, the search for a definition of *public policy* can generate into a word game, which eventually adds a little more understanding. He simply defines public policy as what government choose to do or not to do (Dye, 2014: 3). To Birkland (2016: 12) policies are government statements of what it intends to do or not to do, including law, regulation, ruling, decision, or order. This definition does not deviate much from that of Newton and Van Deth (2005: 263), who indicated that public policy is a specific concept, which refers to a long series of actions carried out to solve societal problems.

Cochran, Mayer, Carr, Cayer, McKenzie and Peck (2010: 12) also consider public policy as a set of action by the government that includes, but not limited to making laws, and is defined in terms of a common purpose. Peters (2019: 4) also views public policy as the sum of the activities of government, whether acting directly or through agents, as it has an influence on the lives of citizens. From the above, it is evident that public policy is simply what a government chooses to do or not to do about a particular societal problem.

Nonetheless, Birkland (2016: 8) observes that though there is no single definition for public policy, there are key attributes that are evident in the various definitions. Firstly, public policy is made in response to some sort of problem that requires attention. Secondly, such policies are made on behalf of the public. Public policies are oriented toward a goal or desired state, such as the solution of problems. Additionally, public policy is ultimately made by governments, even if the ideas come from outside the government, or through the interaction of governmental and non-governmental actors. Furthermore, public policy is interpreted and implemented by public and private actors who have different interpretations of problems, solutions, and their own motivations. Finally, public policy is what government chooses to do or not to do.

From the above, Birkland (2016: 9) attempts to define public policy as a statement by government at whatever level, in whatever form, regarding what it intends to do about a public problem. Such statements can be found in the constitution, statutes, regulation, case law, agency, or leadership decisions, or even in changes in the behaviour of government officials at all levels.

Thus, any cause of action undertaken by a government to either address or remain silent on a situation, which is considered desirable or undesirable by the public,

becomes a public policy. Such decisions of government cover diverse aspect of the economy and the citizenry, be it business, health, education, transportation, agriculture, and so on. For example, government has health policies, educational policies, agricultural policies, tax policies, mining resettlement and compensation policies, and among others.

Public policies are governments' response to public problems that are shaped by public values. However, public policies do not always satisfy the entire populace, neither do they address all the needs of citizens at the same time. This is because the needs and values of people are different within any given jurisdiction. Besides, the needs of people are unlimited, whereas the resources of the state are scarce. Hence, public policy is simply the action plan of the government on how the resources of the state will be used to address a particular public problem, at a specific time.

It is worthy of note that the implementation of a public policy is not the sole responsibility of the government. As discussed by Peters (2019: 5-6), often, policy choices are not identified and implemented by a single organisation or even a single level of government. Somewhat, policies emerge from many programs, legislative intentions, and organisation interactions to affect the lives of citizens. Therefore, government employees do not implement all government policies. Many are implemented by private organisations or by individuals. Moreover, public policies can be either distributive, redistributive, constituent, or regulatory.

According to Lowi (1964: 690), distributive policies are measures concerning the distribution of governmental resources in the short run. Anderson (2003: 6) asserts that distributive policies involve the allocation of services or benefits to particular segments of the population, individuals, groups, corporations, and communities. Distributive policies typically involve using public funds to assist particular groups, communities, or industries. This kind of policy is perhaps the most common form of government policy. It makes use of general tax revenues, to provide benefits to individuals or groups, often by means of grants or subsidies (Denhardt, Denhardt & Blanc, 2015: 57). Thus, distributive policies appear to create only winners and no specific losers, although no one obviously bears the financial cost.

Redistributive policies according to Lowi (1964: 691) are like regulatory policies in the sense that, relations among broad categories of private individuals are involved.

Hence, individual decisions must be interrelated. According to Anderson (2003: 7), redistributive policies involve deliberate efforts by the government to shift the allocation of wealth, income, property, or rights among broad classes of the population, such as those who are endowed and those who are not endowed, proletariat, and bourgeoisie. For that reason, the aim of a redistributive policy is to promote equal access to public goods and services, by taking from the 'rich' to support the 'poor'.

Constituent policies, on one hand, are policies that are directed toward the agencies of government itself. Lowi (1972: 300) indicates that constituent policies are a legislation affecting the structure and function of government agencies, as well as policies governing their operations. Hence, constituent policies are intended either to benefit the public generally, or to serve the government (Denhardt, *et al.,* 2015: 58).

The regulatory policy, on the other hand, is the fourth type of public policy. Lowi (1972: 299) observes that regulation is obviously only one of several ways governments seek to control society and individual conduct. Regulatory policies impose restrictions or limitations on the behaviour of individuals and groups. That is to say, they reduce the freedom or discretion to act, of those regulated, whether bankers, utility companies, meatpackers, or saloonkeepers (Anderson, 2003: 7).

Denhardt, *et al. (*2015: 55) also consider a regulatory policy as a policy designed to limit the actions of persons or groups, to protect the public or a substantial portion of the public. It can be concluded that, a regulatory policy seeks to restrict how people go about their daily businesses or activities.

The focus of this study is on the mining resettlement and compensation policies, which are regulatory in nature. These policies seek to provide a livelihood support mechanism for communities affected by mining. Within the Ghanaian context, there are a number of policies, which have been formulated to regulate how mining resettlement programmes by multinational mining companies are undertaken. A detailed discussion of these policies is presented in the fourth chapter of this study.

2.5.1 Source of public policies

Public policies are governments' responses to public problems shaped by public values. Although public policies do not always satisfy the entire citizenry, they are

shaped and influenced by certain factors. For this reason, this section will attempt to discuss the sources of public policies.

Public policy sources refer to the various influences and factors that shape and inform the development of policies in the public sector. From the policy process identified by Thomas Dye, as presented in Table 2.1 below, it can be deduced that some sources of public policies include, but are not limited to, the supreme laws and legislation enacted by parliament or congress (that is, the constitution and other legislative instruments). Other sources of public policies may include the views and ideologies of political parties, interest groups such as trade or business unions, advocacy groups, opinions from the general public and the mass media, administrative agencies, research and academic institutions, among others. These various sources can significantly influence the government's decision to formulate and implement certain public policies to address issues considered problematic for the citizenry.

Furthermore, Holzer (2023: 186) observes that governmental policies affect and are affected by many policy stakeholders who may have differing views on the policy. To address the diversity in stakeholder perspectives, two governmental styles of policy-making are identified: the state-centred policy or regulative style, and the participatory or society-centred policy.

2.5.1.1 *State-centred policies*

The regulative style, according to Yu (2022: 1-2), assumes that the government stands at the top of the policy-making process and has a one-way relationship with all the other parties. The state-centred or regulative style implies that the government monitors a policy agenda, while policy stakeholders formulate their claims to influence the governmental policy agenda. In simple terms, state-centred policy emphasises the role of the state or government as the primary actor in policy-making and implementation.

The state-centred theory of Dale (1989) and Ozga (1993) rests on the centrality of the state, its relationship to a capitalist mode of production, and its inherent contradictions (Power, 2006: 79). This approach is characterised by centralised decision-making, whereby policy decisions are made by the state or government, with limited input from other stakeholders. Another characteristic of this approach is the top-down formulation

and implementation of policies. As opined by Pülzl and Treib (2017: 118), top-down theories start from the assumption that policy implementation begins with a decision made by the central government.

The key contributors to this approach include scholars such as Pressman and Wildavsky (1973), Van Meter and Van Horn (1975), Sabatier and Mazmanian (1979), and Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983). Followers of the top-down approach essentially followed a prescriptive approach, interpreting policy as input and implementation as output factors. Due to their emphasis on decisions made by central policymakers, deLeon (2001: 887-888) describes top-down approaches as a 'governing elite phenomenon'. Pressman and Wildavsky's original work followed a rational model approach. They advocated the assumption that policy objectives are set by central policymakers. Hence, they saw implementation as an 'interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieve them' (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973: xv). The authors underlined the linear relationship between agreed policy goals and their implementation.

Implementation, therefore, implied the establishment of adequate bureaucratic procedures to ensure that policies were executed as accurately as possible. To this end, implementing agencies needed sufficient resources, and there had to be a system of clear responsibilities and hierarchical control to supervise the actions of implementers. Although Sabatier and Mazmanian (1979: 538-542) acknowledged that perfect hierarchical control over the implementation process was hard to achieve in practice and that unfavourable conditions could cause implementation failure, they argued that policymakers could ensure effective implementation through adequate program design and a clever structuration of the implementation process.

While state-centred policies may be designed to protect and promote sensitive issues pertaining to national security and national interest, they are often associated with a more authoritarian or paternalistic approach to governance, where the state is seen as the primary authority and driver of social and economic change. This is because such policies do not encourage local participation, which may lead to the implementation of policies that infringe on the rights and freedoms of citizens.

2.5.1.2 *Society-centred policy*

Society-centred policy, or participative styles of policy-making, relates to the assumption that government should be seen as in the middle of all other stakeholders, with a two-way relationship occurring between the actors and government. Thus, society-centred policy is an approach to public policy that emphasises the active involvement and empowerment of citizens, communities, and civil society organisations in the policy-making process (Jessop, 2020: 119).

Holzer (2023: 162) asserts that stakeholders possess part of the problem-solving capacity; hence, the government alone cannot dominate policy-making processes. With this approach, stakeholders become actively involved in the policy-making process. The stakeholders in this regard include citizens, civil society organisations, think tanks, and communities. It is safe to infer that this approach to public policy encourages decentralisation in the decision-making process. Citizens and other stakeholders are involved in the policy formulation and implementation process, which provides an avenue or opportunity for them to contribute meaningfully.

Society-centred or participatory policy is characterised by the assumptions held by advocates of the 'bottom-up' approach to policy-making. The classical bottom-up scholars, such as the American researchers Lipsky (1971) and Elmore (1980), held the view that political outcomes did not always sufficiently relate to original policy objectives and that the assumed causal link was thus questionable. These theorists suggested studying what was actually happening at the recipient level and analysing the real causes influencing action on the ground. Studies within this strand of research typically started from the 'bottom' by identifying the networks of actors involved in actual policy delivery. They rejected the idea that policies are defined at the central level and that implementers need to adhere strictly to these objectives. Instead, they argued that the availability of discretion at the stage of policy delivery was beneficial, as local bureaucrats were seen to be much closer to the real problems than central policymakers. Another feature of society-centred policy is that it encourages participatory governance.

According to Fischer (2010: 2), participatory governance is a variant or subset of governance theory that emphasises democratic engagement, particularly through deliberative practices. In his submission, he indicates that participatory governance

includes but moves beyond the citizen's role as voter or watchdog to include practices of direct deliberative engagement with pressing issues. In simple terms, participatory governance encourages citizens and civil society organisations to be actively engaged in policy-making through various mechanisms, such as public consultations, participatory budgeting, and citizen juries. There is a high probability that encouraging citizens to participate in policy decisions will ensure that the needs of marginalised and excluded groups are addressed, thereby promoting social justice and equality. Additionally, citizens will develop a sense of responsibility towards ensuring the smooth implementation of policies as they take ownership of policy issues and their resolution.

Loperte (2024) indicates that participatory governance increases public trust, transforms adversarial relationships, and leads to higher-quality and more durable decisions. Furthermore, Audouin, Bergez, and Therond (2019: 178) state that participatory approaches generally share common concepts such as systems thinking, interdisciplinarity, and multi-stakeholder representation. It can, therefore, be inferred that society-centred policy seeks to create more inclusive, responsive, and accountable governance systems. This type of policy can lead to more effective and sustainable policies, as well as increased citizen trust and engagement in the political process.

It is, therefore, not surprising that, in recent decades, environmental governance has increasingly made use of public participation in decision-making processes, adopting the collaborative approaches required by new political and regulatory directives (Loperte, 2024: 674).

Relating the sources of policy to the topic under investigation, it is evident that although certain policies, such as conservation and natural resource management, are usually state-centred and adopt a top-down approach, issues regarding the allocation of individuals' farmlands for mining concessions, as well as compensation and resettlement packages, cannot adopt the same approach. There is a need to involve the affected persons from the initial stages. Their views should be sought during the formulation of mining resettlement and compensation policies. This will ensure the smooth implementation of these policies and reduce resentment and community-

company conflicts. Thus, the source of mining-sector resettlement and compensation policies should be society-centred rather than state-centred.

Another critical point for reflection, at this stage, is on how public policies are made. This is addressed in the subsequent section.

2.6 PUBLIC POLICYMAKING PROCESS

The process of making a policy is complex. It involves public opinion, media attitudes, expert ideas, active citizens, business and labour leaders, elected representatives, presidents and governors, judges and bureaucrats (Cochran, *et al*., 2010: 14). Policymaking calls on political resources, economic conditions, popular cultural attitudes, and international conditions. According to Dye (2013: 33), the study of how policies are made, generally considers a series of activities or processes, which occur within the political system. Given this nature of policymaking, it is convenient to perceive policymaking as a process model. This model is often referred to as the policy cycle.

The policy cycle as opined by Cairney (2012: 32), is the best-known way to organise the study of policymaking, and the best way to introduce a discussion of policy theories. Cochran, *et al*. (2010: 15) indicate that the process of making a policy begins with what is termed as the 'Three Pre-Policy Stages'. The three pre-policy stages are problem definition or issues formation, policy demands, and agenda formation. After the pre-policy stage, policy options are deliberated upon, and the best option is adopted. The best option is then implemented and thereafter evaluated (Cochran, *et al*., 2010: 12-15).

Kim (2023: 106341) likewise identifies the policy process to include problem identification and agenda setting, policy formulation, policy legitimation, policy implementation, and policy evaluation. Bridgman and Davis (2003: 100) as well as Howard (2005: 10-11), identify a process like that of Dye (2013: 34), but these authors include a sixth element which is policy maintenance, succession, or termination. In addition, Siddiki and Curley (2022: 61) and Hill (2022: 158), identify the policy process to entail the agenda setting stage, policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation.

The policy process identified by Cochran, *et al. (*2010: 16) is presented in Figure 2.1 below.

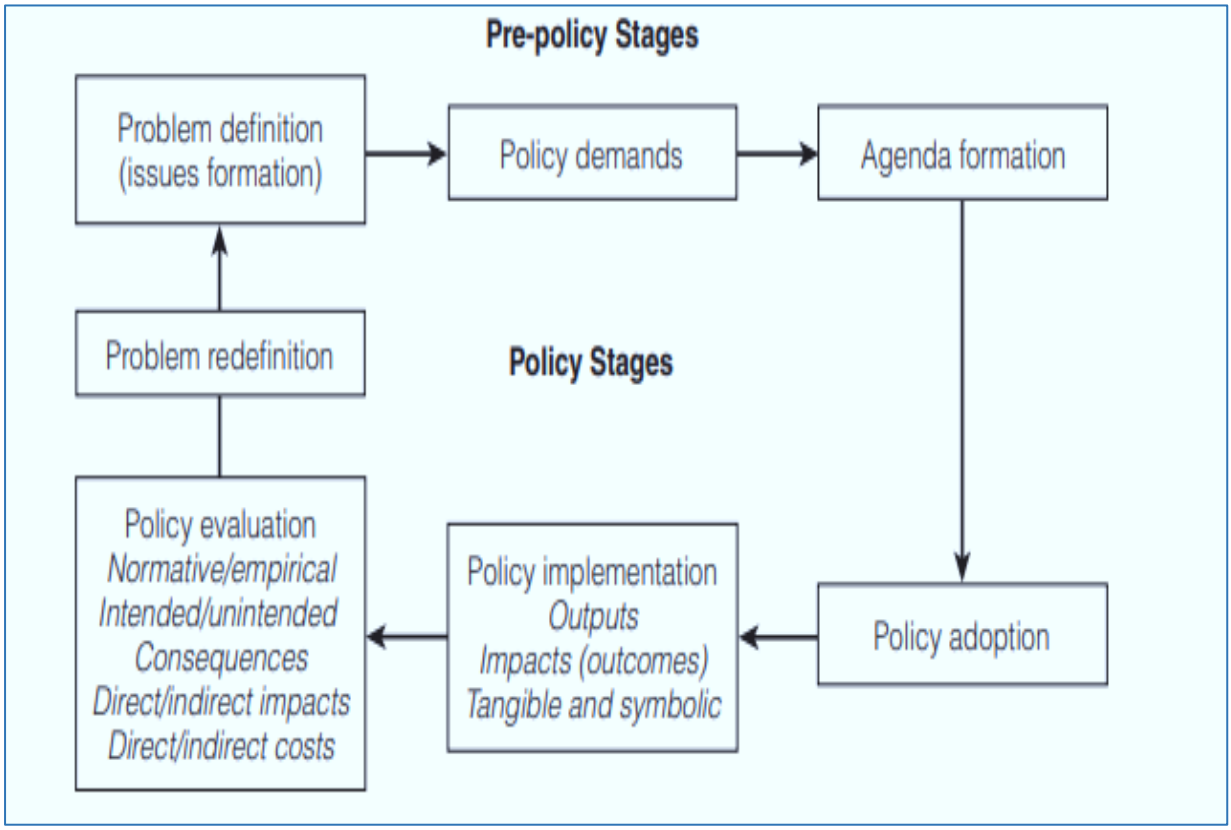


Figure 2.1: Pre-policy process

Source: (Cochran, *et al*., 2010: 9-11)

According to Figure 2.1, the process of making a policy is quite complex. It begins with the pre-policy stage, which focuses on issues and problems that have the potential to become public issues. Problems are identified, and data or evidence are gathered, after which potential policy options are considered before they are formally placed on the agenda for policy formulation. After the policy is formulated, it is adopted and implemented. The implemented policy is evaluated to determine if its impacts are tangible and symbolic. This is done during the evaluation stages of the policy, and where necessary, there is redefinition of the problem. This will go through the stages all over again, hence the process of policy making or the policy stages can be seen as cyclical in nature.

A detailed list of the policymaking process and actors involved is presented in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Policymaking process

Process	Activity	Participants
Problem identification	Publicising societal problems Expressing demand for government action	Mass media Interest groups Citizens Initiatives Public opinion
Agenda setting	Deciding what issues will be addressed, and what problems will be addressed by government	Elites, including presidents, legislature Candidates for elective office. Mass media
Policy formulation	Developing policy proposals to resolve issues and ameliorate problems	Think tanks. President and executive office Congressional committees Interest groups
Policy Legitimation	Selecting a proposal Developing political support for it Enacting it into law Deciding on its constitutionality	Interest groups President Legislature Courts
Policy Implementation	Budgeting and appropriations Organising departments and agencies Providing payments or services Levying taxes	President and White House staff Executive departments and agencies Independent agencies and government corporations
Policy Evaluation	Reporting outputs of government programs Evaluating impacts of policies on target and non-target groups Proposing changes and 'reforms'	Executive departments and agencies Legislature oversight committee Mass media Think tanks

Source: (Dye, 2013: 34).

Table 2.1 explains the policy-making process in detail, highlighting the activities and actors involved in each of the 6 policy processes.

Siddiki and Curley (2022: 33-35) observes that, although policymaking consists of a series of processes in the real world, these activities seldom occur in a neat,

systematic sequence. Rather, these processes occur simultaneously, each one collapsing into the others. For the purposes of this study, the policy process adopted by Dye (2013: 33-34) are used and explained in the ensuing sections.

2.6.1 Problem identification and agenda setting

The identification of a societal problem, which requires the action of the government, is the first step in the policymaking process. According to Dye (2013: 33), deciding on the problems are even more important than deciding on the solutions. This suggests that the identification of the problem is very critical. These problems are brought to the attention of the government through mass media, interest groups, and public opinions, among others.

According to Kim (2023: 106341), public problems are often identified through various channels and by a range of actors within society. Individuals or groups may highlight issues they perceive as pressing, while candidates seeking election frequently bring attention to problems as part of their campaigns to gain voter support. Political leaders may identify and address public problems as a means to enhance their reputation and improve their prospects for re-election. Similarly, political parties may emphasise specific issues to create favourable public perceptions and bolster their image among constituents. The mass media also plays a pivotal role by selecting and amplifying certain problems to attract public attention and generate newsworthy content. Additionally, protest groups may deliberately draw attention to particular challenges they face, seeking to elevate their concerns to the public and political agenda. Through these diverse mechanisms, public problems are brought to the forefront of societal discourse and policymaking.

However, the public problems that are chosen by the decisions makers constitute the policy agenda. This is evident in the works of Kingdon (2013), who suggests that the policy agenda is the list of subjects or problems, which are given attention by government officials and people outside the government who are closely associated with those government officials. In the view of this, of Gerston (2004: 52) states that four actors mostly set policy agenda. These are public officials, the bureaucracy, the mass media, and the interest groups (elected public officials, for instance, the president, the parliament, the ministries, and the courts. However, actual agenda

setting is related to the larger political game in terms of power, and the intensity of ideological conflict both within and between the (coalition) government and parliament.

Denhardt, *et al*. (2015: 51) also refer to these actors as 'Policy Entrepreneurs'. These policy entrepreneurs are those who are willing to invest personal time, energy, and in most cases money, in pursuit of policy changes. They adopt a variety of personal tactics, such as publicity campaigns, direct contacts, petition drives, or even involve themselves in major institutions, such as the media, political parties, or interest groups, that provide access to decision makers. Schnapp (2000) further observes that bureaucracies also have an impact on policymaking at both the planning and implementation stage. Bureaucracies can stand in as effective agenda setters under clearly identified circumstances.

Another actor that is considered as a frequently influencing agenda setting is the media. However, not all media topics highlighted for discussion necessarily become a public problem. This is because, mass media sometimes comes up with news, to deliberately seek attention to their personal problems (Kim, Zhang & Borah, 2024: 8).

Interest groups also influence policy agenda. Agenda setting theory generally requires advocates to expand interest in a particular issue or policy. Interest groups may not only initiate their own policy proposals, but they sometimes bring valuable technical knowledge to policy formation, as well as political information about their group's position on the issues. Nonetheless, the fact that interest groups place issues on the public agenda, does not necessarily suggest that it will be considered as a policy priority (Stevens & Willems, 2025: 6-8).

Denhardt, *et al*. (2015: 52) purport that, for a proposal to reach the top of the policy agenda, it must be consistent with emerging political realities. Thus, items that are consistent with the prevailing political climate, those that are favoured by the incumbent administration and legislative majority, and those that have interest group support (or at least lack organised opposition), are more likely to reach the top of the agenda. After the identification of the public problem for which the government would like to address, the next stage is the formulation of policy alternatives. This is discussed in the ensuing section.

2.6.2 Policy formulation

Policy formulation is the next stage after the problem has been identified and the agenda set. Policy formulation involves the definition, discussion, acceptance, or rejection of feasible courses of action for coping with public problems (Knill & Tosun, 2008: 496). Dye (2013: 42) also observes that policy formulation occurs in government bureaucracies, interest group offices, legislative committee rooms, meetings of special commissions, and policy planning organisations, otherwise known as think tanks. To Anderson (2003: 20) policy formulation encompasses the creation, identification, or borrowing of proposed courses of action, often called alternatives or options, for resolving or ameliorating public problems. Denhardt, *et al*. (2015: 52) are also of the view that policy formulation involves the development of formal policy statements (legislation, executive orders, administrative rules, and so on) that are viewed as legitimate.

Bubak (2023: 27) also indicate that that public policy takes place within the broader context of technical and political constraints of state action. The political constraints can be either substantive or procedural. Substantive constraints refer to the nature of the problem, while procedural constraints are about procedures involved in adopting a policy. These procedural constraints are related to both institutional and tactical constraints. Policy formulation, just like the problem identification and agenda setting, also involves several actors. According to Knill and Tosun (2008: 497-498), policy formulation brings the relationship between executives and legislatures to the forefront. There are in fact good reasons to believe that there is a control of executives over legislatures and parties. Executives can rely on more resources than parties and their representatives in the legislature.

Interest groups also play a key role in policy formulation as they often work with executive and legislative officials to develop a policy draft. Interest groups may play a big part in formulating legislation about complex and technical issues, as well as when government institutions lack time and the needed staff to cope with such matters (Stevens & Willems, 2025: 9).

The next stage after policy formulation is the adoption or legitimisation of the policy.

2.6.3 Policy legitimation

Policy legitimation also known as policy adoption is the next stage after policy formulation. According to Mathebula (2023: 58) policy legitimation or adoption involves deciding which proposed alternative, including taking no action, will be used to handle a problem. Kraft and Furlong (2007: 86) also define policy legitimation as giving legal force to decisions or justifying policy action. Thus, although the public and other actors set the policy agenda, government institutions determine the final adoption of a particular policy alternative. This suggests that policy legitimation is the phase of the policy process, where the government endorses and gives political support to a public problem, which requires urgent attention.

In the view of Kraft and Furlong (2007: 87), the whole process of legitimation is mostly political. This suggests that the likelihood of a member of parliament approving a policy draft is subject to party affiliation, and the extent to which the draft policy conforms or deviates from the political ideologies of the ruling government.

After governmental institutions have provided a legal backing to the policy alternatives, the next stage is to implement the policy.

2.6.4 Policy implementation

The rational process after the agenda-setting and policy formulation stage is the implementation of the policy. According to Knill and Tosun (2008: 499-501), policy implementation represents the conversion of new laws and programs into practice. Thus, without the appropriate implementation strategy, policy has neither substance nor significance. Dye (2013: 55) defines policy implementation as the continuation of politics by other means. According to Mathebula (2023: 58-59), implementation is the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually made in a statute (though also possible through important executive orders or court decisions). Ideally, that decision identifies the problem(s) to be addressed, stipulates the objective(s) to be pursued, implies a causal theory of how those objectives can be attained, and further structures the implementation process to reach its goals.

Another scholar who has also tried to define policy implementation is O'Toole. In 1995, O'Toole, in his article '*Rational Choice and Policy Implementation*', defined policy

implementation as the connection between the expression of governmental intention and actual results (O'Toole, 1995: 43). In 2000, he defined policy implementation as what develops between the establishment of an apparent intention on the part of government to do something, or stop doing something, and the ultimate impact in the world of action (O'Toole, 2000: 266 & 273). In his view, the central question in implementation research is: 'What happens between the establishment of policy and its impact in the world of action?'

The implementation process normally runs through several stages. These are, firstly, the passage of the basic statute, followed by the policy outputs (decisions) of the implementing agencies. The next process is the compliance of target groups with those decisions, after which the actual impacts, both intended and unintended, of those outputs are observed. The next stage is the perception of the impacts of agency decisions and, finally, important revisions (or attempted revisions) in the basic statute (Mathebula, 2023: 60). Furthermore, the implementation of public policies involves all the activities designed to carry out the policies enacted by the legislative arm. These activities include the creation of new organisations, departments, agencies, bureaus, and so on. It also involves the assignment of new responsibilities to existing organisations (Dye, 2013: 37).

From the above, it is evident that the implementation of public policy is a dynamic process that is not only the prerogative of the government. There are also non-state actors and agencies that aid in the implementation of policies, such as private firms, civil society groups, and non-profit organisations. For this reason, the success of a public policy depends on how well these institutions and bureaucratic structures implement government decisions.

Furthermore, Spink (2024: 2) observes that the implementation of a policy depends on the type of policy. That is, the implementation of a policy that is regulatory in nature requires the implementing agency to be responsive to the communities over which they preside. Distributive policies, on the other hand, are implemented with some bureaucratic discretion, legislature subcommittees, and organised interest groups exercising continuous oversight. The implementation of a redistributive policy requires that little discretion be left to bureaucracy, as the legislature puts significant effort into designing these policies.

That notwithstanding, the availability of sufficient resources is also required for the successful implementation of public policy. This is reinforced by Gerston (2004: 98), who attests that resources are needed to translate policy objectives into an operational framework.

Lastly, to ensure that the intended objectives of the policies are achieved, the implemented policies must be evaluated. This process is discussed below.

2.6.5 Policy evaluation

The final stage of the policy process is the evaluation of the implemented policy. According to Knill and Tosun (2008: 501), policy evaluation provides a feedback loop, enabling decision-makers to draw lessons from each policy in operation. This feedback loop identifies new problems and sets in motion the policymaking process once again, creating an endless policy cycle. Birkland (2016: 15) defines policy evaluation as the process of determining whether and to what extent a program is achieving benefits, as well as its explicit or implicit goals. Dye (2013:36) also defines policy evaluation as the evaluation of policies by government agencies, external consultants, the media, and the public.

Policy evaluation thus involves collecting and analysing information about the efficiency and effectiveness of policies. The purpose is to determine whether the goals of the policy have been achieved and to improve policy performance. After a policy is passed by the legislature and implemented by the bureaucracy, it becomes a subject of evaluation. The main question at this stage is whether the output of the decision-making process of a given public policy has attained the intended goals. Experts with knowledge of the processes and objectives pertaining to the issue under review usually carry out policy evaluation (Gerston, 2004: 124). Munger (2000: 20) observes that the evaluation of a policy can be carried out in different ways, including purely formal evaluations, client satisfaction evaluations, outcome evaluations, cost-benefit evaluations (comparison of costs and impacts of a policy), and evaluation of long-term consequences.

In practice, policy evaluation presents numerous challenges to evaluators. Citizens and governments alike tend to interpret the actual effects of a policy in ways that serve their own intentions. More often, governments avoid the precise definition of policy

objectives; otherwise, politicians risk taking the blame for obvious failures (Jann & Wegrich, 2007: 57).

In short, the purpose of policy evaluation, according to Denhardt, *et al.* (2015: 56), is to determine whether a certain program is effective; that is, whether it produces the intended results. After the evaluation stage, changes in the policy may be introduced that can expand, reduce, or eliminate the program. Hence, the results of the evaluation procedure can also lead to the termination of certain policies.

From the above discussion, it is obvious that public policies are the action plans of government in resolving public problems within the country. These public problems can emanate from any sector of the country, including the mining sector. The mining industry is one of the sectors that contributes significantly to the national economy. Nonetheless, its activities sometimes pose threats to the environment in the form of water pollution and environmental degradation. In addition, these activities create unemployment and consequently serve as a breeding ground for social vices such as prostitution, drug or substance abuse, and even crimes such as armed robbery (Hemer, 2016: 281; Kumah, *et al*., 2020: 620). These problems are often the result of the resettlement or displacement of people and communities to claim their lands for mineral exploration (Hilson & Banchirigah, 2009: 174; Downing, 2002: 4-6).

To ensure that mining resettlement programmes provide positive effects on societies, various mining sector policies have been formulated and implemented by the Government of Ghana (see Chapter 4). Within the Ghanaian context, various organisations are involved in the policymaking process of mining resettlement and compensation policies. These organisations include, but are not limited to, the Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology, and Innovation (MESTI), the Minerals Commission, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Chamber of Commerce, Local Government, The Third World Network (TWN), and the Wassa Association of Communities Affected by Mining (WACAM). These organisations are governmental, non-governmental, or private. The success or failure of these policies depends on how well these actors and institutions discharge their roles.

It is therefore imperative to examine how institutional and organisational arrangements can aid in the implementation of public policies. This is discussed in the ensuing section.

2.7 INSTITUTIONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL ARRANGEMENT IN POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Institutions and organisations play a critical role in the design and implementation of public policy. According to Bohni, Turksema and Van der Knaap (2015: 42-44), institutions within which design occurs influence the types of designs that emerge and, therefore, affect the probabilities of success of the policy once implemented. Peters (2019: 131) is also of the view that within institutions, the structure and culture of individual organisations will affect the way design takes place. Thus, inferring from the work of Cervantes and Radge (2018: 168), Peters (2019: 8-9) posits that all bureaucracies involved in policy design have some common characteristics, but there are also marked differences among versions of bureaucracy that affect their decisions about policy. To understand the importance of the various institutions, Lewis (2018: 250) argues that one must first consider the nature of policy design and the emerging emphasis on innovation and innovative organisations for design.

It is also important to note that institutions are humanly devised written or unwritten norms or codes of conduct that establish a hierarchy of authority, define the rights and responsibilities of people, place constraints on their interaction with others, and determine how resources are allocated (North, 1990: 361). Gaus, Dimock and White (1936: 32-34) explains organisations as the arrangement of personnel to facilitate the accomplishment of some agreed purpose through the allocation of functions and responsibilities. Thus, parliament, ministries, governmental departments and agencies, private organisations, civil society groups, and non-governmental organisations, among others, are examples of organisations.

From the above, public policies can be considered a type of formal institution implemented by organisations. Therefore, mining resettlement programmes and policies are a type of institution established to regulate how mining firms should conduct their resettlement and compensation activities within their host communities. These policies can be considered a type of formal institution that seeks to improve the livelihoods of affected persons and safeguard them against the creation of ‘new poverty’. Additionally, there are non-governmental agencies and private corporations that collaborate with and support governmental organisations in the implementation of these institutions (Dovchin & Dovchin, 2024: 537).

Another important subject to address is an explanation of what constitutes resettlement and displacement as a public policy. This is presented in the section below.

2.8 THE CONCEPTS OF RESETTLEMENT, DISPLACEMENT, AND RELOCATION

Public resettlement programmes are undertaken for diverse reasons, depending on the social and political situations. These include poverty reduction, the improvement of social services, and restoring the income and livelihoods of affected people (Cernea, 2008: 90; Cernea, 2009: 264). Scholars have typically categorised displaced or resettled persons based on the primary cause of the displacement. Four primary categories of displacement/resettlement have been identified in the literature: conflict, natural disasters, environmental conservation, and development. For instance, people can be displaced because of wars, fire outbreaks, floods, and the construction of roads and dams, to name a few. These categories are then grouped according to the cause of the displacement, whether planned or unplanned (Abu, Heath, Adger, Codjoe, Butler and Quinn, 2024: 3463; Cernea, 2022: 239).

Can the concepts of resettlement, displacement, and relocation be used interchangeably?

Resettlement is defined as the phenomenon of population redistribution, either in a planned or spontaneous manner. That is, relocating people to areas other than their own for the purpose of converting transient populations (nomadic pastoralists, transhumants) or shifting cultivators to a new way of life based on sedentary forms of agricultural production (Dovchin & Dovchin, 2024: 538). According to Ofori, *et al.* (2023: 64), resettlement involves the movement of communities from one environment to another and changes or modifies the physical and social environment in which settlers find themselves and must adapt to.

Similarly, Smyth (2023:189) defines resettlement as the process by which individuals or groups of people spontaneously or deliberately leave their original settlement sites to resettle in new areas, where they can begin new trends of life by adapting to the biophysical, social, and administrative systems of the new environment. In the opinion of Mama (2003: 39), resettlement is a process usually assisted by the state, private

sector, or development organisations, which moves people from their area of residence to offer alternative living conditions.

Yang, Li, Lu and Peng (2023: 1777) explain resettlement as moving indigenes or residents from their present location to a new place provided by the company to make way for the company's expansive operations. According to Oware Twerefoo (2021), resettlement is the physical removal of affected persons to a location determined by the institution or agency inducing the resettlement, along with the payment of compensation in the form of infrastructural and social amenities.

Conversely, displacement refers to both the physical removal of people from their homes and restrictions on their resource use, including access to places that prevent them from pursuing their livelihoods (Cernea, 2022: 242). Displacement is also described as the dislocation of people from their native place and region. It often worsens, rather than alleviates, economic insecurity, helplessness, and alienation. Displacement can also mean the loss of economic livelihoods and communities. According to Abu, *et al.* (2024: 3466), displacement refers not only to those who are forced to physically relocate to make way for a project and its related aspects but also to those displaced from their resource base and livelihoods. It is commonly experienced through the loss of land and the disruption of social and economic relationships.

Relocation, on the other hand, is described by Chen, Boadi, Shi, Amponsah, Dodoo and Mangudhla (2023: 224) as a frequently stressful event, accompanied by major losses, including the loss of possessions, social support systems, and mobility. Annor, Annor and Abdul-Nasiru (2024: 1361) define community relocation as moving indigenes or residents whose houses, villages, and farms are within 500 meters of a mining pit to a new place constructed for them by the company. Conversely, Oware Twerefoo (2021) defines relocation as the physical removal of affected persons from their homes to an unknown destination after the payment of cash compensation for their entire asset. Relocation, in this sense, not only places restrictions on access to their previous settlements but also 'deletes' or 'erases' all ties the affected persons have with their previous settlement.

According to Chen, *et al.* (2023: 225-226), the distinguishing element between resettlement and displacement is that resettlement is a physically planned relocation

combined with appropriate support mechanisms, including social support in the new location. In contrast, displacement is the negative phenomenon involving the violation of fundamental human rights or the initial step in the resettlement process.

From the above, it is evident in all the definitions that resettlement, relocation, and displacement involve people or communities moving from their original place of settlement to another place. The difference in these three definitions lies in the compensation paid and the access to or restriction from resources in their previous settlements.

For this study, the definition of resettlement and relocation by Oware Twerefoo (2021) is adapted, and the words ‘resettlement’ and ‘displacement’ are used interchangeably. It is also evident from the definitions above that all three concepts describe terms in population movement, which can be either voluntary or involuntary. The distinction between these types of population movement is represented in the following section.

2.8.1 Voluntary and involuntary resettlement or displacement

Resettlement can be classified as voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary resettlement is sometimes referred to as spontaneous resettlement. The word ‘spontaneous’ is an adjective that means ‘performed or occurring because of an impulse or inclination, and without premeditation or external stimulus.’ The word ‘spontaneous’ is synonymous with ‘unforced’ or ‘voluntary’ (Oxford Languages Online Dictionary, 2024). The Oxford Online Dictionary (2024) also defines spontaneous as an event or something that happens or is done naturally without being forced. With this basic understanding, spontaneous or voluntary resettlement occurs when people decide on their own to move from their original areas to another location.

Essah (2022: 129) also refers to voluntary resettlement/displacement as ‘soft eviction.’ He attests that ‘soft eviction’ provides the opportunity for affected persons to decide whether to stay behind or take part in a resettlement process, which might offer them new opportunities. For this reason, most donors and governments do not have policies for ‘voluntary’ resettlements. This makes voluntary resettlements, from the operational point of view, much easier, cheaper, and more acceptable. This type of resettlement is not subject to the same controls and policy surveillance as involuntary displacement.

Involuntary, forced, or induced displacement or resettlement is said to have occurred when people are compelled to move from their original areas based on circumstances beyond their control. According to Cernea and Schmidt-Soltau (2006: 1810), forced migration, displacement, eviction, or involuntary resettlement may be defined as the compulsory removal processes initiated when a project's need for 'right of way' is deemed to override the 'right to stay' of the inhabiting populations. The right to forcibly move people from their homes at the behest of a higher social good (called eminent domain) is one of the defining powers of states. Thus, involuntary resettlement takes place when an external agent imposes it on people in a planned and controlled manner due to external circumstances that force them to move (Smyth, 2023:190).

The United Nations (2024) refers to involuntary resettlement as a forced eviction when it occurs without the provision of, and access to, appropriate forms of legal and other forms of protection. The International Finance Corporation (2023) also considers resettlement involuntary when affected individuals or communities do not have the right to refuse land acquisition that results in displacement. This occurs in cases of lawful expropriation or restrictions on land use, based on eminent domain (such restrictions may include restrictions of access to legally designated nature conservation areas) and negotiated settlements in which the buyer can resort to expropriation or impose legal restrictions on land use if negotiations with the seller fail.

Involuntary resettlement programmes can be either planned with an intended objective or unplanned. For instance, conflicts and natural disasters can force people to relocate. Such activities are unplanned. A planned forced resettlement usually seeks to reduce poverty and enhance regional development by targeting those with their own resources to invest in agricultural activities (Phiri, 2009: 11) and other developmental projects.

In unassuming terms, planned involuntary resettlement is usually undertaken for developmental reasons. This is referred to as Development-Induced Displacement and Resettlement (DIDR). The term DIDR was coined in the mid and late 1980s. DIDR, according to Terminski (2015: 46-47), is a socio-economic issue associated with the loss or significant reduction of access to basic resources on which communities depend. The physical abandonment of existing residences is secondary to the loss of access to material resources such as land and forest, as well as intangible resources

such as socio-economic ties. DIDR is caused by several factors, including the construction of dams or hydro plants, transportation, urbanisation (expansion of urban cities and infrastructure), mining and transportation of resources, deforestation and expansion of agricultural areas, creation of national parks and reserves, population redistribution schemes, and other reasons such as the construction of airports.

For example, (Mensah, Yu & Shi, 2022: 399) indicated that the construction of dams has led to the resettlement and displacement of 40 to 80 million people worldwide. In 1999, the Jabotabek urban development project in Indonesia, which involved the widening of roads in Jakarta, displaced between 40,000 and 50,000 people. In South Sudan, the creation of the 1,500 km-long pipeline Block 5A displaced more than 160,000 people. In West Africa, the construction of the Akosombo Dam in 1963 by the Government of Ghana displaced 80,000 people, the Kossou Dam in Côte d'Ivoire displaced 75,000 people in 1970, and the Nangbéto Dam in Togo and Benin displaced 10,600 people in 1987.

With regard to the creation of national parks and conservation sites, Terminski (2018: 39-40) purports that between 900,000 and 14.4 million people were displaced in Africa for this purpose. The creation of Serengeti National Park and Kibale National Park also displaced 50,000 Maasai people and 35,000 people in Uganda, respectively. Additionally, over 10,000 people were displaced during the establishment of Cross River National Park in Nigeria.

Concerning MIDR, communities and individuals are either forcefully or involuntarily displaced or resettled to enable the exploration of mineral resources such as gold, diamonds, bauxite, and other valuable mineral resources (Mensah, *et al*., 2022: 402). The subsequent section focuses on MIDR programmes.

2.9 MINING RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMMES

Numerous studies have demonstrated that mining-caused displacement and resettlement, especially when it is involuntary, can be overwhelmingly detrimental to host communities (Spiegel & Mhlanga, 2022: 429; Essah, 2022: 132).

Mining-Induced Resettlement is the extensive process of planning and implementing the relocation of people, households, and communities from one location to another as a result of mining projects, along with all the associated activities such as the

provision of compensation, livelihood restoration, and improvement of social conditions in the community. Mining-Induced Displacement mostly involves the involuntary movement of affected people from their original abode and socioeconomic activities (Spiegel & Mhlanga, 2022: 439).

This investment comes with some challenges because these resources are mined from farmlands located in rural territories. Consequently, this results in the displacement of communities within such geographical locations.

For example, the development of the Freeport Gold Mine on the Indonesian part of Papua Island displaced over 15,000 people. Also, the expansion of mining in India led to the involuntary resettlement of over 2.55 million people between 1950 and 1990 (Terminski, 2015: 18). Between 1985 and 1991, 10 villages comprising 424 housing units and a total population of 3,619 in Sierra Leone were relocated and resettled on new sites to make room for mining activities (Ntiri, 1992: 88). In 2017, Sierra Rutile Limited further displaced 822 people in 167 households at Fionde in southern Sierra Leone to enable the mining of rutile.

Although MIDR results in the displacement of people, it is unique from other public resettlement programmes. These features include the nature of incremental land access, cohabitation between mines and communities, patterns of leverage for compensation and associated socio-economic interdependencies, and the complexities of governance arrangements that congeal around mining operations (Owen & Kemp, 2015: 480).

The pace and scale at which mining activities expand or contract, as well as the distribution and impact of its ‘footprint’, influence the industry's ability to adapt to change and uncertain circumstances. The variability of dynamic and interactive factors in any given operating context raises questions about the degree to which mining and resettlement can be considered a ‘planned’ activity (Owen & Kemp, 2015: 481).

Another differentiating element of MIDR is that resettlement can occur at any stage of the project cycle. In mining, project planning and investment decisions are governed by external factors, such as commodity prices, shareholder expectations, project financing requirements, in addition to legislative requirements and regulatory standards at different project phases (Mishra & Mohanty, 2020: 460-462). While

regulators may influence the social safeguards that a developer will adhere to, the volatility in commodity markets can lead to rapid changes in a project's mine development plan. This, in turn, can result in an unexpected demand for land by the project, creating pressure on all parties to manage acquisition and displacement (Owen & Kemp, 2015: 482).

Finally, governments, non-governmental organisations, private corporations, and other international stakeholders such as the International Finance Corporation and the World Bank influence and monitor MIDR programmes and policies. The involvement of these organisations, both national and international, in the formation and implementation of MIDR programmes and policies highlights the uniqueness of MIDR compared to other DIDR programmes (International Finance Corporation, 2022).

From the above discussion, it can be established that MIDR has outcomes considered ‘undesirable’ or ‘problematic’ by the public. It is therefore a private activity necessitated by the quest of government to satisfy public interest, which results in public problems. Hence, it is an appropriate topic for discussion within the field of public administration.

2.10 GLOBAL AND AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE OF MIDR

Wang, *et al.* (2020: 3414-3416) assert that physical displacement, relocation, and resettlement are widely acknowledged as posing enormous risks to project-affected people. Thus, irrespective of the cause of the displacement, the affected persons suffer great losses which affect their livelihoods. MIDR, which is a type of DIDR, has led to the displacement of several families in jurisdictions where mining activities are undertaken. This section attempts to examine the experiences and policies of some selected countries both globally and in Africa regarding MIDR programs and policies. The purpose of this section is to identify whether there are common mistakes, success stories, and lessons Ghana can adopt in improving its MIDR policies and programs.

2.10.1 Implementation of MIDR programmes in China

According to reports by the World Trade Scanner, China remains the largest producer of gold in 2024 with a mine production of 370 metric tons (World Trade Scanner, 2024). Aside from gold, China has other substantial amounts of minerals such as lead, coal, manganese, and zinc (Yang, Zhao & Ho, 2017: 410). Nonetheless, due to

underground mining, China is faced with a major challenge of land subsidence (Bian, *et al*., 2010), creating 'floating villages,' a term describing villages located on land hollowed out due to underground mining. Among the challenges caused by this underground mining are cracks in houses, reduction in water availability, desertification, pollution of land and water resources (World Bank, 2008), receding cropland, and the displacement of local farmers. Xinhua (2015), cited in Yang, *et al.* (2017), observed that over 1,000 floating villages were reported in Shanxi Province (one of China's foremost coal mining areas), leading to the displacement of 2.3 million people. As opined by the authors, this figure exceeds the number of people displaced by the Three Gorges Dam.

The study by Yang, *et al.* (2017: 411-414) also noted that four villages consisting of 1,120 households were resettled in 2006 within Shandong Province. Furthermore, in 2014, 421 households (1,248 individuals) and 98 households (440 individuals) were relocated within Shandong, Jiangsu, and Chongqing provinces, respectively, due to mining activities. These facts attest that the displacement of people for development or mining purposes is not a new occurrence in China. The World Bank report (2010) entitled '*Economically, socially and environmentally sustainable coal mining sector in China*' affirms this assertion. In the report, it states that village relocation is less common in developed countries compared to China. This statement presupposes that China has a higher rate of displaced communities for development or mining purposes. Sadly, within the Chinese context, the resettlement of these communities or villages occurs after land subsidence.

Despite the high numbers of resettled communities in China, there are no specific laws in the country that address MIDR; instead, resettlement after land loss is regulated under the 2004 Land Administration Law (Yang, *et al*., 2017: 414). Furthermore, there are no national standards to address compensation for MIDR damages. The compensation for properties damaged by mining is estimated in accordance with local standards, leading to very low standards. Furthermore, farmers or affected persons are ill-informed about the resettlement process, hence the issue of free, prior, and informed consent. According to Yang, *et al.* (2017: 415), this situation has created a lot of dispute because the affected persons are compensated poorly for their houses. Similarly, they are not provided alternative farmlands in their relocated villages, neither do they have access to alternative livelihood programmes or off-farm employment.

Though this situation might be similar to what exists in Ghana, at least Ghana has national laws governing compensation and resettlement programmes. Thus, compared to Ghana, the MIDR policies and programs in China are not such an exceptional case.

2.10.2 Germany's approach to MIDR

Germany is another country that has held a significant position in the global mining industry, particularly in the production of various minerals. In 2019, Germany emerged as the leading global producer of kaolin, contributing 11.7% to the worldwide output (Anderson, 2021: 146-147). Additionally, Germany's mining sector was notable for producing 13.2% of global peat, 7.3% of potash, 6.2% of fused aluminium oxides, and various other minerals, including refined selenium, salt, and silicon carbide, among others (U.S. Geological Survey, 2021: 61; Olson, 2021: 72-73; Simmons, 2021: 48-19; Tuck, 2021: 82). Despite this robust production, Germany's mining output experienced significant fluctuations between 1992 and 2018, with the highest growth recorded at 46.6% in 2007 and a record low of -30.4% in 2010 (Thomas, 2018).

The social impact of mining in Germany is profound, particularly concerning the displacement of local communities. The Ruhr district's underground mining activities have historically led to significant land subsidence, disrupting not only the environment but also the social and economic fabric of the region (Sroka, Preuße & Kateloe, 2022: 261). Lignite mining in the Rhenish and Lusatian regions has similarly caused widespread displacement, altering the lives of many communities (Gerwin, Raab, Birkhofer, Hinz, Letmathe, Leuchner, Roß-Nickoll, Rüde, Trachte, Wätzold & Lehmkuhl, 2023: 19). These communities often face challenges such as inadequate compensation, loss of livelihoods, and disruption of social cohesion (Miller, 2024). Furthermore, the displacement has led to the loss of cultural heritage, as communities are often relocated without sufficient regard for their historical and cultural ties to the land (Terminski, 2018: 43).

Socio-economic challenges faced by communities displaced due to lignite mining, include the loss of social cohesion, economic instability and cultural heritage. The compensation provided to displaced communities often falls short of addressing the full extent of their losses, exacerbated by delays and a lack of transparency in the

process (Heidinger, 2022: 273). The case of the Hambach lignite mine illustrates these issues vividly, where displaced communities faced inadequate compensation, lack of essential support services, and significant legal and administrative barriers (Krüger, Kraus & Kaifie: 2022: 7143). The study underscores the need for improved compensation mechanisms, enhanced support services, and stronger legal frameworks to better address the challenges faced by displaced communities.

Germany's approach to MIDR is governed by a comprehensive legal framework, primarily the German Federal Mining Act (BBergG), which regulates mining activities, including compensation and resettlement (Zerzawy, Beermann, Fiedler & Runkel, 2021: 56). The Act mandates that mining companies provide fair compensation and ensure that displaced individuals are resettled in a manner that maintains or improves their living conditions. Additionally, the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) Act requires that mining projects undergo thorough assessments of their potential social and environmental impacts, including considerations for displacement and resettlement (Zerzawy, *et al*., 2021: 56-57). However, despite these legal provisions, there are significant gaps in the implementation of resettlement plans. Delays in compensation, inadequate support services, and insufficient community involvement in planning processes are common challenges that undermine the effectiveness of resettlement efforts. These issues have led to dissatisfaction and social unrest among displaced communities, highlighting the need for more robust and inclusive approaches to MIDR in Germany (Heidinger, 2022: 274).

In contrast to Germany, Ghana has established specific regulations to address compensation and resettlement in the context of mining activities. Ghana's Minerals and Mines (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulations (2012) require mining companies to develop and implement comprehensive resettlement plans, which must be approved by relevant local authorities. These plans include provisions for fair compensation, alternative livelihoods, and infrastructure development for displaced communities. Moreover, the regulations mandate the establishment of a Resettlement Monitoring Committee to oversee the implementation of resettlement plans and ensure compliance with environmental and social standards (Minerals Commission, 1993).

2.10.3 Peru’s MIDR policies and programmes

As reported by Marcial (2024), Peru ranks as the second-largest producer of copper worldwide and holds substantial reserves of gold, silver, and zinc. The United States (US) Geological Survey (USGS, 2024) indicates that Peru possesses 10% of the world’s copper reserves, 4.2% of gold, 21.4% of silver, 7.6% of zinc, 7% of lead, and 2.3% of tin. Despite these extensive mineral resources, Peru experienced a decline in mining investments by approximately six percent in 2023, totaling 4.91 billion U.S. dollars. The most significant contributor to this decline was Compañia Minera Antamina S.A., which accounted for over 628 million U.S. dollars in investments. Although the growth of foreign investments has decelerated, global demand for copper, silver, and gold remains robust, resulting in increased output of these metals (USGS, 2024).

Mining activities in Peru present substantial challenges, particularly in rural regions, where the potential for enhancing livelihoods through mining remains limited (Chavez, 2023: 618; Loayza & Rigolini, 2016: 220). Since the 1990s, the expansion of mining investments has precipitated social conflicts, environmental degradation, heavy metal pollution, increased poverty, and loss of livelihoods (Leiva, 2022: 101165). Relocated communities face significant hardships, including the deprivation of means of subsistence, disintegration of social cohesion, and inadequate reparation due to insufficient preparation and involvement in the resettlement process (Owen, *et al*., 2020: 4910-4912).

The adverse effects of mining on local and Indigenous communities are particularly concerning. The expansion of mining projects, such as Glencore's Coroccohuayco project, has elicited criticism due to inadequate consultation with affected communities and non-compliance with international resettlement standards. In Espinar Province, the detrimental impacts of mining outweigh the purported benefits, leading to conflicts and widespread social discontent. Peru has established several legal frameworks addressing MIDR. Key among these is the General Mining Law, which mandates Environmental and Social Impact Assessments (ESIA) before the commencement of mining projects, and the Law of Prior Consultation (Law No. 29785), which requires consultation with Indigenous and local communities (Kodde & Joanknecht, 2023: 16-18).

While Peru has implemented specific laws aimed at addressing MIDR, the practical application of these laws often falls short. Government efforts to mitigate the negative impacts of mining have not yielded significant progress, particularly in the areas of water source rehabilitation and addressing the health issues of affected communities (Vallejos Veit, Tipula & Reytar, 2023). This situation underscores the complexities involved in balancing economic development through mining with the protection of the rights and well-being of local and Indigenous populations.

Peru's MIDR policies and programmes reflect both the challenges and limitations inherent in addressing displacement and resettlement in the context of large-scale mining. Despite the existence of legal frameworks and international scrutiny, the adverse impacts on local communities, particularly Indigenous populations, remain a critical concern. When compared to countries like Ghana, where specific constitutional provisions mandate resettlement and safeguard the rights of displaced inhabitants, Peru's approach to MIDR reveals significant gaps that require urgent attention.

For an African perspective, the following countries are discussed.

2.10.4 The mining boom in Côte d'Ivoire and MIDR

The mining boom in Côte d'Ivoire, while a significant driver of national economic growth, has also intensified socio-political tensions, particularly in regions directly affected by mining operations. The perception of inequitable distribution of mining benefits, coupled with weak governance structures, has led to social unrest, including incidents of rioting in mining communities. Furthermore, the expansion of mining activities has had detrimental effects on local agriculture, as it has led to the loss of arable land, thereby exacerbating food insecurity and undermining the livelihoods of local populations. These challenges disproportionately affect vulnerable groups, including women and youth, who face increased risks of socio-economic marginalisation due to the loss of land and traditional livelihoods (Mohammed & Allouche, 2017).

The resettlement of communities displaced by mining activities in Côte d'Ivoire presents significant challenges, particularly regarding the adequacy of compensation and the quality of resettlement conditions. A study by The Fair Finance Methodology (2023) highlights the difficulties faced by displaced communities in the Tongon gold

mine area, where inadequate compensation, substandard housing, and limited access to social services have led to a marked decline in the quality of life for many displaced individuals. The study emphasises the importance of involving affected communities in the planning and implementation of resettlement projects to ensure that their needs and concerns are adequately addressed. Moreover, continuous monitoring and evaluation of resettlement processes are crucial to mitigate the long-term social and economic impacts of displacement and to promote sustainable outcomes.

2.10.5 Mining-induced displacement in Papua New Guinea

The second African country, this section focusses on Papua New Guinea. According to GlobalData (2023), Papua New Guinea was the nineteenth-largest gold producer globally, experiencing a 14% growth in output in 2022. Despite this recent increase, the country witnessed a 12.1% decline in gold production over the five years leading up to 2022. However, it is projected that production will rise by 8% between 2023 and 2027 (GlobalData, 2023). Papua New Guinea's economy is significantly reliant on the mining sector, particularly the exportation of cobalt, copper, gold, and nickel. As of 2019, the country was ranked as the 8th largest producer of cobalt and the 15th largest producer of gold globally (Sheaffer, 2021: 70). The legal framework governing the mining industry in Papua New Guinea includes the Mining Act of 1992, the Mining Resources Authority Act of 2005, and the Kumul Consolidated Holdings (Amendment) Act of 2015.

Underground mining activities in Papua New Guinea, particularly in regions like Ok Tedi and Porgera, have led to significant land subsidence, posing severe challenges to local communities. Yamarak and Parton (2021: 124) highlight that these subsidence issues have resulted in the displacement of communities, destruction of agricultural land, and damage to critical infrastructure. The environmental degradation caused by these activities has exacerbated poverty and reduced the quality of life for Indigenous populations. Similarly, Swanston and Gunga (2023) note that land subsidence in the Porgera gold mine area has rendered large portions of the land unusable, leading to conflicts over land rights and compensation.

The social and environmental impacts of mining in Papua New Guinea have been profound. As reported by Yamarak and Parton (2021: 125), the environmental

consequences of mining activities, including land subsidence, water contamination, and loss of arable land, have severely impacted local communities. These effects have led to the displacement of populations and the destruction of traditional livelihoods, thereby exacerbating poverty and social tensions. Fisher (2016) further assert that the Porgera gold mine has been a source of significant environmental and social challenges, including water insecurity, poor sanitary conditions, and chronic poverty. The displacement of communities and the contamination of water sources have compounded these challenges, contributing to a legacy of human rights abuses and deepening mistrust between the communities and mine operators.

Mining-induced displacement is not uncommon in Papua New Guinea, with the Ok Tedi and Porgera mines being central to these issues. Yamarak and Parton (2021: 125-126) report that the Ok Tedi mine has caused significant environmental damage, particularly through the pollution of the Fly River, which has disrupted the livelihoods of thousands who depend on the river for fishing and agriculture. Similarly, the Porgera mine has led to land subsidence and the displacement of communities, with inadequate compensation and resettlement support provided to those affected (Swanston & Gunga, 2023; United Nations Development Programme, 2024a).

Papua New Guinea faces considerable challenges in managing MIDR issues due to the absence of specific national resettlement policies or laws. A comparative analysis of legal and regulatory frameworks in six mining jurisdictions, including Papua New Guinea, reveals that none of the surveyed countries have a national resettlement policy or law specifically guiding project-induced resettlement. The absence of strong legal backing for resettlement frameworks leaves displaced communities vulnerable and often inadequately compensated (Owen, *et al*., 2020: 4912).

The lack of comprehensive national resettlement policies in Papua New Guinea has resulted in poor compensation and resettlement practices, leading to significant socio-economic challenges for displaced communities. Yamarak and Parton (2021: 126) note that inadequate compensation often fails to cover the full extent of losses, including land, homes, and livelihoods, resulting in increased poverty, food insecurity, and social disintegration. The Asian Development Bank (2013) also highlights that inconsistent and often inadequate compensation practices have led to long-term economic hardship and social unrest among displaced individuals. Additionally, in the

Papua New Guinea Highlands, poor resettlement practices have resulted in significant disruptions to local communities, with many displaced individuals struggling to secure new livelihoods, exacerbating social tensions and conflicts over land and resources (United Nations Development Programme, 2024a).

In contrast to Papua New Guinea, Ghana has established comprehensive legal frameworks to govern compensation and resettlement in the mining sector. Ghana's Minerals and Mines (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulations (2012) mandate that resettlement action plans (RAPs) must be approved by the District Assembly and the Minister of Mining. The regulations also ensure that mineral rights holders provide prompt and adequate compensation, with penalties imposed for delays. Furthermore, the Environmental Protection Agency Act (1994) in Ghana enforces compliance with environmental impact assessment procedures, ensuring that development projects, including mining, adhere to established environmental and social standards. This comparison underscores the need for Papua New Guinea to develop similar robust legal frameworks to address the challenges of mining-induced displacement and resettlement effectively.

2.10.6 MIDR policies and programmes in the Republic of South Africa

South Africa is a country with a long and significant history of mining, spanning over a century. Over the past decade, mining has played a crucial role in South Africa's economic development, contributing over 8.7% to the country's GDP. In 2021, the mining industry generated R481 billion, and in 2022, this figure rose to R494 billion. This industry's influence extends beyond its direct contribution to the GDP; it also supports secondary and tertiary industrial sectors, further enhancing its economic impact (Minerals Council South Africa, 2023).

South Africa possesses a diverse range of high-quality mineral deposits, including platinum group metals (PGMs), chromium, iron, manganese, and gold, among other valuable minerals (Reuters, 2017). However, despite its mineral wealth, the country's mining industry faces significant challenges. A critical concern associated with mining in South Africa is the ecological and societal consequences, particularly MIDR. The industry is primarily governed by the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) of 2002 and the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA).

However, these regulations fail to adequately address the complex issues arising from MIDR (Mostert & Mathiba, 2023: 65). The absence of comprehensive standards for relocation procedures in the MPRDA and NEMA results in inconsistent practices and insufficient protection for affected populations, despite the inclusion of certain clauses addressing environmental and social implications (Mostert & Mathiba, 2023: 65).

The Witwatersrand Basin in South Africa serves as a prominent example of the consequences of MIDR. In this region, gold mining operations have led to significant environmental degradation, particularly the contamination of water supplies with hazardous heavy metals and radioactive particles (Frimmel, 2019: 257). The pollution has had severe repercussions for nearby communities, who often experience inadequate compensation and substandard living conditions after being resettled (Human Rights Watch, 2018). The fragmented legal framework and inadequate enforcement of existing legislation leave displaced persons vulnerable, underscoring the urgent need for legislative reform (Mostert & Mathiba, 2023: 65-67).

Despite the significant impact of mining on South Africa's economy and society, the legislative framework regulating MIDR remains inadequate. The lack of explicit laws governing resettlement procedures leads to conflicts and dissatisfaction among affected communities, highlighting the need for stronger and more effective legal safeguards (Mostert & Mathiba, 2023: 66). The mining industry in South Africa is primarily regulated by the Mining and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) of 2002. This legislation mandates the development of a Mining Charter, first introduced in 2004 and revised in 2010. The updated charter emphasises the government's Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) initiative, requiring mining companies to ensure a minimum of 26% black ownership, which was subsequently increased to 30% in 2017 (Department of Mineral Resources, 2017). South Africa does not have dedicated legislation for managing MIDR. Despite the presence of general provisions within the MPRDA and NEMA, these laws lack comprehensive guidelines for resettlement, leading to inconsistent practices and inadequate protection for affected individuals (Mostert & Mathiba, 2023: 67).

When compared to Ghana, there are significant differences in the approach to MIDR. South Africa's approach is characterised by a lack of specific regulations, resulting in uneven relocation programs and insufficient protection for affected communities. In

contrast, Ghana's legal framework is more comprehensive, with explicit guidelines and deadlines for resettlement and compensation processes.

From the presentation above, it appears Ghana has a more comprehensive legislative framework in addressing MIDR issues. Thus, formulating policies alone is not enough; the implementation of these policies also plays a critical role in addressing the challenges of MIDR.

2.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The quest of the government to provide public goods and services, which is the core responsibility of public administration, has created a public problem such as MIDR. This means that, as the government is trying to reduce poverty, create employment, and stimulate development by encouraging mining sector investment, it also creates a type of 'new poverty' for the citizens. Thus, MIDR emanates from the government's desire to stimulate development through private sector investment. This places MIDR, which is a private sector activity, within the scope of public administration.

This chapter is organised into nine sections. The first section discussed the genesis and etymology of public administration. It is worth mentioning that the central principle of public administration is to seek the public interest through the provision of public goods and services. It was further established in this chapter that public value influences public interest, which public administration seeks to satisfy. These unmet interests then create public problems.

Public policies are therefore formulated and implemented to address public problems of this nature. These policies are actions undertaken by the government to either address or remain silent on a situation perceived to be desirable or undesirable by the public. A further elaboration of the policymaking process is also provided. The concept of 'institution' and 'organisation' was also explained. It was further identified that MIDR is a type of formal institution, which is implemented by organisations. The chapter further established the difference between resettlement, displacement, and relocation. It highlighted the reasons for resettlement activities. The chapter concluded by expounding on DIDR, with specific emphasis on MIDR, as well as the global perspective of mining, with examples from countries such as Germany, China, Papua New Guinea, and South Africa.

The next chapter focuses on MIDR and SDGs, which have been identified by the UN for its member countries, including Ghana.

CHAPTER 3: MINING RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMMES AND THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

> *'Like motherhood, and God, it is difficult not to approve of it. At the same time, the idea of Sustainable Development is fraught with contradictions'* (Redclift, 1997: 438).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in section 2.1 *Introduction* of the previous chapter, the literature review for this study is organised into four chapters. This chapter presents the third aspect of the literature review which focuses on mining resettlement programmes and the SDGs. The theoretical framework which guides this study is also discussed. This chapter is organised into six sections. As highlighted above, the focus of this research is on mining resettlement programmes, using cases in Ghana as the study area. For this reason, the following section focuses on the mining industry in Ghana.

3.2 MINING INDUSTRY: THE GHANAIAN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Minerals are highly essential. They are a gift of nature available to be developed, sold, and used to improve the living standards of the nation's citizens (Eggert, 2002: 64 & 78). Several industrialised countries like Australia, Canada, Sweden, and the United States have depended on the exploration and extraction of minerals for their economic development. Mineral production generates income and foreign exchange through exports and can stimulate local economies through the local purchase of inputs (Amponsah-Tawiah & Dartey-Baah, 2011: 108). As opined by Candeias, Ávila, Coelho and Teixeira (2018: 17-19), mining is one of the oldest and most important activities in the history of human civilization, and its products are vital and indispensable to modern society.

Within the Ghanaian context, the historical importance of mining in the economic development of the country is considerable and well documented. The country's colonial name, Gold Coast, reflects the importance of the mining sector, particularly the gold trade, to the country (Agbesinyale, 2003: 102-105; Akabzaa & Darimani, 2001: 22). The country has a long tradition of gold mining, with an estimated 2,488

metric tons (80 million ounces) of gold produced between the first documentation of gold mining in 1493 and 1997 (Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2008). The statistics indicated that Ghana produced 127.0 metric tons of gold as of 2022 (Mousavi, 2024: 160).

The mining of gold is deeply rooted in Ghanaian history. Agbesinyale (2003: 102-104) attests to the historic development of the gold mining sector in Ghana, which dates to the early days of artisanal mining in the 5th and 6th centuries B.C. This was before the surge of large-scale open-pit mining in recent times. According to him, there is evidence that suggests Ghanaians worked on gold as early as the 5th and 6th centuries B.C., when the Phoenicians and the Carthaginians most likely reached the Gold Coast. In the 9th and 10th centuries, the Trans-Saharan caravan trade between West Africa, the Mediterranean coast in North Africa, and Europe involved the trade in gold, with much of its gold coming from the Gold Coast. The Moors of Northern Morocco were active trading partners with the Akans from Ghana. The latter traded in gold, slaves, ivory, and spices. This goes to say that the mining of gold in the forest regions of Ghana, mostly occupied by the Akan groups, probably dates back several centuries. Much of the gold carried across the Sahara found its destination in Arab or Islamic countries in the Middle East. An example is evident in the form of dinars minted by the Almoravids of Morocco.

The Gold Coast (now Ghana) became more and more famous for its valuables and tradable goods from the late 16th century. The Portuguese had major control over trading and brought large quantities of gold to Europe. During this period, the Gold Coast was the world's largest gold producer (Agbesinyale, 2003: 107). Between 1493 and 1600, Ghana (then Gold Coast) accounted for 36% of the world's gold output (Akabzaa & Darimani, 2001: 27). It can therefore be inferred that once the demand for gold increased, more lands were needed to undertake the mining activities.

In the 1990s and 2000s, Ghana was the next largest gold producer in Africa after South Africa, the third-largest African producer of aluminium metal and manganese ore, and a significant producer of bauxite and diamond (Coakley, 2001; Akabzaa & Darimani, 2001: 29). However, according to Mousavi (2024: 160-161), Ghana is ranked 6th, Mali is 11th, Burkina Faso is ranked 12th, while South Africa is ranked 13th

in the Gold Production Worldwide Rank in 2022. Thus, making Ghana the largest producer of gold in recent times.

In Ghana, it is evident that the mining industry has made a significant contribution to the country's economic growth and development. The 2019 annual report of the Ghana Chamber of Mines suggests that a total direct domestic fiscal receipt attributable to the mining and quarrying sector improved from GH¢2.36 billion in 2018 to GH¢4.02 billion in 2019 (Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2019: 11). In recent times, a study by Ameyaw (2024: 104883) also indicates that the mining industry of Ghana attracted 50% of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). This shows the continuous fiscal support the country gains from the mining sector.

Nonetheless, the negative implications of large-scale mining activities on host communities cannot be overlooked. While communities are highly welcoming of mining companies during exploration, they become resentful during the operation of the mine. This is because, more often than not, the indigenes are unprepared to deal with the adverse consequences of mining activities (Lawson & Bentil, 2014: 217). Thus, also considering the arguments advanced in Chapter 2 above, it can be deduced that the industry has also contributed to the displacement of a lot of people globally. The claim of lands for mining purposes may even result in land disputes. The land demands made by large-scale mining companies have caused a growing scarcity of land, particularly in developing countries, of which Ghana is no exception.

Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2011: 109) noted that with the international mining industry becoming more cosmopolitan, developing countries will have to develop a competitive mining regime based on greater economic equality, mutual benefit, and in accordance with generally accepted notions of fairness. Otherwise, the sector stands to detract from the very stability of the investment conditions that it purports to bring about.

The Metals Economics Group, in their report entitled '*Exploration Budgets Down Again'*, which was published in the mining journal in 2001, also estimated that in two decades, a third of the world's mineral output would come from the developing world. This suggested that by 2021, developing countries would most certainly play an increasingly important role in the aforementioned expansion. There is, therefore, the likelihood of more affected communities being displaced or resettled, especially in

Ghana for mining purposes. Thus, it is imperative to discuss how MIDR activities can be undertaken in a sustainable manner.

For this reason, the concept of sustainability and sustainable development is discussed in the following section.

3.3 CONCEPTS OF SUSTAINABILITY AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The concept of sustainability appears to be vague and lacks clarity, and most authors who include the word sustainability or sustainable in their titles do not provide a definition of the concept (Salas-Zapata & Ortiz-Muñoz, 2019: 154). Salas-Zapata, Ríos-Osorio and Cardona-Arias (2017: 1128) show that 59.9% of the works employ the concepts *sustainability* and *sustainable development* interchangeably. From their work, they concluded that four meanings of the concept *sustainability* can be identified depending on the context of the research. To Cowan and Guzman (2020: 686), *sustainability* can be viewed as a set of guiding criteria for human action, as a goal of humankind, as an object, or an approach to study. From a business perspective, sustainability expands the focus to environmental and social considerations (stakeholder view) versus the more exclusive, traditional focus on financial performance (shareholder view).

The concept of sustainability was originally coined in relation to forestry during the mid-seventeenth century, to mean never harvesting more than what the forest yields in new growth (Rome, 2021: 410). This was noted in Wes Jackson's work on agriculture in the late 1970s in Lester Brown's '*Building a Sustainable Society*' (1981). During the Earth Summit in 1987, the Brundtland Commission (1987) also discussed the concept of sustainability and sustainable development in the context of the 1987 report by the World Commission on Environment and Development, chaired by Gro Harlem Brundtland. This report defined sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Brundtland Report, 1987). From the perspective of Knutsson & Ostwald (2023: 4), the definition of sustainability includes the well-being of people, nature, economy, and social institutions, working together effectively over the long term. From the above, it can be deduced that an activity or process is considered sustainable if it aids in the efficient and effective achievement of an objective, without preventing the unborn generation from also meeting their objectives.

Some, however, have criticised this definition as being difficult or impossible to operationalize and implement. This questions the importance of this definition in policy evaluation, the ability to predict and forecast future needs, among others (Benson & Craig, 2017: 19-21; Orr, 2022: 1458). Notwithstanding, this study is of the view that mining resettlement programmes can be undertaken in a manner that will not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their future needs. Thus, the inability to predict the needs of the generation yet unborn is not enough justification to misuse the resources available. Natural resources can and should be used in a sustainable manner. Therefore, despite the criticism surrounding the term sustainability, the study adopts the Brundtland Commission's definition of sustainability.

The following sections will focus on the key concepts of sustainability and sustainable development.

3.3.1 Concept of 'Sustainable livelihood'

Livelihoods are dynamic and complex realities whose composition cannot be assumed nor taken for granted. According to Khan, Fahad, Naushad and Faisal (2020) livelihood is the means, assets, and capability for the survival of life. Esteves, Gouley, Konstantinidis and Carroll (2024: 378) posit that livelihood refers to the full range of means that individuals, families, and communities utilise to make a living, such as wage-based income, agriculture, fishing, foraging, other natural resource-based livelihoods, petty trade, and bartering. The African Development Bank (2013: 31; African Development Bank, 2024b) also defines livelihood as the full range of economic, social, and cultural capabilities, assets, and other means that individuals, families, and communities use to satisfy their needs. Nonetheless, Shah, Vijayshankar and Foundation (2022: 16-17) provide a concise definition of the concept, which appears to have been widely accepted and used. According to them, livelihood comprises the capabilities (institutions and humans), assets (stores, resources, claims, and access), and activities (actions at various levels), required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can withstand, and recover from shocks, and manage to enhance its capabilities and assets, both presently and in the future, without undermining the natural resource base (Shah, *et a*l., 2022: 19). Thus, sustainable livelihood is the positive use of three elements, namely: capabilities,

assets, and activities, to help individuals build resilience, without compromising posterity.

3.3.2 Livelihood assets and resources

The term ‘asset’ is interchanged with capital and resource in most livelihood literature. In the livelihoods approach, resources are referred to as ‘assets’ or ‘capitals’, and are often categorized into five or more different asset types, owned or accessed by family members: human capital (skills, education, health), physical capital (produced investment goods), financial capital (money, savings, loan access), natural capital (land, water, trees, etc.), and social capital (networks and associations) (Ellis & Allison, 2004: 3). Livelihood analysis largely focuses on the asset status of households, based on the belief that people require a range of assets to achieve desirable livelihood outcomes. Households and individuals are considered to possess assets, which they seek to nurture and combine in ways that will ensure survival. There is a clear understanding of the configuration of assets available to people. This is an important step in livelihood analysis. It is an indicator of people’s capacity to generate a viable livelihood in the present and future, as well as their potential resilience to environmental shocks. At all levels (individual, household, community, and society), available assets constitute a stock of capital, which can be stored, accumulated, exchanged, or depleted, and put to work to generate a flow of income or other benefits (Rakodi & Lloyd-Jones, 2002: 18). Some assets are tangible (labour, food stocks, gold jewelry, cash savings, land, water, and equipment), while others are intangible (household relationships).

In the ensuing section, the five most used household assets, as noted by Bennet (2010:9), Bui and Schreinemachers (2011: 772), as well as Scoones (2009: 176), are discussed particularly in relation to the context of voluntary resettlement.

Livelihood resources or assets are the basic material and social, tangible and intangible assets, which people use for constructing their livelihoods (Scoones, 1998: 4). Four types of livelihood resources are identified by Scoones (1998: 3-5). These are the Natural, Economic/Financial, Human, and Social Capital. Natural capital refers to the natural resource base; this comprises resources such as soil, trees, water, biological resources, biodiversity, generic resources, the environmental services,

hydrological cycle, and pollution sink, which are available to provide useful services to support livelihood. The productivity of these resources may be degraded or improved by human management.

Natural capital refers to the stock of natural assets such as land, forests, wildlife, and water resources, from which people derive the flow of resources and services useful for their livelihoods. In the context of rural economies in the developing world, where most people derive their livelihoods from natural resource-based activities, natural capital seems to be a very essential asset category. Variations in endowment of, and access to, natural capital among households generate perceptible differences in household choices of livelihood strategies and the associated outcomes.

Physical capital includes assets such as housing, basic infrastructure (transport, energy, water, and communication), and production equipment that people own, rent, or use to engage in their livelihoods. Some of these are individually produced or owned, while others qualify as public works. This distinction is important, as both the origin and ownership of physical capital can have a major impact on the opportunities open to individuals. While public goods are not under the direct control of individuals, they do have an enormous impact on the diversity and viability of potential livelihood activities.

Economic or financial capital refers to the capital base (basic infrastructure, production equipment and technology, cash, savings) which is essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy. Economic or financial capital also includes easily disposable assets such as livestock. Financial capital also denotes the monetary resources people have access to, and includes stocks of money such as savings, access to credit facilities, and the flow of money such as remittances and wages. Access to credit from formal institutions, such as banks, has remained limited for the poor. Therefore, their ability to take financial risks to diversify their income strategies, for instance, to start a small home-based income-earning activity, is also limited. In relation to this study, it is important to examine how the income-earning activities of relocated households have been affected on one hand, and how they use their financial capital to employ various livelihood strategies on the other (Scoones, 1998: 8).

Human capital refers to the skills, knowledge, and the ability to exert physical and mental efforts on production processes and good health, which enable an individual

or household to pursue different livelihood strategies to achieve desirable livelihood outcomes. To make use of the other four capitals effectively, it is necessary for the household to be endowed with human capital. It can be argued that availability and access to health, education, and other facilities are important to maintain the quality of household-level human capital. Skills, knowledge, ability to labour, good health, and physical capabilities important for the successful pursuit of different livelihood strategies are referred to as human capital (Scoones, 1998: 8).

Social capital refers to people's shared behaviour of networks, connectedness, relationships of trust, reciprocity, exchanges, community memberships, accepted social rules, common norms, and sanctions. Social capital refers to the social relationships, affiliations, and associations upon which people draw when pursuing different livelihood strategies, which require coordinated actions (Scoones, 1998:7). He and Li (2024:3-4) define social capital in relation to livelihood as networks, memberships in community-based organisations, relationships of trust and reciprocity, and access to wider institutions in society, upon which people draw in search of livelihoods. Considering the above definitions, social capital is less tangible when compared to other types of capital, since it exists among personal relationships and is a resource available through social networks. The five categories of capital are not mutually exclusive, as some aspects may belong to different categories. Also, there are assets that do not fit into any of the five categories. Nonetheless, these five categories of livelihood assets/resources play a crucial role in the lives of every individual.

Within the context of involuntary resettlement/displacement, affected persons may be denied access to some of these resources, which may compromise their quality of life. In the account of Theodore Downing in his book '*Avoiding New Poverty: Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement*', which was published in 2002, mining resettlement activities created several challenges. These challenges included joblessness, landlessness, homelessness, risk of marginalisation, health risk, distortion of formal education, and change in population dynamics. These can be attributed to the absence of either of the livelihood resources (Downing, 2002: 9-11).

As established earlier, mining activities are undertaken in rural areas where the affected persons are mostly agrarians. Thus, lands purported to be used for

agricultural activities would be required. As discussed, a third of the world's mineral output came from the developing world by 2021. Thus, the likelihood of an expansion in mining activities and the risk of MIDR was inevitable. This required the adoption and adaptation of other strategies for survival. This led to the need for a livelihood strategy, which will be discussed in the following section.

3.3.3 Livelihood strategies

The term strategy is synonymous with master plan, grand plan, or game plan. Thus, livelihood strategy can be seen as a set of activities adopted by individuals to aid their survival. Livelihood strategies can be considered as activities undertaken by household members such as farm activities and wild collection or hunting, and off-farm activities or migration resulting in outcomes such as food or income security. These strategies may also create a sustainable livelihood. According to Ellis and Allison (2004: 23), livelihood strategies are composed of activities that generate the means of household survival and are the planned activities that men and women undertake to build their livelihoods. In simple terms, livelihood strategies are operations that contribute to desired results of living (Ayana, Megento & Kussa, 2021: 9-11).

Livelihood strategies are, therefore, conceptualised as a range and combination of activities, which people employ to achieve their livelihood goals. With this, people belonging to different categories of households (poor and not poor) develop and pursue different livelihood strategies based on their personal goals, resource bases, and past experiences of un/successful livelihood strategies. They include agricultural extensification (increasing farm size), and intensification (raising farm yields), as well as income diversification (off-farm economic activities such as daily labour, petty trade, food for work programme and handicrafts (Ellis & Allison, 2004: 40-41; Scoones, 2009: 177).

Livelihood strategies can be positive, which help households to become more resilient and less vulnerable, or negative, when they result in the further erosion and decrease of the asset base. It is also a process of failure and success in terms of the outcomes of these strategies. However, livelihood strategies that the poor employ to increase their security, often become more complex and diverse, and therefore, more difficult to simplify. When exploring prerequisites for successful Livelihood Strategies of the

poor, it is necessary to mention the importance of examining the mechanisms and structures that promote or prevent successful livelihood strategies and capabilities of the poor, to participate in the decision-making processes and the rights available to them to claim options for such strategies (Bohle, 2007: 18). This study explores livelihood strategies employed by resettled households, to secure their livelihoods from various resettlements, related stress, and risks.

Scoones (1998: 9) identifies agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification and migration as the three broad clusters of livelihood strategies. Broadly, these are seen to cover the range of options open to rural people. Agriculture (livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry etc.) can be a source for improving the livelihood of people either through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labour inputs) or extensification (more land under cultivation). Similarly, an individual can diversify to a range of off-farm income-earning activities. For instance, people can learn a trade, or acquire skills in making things by hand (artisan).

Another livelihood strategy identified is livelihood diversification. This involves an active choice to invest in diversification for accumulation, reinvestment, and diversification aimed at coping with temporary adversity, or more permanent adaptation of livelihood activities when other options fail to provide a livelihood. Diversification, therefore, may involve developing a wide income-earning portfolio to cover all types of shocks or stress jointly; the strategy may involve focusing on developing responses to handle a particular type of common shock or stress through well-developed coping mechanisms (Scoones, 1998: 10). Livelihood diversification strategies can decrease vulnerability by increasing one's resilience to risky events. The final livelihood strategy is migration. This could be either voluntary or involuntary. Individuals may decide to move from their existing location in search of better opportunities to improve their livelihood. These movements can imply agriculture, health, education, and even the financial resources of the persons involved.

Thus, within the context of MIDR affected persons may be challenged with regards to on-farm activities as they may part ways with their traditional farmlands, to make way for the mining activities. The most convenient livelihood strategy maybe off-farm activities which may require the acquisition of new skills may not come with ease. This

situation leads to a fundamental question of how the sustainable livelihood dynamics of the MIDR affected person can be enhanced. In effect, how can MIDR activities be undertaken in a sustainable manner with emphasis on SDG 8 and 12? For this reason, the subsequent sections will focus on the concept of sustainable development and the SDGs adopted by the United Nations for its member states.

3.4 CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Development is a term which appears difficult to define. Scholars within development studies literature have diverse views as to the exact definition of the term. A common theme within most definitions of development is ‘change' in a variety of aspects of the human condition (Mubangizi, 2024b: 9-12). This is well articulated in the definition of development by Bexell and Jönsson (2021: 44). They defined development as a notion of ‘good change', although this raises all sorts of questions about what is ‘good' and what sort of ‘change' matters, the role of values, and whether ‘bad change' is also viewed as a form of development.

The concept of Sustainable Development (SD) has become a ubiquitous development paradigm and a catchphrase for international aid agencies, the jargon of development planners, the theme of conferences and academic papers, as well as the slogan of development and environmental activists (Ukaga, Maser & Reichenbach, 2011: 9-10). However, the journey of defining the concept of sustainable development began in 1984, when the United Nations established an independent group of 22 people, drawn from member states of both the developing and developed worlds. The members of this group were charged with identifying the long-term environmental strategies for the international community. The concept has, therefore, become the buzzword in development discourse, having been associated with different definitions, meanings, and interpretations (Mensah, 2019: 1653533). The most cited definition is the one proposed by the Brundtland Commission during the 1987 World Conference on Environment and Development. The report entitled ‘Our Common Future’ used the term ‘sustainable development’ widely and defined it as ‘development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (Brundtland report, 1987). This study adopts the commission’s definition of sustainable development, in the sense that MIDR activities should be

undertaken in a manner that will not hinder both the present and future generations' ability to meet their developmental needs.

People's needs may vary, as some 'needs' may be classified as 'wants'. That notwithstanding, the activities of others should not necessarily incapacitate others from achieving their own needs. Though questions and debates concerning the interests of present generations and those of the future, between human well-being and the protection of nature, between poor and rich, as well as between local and global, may arise, it is certain that people and organisations need to undertake their activities in a manner that will not destroy or cause harm to the environment and other persons. With this, MIDR activities undertaken by multinational mining firms are no exception (Mubangizi, 2024a: 2).

Another aspect of the concept of sustainable development is its pillars. Most definitions of sustainable development encompass the idea that there are three interdependent pillars. These are the environmental, economic, and social. These are represented as three interlocking circles (Barbier, 1987: 104; Monaco, 2024: 8-9). The pillars of sustainable development as indicated by Barbier (1897: 102-105) are presented in the Figure 3.1 below.

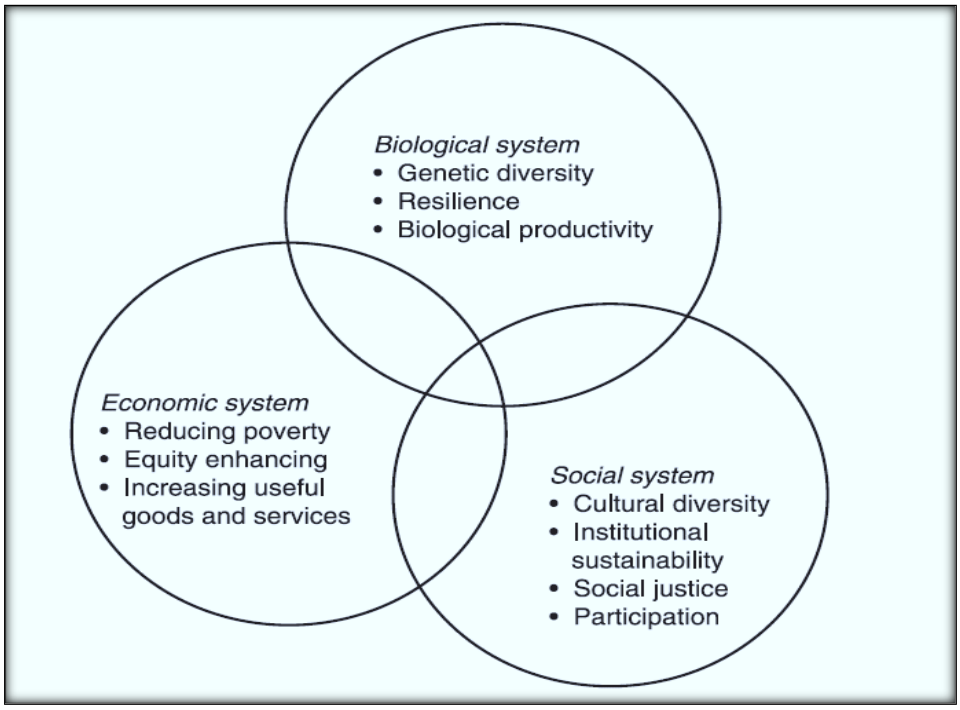


Figure 3.1: Pillars of sustainable development

Source: (Barbier, 1987: 102-105; Monaco, 2024: 8-12).

Critically, the model encompasses the understanding that, each of the system goals (examples of which are identified in the figure) is socially constructed, and that achieving sustainable development requires trade-offs. These choices have to be made at particular points in time, and at particular scales, to determine what is being pursued. It further shows how sustainable development requires recognition of the costs involved, for particular interests and for groups of people (Barbier, 1987: 104).

According to Elliot (2006: 14), while many of the early contributions to defining sustainable development came from the disciplines of economics and ecology, it is the third sphere that has accommodated much work. For instance, sustainable development is a moral concept that seeks to define a ‘fair and just’ development. Starkey and Walford (2001: xix) suggest that, since the environment is the basis of all economic activity, and of life itself, ‘it is surely only right that the quality and integrity of the environment be maintained for future generations.

As Adams (2003: 12) suggests, sustainable development cannot be understood in ‘a historical vacuum’. Of particular importance are the changes in thinking about what constitutes ‘development’, and how best to achieve it, with changing ideas about the ‘environment’. According to Roberts (2018: 76), the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development marked a further expansion of the standard definition with the widely used three pillars of sustainable development: economic, social, and environmental. These three pillars created a collective responsibility to advance and strengthen the interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars of sustainable development.

From the discussion above, it can be inferred that any engagement by government, people, international or civil society organisations, which results in a positive and acceptable improvement in the quality of life of people, can be described as development. Thus, a good change without compromising on posterity can be considered as sustainable development. This meets the definition of ‘sustainable development', posited in the Brundtland Commission Report (1987), as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Hence, sustainable development promotes the idea that social, environmental, and economic progress, are all attainable within the limits of our earth's natural resources. It can be concluded that sustainable

development refers to any engagement which results in positive acceptable improvement in the quality of life of the present needs of people, without compromising on that of generations unborn.

In 2015, which marked the end of the MDGs, the UN and its member states introduced the Sustainable Development Goals for another 15 years. The 17 goals are expected to be achieved by 2030. The SDGs are important ideas and could help finally to move the world to a sustainable trajectory. For this reason, the subsequent section highlights the SDGs that the United Nations has adopted for its member countries.

3.5 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

In September 2015, the United Nations General Assembly approved a document entitled '*Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development'* with the aim of drawing up a plan of action for people, the planet and posterity, aiming at strengthening universal peace through a global partnership. The agenda presents 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 targets, based on the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), launched in 2000, for the fight against poverty. The SDG service contributes to the mitigation of negative environmental impacts caused by mining and promoting environmental sustainability. Furthermore, it can guarantee social inclusion and economic development, through the generation of jobs and income, helping to combat poverty, which is the main objective proposed by MDGs (United Nations Development Programme, 2015; United Nations: Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2022).

Sach (2012: 2206) observes that the idea of the SDGs has quickly gained ground, because of the growing urgency of sustainable development for the entire world. Although specific definitions vary, sustainable development embraces the supposed triple bottom line approach to human wellbeing. Although the SDGs came into force in 2015, the then UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon's high-level global sustainability panel to the Rio+20 summit in June 2012, had already issued a report recommending that the world adopt a set of sustainable development goals after the end of the MDGs in 2015.

Almost all the world's societies acknowledge that, they aim for a combination of economic development, environmental sustainability, and social inclusion. However,

the specific objectives differ globally, between and within societies. Yet, no consensus regarding the trade-offs and synergies across the economic, environmental, and social objectives, have been agreed. A shared focus on economic, environmental, and social goals, is a hallmark of sustainable development, and represents a broad consensus on which the world can build.

The 17 goals are presented in Figure 3.2 below.



Figure 3.2: Sustainable Development Goals

Source: (United Nations Development Programme, 2015).

Figure 3.2 presents the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) identified by the United Nations for its member countries.

This study aims to research how resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies, can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs 8 and 12. In Ghana, the mining industry occupies 31,237 km2 of land, representing about 13.1% of Ghana´s total land area of 238,608km2 (Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2008: 24). Once a concession has been granted by the government to a mining company, the community living on the concession are only compensated for structures. These structures include houses, crops, and economic

trees that are, or will be affected by the mining operation. Animals are allowed to graze within the concession, but only if it does not interfere with mining ventures. Communities are liable to eviction by mining companies once the government has granted the mining concession to them (Sarpong, 2006: 14).

Despite all these figures and statements by mining advocates, there are growing criticisms of the commended contribution of mining to national development and poverty reduction. One school of thought argues that the mining sector is the star performer of the Ghanaian economy. The other one refers to the gold paradox: It is described as the paradox of the plenty or resource curse, no matter what an individual prefers to call it, it is a fact that Ghana remains a poor country, despite its mineral wealth.

For this reason, the subsequent section will discuss the two goals in relation to the mining sector in Ghana.

3.5.1 SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth

An assessment of SDG 8 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) indicates that, over the past 25 years, the number of workers living in extreme poverty has declined dramatically, despite the lasting impact of the 2008 economic crisis and global recession. In developing countries, the middle class now makes up more than 34 percent of total employment – a number that has almost tripled between 1991 and 2015 (United Nations Environment Programme, 2025.).

However, as the global economy continues to recover, we are seeing slower growth, widening inequalities, and not enough jobs to keep up with a growing labour force. According to the International Labour Organisation, more than 204 million people were unemployed in 2015. Thus, Goal 8 seeks to promote sustained economic growth, higher levels of productivity, and technological innovation. This can be achieved by encouraging entrepreneurship and job creation, with the hope of eradicating forced labour, slavery, and human trafficking. With these targets in mind, the goal is to achieve full and productive employment, and decent work, for all women and men by 2030 (United Nations Development Programme. 2015).

A study by Monteiro, da Silva and Neto (2019: 512) confirmed that mining activity generates a chain of jobs and income for the industries' surrounding residents. The authors further indicated that office supplies, personal protection materials, fuel, and any other logistics needed for the mining operation were purchased from local markets within the host community. According to them, various chains of businesses are created because of the presence of a mining industry in any region. These scholars attest that the chains of business tend to increase employment to 'meet the new demand.' Furthermore, mining plays an essential role in promoting jobs for mine-dwellers, if they support decent working conditions, fair wages, combat gender discrimination, and eliminate child labour.

That notwithstanding, this assertion cannot be the case for agrarians, who have to part ways with their farmlands to make way for mining. For the mining industry to contribute towards the attainment of SDG 8, their activities should not focus mainly on the number of people who might be fortunate to gain employment due to their presence in the host community. Their activities should not create 'unemployment'; instead, they should create 'employment' for other sections of the community.

From the argument advanced in the second chapter of this study, it has been established that the mining sector has created unemployment situations within its host community. How then is the sector expected to contribute to full employment by 2030?

3.5.2 SDG 12: Responsible Consumption and Production

This goal seeks to ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns. The United Nations is of the view that economic growth and sustainable development can be achieved should there be an urgent reduction in our ecological footprint. This can be done by changing the way we produce and consume goods and resources (United Nations Environment Programme, 2025). The efficient management of our shared natural resources, and the way we dispose of toxic waste and pollutants, are important targets to achieve this goal. Encouraging industries, businesses, and consumers to recycle and reduce waste is equally important, as is supporting developing countries to move towards more sustainable patterns of consumption by 2030 (United Nations Development Programme, 2024b).

In communities where mining is undertaken, especially where rivers exist, community members also engage in fishing as a source of livelihood. In most situations, the land as well as water bodies are given to the mining companies as concessions. These water bodies not only serve as a source of drinking water but also as a natural habitat for aquatic life. The chemicals used in mining, which are subsequently deposited in these water bodies, contribute to water pollution. This tends to affect the quality of water (United Nations Environment Programme, 2025).

The fifth research question is to find out how resettlement and compensation programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12, which have been identified by the United Nations for its member countries. To achieve the objective sought out in section 1.6.2 *Research Objectives* of Chapter 1, the study was centered on the *Sustainable Livelihood Framework*, propounded by Scoones (1998), and the *Impoverishment, Risk, and Reconstruction Model* by Cernea (1998: 1570-1581). This is discussed in the following section.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

It has been established that the mining industry plays a significant role in Ghana's economy. The mining sector is currently a major foreign exchange earner and contributes to long-term capital formation and fiscal payment to the state. However, the industry continues to have adverse consequences on the lives of local community dwellers, most of whom are often unprepared to deal with these impacts. Looking at the concept of sustainability and the SDGs adopted by the United Nations for its member states, this chapter sought to discuss SDGs 8 and 12, within the context of mining resettlement activities. The purpose of this chapter was to examine how mining resettlement programmes, can be undertaken in a sustainable manner towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12.

This chapter was divided in six sections. Since Ghana is the geographical context within which the research is undertaken, a historical background to the mining industry in Ghana was provided. This study purports that, Mining Resettlement Programmes can be undertaken in a manner that will not compromise the future generation's ability to meet their future needs. For this reason, a specific section was dedicated to explaining the concept of sustainability, with a focus on sustainable livelihood,

livelihood assets and resources and the livelihood strategies. The concept of sustainable development was also provided. After a careful review of relevant literature, a working definition for sustainable development was given a good change, without compromising on posterity. The SDGs, which have been adopted by the United Nations for its member countries were also discussed. The SDG 8 and 12 is presented respectively.

The next chapter explores the compensation and resettlement policies within Ghana, and how these legislated frameworks can contribute towards the achievement of the SDGs.

CHAPTER 4: LEGISLATED FRAMEWORK AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD

> *Every mineral in its natural state in, under or upon land in Ghana, rivers, streams, water-courses throughout the country, the exclusive economic zone and an area covered by the territorial sea or continental shelf is the property of the Republic and is vested in the President in trust for the people of Ghana* (Minerals and Mining Act, 703 Section 1).

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in section 1.6.2 above, the second objective of this study seeks to examine the extent to which government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana. It has been established in section 2.5 that public policy is simply the tentative action plan of the government, on how the resources of the state will be used to address a particular public problem at a particular time. This chapter explores the compensation and resettlement policies within Ghana, and how these legislated frameworks can contribute towards the achievement of the SDGs 8 and 12.

4.2 LEGISLATED FRAMEWORK IN GHANA'S MINING INDUSTRY

The mining industry in Ghana, is regulated at the national level via mining and related laws, together with direct investment agreements with individual mining companies. In Ghana, the mining industry is regulated by both substantive and subordinate regulations. The substantive legislations are:

1. The 1992 Constitution
2. The Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703 as amended by the Minerals and Mining (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 900)
3. The Minerals Income Investment Fund Act, 2018 (Act 978)
4. The Minerals Development Fund Act (2016) Act (912)

The substantive regulations are:

1. Minerals and Mining (Licensing) Regulation 2012 (LI 2176)

2. Minerals and Mining (Explosive) Regulation 2012 (LI 2177)
3. Minerals and Mining (General) Regulation 2012 (LI 2173)
4. Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation 2012 (LI 2175)
5. Minerals and Mining (Support Services) Regulation 2012 (LI 2174)
6. Minerals and Mining (Health and Safety) Regulation 2012 (LI 2182)
7. Minerals and Mining policy of Ghana (2014)

The principal enactment setting out the framework for mining laws in Ghana is the Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703, as amended by the Minerals and Mining (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 900), and the Minerals Commission Act, 1993 Act 450. Aside from these, there are other legislative and regulatory provisions that are relevant for mining operations in Ghana. These are:

1. Companies Act, 2019 (Act 992)
2. Environmental Protection Act, 1994 (Act 490)
3. Ghana Investment Promotion Centre Act 2013 (Act 865)
4. Forestry Commission Act, 1999 (Act 571)
5. Income Tax Act, 2015 (896)
6. Water Resources Commission Act 1996 (Act 522)
7. Ghana Geological Survey Authority Act, 2016 (Act 928)

The above legislations and regulations indicate the commitment of the Government of Ghana towards ensuring the smooth operations within the mining sector. This is in response to the Economic Recovery Programmes (ERPs), initiated by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1983. This move forced most developing countries endowed with natural mineral resources, to undertake some policy reforms, in order to increase their Foreign Direct Investment (Akabzaa & Darimani, 2001: 33-34). Ghana was part of the first Sub-Saharan African countries to adhere to these

policy reforms. Though the ERPs led to the privatisation and state divestiture of the mining sector, the Government of Ghana was still concerned with the management of these resources, with the aim of protecting and improving the welfare of communities affected by mining. For this reason, the Government of Ghana, has formulated and implemented several policies and legislative instruments since 1986.

In accordance with the aim and objectives of this study, this chapter only focuses on mining legislations and regulations, which emphasise compensation and resettlement. For this reason, the following policy frameworks are discussed in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

1. The 1992 Constitution
2. The Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703 as amended by the Minerals and Mining (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 900)
3. The Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation 2012 (LI 2175)
4. The Minerals and Mining Policy of Ghana (2014)

4.2.1 1992 Constitution of Ghana

The 1992 Constitution of Ghana is the supreme law that governs the acquisition of land, compensation, and resettlement. It is from the constitution that the other policies derive their power and basis. This indicates how important and relevant the 1992 constitution is within the governing system of the country. All mining activities, irrespective of their location or type, require the use of land. These lands are mostly public lands, which belong to all Ghanaians. This is indicated in Article 257 (1) of the 1992 Constitution: ‘All public lands in Ghana shall be vested in the President on behalf of, and in trust for, the people of Ghana’. With emphasis on the words ‘in trust for the people of Ghana’, it can be implied that any decision by any given president regarding the allocation of public lands for any project or activity should be in the interest of the citizens of the country.

This suggests that public lands can be compulsorily acquired for developmental activities. To this end, Article 20(2) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana advocates that

lands can be compulsorily acquired if it is to promote the public interest. Thus, lands can be forcibly acquired for the construction of dams, airports, mining activities, and other developmental projects that seek to promote the interest of the public. The Constitution also advocates that compensation should be paid to the lawful occupants of the land before the acquisition of their land. For instance, Article 20(2) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana stipulates that lands can be compulsorily acquired if their utilisation promotes public benefit, and further states that the compulsory acquisition of land should be accompanied by prompt payment of fair and adequate compensation.

Per this regulation, all persons whose lands are compulsorily acquired for an activity of national interest, in this case mining, are entitled to monetary compensation. Again, subsection 3 of Article 20 requires that affected persons should be resettled on suitable alternative lands with due regard to the economic well-being of the communities affected, and their social and cultural values. Within the mining communities, the indigenes are expected to part ways with their ancestral lands due to mining activities. In this instance, the constitution requires that the affected persons are compensated for the loss of their surface rights and also resettled on suitable alternative land. It is also evident that the constitution seeks to protect citizens against the arbitrary possession of their lands for developmental projects such as mining. However, the constitutional provisions appear silent on what constitutes fair and adequate compensation, as well as its computation or how to quantify damages for suffering or inconvenience. In this regard, Cernea (2022:36) warned that sorely missing in most African countries are explicit policies and legal frameworks to compel relevant state agencies to effectively address the vital issues of livelihood restoration and productive re-establishment of displaced people.

It is against the laws of Ghana to claim lands for mining activities without due compensation and resettlement packages. As stated in section 3.3.2 *Livelihood Assets and Resources* above, people depend on their livelihood resources or assets for survival. A loss in any of the four livelihood resources identified by Scoones (1998) might further impoverish and expose the affected persons to certain risks. It is in avoidance of such that the constitution seeks to ensure that affected persons are adequately compensated. Another policy document which seeks to improve the standard and quality of life for all Ghanaians is the Minerals and Mining Policy of

Ghana. The policy document was launched in 2014 by the Minerals Commission of Ghana. It was developed with regard to the provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, 1992 (as amended in 1996), with a view to complementing the Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRSII), the Draft Medium Term Development Plan, and the Better Ghana Agenda (Minerals and Mining Policy of Ghana, 2014: 17). The policy sets out measures and initiatives for economic growth. This policy is discussed in the following section.

4.2.2 Minerals and Mining Policy of Ghana, 2014

The mining sector plays a significant role in the economic development of the country. The continuous emphasis on sustainable development by international organisations have encouraged the Government of Ghana to implement a Minerals and Mining Policy, that will guide the government in the management of the mining and minerals sector. The policy is guided by 16 objectives, which seek to establish a comprehensive and forward-looking framework for mining, which serves as a catalyst for sustainable development. The policy does not only seek to encourage investment within this sector, but further seeks to ensure that mineral operations are conducted responsibly without causing harm to the environment and the local communities. The Minerals and Mining Policy is underpinned by 20 principles. The fourteenth principle seeks to promote sustainable livelihoods in mining communities. The Government recognises that the natural resources are public property as enshrined in Article 257(6) of the 1992 Constitution, and as such, the activities of the sector must seek the collective interest.

In addition, the Government of Ghana wishes to foster the development of a thriving mining industry that will contribute to sustainable development, economic empowerment of Ghanaians, the alleviation of poverty, and the improvement of the standards and quality of life in Ghana. To accomplish this objective, the Government recognises that sustainable development can be achieved if the various stakeholders can secure the maximum direct or indirect benefits from mining. Hence, thirteen (13) principles have been formulated in this regard. Among these principles are the diversification of mineral production base, research and development, employment generation, rural transformation, community participation, and sustainable livelihoods. This is in line with SDG 8 and 12.

Section 10.11 of the Minerals and Mining Policy categorically mandates the inculcation of sustainable livelihood programmes as an integral part of the planning of any mining activity. The Government of Ghana acknowledges the fact that mining firms engage in the resettlement of communities that host them, by physically removing these persons from the lands on which they previously dependent for their livelihood. Although compensation is paid to these people, it has been observed that the payment of this compensation fails to improve the livelihood of these people. This policy, therefore, compels mining companies to develop sustainable means of livelihood for the displaced persons, and demonstrates that, such livelihoods be provided with equal or greater benefits than those who previously enjoyed. The policy, however, requires the active engagement of governmental and non-governmental institutions in this regard.

As established earlier, mining activities are undertaken in rural areas where the affected persons are mostly agrarians. Thus, the Alternative Livelihood Programmes mentioned in this policy are very critical. This can be viewed as a type of livelihood strategy. In the view of Ellis and Allison (2004:40), livelihood strategies are composed of activities, which generate the means of household survival, and are the planned activities that men and women undertake to build their livelihoods. Although the policy is silent on the nature and type of Alternative Livelihood Programmes, the active participation of the affected persons in this regard is needed. This is because, the overarching objective of livelihood strategies according to Bohle (2007: 18-20), is to help households to become more resilient and less vulnerable. Without their active participation, mining companies are likely to initiate ALPs, which are of less interest to the affected persons. From the discussions in Chapter 3 above, with specific emphasis on SDG 8, the inculcation of ALPs will contribute towards the achievement objective of creating decent work and economic growth.

As mentioned earlier, the Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703 which was amended by the Minerals and Mining (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 900), is one of the principal enactments setting out the framework for mining laws in Ghana. This is discussed in the following section.

4.2.3 Mineral and Mining Act 703 of 2006

> *Every mineral in its natural state in, under or upon land in Ghana, rivers, streams, water-courses throughout the country, the exclusive economic zone, and an area covered by the territorial sea or continental shelf, is the property of the Republic and is vested in the President in trust for the people of Ghana* (Minerals and Mining Act, 703 Section 1).

For the reason stated in the above clause, the government has formulated this Act to govern the activities of mining within the country. The basic law which was governing mining activities prior to the formulation of Act 703, was the Mining and Minerals Law, 1986 (PNDCL 153). There were also other associated legislations and amendments, but all these have since been repealed and replaced by the current law, Act 703, 2006. The Act recognises the need of protecting the environment for posterity. Sections 17 and 18, require holders of mineral rights to seek approval and permit from The Water Resource Commission and the Environmental Protection Agency. The purpose of this provision is to ensure that the activities of mining firms do not adversely affect the environment, on which the mining communities depend on for their livelihoods.

With regards to compensation, sections 73 and 74 of Act 703 outline clearly the processes involved. In the determination of compensation for the disturbance of the owner's surface right, section 73 (1) stipulates that 'the owner or lawful occupier of any land subject to a mineral right, is entitled to and may claim from the holder of the mineral right, compensation for the disturbance of the rights of the owner or occupier, in accordance with section 74'.

In situations where inhabitants express a preference for resettlement over cash compensation, the legislation emphasises their right to suitable alternate land under section 73(4). This resettlement, defined as involuntary displacement or resettlement, must adhere to town planning laws as outlined in Section 74(3) of Act 703. Furthermore, compensation principles outlined in Section 74(1) detail various forms of compensation, including deprivation of land use, loss or damage to property, loss of earnings from cultivated land, and anticipated income based on crop life expectancy. These compensations are applicable regardless of the legal framework governing such claims.

The following section will focus on the Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation 2012 (LI 2175). The Legislative Instrument 2175 was implemented to aid in the smooth implementation of the Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703.

4.2.4 The Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation 2012 (LI 2175)

This Legislative Instrument is under three (3) main headings. The first five sections of heading one (1) deal with issues pertaining to the claim of compensation, assessment of compensation, principles of compensation, and the time frame for the payment of compensation due to the landowner. Section 2 of the LI requires that, the service of a qualified person is needed in assessing and determining the amount of compensation payable. In order to ensure that the mining communities or persons whose lands are claimed are not made worse off, section 2(4) states that:

When negotiating compensation, the appointed committee must comprise representatives from key stakeholders to ensure a fair and transparent process. This includes a qualified representative for the claimants, a counterpart for the mineral rights holder, and a government agency official responsible for valuation. Additionally, the affected communities must have a voice through three representatives, including farmers, alongside a representative from the traditional authorities within the project area. The relevant District Assembly also plays a crucial role in the discussions, with the possibility of including other mutually agreed-upon members to enhance the committee's effectiveness. This diverse composition ensures that the interests of all affected parties are considered, fostering equitable negotiations.

The section 6 to 12 deals with issues pertaining to the formulation and execution of the resettlement planning framework. It outlines the resettlement requirement matters necessary to be addressed in the resettlement plan, the formulation and implementation of the resettlement plan, and the membership of the resettlement monitoring committee. Where the operation of the owner of the mining lease requires the displacement of inhabitants, section 6(1) of the LI indicates that the inhabitants shall be resettled by the holder on suitable alternative land, and the resettlement shall

have regard to the economic well-being and socio-cultural values of the persons to be resettled, with the objective to improve the livelihoods and standards of living of such people. Section 8 of the LI specifies the pertinent issues which need to be addressed in the resettlement planning framework. This aims at enhancing the livelihoods of the communities, and individuals affected by mining.

From the review of the above policies, governing resettlement, and compensation, the payment of compensation (land and cash compensation), resettlement provisions, and the provision of ALPs, can be identified as the main themes. Thus, the government expects mining companies to compensate affected persons, make provision for resettlement, and to further establish Alternative Livelihood Programmes.

Contrary, whereas the 1992 Constitution advocates for both monetary compensation and resettlement packages, Act 706 treat both as options. This option is a clear violation of the provision in section 20 (2) and (3) of the 1992 constitution. Which is likely to further impoverish the affected persons. Nonetheless, the above stated policies are all regulatory in nature. They conform to Lowi's (1972: 299) assertion that, regulation is obviously only one of several ways, governments seek to control society and individual conduct. Regulatory policies impose restrictions or limitations on the behaviour of individuals and groups. That is, they reduce the freedom or discretion to act of those regulated, whether bankers, utility companies, meat-packers, or saloonkeepers. This is exactly the objective of these policies regarding the resettlement and compensation activities of multinational mining firms operating in Ghana.

Mining resettlement programmes create problems which present long-term liabilities to the government. As such, it is pertinent for the government to establish legislative frameworks to regulate their activities. This is one of the important functions of a good public administration system. This was established in the arguments advanced in Chapter 2, that public administration is not only concerned with the formulation and implementation of public policies. It also entails the structures, processes, and interaction between government and private entities, towards enhancing the welfare of the public.

4.3 REGULATORY AGENCIES IN GHANA'S MINING SECTOR

The principal regulatory bodies in Ghana's mining industry are the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, and the Minerals Commissions. These are governmental organisations that have oversight responsibility of mining activities within the country. Nonetheless, there are other private organisations and Civil Society Organisations, (CSO) that are relevant within the oil and mining industry of Ghana. Notable among these are, the Ghana Chamber of Mines, the Wassa Association of Communities Affected by Mining (WACAM), and The Third World Network (TWN). The section will highlight the brief mandate of the two main governmental institutions with oversight responsibility within the mining sector.

4.3.1 Minister of Lands and Natural Resources

The Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLNR) was established under Section 11 of the Civil Service Law, 1993 (PNDCL 327). The ministry is mandated to ensure the sustainable management and utilisation of the nation's lands, forests, and wildlife resources, as well as the efficient management of the mineral resources for socio-economic growth and development. The Ministry has three sub-sectors. These are, the forestry, land, and mining (Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, n.a).

The broad aim of the Ministry is to provide leadership and guidance in the management of the nation's natural resources through effective policy formulation, market regulation, and asset management. The goal of the ministry is to address the degradation of natural resources and ensure the effective and efficient management of these resources for sustainable development.

In alignment with its mandate, the Ministry has been structured in accordance with the 1992 Constitution of Ghana and the Civil Service Law of 1993 (PNDC Law 327), to provide effective leadership and guidance within the lands and natural resources sector of the economy. This structure facilitates the formulation of sound strategic policies, the conduct of research, and the management of statistics and information, while ensuring human resource development and effective administration and finance. Furthermore, the Ministry is tasked with establishing a regulatory framework and setting standards aimed at nurturing and managing the lands and natural resources sector in a sustainable manner. It also plays a critical role in promoting activities

necessary to underpin the sector's policies and standards, which are essential for planning and the monitoring of strategic development projects and programs. These initiatives are designed to contribute to the realisation of Ghana's middle-income aspirations and are implemented through the Ministry's Departments and Agencies, in collaboration with key actors and stakeholders.

The Ministry undertakes a range of activities essential to its mandate, including the efficient formulation, implementation, coordination, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programs aimed at advancing the sector. It ensures the delivery of efficient and equitable land services, facilitating the promotion of sustainable forest and wildlife resource management and utilisation. Furthermore, the Ministry is committed to the efficient management of mineral resources, fostering sustainable development within the sector. In addition, it plays a key role in promoting effective inter-agency and cross-sectorial linkages, which are crucial for collaborative and holistic governance. The Ministry also collaborates with other state agencies to protect the country's boundaries. To effectively execute its vision, mission, and objectives, the Ministry is structured to provide excellent sector policy direction and services to its stakeholders and clients.

The Ministerial team comprising the Minister and his two Deputies, to provide the political leadership of the Ministry. They are assisted by the Chief Director. Section 20 of the Civil Service Law, 1993 (PNDC Law 327), stipulates that the Chief Director is to act as the Bureaucratic Head of the Ministry. The Chief Director is supported by the following Directorates: Policy Planning, Budget, Monitoring and Evaluation (PPBME), Finance and Administration, Human Resource Management and Development (HRMD), Research Statistics and Management Information System (RSMIS), Lands, Forestry and Mines (Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, n.a).

Since the Ministry is principally a policy formulating, coordinating, monitoring, and evaluation organisation, the under listed organisations are responsible for the implementation activities of the Ministry:

1. Lands Commission.
2. Office of the Administration of Stool Lands.
3. Forestry Commission.

4. Minerals Commission.
5. Geological Survey Department.
6. Precious Minerals Marketing Company Limited.
7. Ghana Boundary Commission.
8. National Forest Plantation Fund Board.
9. Minerals Development Fund Board.

Figure 4.1. below illustrates the organogram of the Ministry of Land and Natural Resources.

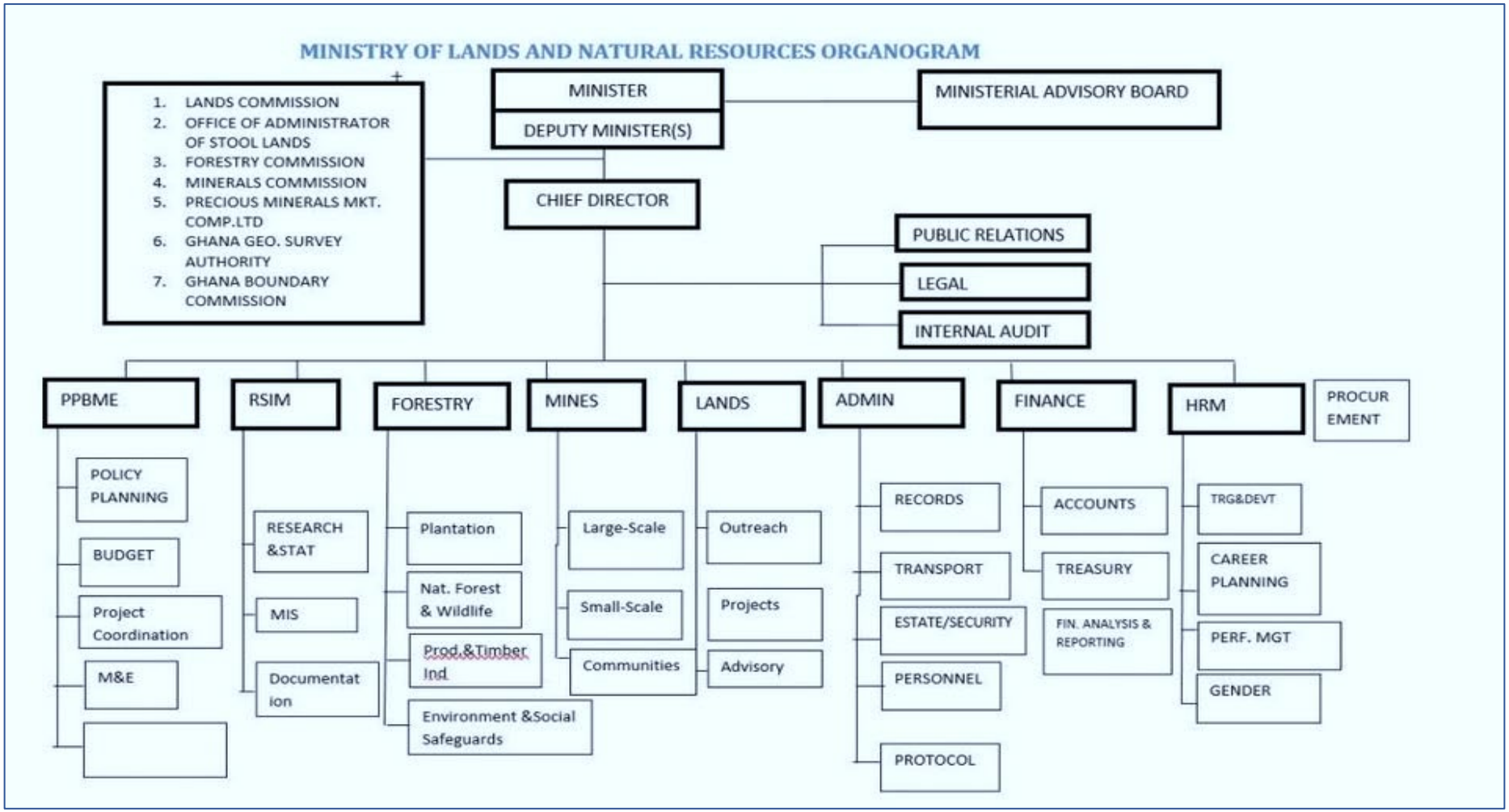


Figure 4.1: Organogram of the Ministry of Lands and Nature Resources

Source: Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources. Structure. (n.a)

Figure 4.1 explains the organogram of the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources of Ghana. It highlights the chain of command and which departments handle various sectors, such as forestry, mines, and lands within that ministry.

4.3.2 Ghana's Minerals Commission

Ghana's Minerals Commission is a body established with a focused function of developing and coordinating mineral sector policy and monitoring its implementation. Minerals Commission was established in September 1986 under the Minerals Commission Law (PNDCL.154).

The Commission's primary responsibility has since been that of fostering the efficient and effective regulation, and management of the utilisation of the mineral resources of Ghana. It also involves the co-ordination and implementation of policies related to them. Specifically, the Commission is responsible for the regulation and management of the utilisation of the mineral resources of Ghana, and the co-ordination of the policies in relation to them.

With the promulgation of the 1992 Constitution, Parliament enacted the Minerals Commission Act, 1993 (Act 450) to give continued legal backing to the existence of the Commission, as required by Article 269(1) of the Constitution. The vision of the Minerals Commission is to strive to make Ghana the leading destination of mining sector investment in Africa, through creating a congenial atmosphere, in which all stakeholders work as partners in a safe environment, to achieve one common goal. That goal is sustainable development through mining. Its mission is to foster efficient and effective regulation and management of the utilisation of Ghana's mineral resources, through the development of solid knowledge-based, self-led organisations, which recognise that mining investment will take place and be sustained only if it is under win-win circumstances (Minerals Commission, 1993).

The Minerals Commission Act 450 of 1993 establishes the Commission as the primary body responsible for overseeing the exploration and exploitation of mineral resources in alignment with national priorities and economic interests. It plays a crucial role in formulating policy recommendations, ensuring that mineral development strategies contribute to sustainable economic growth. A key function of the Commission is maintaining a comprehensive database on national mineral resources and exploration

technologies to support informed decision-making and effective monitoring. Additionally, it serves as an advisory body to the Minister of Lands and Natural Resources on all mineral-related matters and is tasked with implementing and overseeing government policies on minerals. By monitoring the activities of entities responsible for mineral resources, the Commission ensures compliance with regulatory frameworks and provides regular reports to the Minister, reinforcing accountability and sustainable resource management.

It is the responsibility of these principal organisations to ensure that mining activities within Ghana are conducted in a responsible manner. That is, the quest of the government to stimulate economic growth through mining should not compromise the ability of the citizens to earn a living. The regulations are there to promote sustainable livelihoods and as such, should be implemented to the latter. It is the responsibility of these two organisations to ensure that the activities of mining companies do not breach any of the laws of the country. With specific emphasis on SDG 8 and 12 which are the main focus of this study, it is evident that the law of the country provides a conducive environment for their achievement. Based on the discussions advanced in Chapters 2, 3, and 4, the conceptual framework which guides this study is presented below.

4.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section seeks to discuss the theoretical framework used in the study. The study aimed to apply the Sustainable Livelihood Framework and the 'Impoverishment, Risk, and Reconstruction Model.' These two frameworks are briefly discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1 Sustainable Livelihood Framework

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework was propounded by Scoones in 1998, in a study for the Institute of Development Studies. This Framework was proposed to aid in the analysis of sustainable rural livelihoods. The sustainable livelihood framework consists of several basic elements, including the context within which a livelihood can occur, the livelihood resources, the institutional processes and organisational structures, the livelihood strategies, and the sustainable livelihood outcomes.

Thus, the Framework suggests that the type of livelihood resources (human, social, physical, financial, and natural capital) will determine the livelihood strategies (migration, livelihood diversification, agricultural intensification/extensification) to adopt within a particular context (policy setting, politics, history, agroecology, and socio-economic conditions), which ultimately results in the livelihood outcome (sustainable or unsustainable livelihood).

Aspects of this framework, such as livelihood resources and livelihood strategies, are discussed in section 3.3 above. The legal and institutional frameworks and their contribution toward the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12 are discussed in section 4.2 of the fourth chapter.

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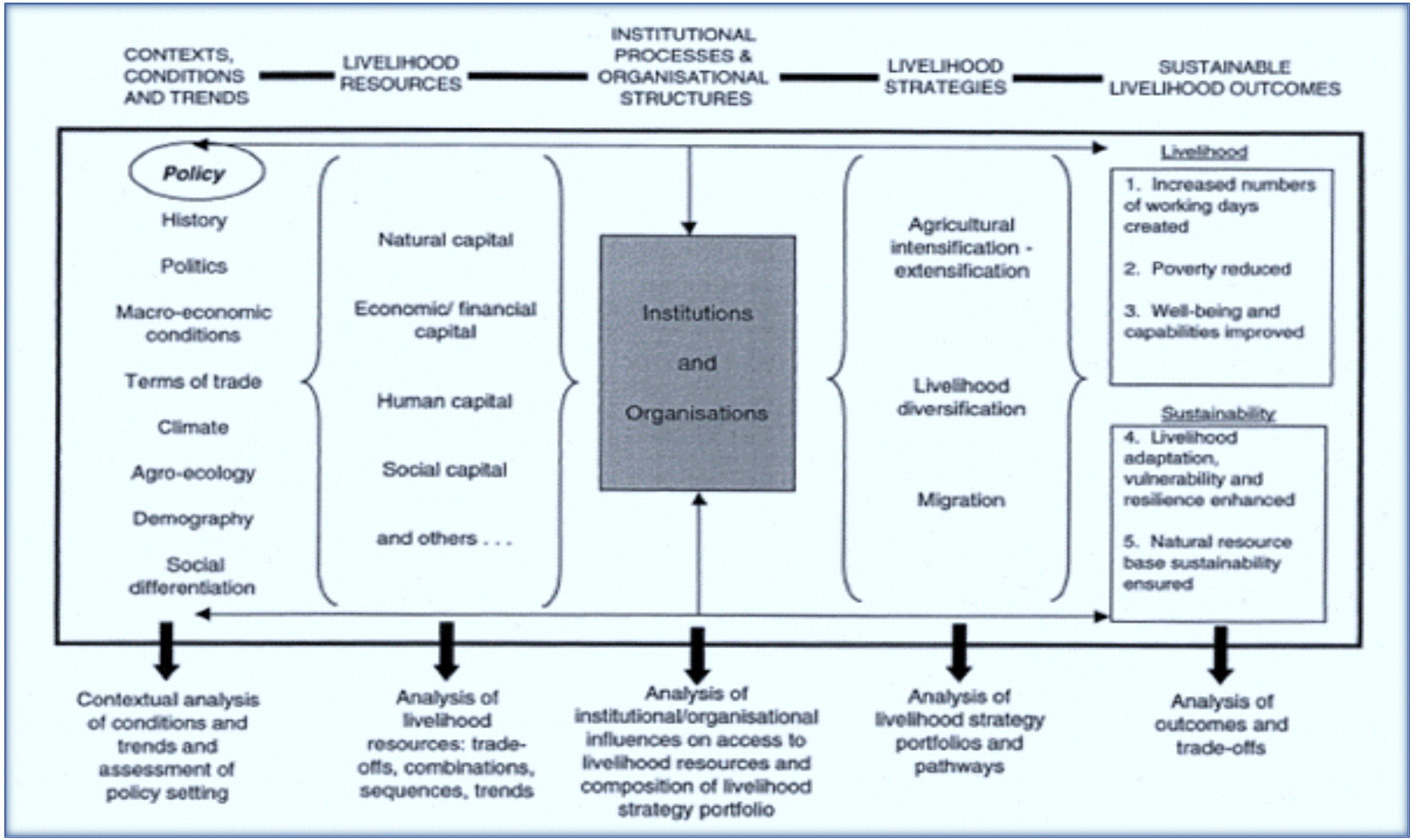


Figure 4.2: Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Source: (Scoones, 1998)

Figure 4.2 presents the Sustainable Livelihood Framework as propounded by Scoones (1998), explaining the contextual analysis of conditions and trends of assessment of policy setting, the livelihood resources and trade-offs, the institutional and organisational influences on access to livelihood resources and composition of livelihood strategy portfolio, the various livelihood strategies and pathways, and their corresponding influence on the livelihood outcomes.

4.4.2 Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction Model

The Impoverishment, Risk, and Reconstruction (IRR) Model was developed by Cernea (1998: 1570-1581). The IRR model seeks to draw the attention of project planners and governments to the impoverishment risks involved in involuntary resettlement and how these risks can be prevented or mitigated. Development-Induced Displacement and Resettlement (DIDR) exposes affected persons, who may even be poor before the displacement process, to eight risks (Cernea, 1998: 1572). These are landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalisation, increased morbidity and mortality, food insecurity, loss of access to common property, and social (community) disarticulation. Cernea (1998: 1574-1578) further advocates that these risks of resettlement and displacement can be reduced at the project and policy levels. Thus, the government needs to adopt broad national policies for safety nets and risk reversal, instead of relying solely on means such as cash compensation, which may be unsustainable. Compensations need to be supplemented with special investments directed to the resettled communities, with a portion of the benefits generated by the projects shared with the people who have been displaced.

Furthermore, during the planning phase, there is a need to deconstruct the process of resettlement and reconstruct it into a set of definable risk-reversal activities. These activities can lead from landlessness to land-based resettlement, from joblessness to reemployment, from homelessness to house reconstruction, from marginalisation to social inclusion, from increased morbidity to improved health care, from food insecurity to adequate nutrition, from lost access to the restoration of community assets and services, and from social disarticulation to rebuilding networks and communities (Cernea, 1998: 1579).

The other two theories, which are not utilised in the conceptual framework but can be useful in this context, are the Governance Network Theory and the Public Choice Theory. These theories also explain why governments or policymakers tend to seek their interests when undertaking certain policy decisions.

4.4.3 Governance Network Theory

The concept of governance has undergone significant evolution, particularly since the 1970s and 1980s. Inferring from the work of Palumbo (2017), governance emerged during this period as a dominant term, signifying a shift from purely state-centric models towards self-organising, inter-organisational networks characterised by interdependence, resource exchange, rules of the game, and significant autonomy from the state. This shift reflected the changing dynamics of how societies manage their economic, social, and political affairs. Governance is often depicted by distinguishing between ‘old’ and ‘new’ governance. ‘Old’ governance refers to hierarchical structures predominantly within state institutions, while ‘new’ governance encompasses more horizontal modes of policy-making that have arisen due to globalisation and the functional differentiation of various sectors of society (Lobel, 2012: 30-32).

Trust is also a core characteristic of network governance, facilitating information exchange and reducing uncertainty, thereby improving outcomes (Ansell, Doberstein, Henderson, Siddiki & Hart, 2020: 578). Network governance processes occur in networks of interdependent actors, including governmental, profit, non-profit, and societal groups (Kapucu & Hu, 2020: 18). These interactions often move between cooperation and conflict due to differing interests and perceptions, necessitating effective network management to achieve beneficial outcomes (Kapucu & Hu, 2020: 20). Network governance is particularly relevant for addressing complex issues such as infrastructure resilience, which requires partnerships across different sectors and levels of government to mobilise resources and develop innovative solutions (Ansell, *et al*., 2020: 579). This form of governance allows for a collaborative approach to problem-solving, drawing on the strengths and resources of diverse stakeholders.

Provan and Kenis (2008: 230-232) identified three basic modes of network governance: shared governance, lead organisation governance, and network

administrative organisation. These modes can be hybridised to create hybrid governance structures. The effectiveness of these modes depends on factors such as trust among network members, the number of participants, goal consensus, and the need for network-level competencies. Understanding the relationship between these predictors can help identify the most suitable mode of governance for a given network. However, according to Kapucu and Hu (2020: 20-22), the complexity of network interactions, due to the presence of multiple actors with differing interests and perceptions, requires active network management to achieve beneficial outcomes. Effective network management involves bridging different perspectives, connecting strategies, and coping with the inherent complexity of network interactions.

4.4.4 Public Choice Theory

Public Choice Theory, which first emerged in the field of public administration during the 1960s and 1970s, was pioneered by scholars such as Gordon Tullock, William Niskanen, Anthony Downs, and Vincent Ostrom (Mengiste, 2010: 66). Zamir and Sulitzeanu-Kenan (2018: 580), posited that human activity should be guided by rationality and self-interest. Following World War II, Keynesian policies became a subject of intense debate due to concerns regarding excessive public sector growth, significant budget deficits, and inflation (Firidin, 2022: 7). It emerged in response to the limitations of traditional economic theory, specifically addressing the ambiguous role of the state in the economy and the rationale behind welfare economics. Market socialism, which developed as a reaction to the Great Depression, posited the state as an alternative market mechanism. This theory addressed concerns of market failures, such as discrepancies in individual and communal costs or utilities, and advocated for governmental economic policies, through tax and subsidy systems, to mitigate these imbalances. Keynesian macroeconomics, in contrast, viewed state intervention as a means to prevent market failure or the underutilisation of productive resources (Volejníková & Kuba, 2020). Volejníková and Kuba (2020) further propose that public choice theory has returned to microeconomic principles, emphasising human decision-making and individual incentives. They argue that perceiving individuals as active participants in collective decision-making could yield different insights regarding governmental actions. According to Volejníková and Kuba (2020), if the state and market are considered equivalent, then preferences for public goods

in the market should align with those for private products. Consequently, the actions and outcomes are shaped primarily by the interests of public officials rather than the public at large. It can be inferred from the work of Sheydayi and Dadashpoor (2022: 100647) that the theory elucidates the relationship between public administration decisions, politics, and the economy, suggesting that personal interests often take precedence over the collective good. According to Agrawal, Hoyt and Wilson (2022: 1380), public choice theory examines how state involvement addresses market shortcomings by allocating resources in the public sector. It presupposes that many individuals, from politicians to bureaucrats, would behave sensibly and prioritise their own private interests when making choices. Further, it stresses that every working person, whether in the private sector or in government agencies or organisations, prioritises self-satisfaction. Politicians and bureaucrats are human beings, just like private-sector managers. They strive to enhance their influence by using public resources to carry out development initiatives in the areas where they operate. Relating this theory within the context of the study, it explains why the government and multinational mining companies would prioritise their interests when dealing with the host communities.

4.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The Sustainable Livelihood (SL) Framework and the Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction (IRR) model have been used extensively in the DIDR literature. Though MIDR is a type of DIDR, it has its unique challenges. For instance, mining activities are undertaken in rural communities where most of the affected persons are agrarians and depend solely on their lands for their livelihood. This means that the livelihood strategies available to them in the event of losing their lands to mining activities appear limited. For example, the livelihood strategy of agricultural intensification or extensification, as envisaged by Scoones (1998), will no longer be available to them. The affected persons may either diversify to engage in off-farm income-earning activities or must migrate to other areas in search of a better livelihood. Also, the institutional processes and organisational structures influence the kind of livelihood strategies to adopt. This suggests that a framework tailored to MIDR research is required to examine the sustainability of the livelihood dynamics of communities affected by mining. Therefore, in relating SL, IRR, and LF to MIDR, the following assumptions are made.

To begin with, the institutional (formal and informal rules) and organisational arrangements on resettlement and compensation will compel mining companies to adopt effective Livelihood Strategies (LS) during the design of Resettlement Planning Framework (RPF). These strategies could include the implementation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes (ALP) for affected persons who seek to diversify their sources of livelihood and the adoption of a Sustainable Compensation (SC) policy for affected persons who seek to migrate in search of a better livelihood. The Livelihood Strategies can then be combined with any of the Livelihood Resources (LR) which are [Human (H), Natural (N), Financial (F), Social (S), and Physical (P)].

Additionally, the effective combination of the Livelihood Strategy (LS) and any of the Livelihood Resources (LR) will, therefore, lead to the sustainable livelihood outcome. The Sustainable Livelihood Outcomes referred to here can be in the form of reemployment, house reconstruction, social inclusion, improved healthcare, restoration of community assets and services, rebuilding networks and communities, improved access to education, reduction of illegal small-scale mining, and so on.

Furthermore, it can be further assumed that the nature and type of Alternative Livelihood Programmes (ALP) and Sustainable Compensation (SC) strategies to be adopted cannot be done without the involvement of the affected communities. Community participation will motivate the affected persons to fully appreciate and embrace the ALP and SC strategies implemented by the mining companies during the formulation of their RPF. A diagram of the conceptualisation of the three frameworks is presented below in Figure 4.3.

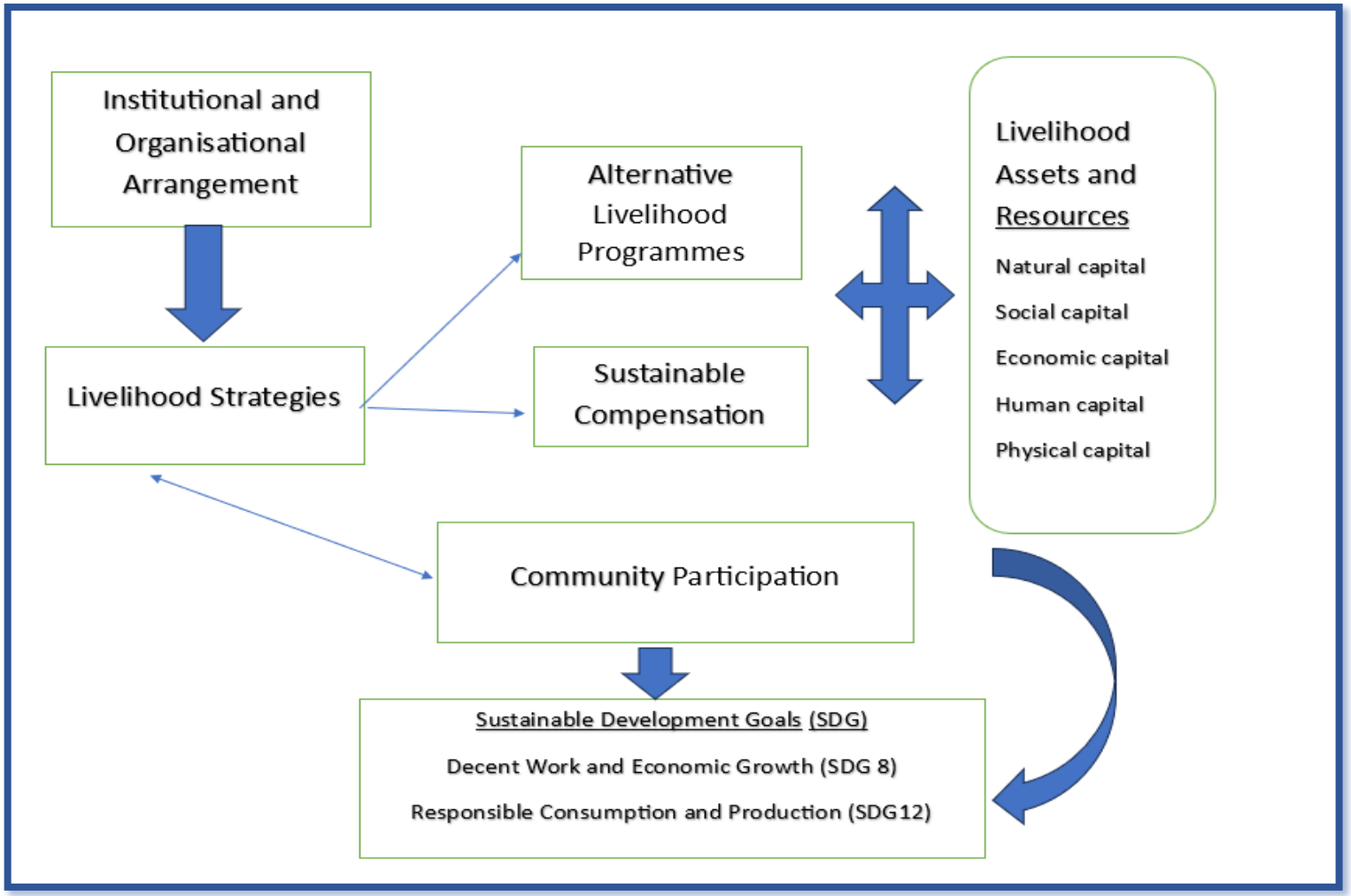


Figure 4.3: Conceptual Framework

Source: Author's own construct

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

From the discussion in this chapter, a logical conclusion will be that multinational mining companies operating in Ghana should ensure that mining affected persons receive both monetary compensations, as well as an appropriate resettlement package. This should not only feature clearly in the resettlement planning framework, but rather strictly adhered to. Any compromise in this regard will not only constitute a breach of the constitution, which is the supreme law of Ghana, but also affect the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12.

In conclusion, this chapter sought to discuss Ghana's legislative framework which governs the mining industry. The chapter began by identifying the various policies which have been formulated and implemented since 1986. Since this study focuses on mining resettlement and compensation, the four legal frameworks in this regard were discussed. It was revealed that all these legislations require mining companies to compensate affected persons in the form of the payment of land and crop compensation, resettlement provisions, and the initiation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes. The main objective is to ensure that affected persons are not made worse off by the mining activities. The LI 2175 specifically, identifies the processes involved in compensating and resettling affected persons.

Whereas institutions are the rules governing how things ought to be done at any time, organisations aid in their enforcement. Thus, the principal governmental organisation which oversees the mining industry in Ghana was also presented. The section focused on the Ministry of Lands and Local Government, and the Minerals Commission. Their mandate, functions, organisational set up, mission and vision were also presented. The Sustainable Livelihood Framework propounded by Scoones in 1998, and the Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction Model by Cernea published in 1998, which form part of the theoretical underpinning of this study were also discussed. Two other theories which are the Public Choice Theory, and the Governance Network Theory were also elaborated on. The conceptual framework which represents elements discussed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, were also represented. The conceptual framework is the author's own construct from the Literature Review, which guides the study.

Scientific research requires a sound methodological approach. In view of this, the next chapter will present the methodological approach adopted for this study.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

> *"There is no discovery without a search and there is no rediscovery without research. Every discovery man ever made has always been concealed. It takes searchers and researchers to unveil them. That is what makes an insightful leader."* (Benjamin Suulola as cited by Thaliath, 2018: 30)

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Scientific research requires a sound methodological approach. For this reason, this chapter presents the methodological approach adopted for the study. To begin with, this chapter first highlights what a research philosophy is. The idea is to provide a solid backing for the research philosophy, underpinning the study of mining sector resettlement programmes. The research design and approach are also highlighted.

Identifying and selecting participants for any research work must be grounded on a sound sampling design and technique. This is to ensure that respondents are selected based on a scientifically approved method. Therefore, to justify the selection of respondents, this chapter elaborates on the population and sampling techniques used. How data is collected, and the instrument used in collecting the data, emanate from the kind of research design and approach used for the study. This also has a direct implication on the quality of findings and conclusions that the study might arrive at. To ensure that the data gathering, and data collection instrument are in synchrony with the scientific method, this chapter addresses issues pertaining to the study population, sampling, and sample size, as well as the data collection instrument.

This study aims to research how public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies, can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs. For this reason, human participant data is required. In dealing with studies of this nature, there is a need for an ethical consideration**.** Issues such as confidentiality, anonymity, and voluntary participation, need to be addressed. There is also the need for an ethical clearance before the commencement of the data collection. As part of this chapter, the ethical clearance procedure and the

ethical consideration are presented. Finally, a summary of the various topics discussed are presented to conclude the chapter.

The following section attempts to discuss the research philosophy and paradigm of this study.

5.2 PHILOSOPHY AND PARADIGM OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

Research philosophy and paradigm form an important tenet of any scientific study. This is because these two concepts play a critical role in influencing the type of methodology which is employed for the study. This has a direct bearing on how the data is collected, analysed, and interpreted, towards the attainment of the study objectives. For this reason, this section presents an elaboration of these two concepts, and their influence on the research methodology adopted for this study.

5.2.1 Research philosophy

Every research is underpinned by some assumptions. A researcher's choice on how data should be gathered and analysed are based on these assumptions. This is supported by the assertion of Overton and Kleinschmit (2022: 356) that, research stems from assumptions.

Research philosophy can be defined as the development of research assumption, its knowledge, and nature. These philosophical assumptions consist of a stance toward the nature of reality (Ontology), how the researcher knows what he or she knows (Epistemology), the role of values in the research (Axiology), the language of research (rhetoric), and the methods used in the process (methodology) (Creswell & Poth, 2024: 21). As opined by Ahlskog (2020: 102), these assumptions are perceived as a preliminary statement of reasoning, but it is based on the philosopher's knowledge and insights, that are born as a product of intellectual activity. Thus, from the above, it is evident that different researchers may have different assumptions about the nature of truth and knowledge, and its acquisition as indicated by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017: 246). For this reason, a scientific research philosophy is defined by Ahlskog (2020: 103), as a method which when applied, allows the scientists to generate ideas into knowledge in the context of research. There are four main trends of research philosophy. These are Positivist Research Philosophy, Interpretivist

Research Philosophy, Pragmatist Research Philosophy, and Realistic Research Philosophy.

The positivist research philosophy claims that, the social world can be understood in an objective way. In this research philosophy, the scientist is an objective analyst and based on that, dissociates himself from personal values. The scientist then works independently. However, the interpretivist research philosophy states that the social world can be interpreted in a subjective manner. The greatest attention here is given to understanding the ways through which people experience the social world. Interpretivist research philosophy is based on the principle which states that, the researcher performs a specific role in observing the social world. According to this research philosophy, the research is based and depends on what the researcher's interests are (Ahlskog, 2020: 123).

The third research philosophy, pragmatist research philosophy, deals with the facts. It claims that the choice of a research philosophy is mostly determined by the research problem. In the view of Lancaster (2016: 120), this research philosophy considers practical results as very important. Creswell (2014: 14-16) is of the view that pragmatism does not belong to any philosophical system and reality. Researchers have freedom of choice. They are 'free' to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures that best meet their needs and scientific research aims. Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity, the truth to them is what is currently in action (Creswell & Poth, 2024: 21-24; Alghamdi & Li, 2013: 5).

The remaining research philosophy, the realistic research philosophy, is based on the principles of positivist and interpretivist research philosophies. Realistic research philosophy is based on assumptions that are necessary for the perception of subjective nature of the human (Lancaster, 2016: 122). To better understand the aim of the study, the pragmatic research philosophy is considered more appropriate. This is based on the assertion of Given (2008: 672), which indicates that the pragmatists believe that truth is found in 'what works', and that truth is relative to the current situation. The implementation of mining resettlement programmes and their implication on the livelihoods of the affected persons, can be best assessed by examining the current situation of the people for whom the programme was intended. As indicated by Creswell and Poth (2024: 23), pragmatism is not committed to any

one system of philosophy and reality. Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. Hence, truth is what works at the time, and is not based in a dualism between reality independent of the mind or within the mind. Pragmatist researchers look to the 'what' and 'how' of research, based on its intended consequences. Finally, pragmatists agree that research always occurs in social, historical, political, and other contexts.

Thus, the pragmatic research philosophy was adopted for the study, as it was considered appropriate, and provided an opportunity to understand and appreciate how mining resettlement programmes are implemented, as well as the implication of these programmes on the affected persons. It is also worthy of note that, there are scientific research paradigms which help a researcher to define the scientific research philosophy. The following section attempts to discuss these scientific research paradigms as they pertain to the topic under investigation.

5.2.2 Scientific research paradigm

Mertens and Wilson (2018) describe a paradigm in terms of assumptions related to ethics, reality (ontology), and epistemology, which lead to different assumptions about the nature of systematic inquiry. A paradigm is a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics), that deal with ultimate or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines for its holder, the nature of the world, the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts. According to Hayhoe, (2023: 2-3), the concept of research paradigm sets the stage for the recognition of different paradigms that start with different philosophical assumptions. These lead to different methodological assumptions and choices. Similarly, a research paradigm is viewed by Cohen, *et al.* (2017: 247), as a wide structure encompassing perception, beliefs, and awareness of different theories and practices, used to carry out scientific research. To Davies (2023: 23), literature on scientific research claims that, the researcher must have a clear vision of paradigms or worldview, which provides the researcher with philosophical, theoretical, instrumental, and methodological foundations. Gliner, Morgan and Leech (2016: 8-10) describe the scientific research paradigm as the approach or thinking about the research, the accomplishing process, and the method of implementation. It is not a methodology, but rather a philosophy which provides the process of carrying out research. It guides the process of carrying out research in a specific direction. Ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods, describe all research paradigms.

Thus, the position of a researcher in some cases, can influence the research findings, conclusions and recommendations that will be made. By way of explanation, ontology in the opinion of Al-Ababneh (2020: 77-79), is the study of 'being' and is concerned with 'what is', that is, the nature of existence and structure of reality as such, or what it is possible to know about the world. Similarly, Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape (2014: 4) assert that, ontology concerns the question whether or not there is a social reality that exists independently from human conceptions and interpretations and is closely related to if there is a shared social reality or only multiple, context-specific ones. In simple terms, the beliefs we have about what the nature of reality is and what exists, is the primary focus of ontology.

Epistemology on one hand, refers to the assumptions we make about the kind or the nature of knowledge (Hayhoe, 2023: 3), or how it is possible to find out about the world (Bingham, Mitchell & Carter, 2023: 11). For Besen-Cassino and Cassino (2023: 61), epistemology is a way of looking at the world and making sense of it. It involves knowledge and most importantly, it embodies a certain understanding of what that knowledge entails. Bryman (2008: 12-14) defines epistemology as an issue that concerns the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline. It is therefore safe to infer that, epistemology is fundamentally concerned with how to obtain knowledge or information, pertaining to a phenomenon of interest.

Relating these research paradigms to the study under investigation, people (government, mining companies, indigenes of mining communities, researchers, and other stake holders) have diverse opinions about mining resettlement programmes, the policies governing such programmes, the implementation of these policies, as well as the outcome of implementing policies of such nature. In research issues of this kind, the ontological and the epistemological viewpoint of the researcher, has a critical role to play in determining the kind of questions to be asked, with the aim of obtaining further insight about the issue (Besen-Cassino & Cassino, 2023: 64).

To achieve the research objectives of this study, the following questions have been posited.

1. What does the literature say about public policymaking, public resettlement policies that affect multinational mining companies, sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs?

2. To what extent do government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana?
3. What is the most appropriate research design and approach to study the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies operating in Ghana?
4. What were the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme?
5. What are the implications of the resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members?
6. How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?
7. Which recommendations can be made to mitigate the adverse effects of mining induced resettlement, towards sustainable development?

These research questions helped the researcher to gain greater insight about how mining resettlement programmes are implemented especially by this company, and how it impacted the lives of the people from the community in which the affected persons in this regard are located. The questions identified above are in line with the research philosophies and paradigms discussed above.

The research methodology on the other hand, is the general approach to research, which relates to the research paradigm. This includes how data is gathered, the data collection tools, and how the data collected is analysed. This is discussed in sections 5.4 to 5.7 of this chapter. In every research, there is a blueprint which seeks to establish a link between the research problem and the research questions. The aim hereby is to assist in the achievement of the research goals and objectives. Thus, the following section discusses the research design adopted for the study.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is defined by Tantia (2021: 141) as a complete plan and the structure for conducting an empirical study. The definition maintained by Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008: 195) revealed that, the ‘plan’ refers to the overall

program of the research, while the ‘structure’ refers to the framework of the research. Prior to the year 1994 when Creswell published his first book on research methodology in 2014, only two research designs were known and discussed. Those are the qualitative and quantitative research designs. He described each in terms of different philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality, epistemology, values, the rhetoric of research, and methodology (Creswell, 2021: 101). However, several decades later, a third research design known as the mixed method was identified. To include only quantitative and qualitative methods, falls short of the major approaches being used presently in the social and human sciences (Creswell, 2021: 102-103). Thus, research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach that provide specific direction for the procedure in a research design (Creswell, 2024: 116-118).

In relating the concept of research design to the study under investigation, the mixed method design was adopted. To better understand how the mining company implemented its resettlement policies, interviews, which fall within the qualitative research approach, were used. The aim was to obtain an in-depth understanding of how things were done. This was the first stage of the data collection process. This was proceeded by the surveys where questionnaires were issued to the affected persons within the host community. It was done to compare the data collected. The use of surveys is within the quantitative research approach. Thus, it is evident that the mixed method research design was employed in this study. The mixed methods approach is discussed in the following section.

5.3.1 Mixed methods research design

Creswell (2014: 212) defines the mixed methods design as the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, in which the data is collected concurrently or sequentially. The data is prioritised and integrated at one or more stages in the process of research. As discussed, the study sought to understand the implementation of the mining resettlement programmes, and its implication on the affected persons. In understanding how a policy or program is implemented, there is a need for an in-depth interview with the policy actors, who are responsible and in charge of implementing the said policy or programme. In this regard, a survey would

not be the most appropriate tool. Thus, the use of interviews, which is a feature of the qualitative research design, is the most suitable method.

The qualitative research approach, according to McLaughlin (2012: 266), focuses on individuals, their interactions, and how their mutual understanding is negotiated. Payne and Payne (2004: 175) also define the qualitative research as a method which produces detailed and non-quantitative accounts of small groups, seeking to interpret the meanings people make of their lives in natural settings, with the assumption that social interactions form an integrated set of relationships, best understood by inductive processes. This approach, therefore, enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth appreciation of the issue under investigation, from the perspective of the community leaders and the mining company officials.

Similarly, the second aspect of the research which focused on the aftermath of the implementation of the policy was to be best determined by having an interaction with the people who were affected. With the number of people involved, the Survey Method was considered appropriate. The survey method according to Creswell (2014: 14), provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population, by studying a sample of that population. One advantage of the survey method is that it allows for the collection of a significant amount of data from a sizeable population (Eichhorn, 2022: 126). The quantitative research examines the relationships between variables, which are measured numerically and analysed using a range of statistical techniques (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016: 162). A quantitative research approach thus encourages the collection of larger data (Creswell, 2014: 16; Saunders, *et al*., 2016: 162-164; Eichhorn, 2022: 126). For this reason, the study adopted the use of surveys which is quantitative in nature, to gather information from members of the community.

This study made use of a survey (quantitative data collection instrument), as well as interviews and a case study approach (qualitative data collection instruments), within the mixed method research design. The mixed method approach was considered appropriate for this study because, both the qualitative and quantitative research methods have biases and weaknesses. Thus, the collection of both data neutralises the weaknesses of each form of data (Creswell, 2014: 15). Also, regarding the research philosophy, pragmatism is of the view that reality is ambiguous, but based

on the language, history, and culture respect. Hence, knowledge is derived from experience. With regards to how data was collected, interviews, case study, and surveys were used. Thus, the need for the mixed method approach. The implementation of mining resettlement programmes and its impact on the livelihood of the affected persons, could be best understood not just by interviews, but also through surveys and case studies.

The choice to begin with a qualitative approach before transitioning to the quantitative method was driven by the study's objective to gain an in-depth understanding of the implementation of mining resettlement programmes from the perspectives of key stakeholders before measuring broader community experiences and perceptions. This sequencing aligns with the exploratory sequential mixed-methods design, where qualitative insights guide the development of a more structured quantitative analysis. The rationale for this approach is that mining resettlement is a multidimensional issue that involves social, economic, and environmental challenges. By starting with qualitative research, the study aimed to capture detailed narratives from key informants, such as the senior official involved in the resettlement process and the human rights and environmental advocacy group. Their perspectives provided context on the resettlement process, challenges faced, and policy implementation gaps that would have been difficult to identify through a purely quantitative approach. The findings from qualitative interviews helped refine the survey instrument by ensuring that questions were directly related to the lived experiences of resettled community members. This step reduced the risk of using pre-existing generic surveys that might not have captured the unique dimensions of displacement and resettlement. After gathering rich qualitative data, the study transitioned to quantitative methods to validate the findings across a broader sample (the 70 households affected by resettlement). The structured survey allowed for statistical generalisation, providing measurable insights into trends such as socio-economic changes, access to basic services, and overall satisfaction with the resettlement process.

The qualitative-then-quantitative sequence ensured that the study first explored ‘what’ and ‘why’ regarding community resettlement experiences before assessing ‘how many’ and ‘to what extent’ through quantitative analysis. This approach provided a comprehensive understanding that neither method could have achieved alone.

The following section highlights the three research approaches namely, exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research (Dunk-West & Saxton, 2024: 18-20)

5.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

Saunders, *et al*. (2016: 139-141) indicate that, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory approaches are the three primary methods to scientific research. These three approaches are highlighted in the ensuing sections, with emphasis on their applicability to this study.

5.4.1 Exploratory research

The exploratory study attempts to discover research areas where there is limited knowledge either on the topic or in the context. As observed by Casula, Rangarajan and Shields (2021: 1706), researchers explore when they have little or no scientific knowledge about the group, process, activity, or situation they want to examine. Researchers have reason to believe that their studies contain elements worth discovering. To effectively explore a given phenomenon, researchers must approach it with two special orientations. These include flexibility in looking for data, and the open-mindedness about where to find them. This is in line with the assertion by Carter, Andersen, Stagg & Gaunt (2023: 102620) that, exploratory research is appropriate for research projects, that address phenomena with high levels of uncertainty and ignorance about the specific research topic or problem. Essentially, exploratory research focuses on new fact-finding research – without any prior expectations. It consequently provides the foundation for further investigation of trending social issues, like governance, public service delivery, and public policy.

5.4.2 Descriptive research

The descriptive study attempts to systematically describe a situation, problem, phenomenon, service, or programmes. In effect, the descriptive studies analyse and present the sequence of events under study (Kumar, 2019: 15).

The purpose of descriptive studies is to describe individuals, events, or conditions by studying them as they are in nature (Siedlecki, 2020: 9). It is widely used to provide answers to the ‘what’ and ‘where’ questions of a quantitative studied phenomenon. Unfortunately, descriptive research does not answer questions about ‘how’ and ‘why’

certain characteristics occurred in qualitative studies (Alers, 2018: 120). Descriptive designs are most useful for describing phenomena or events about where there is limited knowledge, or for identifying new and emerging phenomena. In addition, the results of descriptive studies are usually used as the basis for further research. Thus, it is extremely important that descriptive studies are well designed and implemented. Limitations of these designs include the lack of generalisation of the data, and the potential for multiple interpretations of the data. This is why it is so important that the right data is collected from the right subjects in the right setting. These three characteristics, that is, data, subjects, and settings, are the criteria by which the external validity of the descriptive study can be assessed. The data collected should be valid and reliable. The instruments used (interviews, questionnaires, or equipment that measures physiological variables) should be standardised instruments (previously tested and shown to have instrument validity and reliability with the population under study) (Cohen, *et al*., 2017: 249-251). To be able to successfully describe the phenomenon under investigation, this study adopted the mixed method research design (see section 5.3.1 *Mixed methods research design*).

5.4.3 Explanatory research

In contrast to descriptive research, the aim of explanatory research is to identify the causal links between the factors or variables that pertain to a particular research phenomenon or problem. It attempts to answer the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions by identifying causal factors and connecting different pieces of the studied phenomenon. Explanatory research is about cause-and-effect relationships, and, as such, is very analytical and structured in nature (Saunders, *et al*., 2016: 140-141). In effect, the descriptive studies analyse and present the sequence of events under study, explanatory studies answer to the question ‘how' or 'why', while exploratory studies provide answers to the ‘what' or ‘who' questions (Kumar, 2019: 17-19).

The focus of the research was to investigate how public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies, can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs. More specifically, the study is intended to examine the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of Ghana, on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities. This is largely explanatory in nature. To do this, the government of Ghana’s policies regarding mining resettlement

programmes (see Chapter 4) are accessed, as well as the internalised policy on land access and resettlement, environmental protection, and community relations by the company (Chapter 6). The purpose of this is to determine how the mining company internalises the national policies towards the development of the affected persons and the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12. In relation to a study on mining sector resettlement activities especially within the Sub-Saharan African countries, several studies have been conducted (Downing, 2002: 14; Cernea, 1998: 1576; Cernea, 2022: 36-38; Kumah, *et al*., 2020: 621). The findings of these studies suggest that, affected persons are most often than not impoverished. Nonetheless, it is very important to note that these activities are undertaken by mining companies, within the confines of the legal framework of the host country. Mining communities share some unique characteristic such as their location in rural communities which are mostly agrarians in nature. Nonetheless, the characteristics, needs of the people, methods of negotiation, and the kind of resettlement planning framework adopted, might differ. This study focuses on a community in the Tarkwa Nsuaem Municipality as a case study, where the negotiations and final resettlement of seventy (70) households lasted about 5 years, with the completion in 2015. The study of the resettlement of this community presents new knowledge and experiences, pertaining to implementation of mining resettlement programmes. This is due to its commencement during the implementation of Millennium Development Goals, and its transition into the implementation of the SDGs.

Scientific research is underpinned by a sound research methodology, which gives credibility to the findings and subsequent recommendations that will be made. The following section elaborates on the research methodology which was adopted for this study.

5.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research method or methodology is often misconstrued. Research method according to Dubey and Kothati (2022: 8-9), pertains to all those methods or techniques that are used in the conduction of research. Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In the methodology, the researcher highlights the various steps that are generally adopted in solving the research problem, alongside the logic behind these procedures (Dubey & Kothati, 2022: 10). The concept ‘research

methodology' refers to the methods, strategies, techniques, and instruments, used to implement the research design. It therefore comprises selecting research methods, identifying the research population, selecting sampling techniques, and developing instruments to gather data. Furthermore, it includes the processes for data analysis, and the ways in which the research findings are formulated. Essentially, a research methodology provides a research path in which all the aspects regarding a research topic and the related problem are identified and selected, including data gathering, analyses, and the interpretation of how things appear to be (Pandey & Pandey (2021: 16-19); Blumberg, *et al*., 2008: 56).

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, the role that the literature review and document analysis played in reaching the research objectives, is highlighted, briefly followed by a description of the case study and instruments to gather data.

5.5.1 Literature review

Reviewing literature pertaining to the topic under investigation, is a critical stage in every research. Once a topic has been identified for research, the next stage is for the researcher to identify relevant and related literature on the topic. Olivares (2004) as cited in Boateng (2014: 47), defines literature review as a synthesis of available resources and materials with strong relation to the topic in question, accompanied by a description, a critical evaluation, and comparative analysis of each work. A researcher may conduct a literature review for a number of reasons: (1) to justify the research, (2) to show awareness of the present state of knowledge of a particular field, and (3) to provide a foundation for the research (Boateng, 2014: 50).

Based on the research problem, research objectives, and research questions, the literature review was presented in four chapters. A preliminary literature was presented in chapter one, whereas a detailed literature review was presented in the subsequent three chapters (Chapters 2, 3 and 4), with the aim of providing a focus, and placing the study within the proper perspective of the general field of public administration and previous studies. The second chapter sought to place MIDR which is the focus of the study, within the field of public administration. With this, the chapter was organised in six sections. The first section discussed the historical and theoretical perspectives of public administration. This was achieved by building on the various definitions on the

concept of public administration, as presented by several scholars (section 2.2 *Genesis and Etymology of Governance Systems* and section 2.3 *Paradigm of Public Administration*). A further elaboration of the policymaking process was also provided (section 2.4 *Theoretical Premises of Public Administration*). In addition, the concept of 'Institution and 'Organisation' was highlighted. It was further identified that MIDR was a type of formal institution, which was implemented by organisations (section 2.5 *Public Policy*). The chapter further established the difference between Resettlement, Displacement, and Relocation. The chapter concluded by expounding DIDR with specific emphasis on MIDR (section 2.7 *Institutional and Organisational Arrangement in Policy Implementation*).

The third chapter focused on MIDR and SDGs, which have been identified by the United Nations (UN) for its member countries, of which Ghana is included. Since Ghana was the geographical context within which the research conducted, section 3.2 *Mining Industry: The Ghanaian Historical Perspective* provided a historical background to the mining industry in Ghana. Section 3.5 *Sustainable Development Goals* discussed the SDGs, with specific emphasis SDG 8 and 12. The Sustainable Livelihood framework propounded by Scoones 1998, and the Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction Model by Cernea published in 1998, which form part of the theoretical underpinning of this study were also discussed.

The final part of the literature review was presented in Chapter 4. The focus of this chapter was to explore the compensation and resettlement policies within Ghana and how these legislated frameworks can contribute towards the achievement of the SDGs 8 and 12. This was in fulfillment of the second objective of this study and further justified the assertion established in Section 2.5 *Public Policy*, that public policy is simply the tentative action plan of the government on how the resources of the state will be used to address a particular public problem at a specific time. Thus, from the literature review, the theoretical framework that underpinned the study was developed. The literature review also shaped how data was collected and analysed for this case study. This study was primarily based on a single case study. For this reason, the following section will elaborate on the case study method applied in this study.

5.5.2 Case study method

The case study method is a widely used approach in qualitative research, characterised by the detailed and thorough observation of a social unit. This unit could be an individual, a family, an institution, a cultural group, or even an entire community. As a research strategy, it emphasises an in-depth exploration of the chosen unit, examining every aspect in meticulous detail to uncover patterns, derive generalisations, and draw meaningful inferences (Dubey & Kothari, 2022: 11).

The single-case design was the most appropriate to this study as it sought to deeply understand the challenges and implementation gaps in mining resettlement in Tarkwa rather than generalising across multiple cases. Yin and Campbell (2018: 14-16) define a single-case study as one that focuses on a unique, critical, or representative case to explore a particular phenomenon in depth. In this study, the focus is on one resettled community in rural Ghana that has experienced mining-induced displacement and resettlement. This specific context makes it a critical case, as it allows for an in-depth examination of the implementation of mining resettlement programmes. The study is not comparing multiple communities but rather conducting a detailed analysis of one case, which aligns with Yin's single-case design framework.

A case study approach is versatile and can be employed in both qualitative and quantitative research, offering a robust framework for data collection and analysis. One of the strengths of the case study method lies in its ability to integrate and combine various data collection tools, such as interviews, observations, and document analysis, thereby providing a comprehensive understanding of the subject under investigation (Creswell & Poth, 2024: 119).

Priya (2021: 96) adds that case study research can focus on either a single case or multiple cases, depending on the research objectives. For this study, a single-case approach was chosen, with a focus on a resettled community in Ghana. This design was deemed appropriate because it allowed the researcher to engage directly with key stakeholders, including company management, officials, and community members, facilitating a deeper understanding of the resettlement process and its impacts.

By adopting the case study method, the research captured the complexity and nuances of the lived experiences within the community, providing valuable insights into the social, economic, and cultural dimensions of resettlement. This approach not only enriched the data but also ensured that the voices of the affected individuals and groups were represented, making the findings more relevant and actionable.

5.5.3 Document analysis

Document analysis, according to Taylor, Garner, Oliver and Desmond (2024), is a qualitative method that aims to synthesise and appraise textual data to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge. For this study, the national policy document, which is the legislated framework pertaining to mining resettlement programmes, was analysed (see Section 4.2). Four main policy documents were examined: (1) The 1992 Constitution; (2) The Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 703, as amended by the Minerals and Mining (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 900); (3) The Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation 2012 (LI 2175); and (4) The Minerals and Mining Policy of Ghana (2014). These documents formed the basis of analysis for the second objective of this study, as presented in Chapter 6.

5.5.4 Empirical research

Empirical research relies on experience or observation alone, often without due regard for system and theory. It is data-based research that comes up with conclusions that are liable to be verified by observation or experiment. In this type of research, it is necessary to get facts firsthand, at their source, and actively go about doing certain things to stimulate the production of desired information (Dubey & Kothari, 2022: 14). Harris and Brown (2010: 11) also defined empirical research as a research method that involves the use of standardised questionnaires and/or interviews in a systematic manner to gather data about participants and their preferences, thoughts, opinions, perceptions, and behaviours. In gathering empirical data for this study, semi-structured questionnaires and interviews were employed as the main data collection instruments. This is presented in Section 5.6 *Population and Sampling Techniques*.

For easy reference, the research path for this study is presented in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Presentation of research path

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">AIM/PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The study aims to research how public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs. More specifically, to examine the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of the affected community.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">STEP ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION
The aim of this is to provide a general overview to the study under investigation (Chapter 1)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td>STEP TWO:
Contextualizing the scope and nature of public resettlement programmes and placing it within the proper sphere of the field Public Administration as well as to examine how mining resettlement programmes can be undertaken in a sustainable manner towards the attainment of SDG 8 and 12.
Method: Literature Review</td><td>STEP THREE:
Exploring the compensation and resettlement policies within Ghana and how these legislated frameworks can contribute towards the achievement of the SDGs 8 and 12. The conceptual framework is developed which represents elements discussed in Chapters 2, 3, and 4.
Method: Literature Review</td></tr>
</table>

Objective 1: To identify, collect, and peruse the literature on public policymaking, public resettlement policies that affect multinational mining companies, sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs. **(Chapters 2 and 3)**	**Objective 2:** To examine the extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana. **(Chapter 4)**
STEP FOUR: RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY Providing sound justification for the method used in the collection of data. **Method: Literature Review and field work**	
Objective 5: To determine the most appropriate research design and approach to study the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies operating in Ghana. **(Chapters 5 and 6)**	
STEP FIVE: ETHICS CLEARANCE Ethics clearance: Ethics clearance approval granted for phase A of data collection (interview with mining officials): 6 May 2022 Ethics clearance approval granted for phase B of data collection (questionnaire and interview with community leaders and affected persons: 17 November 2022	

Research design and methodology: Mixed methods research design **(Chapter 5)** **Multi-voiced account**: Understanding the resettlement process and the challenges from the mining officials' point of view and that of the affected community. **Data gathering instruments**: semi-structured questionnaire and structured personal interviews. **Respondents to questionnaire**: affected persons in the community. **Participants in interviews**: senior official at the mining company who was directly involved in the resettlement process and an official at a human rights and environmental mining advocacy group. **Approach**: Deductive – from broader general perspective to the specific case under study
STEP SIX: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS **Method of analysis**: Microsoft office 365 Excel (quantifiable data). Themes identified in transcribed qualitative data
Presentation of findings, data analysis and interpretations of findings (**Chapter 6**)
STEP SEVEN: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION
Objective 7: To make recommendations to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development. (**Chapter 7**)

Table 5.1 presents the research path. It indicates the research objectives and further highlights what was done in each of the seven chapters of the thesis.

5.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

The following section discusses the population and sampling techniques adopted for this study.

5.6.1 Population

A population is defined as a complete group of entities, within which a researcher can explore, understand, or predict a social phenomenon (Boateng 2014: 149). Similarly, Stratton (2024: 121) also define a research population as the object of research, from which samples are taken and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, products and events. The target population (unit of analysis) refers to all the individuals, institutions, or items with the features that the researcher wishes to study.

As stated in the previous chapters, the focus of the study is on the implementation of mining resettlement programmes using in a resettled community in rural Ghana. Again, this study is based on a mixed methods research design, to bridge the gap between utilising quantitative or qualitative research designs exclusively. Regarding the research population and sampling techniques, the qualitative method places primary emphasis on saturation by obtaining a comprehensive understanding of the research phenomena, until no new substantive information is acquired. Meanwhile, the quantitative method places the key emphasis on generalisation by ensuring that, the knowledge gained is representative of the population from which the sample was drawn. As a result, each methodology has specific requirements to determine the sample and the number of participants required to achieve its aims. For this reason, the population for this study comprised of a senior official who was directly involved in the resettlement process, an official at a human rights and environmental mining advocacy group, and the members of the seventy (70) household of the community in Tarkwa who were present and affected by the resettlement activity.

While efforts were made to include key participants directly involved in the resettlement process, there were challenges in securing interviews with some individuals due to logistical constraints and scheduling conflicts. Despite these

challenges, the study rigorously adhered to its methodological framework, aiming for comprehensive data saturation in qualitative aspects and representative sampling in quantitative aspects. The research design, as explained in above section 5.3, aimed to balance the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods to ensure a robust understanding of the resettlement process in Tarkwa.

Specifically, the qualitative component prioritised achieving saturation among key informants directly involved in the resettlement, including a senior official and a representative from a human rights and environmental advocacy group. This approach allowed for a deep exploration of their perspectives and experiences, contributing valuable insights into the complexities of mining resettlement programs. On the quantitative side, the study aimed for generalisability by ensuring that findings from the sampled households were reflective of the broader community affected by the resettlement.

Regarding the participants, the initial sample size was determined based on methodological requirements aimed at achieving data saturation in qualitative interviews and statistical power in quantitative analyses. While some key participants were unavailable for interviews, every effort was made to mitigate this limitation by ensuring the inclusion of other eligible participants from the community, maintaining the study's integrity and adherence to its methodological principles.

Furthermore, as opined by Dubey and Kothari (2022: 16) in any research study, the best strategy is to investigate the problem in the whole population. Practically, it is not always possible to study the entire population. Alternatively, the researcher studies a sample which is sufficiently large and representative of the entire population. A sample is a subset of the population, selected to be a representative of the larger population. In total, the study had seventy-two (72) participants. A tabular presentation of the population, sample size and sampling technique is presented in Table 5.2 below.

The sampling technique adopted for this study is discussed in next section.

5.6.2 Sampling techniques

As mentioned in section 5.5.1 above, it is quite impossible to study an entire population for any research activity. A sample from the entire population is, therefore, used and

the findings could be generalised across the said population used for the study. However, how the sample is determined and selected needs to be based on a sound scientific sampling technique. There are two types of sampling techniques. These are the probability and non-probability sampling technique. In the following section, a brief explanation of these sampling technique and the justification of the sampling method adopted for the study is provided.

5.6.2.1 *Non-probability sampling*

Non-probability sampling is often associated with case study research design and qualitative research. With regards to the latter, case studies tend to focus on small samples and are intended to examine a real-life phenomenon, not to make statistical inferences in relation to the wider population (Kekeya, 2021: 30). A sample of participants or cases does not need to be representative, or random, but a clear rationale is needed for the inclusion of some cases or individuals rather than others (Novosel, 2023: 245). This qualitative sampling technique includes convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowballing, among others. The purposive sampling technique is defined as a sampling technique, where the selection of experienced individuals based on the researcher's judgment about some appropriate characteristics required of the sample. According to Memon, Thurasamy, Ting and Cheah (2024: 12), the purposive sampling is often used in exploratory research for selecting cases for in-depth investigation, or for selecting members which are often difficult to reach.

The convenience sampling, on one hand, is the sampling procedure of obtaining the people or units that are most conveniently available. Cases are obtained in any manner which is convenient. The snowballing or chain sample, on the other hand, is a multistage sampling technique which begins with a few people and grow through referral. Initial respondents are selected by other methods like purposive sampling or random sampling. Additional respondents are obtained from information provided by the initial respondent (Memon, *et al*., 2024: 14).

As already mentioned from the onset of this study, the focus is on a resettled community in Ghana. To solicit for the necessary information in addressing the research aims and objectives, there is the need to carefully select respondents who were present, involved, and directly affected by the resettlement activities. As a result,

the study adopted two sampling techniques. These are the purposive and snowballing technique. The purposive sampling, which is also called judgmental sampling, is the deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses. It is a non-random technique that does not need underlying theories or a set number of informants (Tongco, 2007: 148-150). This technique was used in selecting company officials and community leaders who are very familiar and very knowledgeable about the topic under investigation and as also willing to participate in the study.

Similarly, the fourth objective of the study can be better addressed by persons who were present and affected by the resettlement activity. Giving the growing nature of the community and coupled with the fact the resettlement was completed in 2015, there is the likelihood that new residents may have moved in to settle within the community, whereas others might have either relocated or in the unlikely evident some may have passed on. As such, the snowballing sampling technique was used to identify the members of the seventy (70) household who were present and affected by the resettlement programme. With this, a respondent each from these 70 households who was present at the time of the resettlement and was willing to participate in the study was given a questionnaire to fill.

Regarding the selection of the respondents, there were inclusion and exclusion criteria adopted to ensure that the right information is obtained. The inclusion criteria for selecting the respondent from mining company is that only permanent staff who have been working at the Mine for over a year and who worked directly at the sustainability/community affairs department or deal directly with the resettlement programmes of the organisation. The exclusion criterion involved National Service Persons, people undertaking internships and employees whose duties fall outside the jurisdiction of the sustainability/community affairs department or who do not deal directly with the resettlement programmes. With regards to the respondents from the community, the inclusion criteria were residents who were above 18 years and were resident and affected by the resettlement activity. The exclusion criteria include community members below 18 years whose families were affected and members who were not affected by the resettlement activity. The justification for this exclusion criteria is that, giving the timeframe of the resettlement persons below the ages of 18 years at the time of the research would have been below eleven years at the time of the

resettlement, and may not have understood exactly what the whole process was about.

The participants (in groups) in this study, the site population, sample size and sampling technique, are summarised in Table 5.2.

5.6.2.2 *Probability sampling*

Probability sampling means that every item in the population has an equal chance of being included in sample. One way to undertake random sampling would be if researcher was to construct a sampling frame first, and use a random number, in the generation computer program to pick a sample from the sampling frame (Memon, *et al*., 2024: 15-16). Probability sampling is used to ensure the generalisability of the findings, to the entire target population by minimising the potential for bias in selection. It is a raffle method in which individuals are selected from the entire target population. Individuals are selected through blind chance alone, and not purposefully. When the sample is selected randomly, it will have the same composition and characteristics as the research population. Another significant aspect raised by Prinsloo and Hanyane (2016: 189), is that the margin of error (or confidence intervals, the deviation between the opinions of your participants, and the opinion of the entire population) can be estimated with certainty when resorting to probability sampling. The probability sampling technique includes simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling (Novosel, 2023: 246).

For the purposes of this study, the probability sampling technique was not used.

Table 5.2: Selected target population in the community, sample size and sampling techniques

Case study in Western Region			
Data collection instrument	**Population**	**Sample size**	**Sampling technique**
Personal interviews	Company officials	1	Purposive sampling
	Other stakeholders	1	

Case study in Western Region			
Data collection instrument	**Population**	**Sample size**	**Sampling technique**
Semi-structured questionnaire	Community members (70 household)	70 (a member each from the 70 household)	Snowballing technique

After determining the sampling technique and the sample size for the study, it is imperative to also discuss the data collection instrument used in gathering the primary data. For this reason, the following section will discuss the data collection instrument employed in the study.

5.7 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS

Data collection instruments refer to the research tools that a researcher uses to collect data, to answer the research questions**.** As mentioned throughout this chapter, this study used four data collection instruments, namely: literature review, document analysis, semi-structured questionnaires (Appendix F) and structured personal interviews (Appendix G). It has been established in section 5.2.1 that this study employed the mixed method approach. Thus, in collating the primary data required, interviews and survey questionnaires were used.

Two sets of interview guides were developed. The first set of interview questions were for the company officials. The second batch of interview questions were developed after the interview with the company officials, and responses from the community members. This was for the community leaders.

Additionally, it is important to note that the data collection process was done in two phases as required by the Unisa Ethics Committee. The first phase was the interview with company officials, and the second phase involved the administration of questionnaires to the community members, as well as the subsequent interview with the community members. Prior to the commencement of the data collection, approval was sought from the company, through their Head office in Accra (see Appendix C: Gatekeeper Permission Letter). As an ethical requirement for research involving

human participants, all participants were handed a participant information leaflet, as well as an informed consent form to complete and sign. Refer to section 5.10 *Ethical considerations* below for more detail about ethics clearance and ethical compliance.

The structure and content of the questionnaire and the personal interviews are subsequently discussed in detail.

5.7.1 Personal interviews

Personal interviews or face-to-face interviews in a personalised form of data collection in which the interviewer (researcher) personally asks the specific questions and records their verbal responses (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003: 43). In this study, structured personal interviews were utilised as one of the primary data collection methods. The interviews were conducted to understand the legal framework adopted by the mining company in undertaking their resettlement programmes. To obtain an in-depth understanding on how resettlement is undertaken, the process and dynamism as well as the challenges faced by the company in undertaking their resettlement activities.

During the interviews, the only risk was that of a potential discomfort to the participants because the process is traditionally perceived as an interrogation. To mitigate any inconvenience, it was underscored that the study was specifically for academic purposes, and they could withdraw at any stage of the interview. Conducting the follow-up interviews was low risk with the prospect of direct benefits for the participants in terms of proposals of how mining resettlement programmes are implemented and its corresponding implication on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons as well as the attainment of SDG 8 and12.

It is also important to note that, it was very difficult conducting the interviews especially in terms of gaining access to the company and its officials. The interviews lasted approximately twenty (20) to fifty (50) minutes each. The first interview was on phone and at a convenient time for the respondent. The purpose of the initial interview was to gain a general overview on how resettlement is undertaken, and the laws which govern the resettlement activities of the company. Based on the response gathered, the interview questions were modified. Thus, it can be presumed that the initial interview was a way of pre-testing the interview guide. A follow up interview was done.

The second interview was quite detailed, and it lasted about 50 minutes and 27 seconds. Each interview commenced with demographic questions of the participants age and occupational category. This information was deemed significant to create a holistic illustration of the research phenomenon. However, for the purposes of anonymity and confidentiality, the positions of the respondents were withheld in the write-up of this study. The interviews then proceeded to gather data on the adherence to the legislation and policies on compensation and resettlement and the challenges faced by the company in resettling and compensating the affected persons, by posing the following main interview questions:

What policies or legislations guide the formulation of your resettlement planning framework?

This question was posed to understand the policies adopted by the company in the resettlement process. This was based on the literature review on legislated framework and sustainable development (see Chapter 4). The question was constructed open-ended to prompt impassive response on the knowledge and awareness of the officials on the mining laws of Ghana, as well as their application of these laws in their resettlement activities. This question was posed to help in answering and addressing research question 2 and objective 2 of the study. Though there are laws governing resettlement and compensation in Ghana, the company might have its own internal policies that governs their mining activities. Thus, the company might have its own adapted policies from the existing legislated framework. This question was therefore posed to find out whether the company subscribed to any other policy, aside the ones identified in Ghana.

To what extent do you think your process complies with or deviates from the existing policy framework?

This question was a follow up on the above question and in line with the objective 2 of the study. The aim of this question was for the officials to throw more light on their resettlement process and compare it with the existing legislative framework. It was intended to be a good ground for determining their compliance or deviation from the government of Ghana's policy on compensation and resettlement.

How long does it take to resettle a community? How is it done and which stakeholders are involved?

Resettlement as an activity involving humans, can be complex and time consuming. The purpose of the first part of this question was to get a fair idea on how long it takes the company to complete a resettlement programme. Again, the legislative instrument on compensation and resettlement (LI 2175) as presented in Chapter 4 above, identifies the process and certain stakeholders, who are to be involved in the resettlement activities. In an attempt to address objective 2 of this study, this question was posed to get a fair idea on the stakeholders that were engaged prior to the resettlement of the community.

Are there alternative livelihoods programmes in place? Who determines the type and nature of such Alternative Livelihood Programmes?

From the review in Chapter 4 above, one of the issues that stands out from all the four policies is the implementation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes for affected persons. The purpose of this question was to find out from the company officials whether Alternative Livelihood Programmes were put in place for the affected persons. In the event of an ALP, how was it determined and who were involved in the determination of such programmes, as well as the kind of programme(s) that was/were implemented.

What were some of key challenges faced in resettling the people?

This question was intentionally posed to get first-hand information from the mining company whether they had any challenges in resettling the community. If they had, what were these challenges? As indicated above, mining resettlement is a human centred activity and as such, there might be some challenges in the quest of the mining company to resettle or relocate people from their original places of abode. This is likely to pose some resistance hence, the rational for asking this question.

Briefly explain how the challenges are/were addressed/mitigated by the company?

This question was posed as a follow up to the earlier question on the challenges faced by the company in their resettlement of the community. The purpose of this question

was to find out how the company addressed any challenge(s) that arose from the resettlement of the community under investigation.

Mention ways by which the community was informed/involved in the resettlement process?

This question stemmed from the review of the legislated framework in Chapter 4, which outlined how the affected communities, needed to be informed in the event of their lands being claimed for mining activities. This question was posed to find out how the community was informed. This was in line with the attainment of the second objective of this study. This question was posed to give the respondent the opportunity to elaborate on how they informed the community**.**

What measures were put in place before the resettlement? What provisions were made in terms of infrastructure?

The law of Ghana requires the provision of infrastructure, such as replacing housing facilities for affected persons that are resettled. This question was based on that aspect of the legislated framework. The idea was to find out from the officials of the company, the infrastructural provision that was made available to the community prior to the resettlement.

Were the affected individuals compensated? How was the compensation done?

Aside infrastructure provision, the law also requires compensation in certain circumstances, be it land or cash, depending on the situation. This question was posed to find out if the affected persons were given any compensation prior to the resettlement.

How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?

The purpose of this question was to assess the contribution of the resettlement and compensation programmes on the attainment of SDG 8 and 12 which emphasises decent employment opportunities and responsible consumption and production. This question was directed at the officials at the mining company, to seek their opinion on how their activities will augment the effort of government agencies and institutions towards the attainment of the Sustainable Development goals.

Recommendations: In your opinion what should be done by; a. Government/ Policy makers, b. NGOs and Civil Society organisations, c. Mining firms, d. Community members to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development.

The final question was an open question to find out from the respondents their opinion and recommendations on what can be done by government/policy makers, non-governmental organisations and civil society groups, the mining firm, and the community members to help mitigate the effect of MIDR towards the attainment of Sustainable Development.

5.7.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaires as quantitative data collection instruments, generally comprise of closed-ended questions or statements for a response or completed in writing in a standardised manner. Questionnaires are considered less liable to researcher bias and subjectivity, than personal interviews due to the absence of the researcher when the respondents answer the questions (Prinsloo & Hanyane, 2016: 190). The questionnaires were semi-structured. They were initially intended to be completed solely by the respondent without the involvement of the researcher. However, some of the affected persons lacked formal education and were unable to express themselves in the English language. Consequently, the questionnaire was translated into their local language, which is Twi, and approved by a certified translator (see Appendix B). The respondents who were unable to fill out the questionnaires by themselves were assisted by the researcher and the research assistants. Others were assisted by their relatives who had proficiency in the English language. It is also worth mentioning that some respondents felt a bit uncomfortable answering the questions. However, after being assured of their anonymity and confidentiality, they felt at ease in responding to the questions. Also, they were further assured that none of the respondents could be connected to the responses provided. Additionally, the gathered information was strictly for research purposes. It took each respondent between twenty (20) to thirty (30) minutes to get a questionnaire filled. The researcher and the assistants sat with each respondent, explaining, and translating the questions, as well as repeating their answers to them, to ensure that the respondents were not misquoted or had missed any relevant details. The questionnaires were administered by the

researcher with the assistance of two (2) fieldworkers. In developing the questionnaire, the variables within the conceptual framework employed for this study were used (see section 4.5 *Conceptual framework*).

5.7.2.1 *Pre-testing of questionnaire*

Prior to the actual collection of the data, the questionnaire was pre-tested among two of the affected persons. The first person was contacted by phone. It was through the telephone conversation that it the need for translation and interpretation of questions into the native language of the people, became evident. Through the pilot survey, it was gathered that the respondent would prefer the presence of researcher in answering the questionnaires. Thus, the use of the online data collection instrument was ruled out. That notwithstanding, the pre-testing stage proved that the questions were well constructed.

5.7.2.2 *Questionnaire design and layout*

Before the commencement of the data collection, the respondents were given detailed instructions on how the questionnaire was to be filled. They were also assured that they could seek help from their relatives in answering the questions, should they feel intimidated by the presence of the researcher or the assistants. They were also not obliged to partake in the study, and they could withdraw their participation at any point in time. As indicated earlier, it took about twenty (20) to thirty (30) minutes to fill a questionnaire. There was a total of forty (40) questions.

The questionnaire was structured in four (4) sections see Appendix J for the questionnaires.

Section A: Background of respondent: This section is comprised of information pertaining to the demography of the respondents. Question on their gender, age range, educational background, and occupation before and after the resettlement. This section had four (4) closed-ended questions which the respondent had to tick and one (1) open-ended question.

Section B: Expectations of the inhabitants before and after the resettlement process: The aim of this section was to find out from the respondents how they were informed about the resettlement activity, whether or not they were compensated, and the expectations they had before and after the resettlement. Respondents were asked

two (2) open-ended questions on the nature of ALPs (if any): what was made available to them after the resettlement, and how the programme(s) were determined, as well as the people involved in the decision-making process.

Section C: Implications of the resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of project affected persons: This section sought to find out how the resettlement had impacted the livelihood of the affected person. In this regard, the variables within the SL framework were used, and the questions were centred on the five (5) livelihood assets. The questions were to determine the livelihood assets available to the people prior to the resettlement, and what they had after the resettlement. With these twenty-eight (28) closed-ended questions were asked, the respondents were asked to tick which of the assets they had access to and still have access to after the resettlement.

Section D: Recommendation: In this final section, the respondents were asked to provide solutions that would help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development. This was an open-ended question, and they were asked to recommend ways they felt the under listed persons and institutions could help in resolving the challenges that arise from MIDR activities. This was one question, but it required five answers.

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS CYCLE AND PROCESSES

After the data collection process, the next step involved cleaning and analysing the raw data. As Harris and Brown (2010: 12) assert, data analysis is the process of transforming raw data into meaningful and actionable information that can support decision-making, predict outcomes, and draw conclusions. Similarly, Alers (2018: 144) describes data analysis as the conversion of raw data into usable information.

As established in this chapter, this study employed a mixed-methods research design, combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches to achieve a comprehensive analysis. Accordingly, two distinct techniques were used for data analysis: quantitative data analysis for data obtained through questionnaires and qualitative data analysis for data gathered through personal interviews.

5.8.1 Quantitative data analysis cycle

For the quantitative data collected using the semi-structured questionnaire, Microsoft Office 365 Excel was utilised to present frequencies, graphs, and tables. The data underwent cleaning, analysis, and interpretation following the data collection process. Variables were assigned value labels to facilitate the calculation of descriptive statistics.

The demographic variables of the study population are graphically presented in Chapter 6 using tables and pie charts. Frequency tables generated in Excel provided insights into the number of respondents and percentages for each category. To analyse the implications of resettlement on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons, bar charts were employed to depict the variables associated with the five livelihood resources, both before and after resettlement.

Furthermore, a paired t-test was conducted to compare the scores before and after resettlement. The purpose of the paired t-test was to determine whether significant changes had occurred in each of the five livelihood resources because of resettlement. To achieve this, the variables associated with each livelihood resource were consolidated for efficient assessment. The paired t-test, a statistical method designed to compare differences between two related groups, was particularly appropriate for this study. It enabled the analysis of changes in the five livelihood resources among the same group of individuals before and after resettlement, thereby providing insights into the resettlement's impact on the affected persons (Grabchak, 2023: 128).

5.8.2 Validating qualitative data

For the qualitative data collected through interviews, the analysis process began with recording and transcription. A confidentiality agreement was signed with the transcriber to ensure ethical handling of the data (see Appendix J). The transcribed data was then sorted into themes aligned with the study's objectives.

The researcher carefully observed similarities and variations in the responses, drawing inferences from the key respondents' answers. Emerging trends in the responses provided by company officials were cross-examined with data from community

members, ensuring a balanced perspective. During the analysis, the researcher integrated respondents' narratives to enrich the findings and provide contextual depth.

The qualitative data analysis was carried out systematically to ensure accuracy and reliability. All recorded data, including field notes, were transcribed and saved as separate Microsoft Word documents. The researcher then reviewed all transcribed interviews to ensure familiarity with the data. Thereafter, main themes were identified based on the data, and responses were categorised under the identified themes for further analysis.

The identified themes and their interpretations are detailed in Chapter 6 of this study, ensuring that the findings align with the study's objectives and contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the resettlement's implications.

5.9 QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENTS: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

In the view of Sürücü and Maslakci, (2020: 2696), reliability is not only a feature of the measuring instrument but is also a feature of the results of the measuring instrument. Thus, reliability and validity are essential features of a quantitative measuring instrument. Quantitative research validity, therefore, reveals that a researcher can draw significant and useful inferences from scores on specific instruments. Moreover, validity is divided into internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to the validity of the research findings from the sample to the research population, as well as in terms of a causal relationship between variables (the questions contained in the questionnaire), while external validity refers to the quality of being able to generalise the research findings to other similar cases and contexts. Furthermore, validity testing can be carried out via content validity.

5.9.1 Internal and external validity of the research design

It is implied that one of the characteristics of scientific research, namely validity, implies that the research should be able to measure that which it is supposed to measure (Schimmack, 2021). For the purposes of this study, all reasonable measures were taken to ensure internal validity of the research. Leading questions were avoided, and the wording of questions were simple and unambiguous. The questionnaire was

simply and accurately designed. Control questions were also added to determine whether respondents were contradicting themselves.

Furthermore, content validity refers to the degree to which the questions in the questionnaire provide sufficient coverage of the research questions and the objectives of the study (Pontes, Schivinski, Sindermann, Li, Becker, Zhou & Montag, 2021: 516). For this study, content validity was established in that, the questions posted to the respondents were based on the research questions, the objectives, as well as the theoretical foundation provided in chapters two, three and four. The conceptual framework provided in Table 5.7 (*Framework for data gathering*) clearly indicates the relationship between the sections of the questionnaire, the objectives of the study and the research questions. For example, section C (**Implications of the resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of project affected persons**) of the questionnaire, relates to objective five of the study, that is, to *establish the implications of the mining resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members*. This relates to the research question '*what are the implications of the mining resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members?'*

5.9.2 Reliability of questionnaire

The second characteristic of scientific research is reliability. Reliability implies that the same matter that is researched continuously by the same or different persons, must proffer the same result. The questionnaire method complies with this criterion to a satisfactory degree, but is not infallible, as it is not possible to control the environment in which the questionnaire is answered. The mood of the respondent may for example influence his or her responses. Such environmental factors also have an influence on other research methods. Regarding researcher error, any factor that changes the researcher's interpretation is considered a threat to the reliability of a study (Mohajan, 2017: 59)

Researcher bias is also seen as a threat, and it can be any factor that generates bias in the researcher's recording of responses. In this study, participant error was limited by requesting the participants to respond to the questions they were comfortable with. Again, as stated earlier, the questions were translated to the respondents who were not conversant with the English Language by either the researcher, research

assistants, or their trusted relatives (see Appendix I for the confirmation of translation of the questionnaire). The researcher supervised the entire process. To avoid both participant and researcher's errors and biases, the questions were read and translated, the responses were also read to the respondents to ensure that they were not misquoted. Furthermore, participant bias was avoided by assuring the participants of anonymity because, linking a participant to his/her responses may result in the participant providing false positive answers as he/she may be concerned about victimisation. Researcher error was avoided through a thorough study of the theoretical foundation and conceptual framework of the study, as well as a review of relevant legislations that govern mining resettlement and compensation, to avoid any misinterpretation of facts. The researcher's bias was avoided by blocking the researcher's own subjective view or disposition to get in the way of interpreting the participants' responses fairly.

The qualitative soundness also needed to be addressed in addition to the quantitative measurements, validity and reliability. This is presented in the following section.

5.10 QUALITATIVE SOUNDNESS: CRITERION TO ESTABLISH RIGOUR

Rigor in research is used to ensure that the knowledge that is produced by the researcher is reliable, valid, and is not influenced by the researcher's personal bias. In quantitative research, researchers employ validity, reliability, and objectivity to establish rigor. In qualitative research, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are used to establish rigor Babbie, Wagner and Zaino (2023: 279). Katz-Buonincontro (2022: 80-82) purports that, reliability is the extent to which the results of the study could be replicated, and that validity establishes that the instrument used, is designed to collect the intended data and that the data collected is accurate.

Babbie, *et al. (*2023: 273) believe that the objective of qualitative studies is to discover credible and truthful knowledge. To ensure this credible and truthful knowledge, researchers apply several strategies to establish rigor in qualitative studies. Credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and their strategies are discussed below.

5.10.1 Credibility

Credibility establishes whether the knowledge that has been created from the data collected can be trusted, that the data collected represents the original views of the participants. Credibility concentrates on the data collection instruments, used to collect data and the correct interpretation of the views and life experiences of the participants (Shenton, 2004: 64).

According to Schlunegger, Zumstein-Shaha and Palm (2024: 19) triangulation can be seen as using multiple methods, sources of data or theories to collect and deduce data about a phenomenon. The purpose of triangulating the data collection methods was to increase comprehensiveness, confirm trends, identify inconsistencies, and improve credibility, dependability, and confirmability. Two types of triangulations were employed in this study, namely: (1) data triangulation in which different data sources were utilised, namely officials from the mining company directly involved in the resettlement process, and the affected persons; and (2) methodological triangulation in which multiple methods, qualitative and quantitative research design, was utilised to study the research problem. Triangulation in this study broadened the range of data gathered. The outcome of the questionnaire was triangulated with the interviews to reach valid conclusions on the implementation of mining resettlement policies, by the mining company and the implication of the resettlement on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons, thereby providing a multi-voiced account.

5.10.2 Transferability

Babbie, *et al.* (2023: 277) define transferability as the extent of how findings can be applied in other context or with other respondents. Thick description is when the researcher gives extensive descriptions of their research process, from data collection, context of the study, and the production of the final report (Anney, 2014: 278). The thick description assists the reader to fully know the processes that were followed during the data collection, analysis, and reporting of data. Thick description enables the readers to replicate the study using the same data collection and analysis instruments in a different context.

With reference to this study, transferability referred to the extent to which the adherence of the legislation on mining sector resettlement and compensation policies

and its implication on the livelihood of the affected persons can be transferred to other resettled communities, as well as influence how subsequent resettlement activities will be carried out. In fact, the representativeness of the sample relative to the larger population was reached by applying both purposive and snowballing sampling techniques. Nonetheless, despite the careful section of participants for the study and the case under investigation, additional research will be necessary to determine the transferability of the findings of this study to other multi-national mining companies and mining affected communities in Ghana. However, the challenges experienced by both the affected persons, the company as well as the recommendations presented in the seventh chapter of this study, are unique to the case under investigation and thus, cannot be generalised across the entire country.

5.10.3 Dependability

Babbie, *et al.* (2023: 278) explain that projects are dependable when they provide evidence that if the project was repeated with the same or similar context, the findings would be similar. In the view of Shenton (2004: 71), dependability confirms that similar findings would be obtained if the study is repeated, employing the same research design and same participants.

Detailed descriptions of the research process, enable other researchers to follow the same steps in the research process. The researcher can enhance dependability by using the following strategies: thick description, triangulation, peer examination, and stepwise replication (Anney, 2014: 279). This study used triangulation as a method, as well as data triangulation, to confirm the study findings and conclusions, to enhance the accuracy and integrity of the data. Thus, the dependability of the findings and results of the study, were enhanced through a detailed presentation of data collection procedure, instrument, and method of analysis. Substantive deliberation of the research approach, population and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, and data analysis methods, were included in the description of the research design and methodology.

5.10.4 Confirmability

According to Shenton (2004: 64-66), confirmability establishes objectivity and ensures that the findings of the study are not affected by the researcher’s bias. To ensure

confirmability of a study, the researcher is required to have field notes or a journal that contains personal reflections on the study, and all the events that occurred during the study (Anney, 2014: 279). This reflexive journal is used to record the researcher's personal observations during the study, and these observations could be used to cross-check the researcher's objectivity when interpreting the findings of the study.

For the purposes of this study, the confirmability was ensured by documenting the phases of the research process from conceptualisation to operationalisation, analysis, and conclusions. This is presented in Table 5.1 *Representation of the research path* above for the phases of the study. The strategies and measures used for this study ensured the credibility, dependability, and confirmability of its findings. It is imperative to emphasise that the findings, however, they cannot be transferred to other affected communities and mining companies across the country. Nonetheless, the results confirmed the authenticity of the study.

Authenticity is also enhanced by complying with the ethical requirements which govern research. The following section highlights the ethical consideration for the study.

5.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Prior to the commencement of this study, institutional permission was sought from the company in Tarkwa through their head office in Accra (See Appendix C: Gatekeeper Permission Letter). This was to ensure that the researcher had the necessary approval needed to undertake the study. With regards to compliance with the ethical standards, the following ethical requirement based on Unisa's ethics review committee was adhered to. Refer to Appendixes A and B for the Ethics Clearance Certificates for phases A and B of data collection.

The permission letter from the company was made available to the participants. The researcher scheduled a meeting with the relevant officials to discuss the objectives of the research. Each participant received a participant's information letter (Appendix D *Participant Information Sheet*). All information provided by the participants was considered confidential, and the data received served no other purpose than purely for academic research. Furthermore, the participants were not compensated to participate in the study. Consented participants were requested to sign the consent

form (Appendix E *Informed Consent Form*), to participate in the research process prior to the survey.

With regards to the questionnaires, upon reaching the community, the researcher and the assistants made contact with two community leaders who assisted in identifying households that were resettled. After identifying the affected households, the researcher then sought permission from the identified members of the family. Individual members in each household were requested to complete the questionnaire. It is worth mentioning that the researcher refrained from using any foul tactics to influence the participants to participate in the study.

All participants were assured of the anonymity of their identities, and responses were confidential. There was no direct or indirect association of their responses to them. To ensure that the respondents were comfortable and avert any negative emotions that any question might pose, the respondents were assured that they could withdraw from the study at any point in the study or could skip any question they felt uncomfortable responding to.

In addition to the above ethical considerations, all Unisa COVID-19 prevention and control guidelines and relevant legislation in Ghana were adhered to, in order to ensure the researcher remained safe during data collection. Refer to Appendix H for the COVID-19 Protocol Document.

The researcher and the assistants followed the Unisa guidelines for planning, preparing for, and conducting interviews at the mine. The following measures were implemented to minimise potential risks. The researcher maintained physical distancing greater than 1.5m. In addition, the respondents were screened by conducting temperature checks. The researcher also wore personal protective equipment, like masks, shields, and used disposable gloves to mitigate transmission risks. The researcher washed and disinfected her hands as often as needed.

No unhealthy situations were experienced. However, any unhealthy situations would have immediately been reported to the supervisor and the faculty Research Ethics Review Committee.

5.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

As outlined in the introduction to this chapter, the methods of data collection and the instruments used stem directly from the research design and approach adopted for the study. To ensure that the data collection process and the instruments employed align with the scientific method, this chapter addresses key aspects, including the study population, sampling techniques, sample size, data collection instruments, and ethical considerations.

The chapter begins by exploring the philosophical and paradigmatic foundations of scientific research. It provides an overview of the four primary research philosophies: positivist research philosophy, interpretivist research philosophy, pragmatist research philosophy, and realist research philosophy. Particular emphasis is placed on the pragmatic research philosophy, which serves as the guiding philosophical framework for the study. This discussion connects the research paradigms to the specific investigation by highlighting the researcher's ontological (nature of reality) and epistemological (nature of knowledge) perspectives. These philosophical underpinnings inform the research questions and aim to deepen understanding of the issue under investigation.

Throughout the chapter, it is established that the study adopts a mixed-methods research design, blending quantitative and qualitative approaches. The rationale for selecting this design is thoroughly discussed, emphasising how it enhances the study's credibility and depth. A robust research methodology forms the foundation of scientific inquiry, ensuring that findings are credible and that recommendations are well-grounded. Accordingly, the chapter elaborates on the methodology used, detailing its role in achieving the study's objectives.

The literature review and document analysis are highlighted as integral components of the methodology, providing context and supporting the research objectives. The case study approach is also described, including a discussion of the instruments used for data collection, such as questionnaires and interview guides.

The chapter offers an extensive discussion of the study population and the sampling techniques employed. It provides a detailed explanation of the processes used to

identify and select participants, ensuring that the sample size is both representative and aligned with the research objectives.

A thorough description of the data collection instruments is also presented. These instruments were carefully chosen to gather relevant and reliable data. The process of designing and implementing these instruments is explained in detail, ensuring their alignment with the mixed-methods approach.

Following the data collection process, the raw data underwent cleaning and analysis. The chapter outlines how both quantitative and qualitative data were processed. For quantitative data, techniques such as descriptive statistics, frequency tables, and graphical representations were used to summarise and interpret the findings. The qualitative data, on the other hand, was organised into themes to reflect the research objectives, providing a narrative-rich analysis of the study's key findings.

The soundness of the data was critically assessed to ensure its reliability and validity. Quantitative soundness was addressed through statistical techniques, while qualitative soundness was ensured through rigorous thematic analysis and cross-validation of responses.

A dedicated section of the chapter is devoted to the ethical considerations adhered to throughout the research process. These include obtaining informed consent from participants, ensuring confidentiality, and maintaining transparency in data collection and analysis. The chapter emphasises the researcher’s commitment to ethical research practices, which contribute to the study's credibility and integrity.

In conclusion, this chapter lays a comprehensive foundation for the research by detailing the philosophical underpinnings, methodological framework, and practical steps involved in data collection and analysis. The systematic approach outlined here ensures that the study's findings are both scientifically valid and ethically sound, providing a robust basis for the conclusions and recommendations presented in subsequent chapters.

The presentation and analysis of the data collected through interviews and semi-structured questionnaires is presented in the next chapter, Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6:
RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analysis and findings of the study on mining-induced displacement and resettlement (MIDR) in Ghana. It begins with an examination of the demographic profile of respondents, analysing gender, age range, educational background, and the relationship between these variables, as well as changes in occupation before and after resettlement. The quantifiable data from the questionnaire is then presented, covering respondents' awareness of the resettlement process, perceptions of compensation and resettlement provisions, and the implications of resettlement on livelihood resources. This is followed by the qualitative data from interviews, which explores adherence to legislation and policies, challenges faced during resettlement, and the alignment of resettlement programs with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The analysis of findings addresses key research questions, including the impact of government policies on mining resettlement, community expectations before and after relocation, the implications for livelihood dynamics, and the potential contributions of mining resettlement to SDGs 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) and 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production). Finally, the discussion of findings provides a deeper interpretation of these themes, evaluating the extent of government policy influence, shifts in community expectations, and the broader socio-economic effects of resettlement, concluding with an assessment of how such programs can support sustainable development objectives.

This study seeks to answer the under listed questions.

1. **Research question 1**: What does the literature say about public policymaking, public resettlement policies that affect multinational mining companies, sustainability, sustainable livelihood, and the SDGs?
2. **Research question 2**: To what extent do government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana?

3. **Research question 3**: What is the most appropriate research design and approach to study the implementation of resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies operating in Ghana?
4. **Research question 4**: What were the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme?
5. **Research question 5**: What are the implications of the Mine resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members?
6. **Research question 6**: How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?
7. **Research question 7**: Which recommendations can be made to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement, towards sustainable development?

The first research question has been addressed in Chapters 2, 3, and 4, whereas the third research question has been addressed in Chapter 5 of this study. Research questions 2, 4, 5 and 6, are presented thematically in this chapter. The seventh research question is answered in Chapter 7.

6.2. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

As indicated in the previous chapter, this study had a total of seventy-two (72) respondents. The first two respondents were interviewed during the first phase of the data collection. The first phase of the data collection involved the collection of qualitative data. During this stage, two interviews were conducted with two officials. The first respondent was from the mining company, and the second was from a non-governmental organisation concerned with mining related issues. Both respondents were males between the ages of 35-55 years and had tertiary education. They also had rich experience and knowledge of the study under investigation. The remaining seventy respondents were the affected persons who were selected using the snowballing sampling technique during the second phase of the data collection process. The second phase of the data collection process was quantitative in nature. Hence, a questionnaire was distributed to the respondents.

This section provides a detailed description of the seventy (70) respondents.

6.2.1 Gender

A total of seventy (70) affected persons willingly took part in the research. Out of this number, twenty-nine (29), representing 41% were females, whereas the remaining forty-one (41), representing 59% were males. This is presented in Figure 6.1.

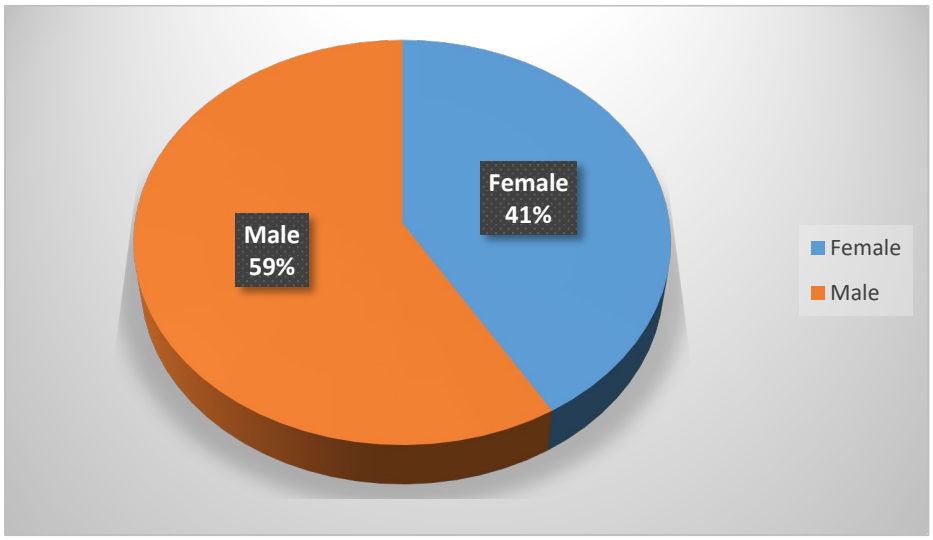


Figure 6.1: Gender

Figure 6.1 presents the gender distribution of the respondents in the study.

6.2.2 Age range

The ages of the respondents were between 18 and 65 years, with a majority of the respondents being within the age brackets of 26-45 years. Four (4) of the respondents representing 6% were between the ages of 18-25 years, twenty-six (26) representing 26.37% of the respondents were between the ages of 26-35 years, another twenty-six (26) representing 26.37% were between the ages of 36-45 years, nine (9) representing 13% of the respondents were between the ages of 46-55 years whereas the remaining five (5) representing 7% were between 56 and 65 years. This information is presented in Figure 6.2 below.

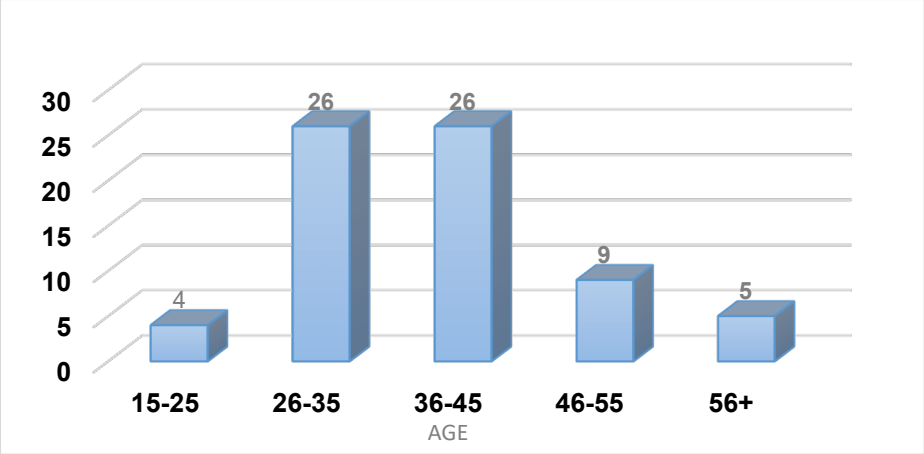


Figure 6.2: Age range

Figure 6.2 presents the age range of the respondents.

6.2.3 Educational background

Regarding the educational background of the affected persons, twelve (12) out of the seventy (70) respondents representing 17%, did not have any form of formal education. Thirty-nine (39) representing 56% had primary education, eighteen (18) representing 26% had secondary education, and one (1) representing 1% had tertiary education. This is presented in Figure 6.3.

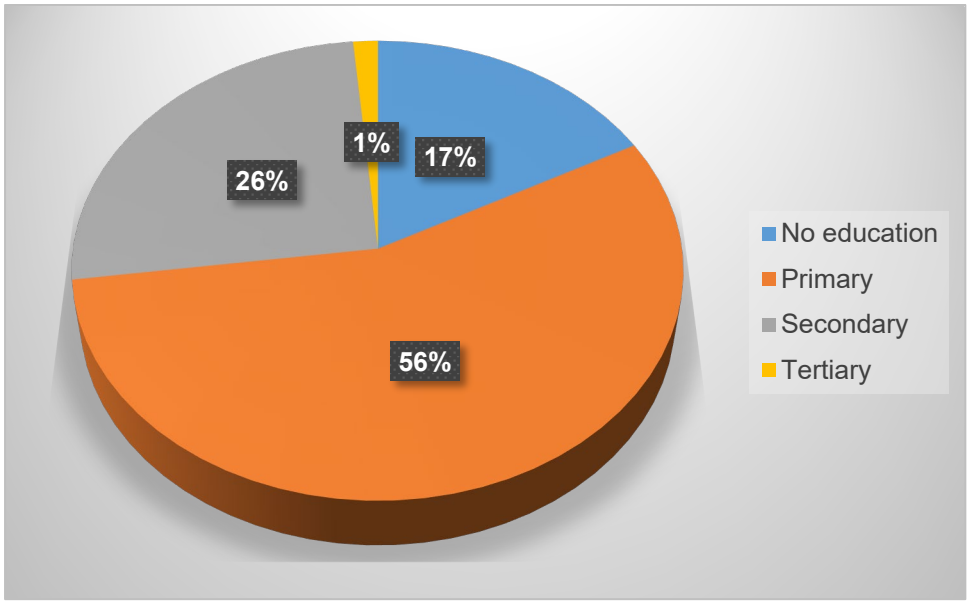


Figure 6.3: Educational background

Figure 6.3 presents the educational background of the respondents.

6.2.4 Gender and educational background

A gender-based analysis of the educational background of the respondents revealed that, seven (7) out of the twelve (12) respondents who had no formal education were males, and the remaining five (5) were females. Fifteen (15) out of the thirty-nine (39) respondents who had primary education were females, whereas the remaining twenty-four (24) were males. With regards to secondary education, seven (7) out of the eighteen (18) respondents were females, and the remaining eleven (11) were males. The only respondent who had tertiary education was a male.

This information is presented in Figure 6.4 below.

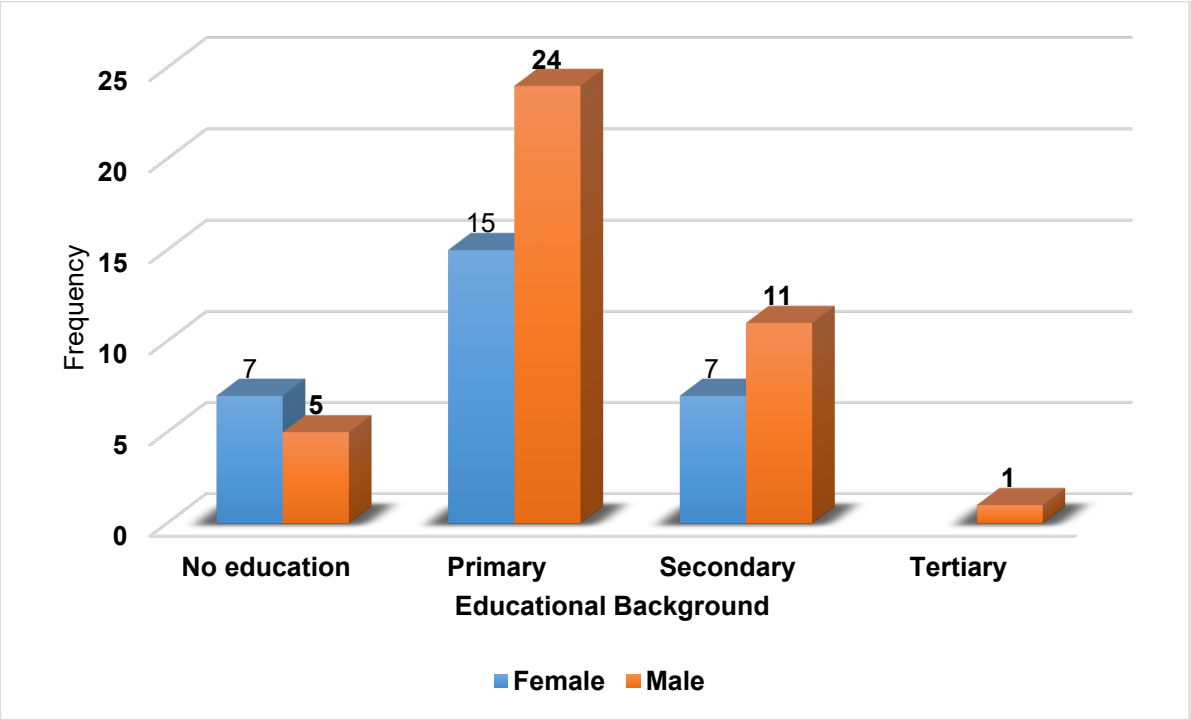


Figure 6.4: Gender and educational background

Figure 6.4 highlights the gender-based analysis of the educational background of the respondents.

6.2.5 Gender and age

A breakdown of the age ranges of the respondents reveals that, two (2) females and two (2) males were between the ages of 18-25 years. Out of the twenty-six (26) respondents who were between the ages of 26-35 years, eleven (11) were females

and fifteen (15) were males. With the respondents who were between the ages of 36-45 years, eight (8) were females and eighteen (18) were males. Five (5) out of the nine (9) respondents who were between the ages of 45 and 55 years were females, whereas four (4) were males. Three (3) out of the five (5) respondents who were between 56 and 65 years were females, and the remaining two (2) were males.

This information is presented in Figure 6.5 below.

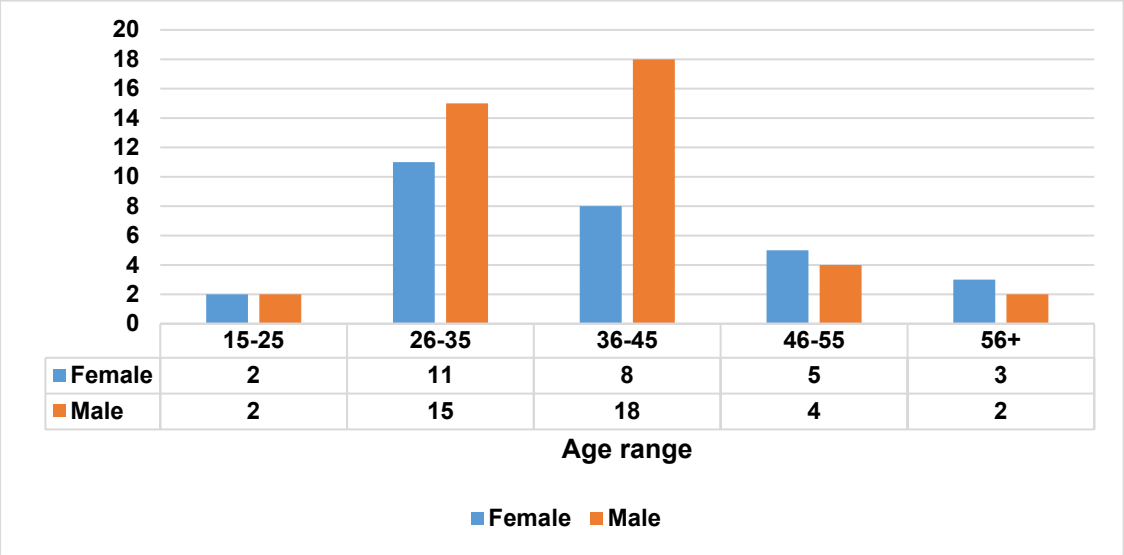


Figure 6.5: Gender and age range

Figure 6.5 highlights the gender-based analysis of the age range of the respondents.

6.2.6 Occupation prior to and after the resettlement

Before the resettlement, one (1) respondent representing 1%, operated a drinking spot. Forty-two (42) representing 60% were farmers, one (1) representing 1% was a technical operator, eight (8) representing 12% were traders, and eighteen (18) representing 26% were unemployed. After the resettlement, sixty-six (66) representing 94% of the respondents had become unemployed, three (3) representing 4% were now traders, and one (1) representing 2% was a drinking spot operator.

From the demographic details of the participants, it can be observed that the resettlement has exacerbated the unemployment situation. The community under investigation was a farming community. Thus, a higher percentage of the affected people undertook farming activities, as well as the sale of the farm produce. The majority of the respondents were between the ages of 26 and 45 years.

Usually, people within these age brackets are very energetic, and are considered as the working population. It is within this age that people make an effort to build a career, have a family, and perhaps plan towards an enjoyable retirement. Losing one's source of livelihood without an alternative option place those affected in a vulnerable situation, within limited economic empowerment. From the findings, this situation proved true, as sixty-five (65) out of the seventy (70) respondents indicated that they became unemployed after the resettlement.

This is presented in Figure 6.6 below.

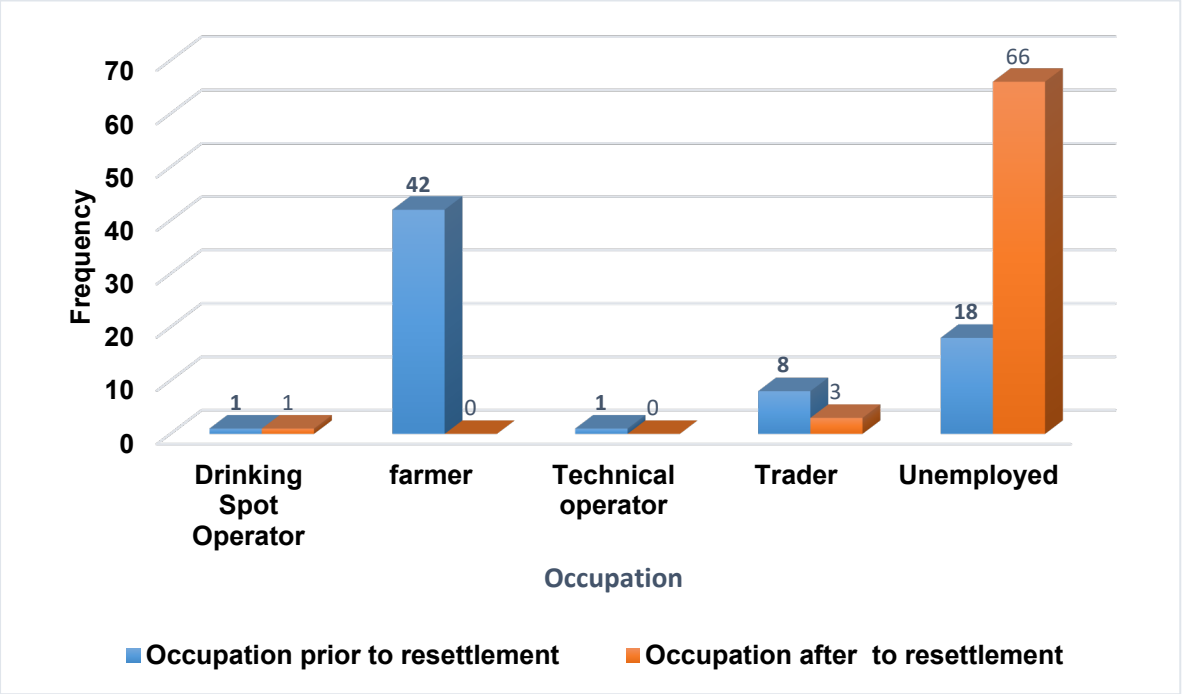


Figure 6.6: Occupation prior to and after the resettlement

Figure 6.6 presents the occupation of the respondents before and after resettlement.

6.3 PRESENTATION OF QUANTIFIABLE DATA FROM QUESTIONNAIRE

The quantitative data is presented in this section. In section 5.7.2.2 above, the design and layout of the questionnaire were presented. It was highlighted in Tables 5.4 and 5.5 above, in relation to the questions that the respondents were expected to address. For this reason, this section presents the findings from the responses of the participants.

6.3.1 Informed about the resettlement process.

The next set of questions were to find out whether the affected persons were informed prior to the resettlement, and how they were informed about the resettlement.

6.3.1.1 *At what point did the company inform you about the resettlement plans?*

The respondents were asked at what point they were informed about the resettlement process. With this question, fifty-three (53) representing 76% indicated that they were informed prior to the resettlement. The remaining seventeen (17) respondents representing 24% were informed during the resettlement process. This information is presented in Figure 6.7 below.

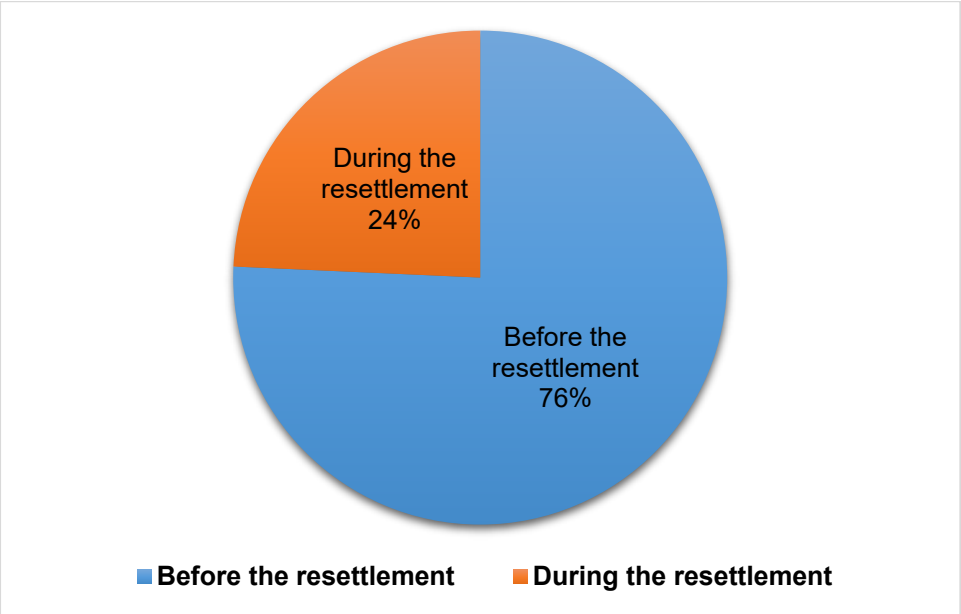


Figure 6.7: At what point did the company inform you about the resettlement plans?

Figure 6.7 explains the stage at which the respondents were informed of the resettlement, specifically whether they were informed before or during the resettlement process.

6.3.1.2 *How were you informed?*

The question 'How were you informed?', was asked to find out from the affected persons how they were informed about the resettlement. With this question, forty-five (45) representing 64% indicated that they were informed through a durbar. A durbar is a traditional gathering convened by chiefs, elders, and opinion leaders of a

community or village. Nineteen (19) representing 27% of the respondents, indicated that they were informed through a house-to-house communication. The remaining six (6) respondents representing 9% stated that, they were informed through the beating of the gong-gong. The gong-gong is used within the rural setting to give announcements. The person who beats the gong-gong is called the town crier. This information is presented in Figure 6.8 below.

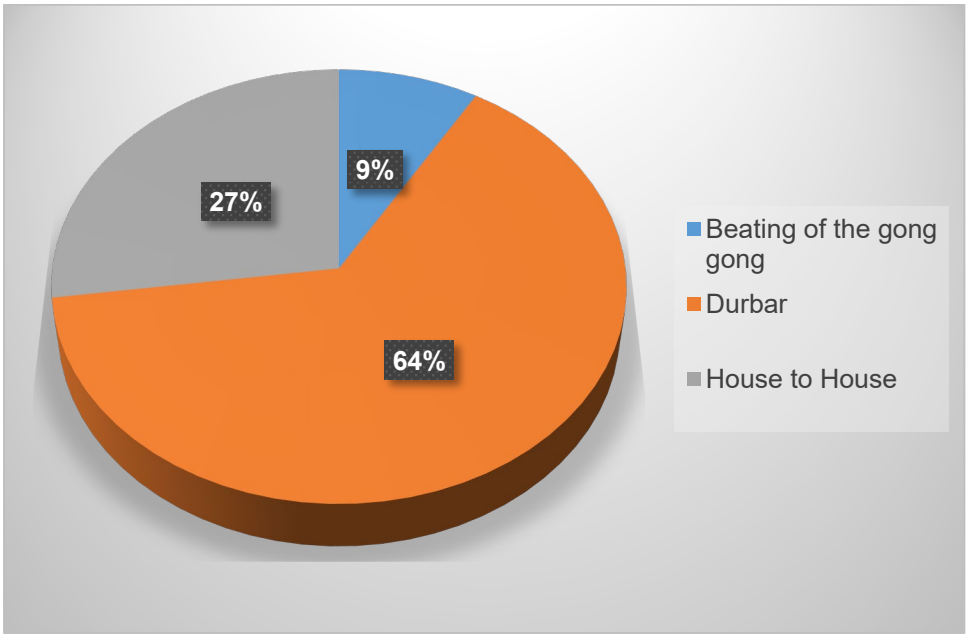


Figure 6.8: How were you informed?

Figure 6.8 presents information on how the respondents were informed about the resettlement.

In section 6.3.1, the rationale was to inquire from the respondents whether they were informed prior to resettlement, and how the information was relayed to them. From the findings, it was evident that the mining company informed the affected persons before the resettlement took place, although seventeen (17) respondents indicated that they were informed during the process. Again, regarding the means of communication, majority of the respondents noted that, a durbar, which is a traditional gathering convened by chiefs, elders, and opinion leaders of a community or village, was organised. It was at this gathering that the information regarding the impending resettlement was communicated to the affected people. Nonetheless, a few respondents cited other means of communication. It is however safe to conclude that, the mining company informed the affected persons about the impending resettlement.

6.3.2 Compensation and resettlement provisions

The next set of questions sought to find out what provisions were made for the affected persons. Specifically, these questions sought to find out whether the people were compensated, how the compensation was done, and whether their expectations were met.

6.3.2.1 *Compensation of the affected persons*

The respondents were asked if they were compensated by the mining company prior to the resettlement. To answer this question, all seventy (70) respondents indicated that they were duly compensated. This information is presented in Figure 6.9 below. A follow-up question was asked with regard to how the cash compensation was paid. All the seventy (70) respondents indicated they were paid in instalments. However, the payment of this cash compensation resulted in some legal battles. For this reason, a section of the respondents initiated a legal action to seek redress.

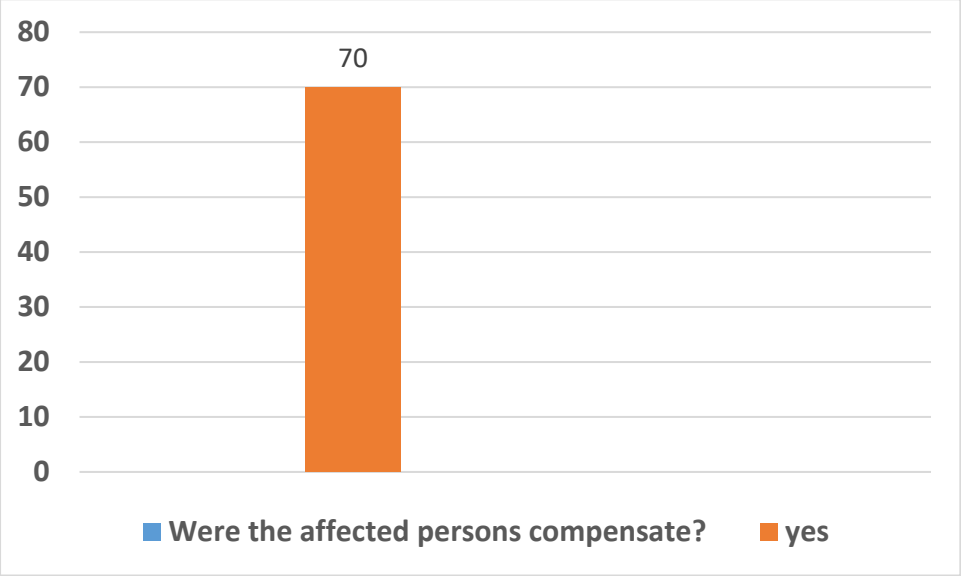


Figure 6.9: Were the affected persons compensated?

Figure 6.9 presents information on whether the affected persons were compensated or not prior to the resettlement.

6.3.2.2 *Expectation versus what was offered in reality*

Figure 6.10 represents the responses from the affected persons, with regard to their expectation from the mining company and what they were offered. Here, one (1) person representing 1%, expected a house and land for farming from the company. Twenty-six (26) of the respondents representing 38% indicated that, they expected money from the company. Forty-two (42) of the people representing 60% indicated that they expected money and houses from the company, whereas (one) 1 person representing 1% expected money, a house, and a farmland. As presented in Figure 6.9 above, all seventy (70) respondents indicated that they were offered money and a house as a form of compensation from the company.

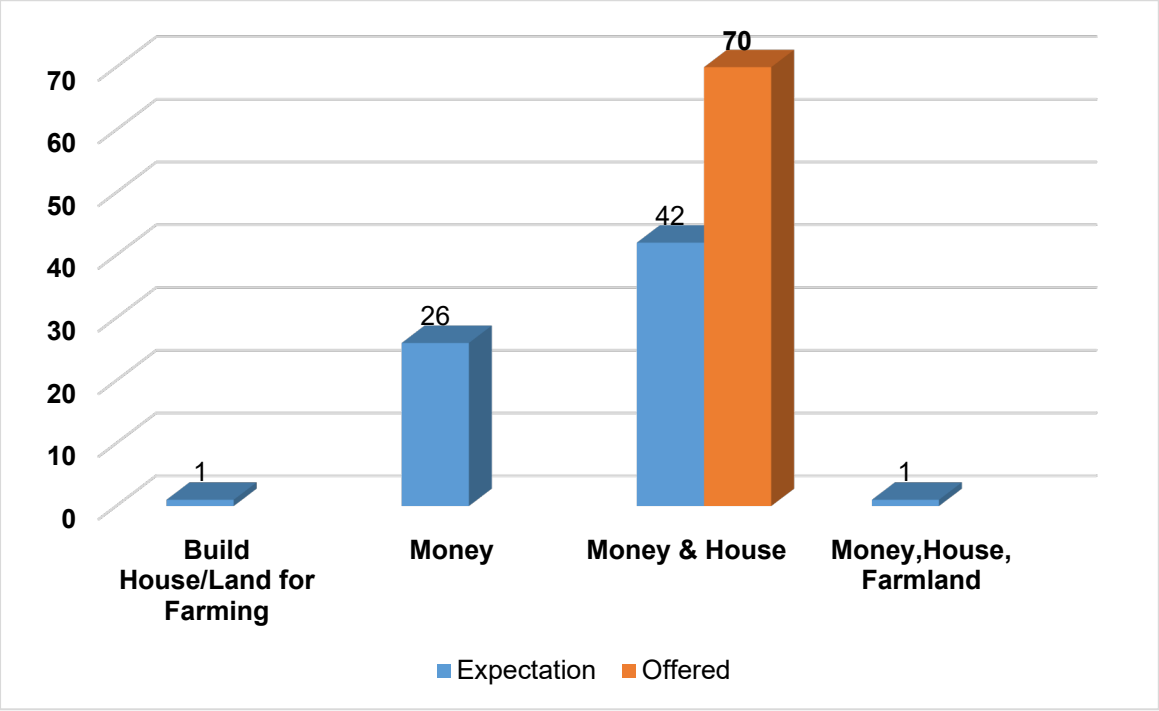


Figure 6.10: Expectation versus what was offered

Figure 6.10 presents data on the expectations of the respondents versus what they had in reality.

6.3.2.3 *Provision of alternative livelihood*

Did the company provide you with any Alternative Livelihood Programme?

This question was asked to ascertain whether the mining company made provision for Alternative Livelihood Programmes (ALPs). Alternative Livelihood Programmes are defined by Roe. *et al. (*2015:22) as interventions, that seek to alleviate a human threat

to biodiversity through providing, or encouraging the use of, an alternative resource; an alternative occupation; or an alternative (lower impact) method of exploitation. For the purposes of this study, the Alternative Livelihood Programme was used in this context, to refer to other skill acquisitions, and an alternative income generating activity for the affected person. With this, all seventy (70) respondents indicated that no form of ALPs were provided. This is presented in Figure 11a below.

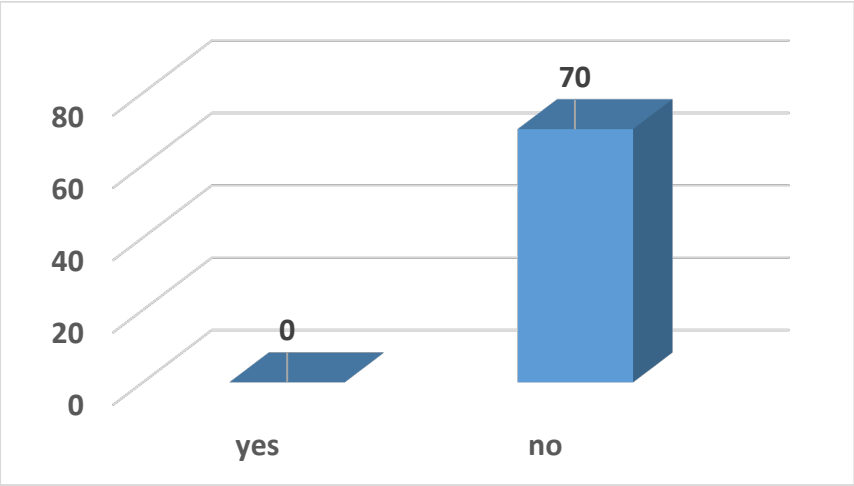


Figure 6.11a: Provision of alternative livelihood

Figure 6.11a presents information on whether alternative livelihood programmes were provided.

Who was involved in the planning of the ALPs?

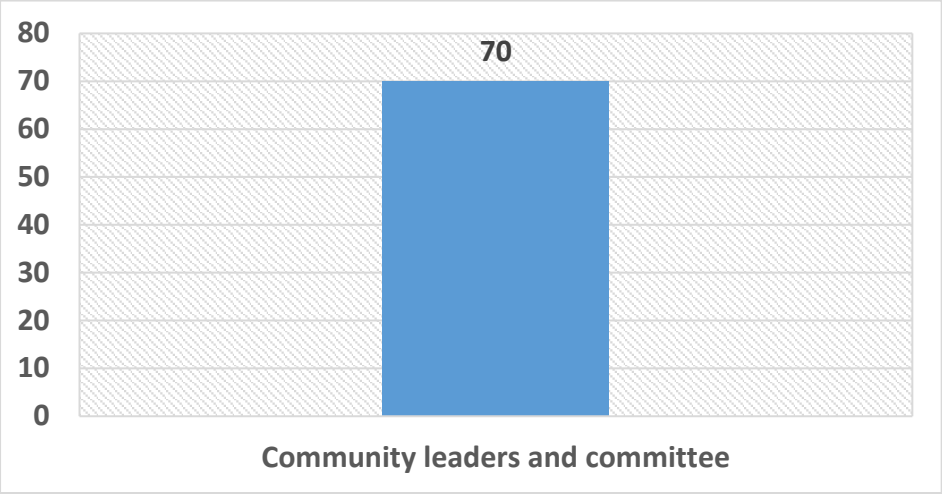


Figure 6.11b: Who was involved in the planning of the ALPs?

Figure 6.11b presents information on the people involved in the planning of the ALP programme, as a follow-up on the information presented in Figure 6.11a.

A follow-up question was asked about the people who were involved in the planning of the ALPs. All the respondents indicated that, the community leaders and committees supervised the planning of ALPs. This is presented in Figure 11b above.

From the findings presented in section 6.3.2, it is evident that the mining company presented the affected persons with money and housing facilities as a form of compensation. It can be observed that the affected persons had representatives, who undertook the negotiations on their behalf. Nonetheless, during the negotiation process, it appeared that the committee and community leaders, failed to request for the Alternative Livelihood Programme. This would have ensured that the affected persons had a guaranteed source of financial assistance, as they parted ways with their farmlands and other economic activities.

6.3.3 Implication of the resettlement on the livelihood resources

The next set of questions sought to find out how the resettlement impacted the five livelihood resources of the affected persons. With these set of questions, the respondents were asked about their access to the livelihood assets, before and after the resettlement.

6.3.3.1 *Economic and financial resources before resettlement*

The respondents were asked questions related to their economic and financial capital. This question was intended to find out whether the respondents had access to employment opportunities prior to the resettlement, and if they could make savings. Here, fifty (50) participants representing 71% indicated that, they were gainfully employed before the resettlement. The remaining twenty (20) participants representing 29%, indicated that they were not gainfully employed.

Another question asked was about their ability to save prior to the resettlement. With this, forty-four respondents (63%) indicated that, there was an improvement in their ability to save prior to the resettlement, whereas the remaining twenty-six respondents representing 37% indicated that, there was not an improvement in their ability to save.

This information is presented in Figure 6.12 below.

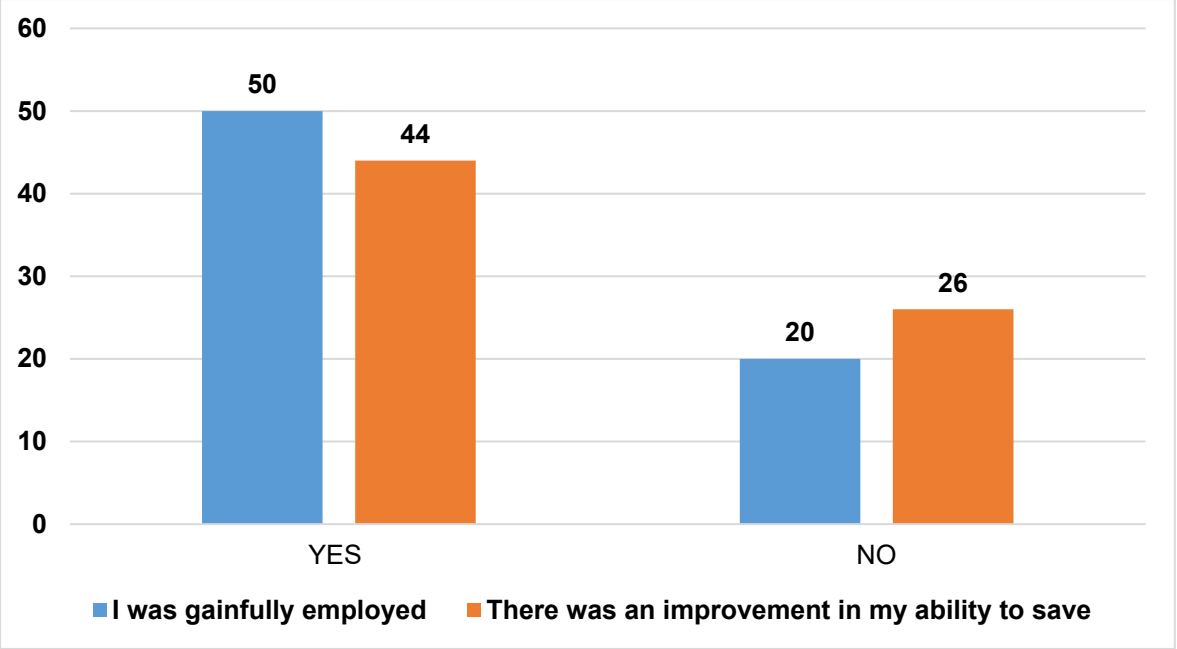


Figure 6.12: Economic and financial resources before resettlement

Figure 6.12 presents the data related to the economic or financial resources before the resettlement.

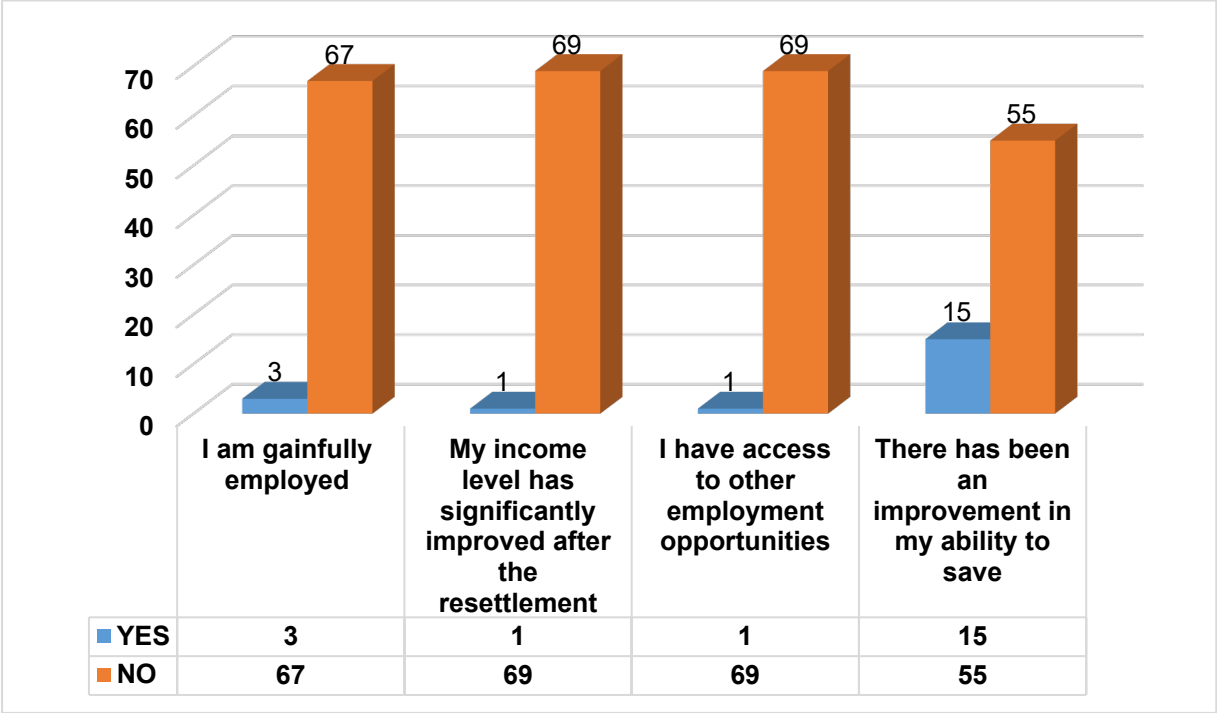
6.3.3.2 *Economic and financial resource after resettlement*

In Figure 6.13 below, the respondents were asked about their access to economic and financial resources after the resettlement. Here, sixty-seven participants (representing 96%) indicated that they were unemployed after the exercise. Three (3) respondents representing 4% indicated that they were employed after the resettlement.

The respondents were asked whether there was an improvement in their income levels after the resettlement. Here, sixty-nine (69) participants representing 99% indicated that, there was no significant improvement in their income levels after the resettlement. Only one (1) respondent representing 1% indicated that, there was a significant improvement in his income level.

The respondents were further asked whether they had access to other employment opportunities. With this sixty-nine (69) representing 99% indicated that they had no access to other employment opportunities. Only one (1) respondent representing 1% indicated had access to other employment opportunities.

Finally, the respondents were asked whether there had been a significant improvement in their ability to save after the resettlement. With this, fifty-five (55) participants representing 79% indicated that, there had not been any significant improvement in their ability to save. The remaining fifteen (15) representing 21% stated that, there has been an improvement in their ability to save.



	I am gainfully employed	My income level has significantly improved after the resettlement	I have access to other employment opportunities	There has been an improvement in my ability to save
YES	3	1	1	15
NO	67	69	69	55

Figure 6.13: Economic and financial resource after resettlement

Figure 6.13 presents the data related to the economic or financial resources after the resettlement.

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 below present the Economic and Financial Capital of the affected persons before and after resettlement. According to Table 6.1, the average Economic and Financial Capital score of the affected persons decreased significantly from 2.0286 before resettlement to 0.3714 after resettlement, showing a mean difference of 1.65714. The p-value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, indicates that the impact of resettlement on Economic and Financial Capital is statistically significant. Moreover, the confidence interval suggests that the true difference in means ranges from 1.32 to 1.99. This implies that the change in Economic and Financial Capital resources among the affected persons after resettlement is not random. Therefore, the paired t-test demonstrates a significant effect of resettlement on the Economic and Financial Capital resources of the host community, resulting in a substantial decrease in scores.

Table 6.1: Economic/financial capital paired samples statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	EBefore	2.0286	70	1.42413	.17022
	EAfter	.3714	70	.76464	.09139

Table 6.2: Economic/financial capital paired differences

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
EBefore - EAfter	1.65714	1.40275	.16766	1.32267	1.99162	9.884	69	.000

6.3.3.3 *Natural capital before resettlement*

The respondents were asked about their access to Natural Capital such as fertile lands, medicinal plants, livestock, among others, prior to the resettlement. With this forty-four (44) representing 63% indicated that they had access to fertile lands, while twenty-six (26) representing 37% indicated that they did not have access to fertile lands. On the question about access to suitable alternative lands, twenty-seven (27) representing 39% indicated that they had access to suitable alternative lands, whereas the remaining forty-three (43) representing 61% stated that they did not have access to suitable alternative lands.

On the question about access to fertilizer, seeds, and pesticides for their farms, forty-one (41) representing 59% indicated that, they had access to these resources prior to the resettlement. The remaining twenty-nine (29) representing 41% indicated that they did not have access to these resources. Regarding access to livestock such as poultry, goats, sheep, and others, thirty-four (34) representing 49% of the respondents indicated that they had access, whereas the remaining thirty-six (36) representing 51%

of the respondents stated that, they did not have access to these livestock prior to the resettlement.

The respondents were further asked about their access to medical plants prior to the resettlement. Sixty-nine (69) of the respondents representing 99% indicated that they had access. Only one (1) respondent representing 1% didn't have access to medical plants. With regards to the question about access to grazing land, thirty-eight (38) representing 54% had access, whereas thirty-two (32) representing 46% did not have access. With regards to access to water bodies, all the seventy (70) representing 100% indicated that they had access to water bodies such as rivers, prior to the resettlement. This is presented in Figure 6.14 below.

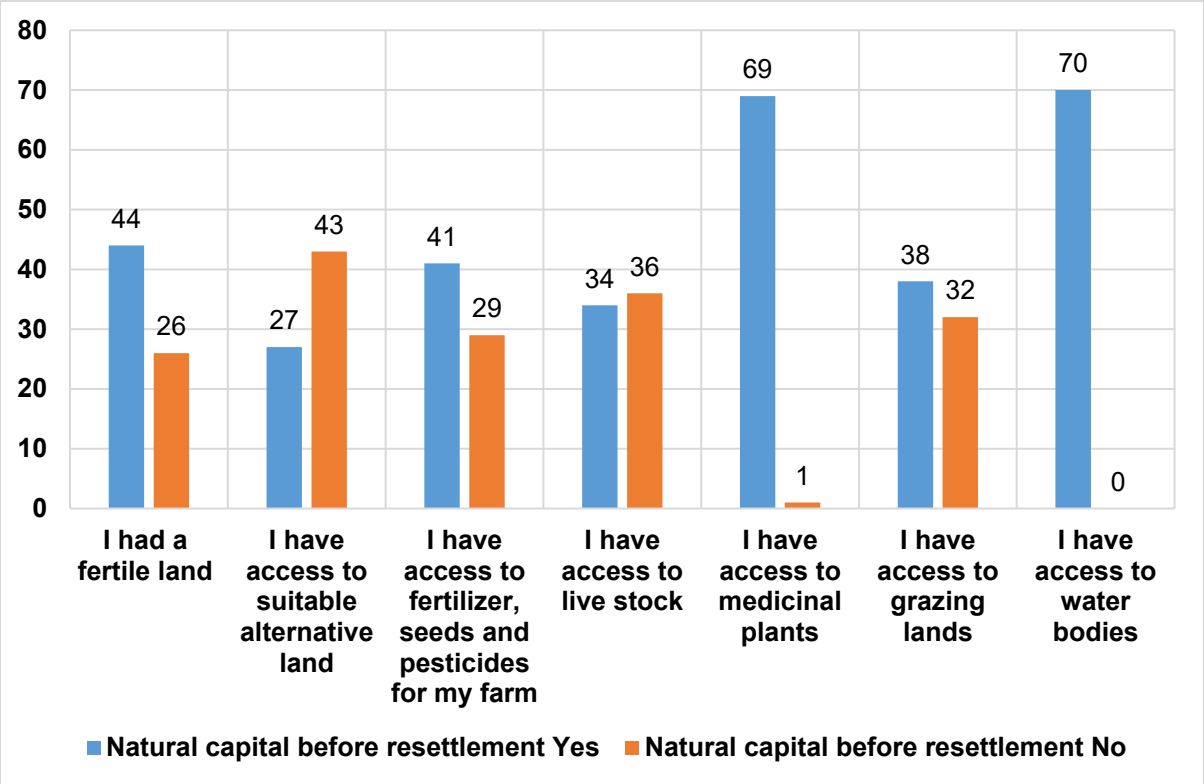


Figure 6.14: Natural capital before resettlement

Figure 6.14 presents the data related to the natural capital before the resettlement.

6.3.3.4 *Natural capital after the resettlement*

The respondents were also asked about their access to Natural Capital after the resettlement. With this, all seventy (70) respondents representing 100% indicated they

no longer have access to fertile lands, suitable alternative lands, livestock, medicinal plants, grazing lands, and their water bodies.

This information is presented in Figure 6.15 below.

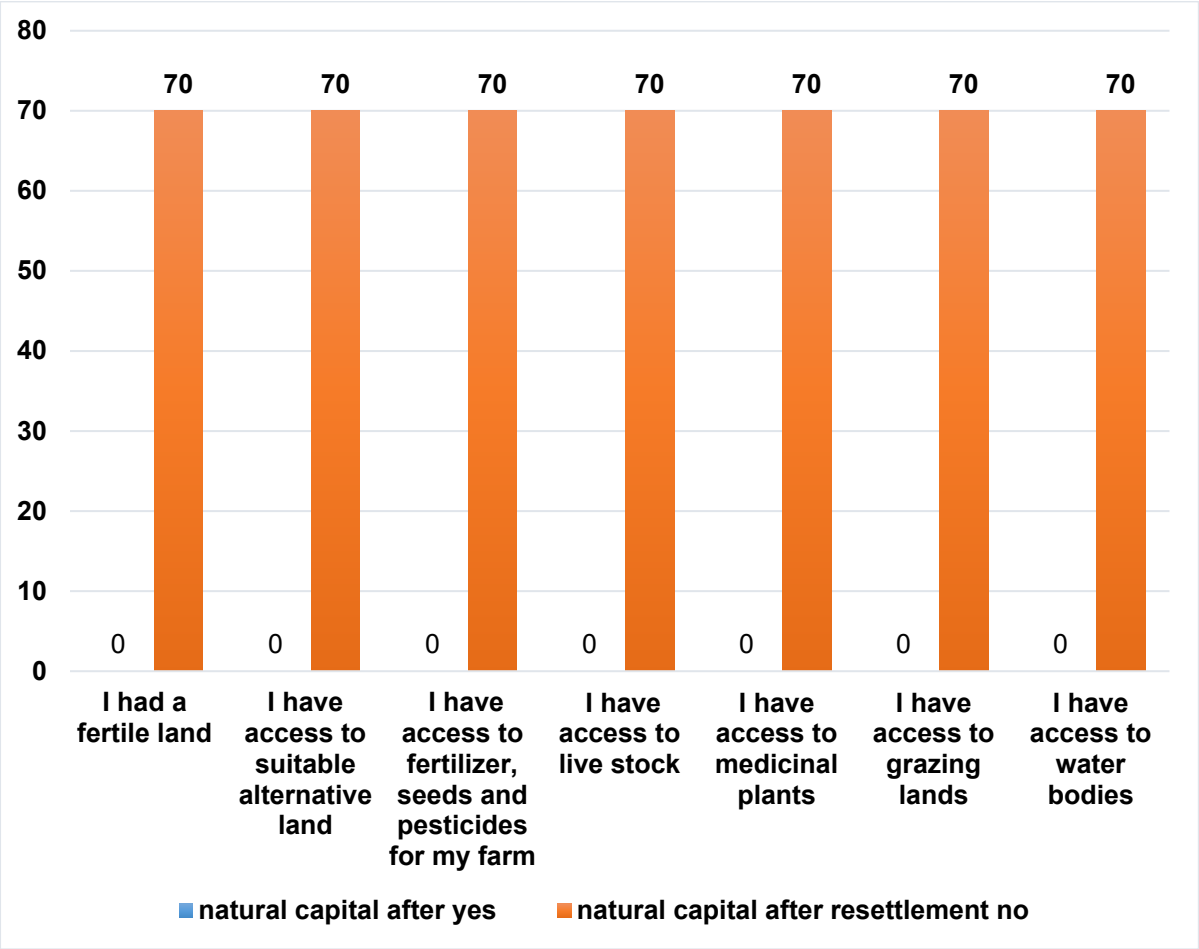


Figure 6.15: Natural capital after the resettlement

Figure 6.15 presents the data related to the natural capital after the resettlement.

Tables 6.4 and 6.5 present the Natural Capital of the affected persons before and after resettlement. According to the data, the average Natural Capital score of the affected persons decreased significantly from 4.6143 before resettlement to 0.0000 after resettlement, reflecting a mean difference of 4.61429. The p-value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, indicates that the impact of resettlement on Natural Capital is statistically significant. Additionally, the confidence interval reveals that the true difference in means lies between 4.11827 and 5.11030. This confirms that the observed change in Natural Capital resources among the affected persons following

resettlement is not attributable to chance. Therefore, the paired t-test demonstrates a significant effect of resettlement on the Natural Capital resources of the host community, resulting in a substantial reduction in scores.

Table 6.3: Natural capital paired samples statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
NBefore	4.6143	70	2.08022	.24863
NAfter	.0000	70	.00000	.00000

Table 6.4: Natural capital paired differences

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
NBefore – NAfter	4.61429	2.08022	.24863	4.11827	5.11030	18.559	69	.000

6.3.3.5 *Physical/infrastructural capital before resettlement*

Another set of questions asked was centred on the physical or infrastructural capital of the respondents before the resettlement. The first question was about their housing facility. Here, twenty-two (22) representing 31% indicated that prior to the resettlement, they had access to better housing facilities, whereas the remaining forty-eight (48) representing 69% indicated that, they did not have better housing facilities.

With regards to recreational centres, six (6) of the respondents representing 11% revealed that, they had access to recreational centres, while the remaining sixty-four (64) representing 89% indicated that, they did not have access to recreational centres. Regarding access to electricity, sixty-six (66) of the respondents representing 94% indicated that they had access to electricity. Only four (4) respondents representing 6% did not have access to electricity.

On the question regarding access to potable drinking water, twenty-seven (27) respondents representing 39% indicated that they had access, whereas forty-three (43) representing 61% indicated that they did not have access. With regards to the question on access to good roads, twenty-two (22) of the respondents representing 31% stated that they had access to good goods. Forty-eight (48) representing 69% indicated that they did not have access to good roads.

In relation to the question about access to places of worship (this includes but is not limited to churches, mosques, shrines and kingdom halls), all seventy (70) respondents representing 100% indicated that, they had access to their various places of worship prior to the resettlement. This is presented in Figure 6.16 below.

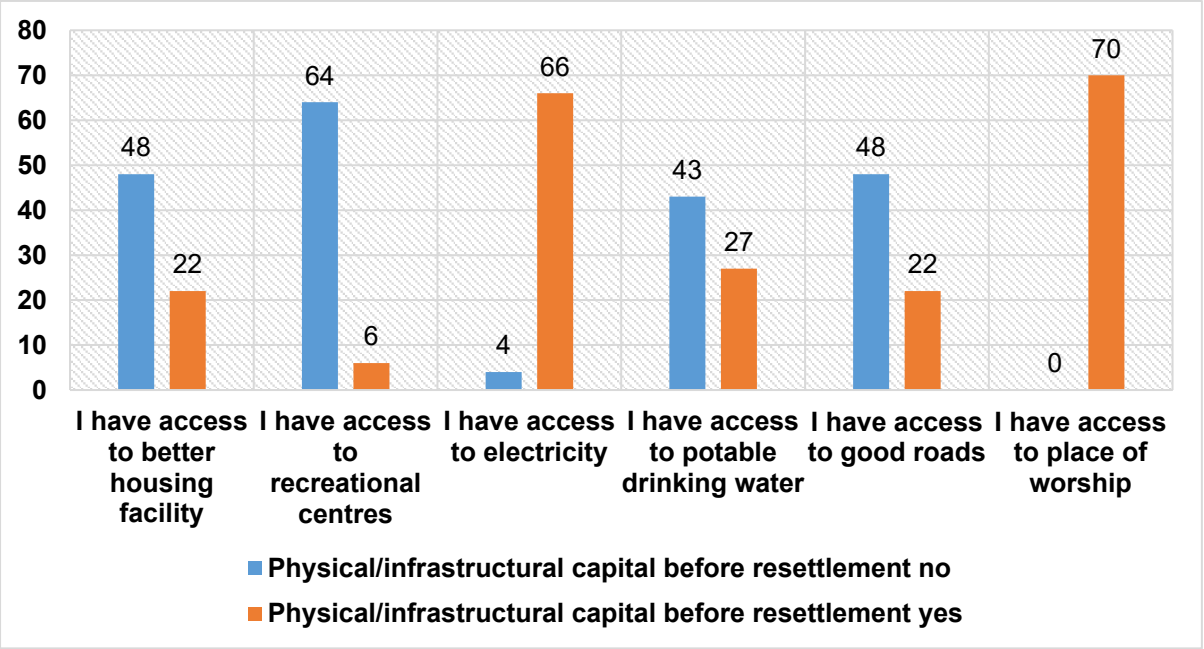


Figure 6.16: Physical/infrastructural capital before resettlement

Figure 6.16 presents the data related to the Physical/Infrastructural capital before the resettlement.

6.3.3.6 *Physical/infrastructural capital after resettlement*

The respondents were further asked about their access to the physical and infrastructural capital after the resettlement. In their responses, all seventy (70) respondents representing 100% confirmed that they had access to better housing facilities, electricity, portable drinking water, and good roads. Conversely, all seventy

(70) respondents representing 100% revealed that, they did not have access to recreational centres and places of worship after the resettlement. This is presented in Figure 17 below.

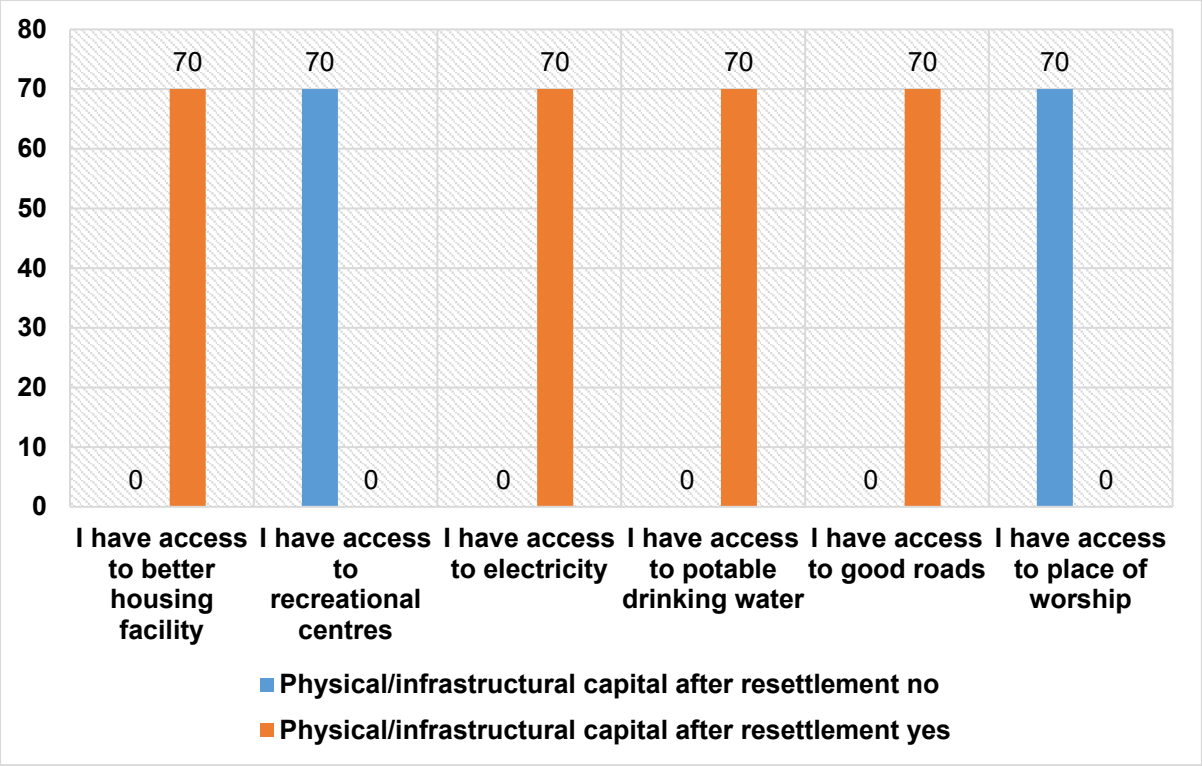


Figure 6.17: Physical/infrastructural capital after resettlement

Figure 6.17 presents the data related to the Physical/Infrastructural capital after the resettlement.

Tables 6.6 and 6.7 present the Physical/Infrastructural Capital of the affected persons before and after resettlement. The data indicate that the average Physical/Infrastructural Capital score of the affected persons increased significantly from 3.0429 before resettlement to 4.000 after resettlement, with a mean difference of 0.95714. The p-value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, confirms that the effect of resettlement on Physical/Infrastructural Capital is statistically significant. Additionally, the confidence interval indicates that the true difference in means falls between 0.68690 and 1.22469. This suggests that the observed change in Physical/Infrastructural Capital resources following resettlement is not due to chance. Therefore, the paired t-test demonstrates a significant effect of resettlement on the

Physical/Infrastructural Capital resources of the host community, resulting in a notable increase in scores.

Table 6.5: Physical/infrastructural capital paired samples statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PBefore	3.0429	70	1.12205	.13411
PAfter	4.0000	70	.00000	.00000

Table 6.6: Physical/infrastructural capital paired differences

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
PBefore – PAfter	.95714	1.12205	.13411	1.22469	.68960	-7.137	69	.000

6.3.3.7 *Human capital before resettlement*

The respondents were further asked questions pertaining to their Human Capital. They were first asked whether they had the skills required for their jobs prior to the resettlement. With this question, thirty (30) representing 43% indicated that they did not have the skills required for their job. Forty (40) representing 57% of the respondents stated that they had the required skills.

Another question alluded to whether they had skilled people to train them on their job. With this question, fifty-nine (59) representing 84% indicated that they did not have, whereas eleven (11) representing 16% indicated that they had. They were again asked whether the people within their household had access to employment. Here, twenty-eight (28) representing 40% answered that they did not, however, forty-two (42) representing 60% indicated that they did.

Another question asked was whether the respondents could utilise the skills they had in the jobs they were engaged in before the resettlement. Thirty-two (32) representing 46% responded that they could, while the remaining thirty-eight (38) representing 54%

answered that they could not. For the last question under this section, the respondents were asked whether children within the community had access to education. All seventy (70) respondents representing 100% stated that they had access to education.

This information is presented in Figure 6.18 below.

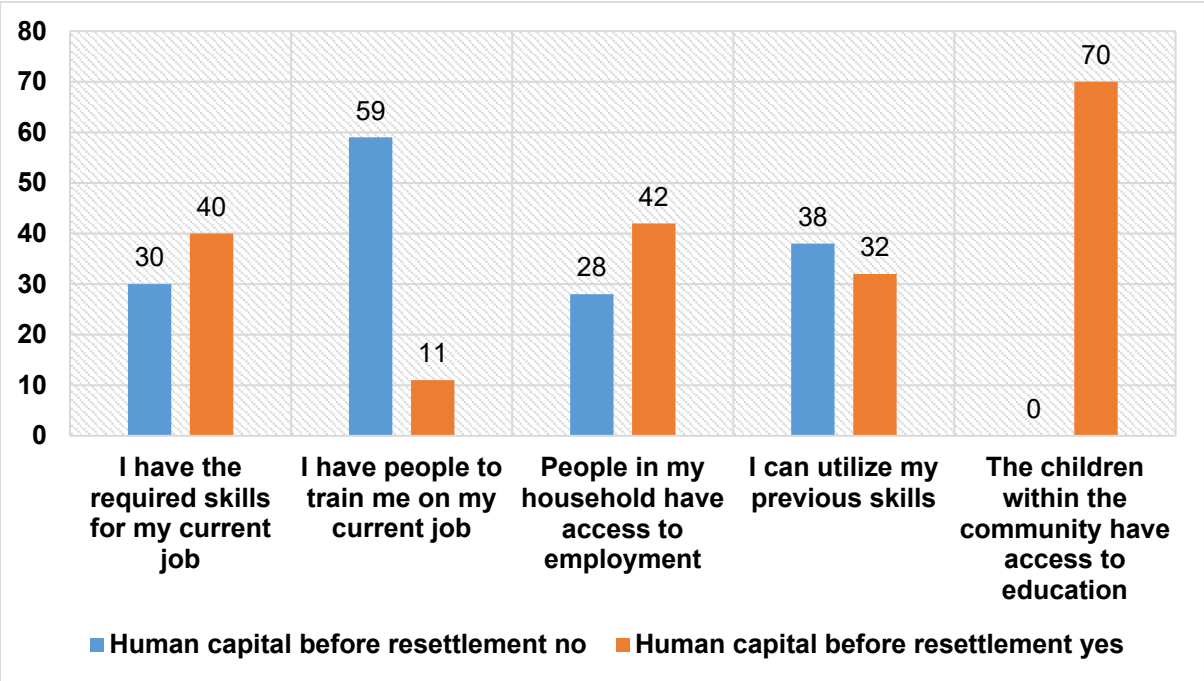


Figure 6.18: Human capital before resettlement

Figure 6.18 presents the data related to the Human capital before the resettlement.

6.3.3.8 *Human capital after settlement*

Figure 6.19 below represents the responses about the Human Capital of the affected persons after the resettlement. On the question of whether they had the skills required for their jobs, sixty-one (61) representing 87% indicated that they did not have the skills required for their current job. Nine (9) representing 13% of the respondents stated that they had the required skills.

The respondents were asked whether they had people to train them on their current job. With this question, sixty-nine (69) representing 99% indicated that they did not have, with the exception of one (1) respondent representing 1%. Another question was about employment opportunities for the people in their households. With this question,

fifty-eight (58) representing 83% indicated “no”, and twelve (12) representing 17% indicated “yes”.

On the question as to whether they could utilise the skills they had in their jobs after the resettlement, fifty-three (53) representing 76% said “no”, and the remaining seventeen (17) representing 24% said “yes”. For the last question under this section, the respondents were asked whether children within the community had access to education. Here, all seventy (70) respondents representing 100% indicated “no”. Thus, after the resettlement, the children within the community no longer had access to education.

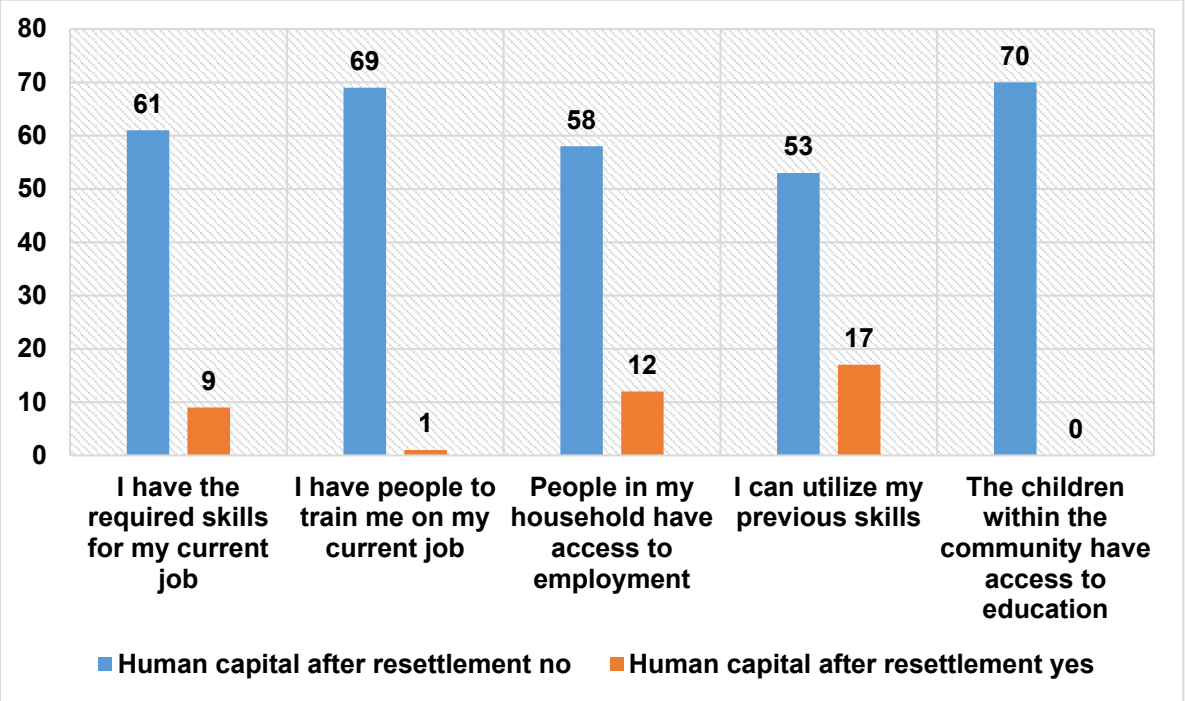


Figure 6.19: Human capital after resettlement

Figure 6.19 presents the data related to the Human capital after the resettlement.

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 below present the Human Capital of the affected persons before and after resettlement. The data reveal that the average Human Capital score of the affected persons decreased significantly from 2.7857 before resettlement to 0.5571 after resettlement, resulting in a mean difference of 2.22857. The p-value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, confirms that the impact of resettlement on Human Capital is statistically significant. Additionally, the confidence interval indicates that the true

difference in means lies between 1.99 and 2.47. This finding suggests that the observed reduction in Human Capital resources among the affected persons following resettlement is not attributable to chance. Therefore, the paired t-test demonstrates a significant effect of resettlement on the Human Capital resources of the host community, leading to a substantial decline in scores.

Table 6.7: Human capital paired samples statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
HBefore	2.7857	70	1.24984	.14939
HAfter	.5571	70	.87866	.10502

Table 6.8: Human capital paired differences

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
HBefore – HAfter	2.22857	.99523	.11895	1.99127	2.46587	18.735	69	.000

6.3.3.9 *Social capital before resettlement*

In Figure 6.20 below, the respondents were asked about their Social Capital before and after the resettlement. The respondents were first asked whether they had friends and relatives who assisted them financially before the resettlement. Sixty-five (65) of the respondents representing 93% indicated that they did, whereas five (5) representing 7% indicated that they did not.

Another question was whether they lived closer to their relatives prior to the resettlement. With this, nineteen (19) of the respondents representing 27% indicated that, they lived close to their relatives. The remaining fifty-one (51) representing 73% indicated that, they did not live close to their relatives.

The respondents were asked about their access to ancestral shrines and lesser gods, to this, all seventy (70) respondents 100% indicated that they did. Furthermore, they were asked about their ability to get financial assistance from the local community prior to the resettlement. Seventeen (17) of the respondents representing 24% indicated that they did, and fifty-three (53) representing 76% said they did not.

The final question was their access to cemeteries. All the seventy (70) respondents representing 100% stated that, they had access to their cemeteries prior to the resettlement.

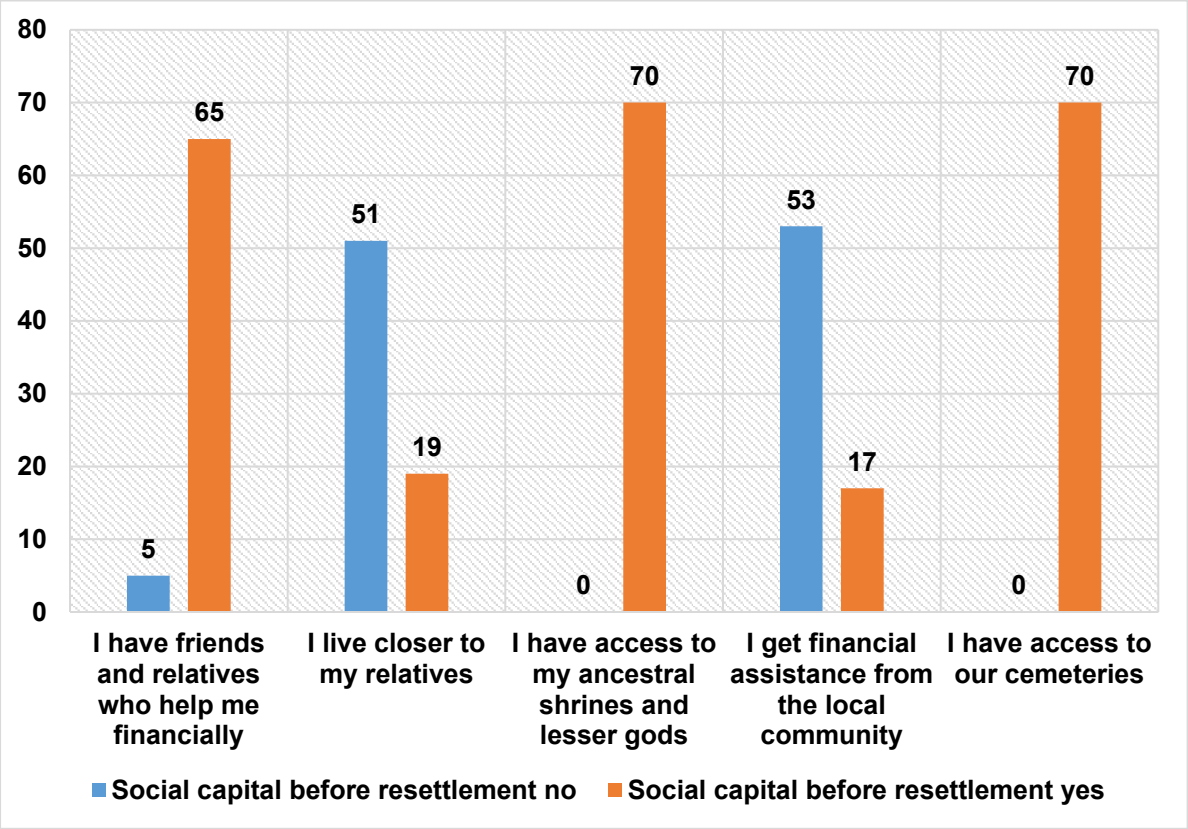


Figure 6.20: Social capital before resettlement

Figure 6.20 presents the data related to the Social capital before the resettlement.

6.3.3.10 *Social capital after resettlement*

Figure 6.21 below represents the responses of the affected persons about their access to Social Capital after the resettlement. On the questions about access to ancestral shrines and lesser gods, ability to get financial assistance from the local community,

and access to cemeteries, all seventy (70) respondents 100% indicated that they no longer had access.

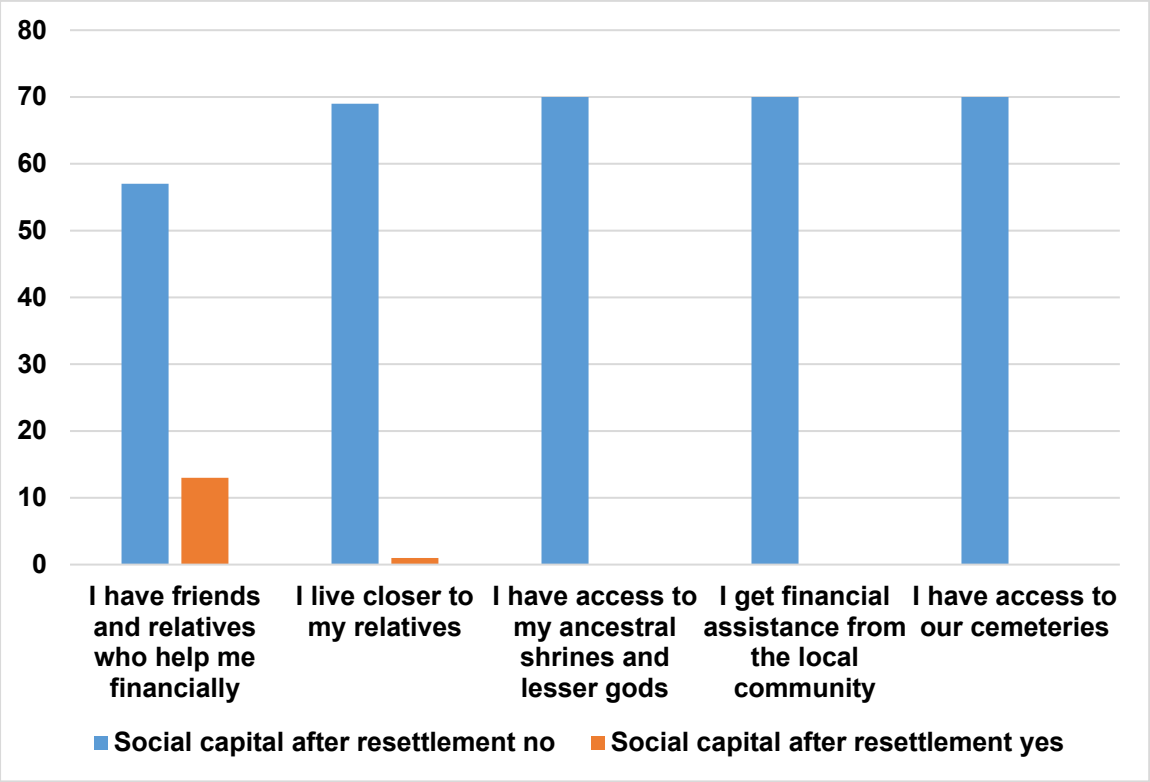


Figure 6.21: Social capital after resettlement

Figure 6.21 presents the data related to the Social capital after the resettlement.

On the question about whether they have access to relatives and friends to assist them financially, thirteen (13) representing 23% indicated “yes”, while fifty-seven (57) representing 77% indicated “no”. The question pertaining to whether the affected persons still lived closer to their relatives after the resettlement, sixty-nine (69) representing 99% indicated “no”. it was only one (1) representing 1% who said “yes”.

In a nutshell, the purpose of section 6.3.3 was to present the data on the implication of the resettlement on the five livelihood resources of the affected persons. That is, how the resettlement has impacted on the financial/economic, human, physical, social, and natural capital. From the findings, it can be observed that, the affected persons have witnessed an improvement in their physical/infrastructural capital. This is attributed to the provision of improved housing facilities. On the contrary, the resettlement has negatively impacted the financial, natural, human, and social capital.

Tables 6.9 and 6.10 below present the Social Capital of the affected persons before and after resettlement. The data show that the average Social Capital score of the affected persons decreased significantly from 3.4429 before resettlement to 0.2000 after resettlement, resulting in a mean difference of 3.24286. The p-value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, confirms that the effect of resettlement on Social Capital is statistically significant. Additionally, the confidence interval indicates that the true difference in means ranges between 3.03 and 3.45. This suggests that the observed reduction in Social Capital resources among the affected persons following resettlement is not due to chance. Therefore, the paired t-test demonstrates a significant effect of resettlement on the Social Capital resources of the host community, leading to a substantial decline in scores.

Table 6.9: Social capital paired samples statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SBefore	3.4429	70	.79191	.09465
SAfter	.2000	70	.43738	.05228

Table 6.10: Social capital paired differences

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 SBefore – SAfter	3.24286	.87536	.10463	3.03414	3.45158	30.995	69	.000

6.4 PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE DATA FROM INTERVIEW

This section provided information on the qualitative data gathered through personal interviews, conducted with an official from the mining company, as well as a non-governmental organisation within the mining industry. The findings from this section sought to address the second objective of this study, on 'the extent to which government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana'. This section is presented in three parts. The first part of this section presents the findings regarding the adherence to compensation and resettlement policies in Ghana. The second section highlights some challenges faced by the mining company in their resettlement process. The third part deals with the findings pertaining to the sixth objective on the contribution of the mining resettlement programmes, to the attainment of Sustainable Development Goals. Specifically goals 8 and 12.

6.4.1 Adherence to the legislations and policies on compensation and resettlement

The information presented here are extracts from the interviews conducted with two officials. One from the mining company, and the other from a mining related NGO. Below are the responses provided to the interview questions.

What policies or legislations guide the formulation of your resettlement planning framework?

The legislative instrument which guides resettlement and compensation programmes is the Minerals and Mining (Compensation and resettlement) Regulation of 2012 (LI 2175) (hereafter referred to as Regulation LI 2175). Aside the Regulation of 2012, there are other internalised policy documents, that are utilised to ensure that, resettlement and compensations are done in a fair manner. This regulation outlines the laid down procedures on how the resettlement needs to be done. Prior to the commencement of the resettlement, a survey is conducted. The purpose of this survey is to ascertain the properties on the affected land, after the concession has been given.

How is the compensation process undertaken for the affected communities? Which stakeholders are involved and how is the amount determined?

During the survey, the total land size is noted, as well as the type of property on the land. This can be houses or crops which have been planted. After the survey, a notice is provided to the affected person through their community leaders. Usually, copies of the notice are also posted on the community notice board. The aim of the notice is to invite people whose lands are affected, to present the necessary documentation proving their ownership of the land in question. Afterwards, the negotiation process is commenced to determine the appropriate compensation packages.

How long does it take to resettle a community? How is it done, and which stakeholders are involved?

Prior to the negotiations, the affected persons are requested to present their land documentation as proof of ownership. There are situations where affected persons are unable to provide the documents, but there are witnesses to attest to their ownership. Again, the land ownership in Ghana is such that, there are times where the farmer is not the actual owner of the land. In this situation, the affected farmer is not entitled to land compensation, but crop compensation where necessary. These are some of the complexities of the situation.

Negotiations are not undertaken with the individuals affected, but with their representative's appointment by them as stated in Section 2(4) of Regulation LI 2175. Usually, the negotiations are done with a committee made up of representatives from the affected community, a government agency, and the mining company. The representatives from the community consist of traditional leaders (chief(s) and the elders), assembly members, community chief farmer, and community youth leaders. From the government agency, there are representatives from the District Assembly which is usually represented by the District Chief Executive, and a representative from the Town and Country Planning. The mining company sometimes appoints a legal representative for the community, to ensure a fair negotiation.

Prior to the negotiations, the traditional leaders organise a town hall meeting (durbar) with the owners of the affected land, to inform the community about the impending resettlement. Their views are sought with regard to what they will require as compensation. This information is presented during the negotiations, and a consensus is reached. The idea is to ensure that all parties involved, agree with the settlement package before the exercise is undertaken.

6.4.2 Challenges during resettlement

What were some of the key challenges faced in resettling the people?

Resettlement is a complex activity. It is usually not a smooth process, and it does not really end. The subject matter involves individuals and their assets. Therefore, the negotiations can take longer than expected. Based on the responses, the challenges associated with the resettlement are presented in three thematic areas below.

6.4.2.1 *Time constraints*

The first challenge of resettlement is time constraint. The mining company has a time limit to complete negotiations and compensation arrangements. This is to ensure that resettlement activities take place in time, to enable the company to undertake their core mandate, which is mining. Given the complexity of resettlement, it can sometimes take years to conclude negotiations and resettlement arrangements. It may take less than three years, and in some cases, more than five years. The longer it takes, the more expensive the process becomes. This is because the economic conditions are not constant. There is a constant increment in the prices of goods and services, and the longer it takes, it affects the budg*et al*located for the exercise. “Our priority is to conclude these arrangements as early as possible, replace exciting structures, and hand it over to the affected community within the time frame, to commence our business activity”, said one respondent. Nonetheless, these negotiations sometimes take much longer to conclude.

6.4.2.2 *Cost of resettlement*

Resettlement is an expensive process. It includes finding suitable alternative lands, replacing farmlands, buildings, and sometimes paying compensation for crops. Irrespective of the nature of the housing facility owned by the affected persons, which in most cases are mud houses with thatched roofs, it must be replaced with a standard modern cement block building. The cost involved in putting up these structures are quite high. Besides, there is a cash compensation which needs to be provided for the affected persons. Aside the land and crop compensation, which is mandated by LI 2175 and the 1992 Constitution, these people are also provided with an extra amount of money to cater for the transportation to their new location.

6.4.2.3 *Misrepresentation by people who are not actually affected*

The third challenge of resettlement is the misrepresentation by people who are not actually affected by the exercise. There have been occasions whereby people who are not affected have made false claims.

Individuals who were not farmers at the time of resettlement, falsely claimed they were. In this situation, it is usually their words against that of the company. People are quick to condemn the company and raise issues of the company cheating the acclaimed affected persons in this regard. These false claims can also prolong negotiations and further increase the cost of resettlement.

6.4.2.4 *Land ownership system in Ghana*

Another challenge of the resettlement process is the land ownership system in Ghana. The system is such that, in most cases, the landowner is different from the farmer. In this situation, the owner of the land is entitled to the land compensation, and not the farmer who may have been cultivating the land. The farmer is only entitled to crop compensation if he/she has any crops on the land. This sometimes creates misunderstandings, especially in situations where the farmer has prepared the land, but he or she is yet to cultivate any crops.

6.4.3 Mining resettlement programmes and Sustainable Development

How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?

The respondent revealed that sustainable development is very important and imperative that, we (the mining company) undertake our activities in a manner that does not compromise the ability of the future generation to meet their developmental needs. Sustainable development is all about ensuring that in any activity or business venture, in our case mining, is conducted in a very responsible manner. In acquiring concession for the mining activities, we endeavour to avoid resettlement and other forms of displacement, where possible. Nonetheless, when it becomes imperative that we must resort to resettlement, we make use of the required legislations. We also adopt international best practices, in a manner that minimizes and mitigates the adverse of environmental, social, and cultural impacts to the greatest extent.

On the issue of decent employment opportunities, the respondent stated that the company supports local employment and procurement initiative where necessary. This is to ensure an improvement in the economic situation of the people within the host community. The mining company also has partnership with the communities, to promote social and economic development.

On the responsible consumption and production. The responded emphasised that they constantly improve our environmental management systems. The company proactively identify and assess threats and opportunities, and institute practicable solutions to reduce environmental risk, while also protecting biodiversity. We also ensure that we prevent pollution and minimise the generation of waste from our activities. We also ensure that we reduce our carbon footprint by adapting innovative solutions towards the effect of climate change.

6.5 ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

This section presents the analysis of the findings in accordance with the objectives of the study.

6.5.1 Implications of demographic characteristics on findings

Implications of demographic characteristics on the study's findings are also explained.

Age range and its impact on findings

The majority of respondents (52.74%) were between 26 and 45 years, an age group typically considered as the economically active or working population. This means that the impact of displacement is more severe, as individuals within this age group are often in the process of building careers, supporting families, and planning for future financial security. The high unemployment rate after resettlement (94%) indicates that a productive workforce was rendered economically inactive. This loss of employment among an otherwise energetic and working-age group underscores the economic vulnerability created by resettlement.

The relatively small percentage of younger respondents (6% between 18-25 years) suggests that younger people may have migrated elsewhere in search of opportunities, or they may not have been directly engaged in farming before the resettlement. Meanwhile, the older respondents (7% between 56-65 years) likely faced

difficulties in adapting to new economic realities, given their reduced ability to transition into new livelihoods. This could have exacerbated their dependency on compensation, further reinforcing economic instability.

Educational background and its influence on the resettlement outcome

The study highlights that 17% of respondents had no formal education, and 56% only had primary education, leaving a significant portion of the population with limited literacy and numeracy skills. This likely affected their ability to engage effectively in negotiations about compensation and resettlement conditions. The community may have lacked awareness of their legal rights, which contributed to inadequate provisions for alternative livelihoods.

Additionally, the low educational levels meant that most individuals were unlikely to secure formal employment post-resettlement. With only 1% of respondents having tertiary education, there was little potential for economic diversification beyond farming. This explains why, after resettlement, the majority became unemployed rather than transitioning into different sectors.

Gender and education: gendered vulnerabilities

The gendered breakdown of education levels shows that more men had no formal education compared to women (7 males versus 5 females). However, females were more underrepresented in secondary and tertiary education. This educational disparity may have implications for access to employment opportunities, as women with lower educational attainment may have had fewer chances to secure income-generating activities post-resettlement.

Moreover, since fewer women had secondary or tertiary education, their capacity to advocate for their rights or adapt to alternative forms of employment, like trade and technical work, may have been even more limited. This suggests that female respondents might have been particularly vulnerable to economic marginalisation post-resettlement.

Gender and age: impact on household dynamics

The age-gender distribution shows that more males than females were in the 26-45 age group. This indicates that more men, who were likely primary breadwinners, were

directly affected by job losses due to resettlement. Meanwhile, women, especially those in the 45+ age group, may have had fewer employment prospects even before resettlement, making their post-resettlement economic situation even more precarious.

The fact that older women (56-65 years) outnumbered men in this age category suggests a potential rise in dependency on social networks or family support systems. Given that resettlement disrupted communal living and economic structures, older women might have faced more severe socio-economic challenges.

Occupation before and after resettlement: livelihood destruction

Before resettlement, 60% of respondents were farmers, and 12% were traders, indicating that the community's economy was heavily dependent on agricultural activities. However, post-resettlement, 94% became unemployed, with only 4% engaging in trading. This dramatic shift suggests that the resettlement process did not adequately address livelihood restoration.

Since the respondents were mostly within the working-age group, their sudden loss of employment had long-term consequences, including financial instability, food insecurity, and potential social disintegration. The lack of alternative economic opportunities contributed to deepening poverty, exacerbating the economic fallout from displacement.

6.5.2 Research question 2: To what extent do government policies impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana?

In Chapter 4, the main policies governing resettlement were discussed extensively. This section is to identify the adherence to the policies and how the livelihoods of the affected persons are enhanced and sustained.

In Chapter 2, it was identified that policies are a set of actions coordinated to achieve a goal. Based on the definition by Anderson (2003: 2), a policy is a relatively stable, purposive course of action, followed by an actor or set of actors, in dealing with a problem or matter of concern. Thus, any cause of action undertaken by government to either address or remain silent on a situation, which is considered desirable or undesirable by the public, becomes a public policy.

Mining is an industry which has a significant contribution towards national development. Nonetheless, their activities also have the propensity of negatively impacting the affected persons within their host communities. In Ghana, there are several policies governing how mining activities should be conducted. These policies are extensively discussed in Chapter 4. It is one thing to have the policies, and another to utilise and enforce these policies. For this reason, this section attempts to analyse the extent to which the government policies, impact the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana.

From the findings, it was evident that the widely used policy for resettlement activities were the Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation of 2012 (LI 2175). This was a legislative Instrument adopted in 2006, to aid in the smooth implementation of the Minerals and Mining Act 703 of 2006. From the presentation of the findings in section 6.3 above, it was evident that the mining company adhered to the provisions stated in governments policies, more specifically - regulation LI 2175. For instance, section 2 of Regulation LI 2175 requires that, the service of a qualified person is needed in assessing and determining the amount of compensation payable. To ensure that the mining communities or persons whose lands are claimed are not made worse off, section 2(4) states that:

"Where the parties appoint a committee to negotiate the amount of compensation, the committee shall include the following,

a) *A qualified person who represents the claimants;*
b) *A qualified person who represents the holder of the mineral rights;*
c) *A representative of the Government agency responsible for valuation;*
d) *Three representatives of the farmers and the affected communities;*
e) *A representative of the traditional authorities in the project area;*
f) *A representative of the relevant District Assembly; and*
g) *Other members mutually agreed on by the parties."*

From the data, it can be confirmed that this provision in the regulation was adhered to. The law requires that a qualified person should represent the claimants (the affected

person) during negotiations. It can be inferred that, the government respected the fact that the affected person might not be in the position to negotiate a good deal for his or herself. The law is however silent on whether the mining company should be the one responsible for that.

Although the mining company sometimes appoints a legal representative for the community to ensure a fair negotiation, in the case of this community, it is unclear whether a legal representative was sought for them. However, it is very clear that the negotiations were done by the community leaders on behalf of the affected persons.

Section 6(1) of the LI 2175 indicates that, the inhabitants shall be resettled by the holder of the suitable alternative land, and the resettlement shall deal with the economic well-being and socio-cultural values of the persons to be resettled. The objective is to improve the livelihoods and living standards of those people. Thus, the government expects mining companies to compensate affected persons, make provision for resettlement, and to further establish an Alternative Livelihood Programme. Subsection 3 of Article 20 of the 1992 Constitution also requires that, affected persons should be resettled on suitable alternative lands, with due regard to the economic wellbeing of the communities affected, as well as their social and cultural values.

From the data analysis, it was deduced that the affected community had not benefited from this regulation. The resettlement led to a rise in unemployment. Prior to the resettlement, fifty (50) out of the seventy (70) respondents were employed. After the resettlement, only three (3) out of the seventy (70) were gainfully employed. A total of forty-seven (47) affected persons had been rendered unemployed, after the resettlement. This is contrary to what the law states on the need for resettlement programme, to take into consideration the economic wellbeing of the affected persons. This is presented in Figure 6.22 below, which is an extract from Figures 12 and 13 above.

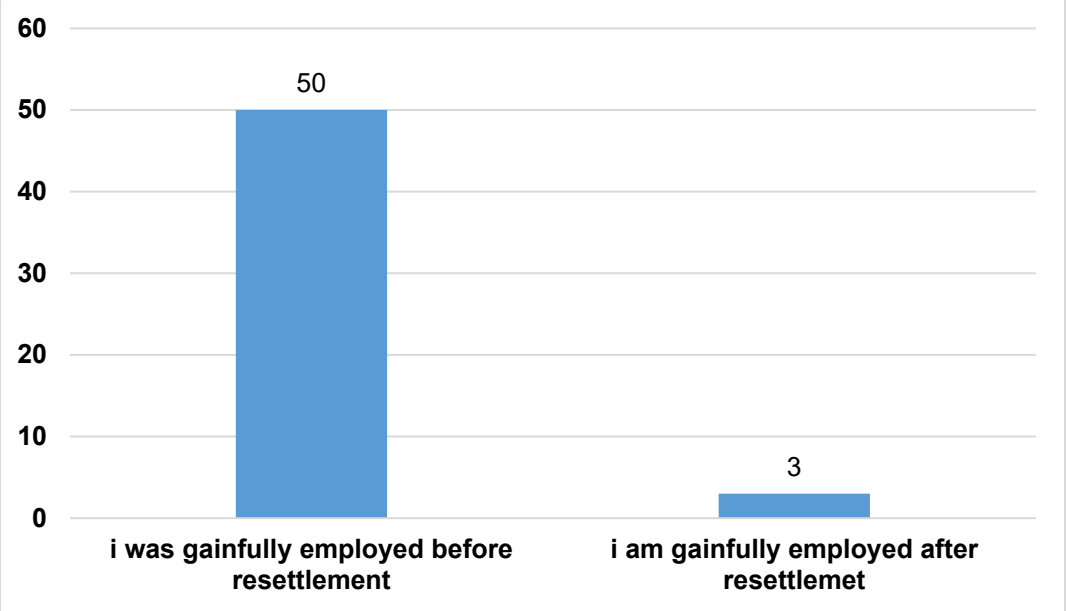


Figure 6.22: Employment before and after resettlement

Figure 6.22 presents the data related to the employment situation of the respondents before and after resettlement.

Mining and farming require the same resource, which is land. This community under study is a farming community. Thus, the main source of livelihood is farming. From Figure 6.6 above, prior to the resettlement, forty-two (42) of the respondents were farmers and eight (8) of them were traders. After the resettlement, there were no farmers. This is because of the unavailability of suitable alternative farmlands. Five (5) out of the traders also lost their jobs. This further exacerbated the unemployment rate. A total of sixty-six (66) respondents had no employment opportunities.

This is clearly contrary to the provisions in the policies. The economic well-being of the affected persons appeared to have been disregarded. This led to massive unemployment which is a public issue. To address these issues, suitable alternative lands need to be made available for the affected farmers to continue their farming activities. In addition, the Government of Ghana wishes to foster the development of a thriving mining industry, which will contribute to sustainable development, economic empowerment of Ghanaians, the alleviation of poverty, and the improvement of the standards and quality of life in Ghana. How can poverty be alleviated, if affected persons have to part ways with their farmlands, only to be rendered unemployed? The fourteenth principle seeks to promote sustainable livelihoods in mining communities. The Government recognises that the natural resources are public property, as

enshrined in the article 257(6) of the 1992 Constitution. As such, the activities of the sector must seek the collective interest of citizens.

Furthermore, article 20(2) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana stipulates that, lands can be compulsorily acquired, if its utilisation promotes public benefit. It further states that the compulsory acquisition of land, should be accompanied by prompt payment of fair and adequate compensation. Though the law is silent on what contributes to fair and reasonable compensation, some form of compensation should be presented to the affected person. In Figure 6.9 above, the affected persons attested that they were compensated. Irrespective of the form of compensation, it is evident that the company fulfilled their obligations according to provisions in the legislations. In this regard, the mining company ensured that the resettlement packages were agreed upon by the affected persons. Prior to the negotiations, the traditional leaders organised a town hall meeting (durbar), with the owners of the affected land, to inform the community about the impending resettlement. Their views were sought with regards to what they will require as compensation. This information was then presented during the negotiations.

Additionally, Section 10.11 of the Minerals and Mining Policy of 2006 categorically mandates the inculcation of Sustainable Livelihood Programmes, as an integral part of the planning of any mining activity. However, in Figure 11a above, the affected persons were not provided with any form of Alternative Livelihood Programmes. This is clearly against what the law prescribes. To ensure that the affected persons do not become worse, some form of livelihood strategies needs to be put in place. Though the constitution and other related policies are not very clear on the type and nature of Livelihood Intervention Programmes or ALPs, it is the responsibility of the company to ensure that the affected persons have an income generating activity.

It was established that the company made efforts to inform the affected persons and sought their input as enshrined in the regulations. It appears in Figure 11b above that the community leaders and the committee did not make any provision for ALPs. In section 4.4 where the theoretical framework which underpins this study was extensively discussed, it was established that the livelihood strategies to be adopted are subject to the type and nature of livelihood resources, available to the people. Again, these strategies are to be adopted within a particular context (policy setting,

politics, history, agroecology and socio-economic conditions), which will result in the livelihood outcome (sustainable or unsustainable livelihood).

Nonetheless, it can be inferred that, these challenges resulting in poor outcomes for the affected persons, emanate from the weakness in the entire public policy process. That starts from the policy formulation, through to the evaluation stage. The historic development of the gold mining sector in Ghana, was from the early days of artisanal mining in the 5th and 6th centuries B.C, until large scale open-pit mining in recent times. Thus, Ghana has been mining for several decades. This implies that, several resettlement programmes have been carried out under several regimes. It is however disturbing to note that, these policies that have governed resettlement for the past years, have failed to provide enough support for the people whose lands are claimed, to enable the mining activities.

Ghana has regulatory agencies (see section 4.3) that have oversight responsibilities of mining activities. Therefore, it is expected that after several years of mining and undertaking resettlement activities, these institutions would have identified the lapses in the formulation and implementation of the mining resettlement policies. These lapses would have been identified during the policy evaluation process and served as a reference point for making amendments. As opined by Denhardt, *et al.* (2015: 55-57), the purpose of the policy evaluation process is to determine whether a certain program is effective, that is, whether it produces the intended results. After the evaluation stage, changes in the policy may be introduced, that can expand, reduce, or eliminate the program. Hence, the results of the evaluation procedure can also lead to the termination of certain policies.

It is important to note that, these government institutions will need the support of the media, researchers, and other NGOs within the mining industry, in identifying the best strategies to be adopted, to ensure the best outcome for the affected persons. As Ghana strives to attain the SDGs by 2030, it is imperative to appreciate how the mining industry can contribute towards creating decent employment, ensuring quality education, reducing poverty and hunger, as well as ensuring responsible consumption and production patterns.

The IRR model emphasises the need to deconstruct the process of resettlement, and reconstruct into a set of definable risks-reversal activities, which are able to lead from

landlessness to land-based resettlement, from joblessness to reemployment, from homelessness to house reconstruction, from marginalisation to social inclusion, from increased morbidity to improved health care, from food insecurity to adequate nutrition, from lost assets to restoration of community assets and services, and from social disarticulation to rebuilding networks and communities (Cernea, 2022: 27-29).

These two theories highlight the importance of public policies, in ensuring the ultimate benefit for communities and individuals affected by mining. However, the findings from this study have highlighted some weaknesses in the legislative instruments implemented by Ghana, thereby preventing the people from this particular community, from moving from joblessness to reemployment, and from landlessness to land-based resettlement. Regarding these two theories coupled with the legislative framework, four assumptions were made in this study, which formed the basis for the conceptual framework for this study. From the findings, the following conclusions are made:

i. The role of the institutional (formal and informal rules) and organisational arrangement on resettlement and compensation, which will compel mining companies to adopt effective Livelihood Strategies (LS) during the designing of Resettlement Planning Framework (RPF), could not be ascertained.

ii. No effective livelihood strategies were adopted, which could have been combined with any of the livelihood resources, leading to sustainable outcomes.

iii. There were no ALPs in place, which required the participation and support of the community, to ensure its success.

Even so, these findings prove that, should the assumptions made in section 4.6 above be adhered to, there is a likelihood that the affected persons will be able to benefit greatly from the resettlement activities. However, rendering the affected persons whose lands are claimed for mining activities jobless, is a public problem. In Chapter 2, public problem was indicated simply as challenges or issues that confront the society. From the study, a total of fifty (50) persons out of the seventy (70) were rendered unemployed after the resettlement programme. It is an expected

responsibility of effective public administration, to address public problems of this nature, through the implementation of public policies.

Public policies can be in various forms. They can either be distributive, redistributive, constituent, or regulatory. The mining resettlement policies are regulatory in nature. Thus, imposing restrictions or limitations on the behaviour of individuals and groups. However, a careful analysis of the tenets of the various legislations governing resettlement and compensation, reveals a few lapses. Hence, the failure of these policies to protect the interest of the citizenry, whose livelihoods depend on the lands which are claimed for mining activities.

From the findings to a greater extent, the mining company adhered to the terms indicated in the LI 2175, Act 706 and the 1992 Constitution. However, the provisions of these regulations are quite vague and silent on vital issues, which are necessary for ensuring the protection of the affected persons against the arbitrary loss of their livelihoods. There are low standards set, and these are not high enough to ensure the best benefits for the affected person.

6.5.3 Research question 4: What were the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme.

People have expectations in life. These expectations often serve as a motivation for their actions and inactions. In the case of the people whose lands must be claimed for mining activities, they are motivated to give their lands in exchange for resettlement and compensation packages, with the hope of improving their lives. To the best of their knowledge, such compensation packages are to enhance their livelihoods and place them in better positions than their previous conditions. Ironically, it appears that the expectations of these people are short lived.

Again, in the legislations governing compensation and resettlement, the government envisaged that the lives of the affected person would be improved through the provision of resettlement and compensation. From the findings in figure 6.9 above, all the affected persons were duly compensated. In Figure 6.10, it can be observed that majority of the affected persons wanted housing facilities and money. Only two (2) out of the seventy (70) respondents requested for farmland. The mining company,

however, provided the affected persons with housing facilities. This is evident in the findings as presented in Figure 6.10 above.

The community in question is a farming community and as such, the affected persons are expected to be farmers. In the event where their farmlands are claimed for mining activities, then the logical conclusion will be that those affected will demand for suitable alternative lands, to enable them to continue with their primary means of economic activity – farming. In the event of unavailability of a suitable alternative farmland, an ALP should be initiated to ensure that, the conditions of these people do not worsen. This finding creates an entirely different perception, regarding the priorities of the affected persons. There is the possibility that, the affected persons failed to understand the entire resettlement process. Perhaps, they thought it was an opportunity to acquire better housing facilities, they probably could not have afforded. Thus, they only thought of the short-term benefit without taking into consideration the long-term implications of losing their source of economic survival. This raises concerns about how the negotiations are undertaken and the capacity of the people, who represent the affected persons. This highlights a lapse in the policy formulation, implementation, and the evaluation process. This inability of the laws to set high standards to ensure that there is equity and fairness in all concerns, is highly problematic. The affected persons might have misplaced priorities, which is evident in the case of this community. It is the responsibility of the state institutions with oversight responsibility within the mining industry, to ensure that the right to economic and other livelihood related capital, are not compromised.

Finally, the analysis on the educational background revealed that, only one out of the seventy respondents had a tertiary education. 56% of the respondents had primary or basic education. The level of education could also be attributed to the preferences of the people. Thus, their inability to be intentional about the options that will best serve their long-term interest.

6.5.3.1 *Misrepresentation by people who are not actually affected*

However, it can be observed that 38% of the respondent's expected money, whereas 60% expected money and housing as compensation. It is quite unclear why the affected persons failed to request for alternative lands or ALPs as part of the compensation packages. Nonetheless, the mining company honoured their request

and provided these persons with modern housing facilities, as well as cash compensation. Thus, to a greater extent, the expectations of these people were fulfilled.

Further investigation revealed that, the company also provided the affected persons with a cash amount, which were paid in instalment. This money (referred to as transportation) was to compensate them for relocating them from their place of residence (resettlement allowance). An additional payment was made to farmers and landowners. This is the land and crop compensation as indicated in the laws governing compensation and resettlement in Ghana. This cash payment is dependent on the land size, as well as the types and ages of the crops. This cash compensation is expected to help the affected persons, mitigate the economic losses the resettlement may have caused. This serves as a token to help them start up other income generating activities, to improve their livelihood. However, from the findings, it suggested that the land and crop compensation has been a subject of legal litigation with a section of the affected persons, seeking redress through an ongoing legal suit.

6.5.4 Research question 5: What are the implications of the Mine resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members?

The implication of the resettlement on the livelihood of the affected persons will be discussed in relation to five livelihood assets defined by Scoones (1998). As already advanced in section 3.3.2 *Livelihood assets and resources* above, livelihood resources or assets are the basic material and social, tangible, and intangible assets, which people use for constructing their livelihoods (Scoones, 1998: 3). Four types of livelihood resources are identified by Scoones (1998). These are the Natural, Economic/Financial, Human, and Social Capital. This section will discuss how the resettlement has impacted the four livelihood resources of the affected persons.

6.5.4.1 *Economic and financial resource*

Economic and financial resources are very critical for enhancing the quality of life of people. Financial resources empower people and provide them the opportunity to cater for themselves and their dependents. As already advanced in section 3.3.2 above, financial capital denotes the monetary resources people have access to, and includes stocks of money such as savings, access to credit facilities, and flow of money

such as remittances and wages. The ability to have employment opportunities is a more reliable way of ensuring a contact cash inflow.

From the findings as indicated in Figure 6.12 above, prior to the resettlement, 71% of the people were gainfully employed. This meant a constant cash in-flow which translated into an improvement in the ability of the people to make savings. This is evident, as 63% of the people indicated there was an improvement in their ability to save prior to the resettlement.

The narrative after the resettlement presents a more disturbing outlook. From Figure 6.13 above, it appears that the economic situation of the affected persons had worsened. 99% of the affected persons did not have access to employment opportunities, 96% were not gainfully employed, and their income levels had been significantly affected, resulting in a decline in their propensity to save.

It is important to also examine how the income earning activities of resettled households had been affected on one hand, and how they used their financial capital to employ various livelihood strategies. In this case, it can be observed that the financial resources of these people were greatly affected. From the findings, it can be observed that forty-two respondents who were initially farmers, had lost their farmlands after the resettlement. Again, only three out of the eight traders still had access to the local market, to engage in their trading activities. It can therefore be inferred that, these traders outsource their products from other neighbouring communities. The cost involved in transporting these farm produce, will significantly affect the pricing of the final product. Thus, resulting in an upward adjustment of the pricing. Should the farmers within the community have access to their farmlands, this situation would not have emerged. However, the lack of alternative income generating activities, coupled with the high unemployment rate within this community, is likely to impact the quality of life of the affected persons. They have been placed in a situation whereby they can no longer afford the services of things, they could previously afford when they were employed.

This is as a result of the unavailability of a viable income generating activity. Hence, these people will have limited access to credit from institutions, thus their inability to take financial risk to diversify their income strategies. Should this situation persist, it will have a negative implication on the long-term development of the community. The

high unemployment with no available opportunities for the affected persons to undertake skill training, might result in other social vices such as armed robbery, drug abuse, prostitution, among others. It is therefore imperative for the mining company and the government institutions with oversight responsibility, to embark on Alternative Livelihood Programmes, such as training the affected persons on income generating activities (for example, soap making, fish farming, bead making and among others). Also, the Ministry of Gender and Social protection can adopt the seventy affected persons and enrol them on its flagship Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme, until they are able to identify an alternative income generating activity.

6.5.4.2 *Natural capital*

In the context of the rural economies of the developing world, where most people derive their livelihoods from natural resource-based activities, natural capital seems to be a very essential asset category. It is also essential to note that, the cultural importance that elements of the environment have for different people, reflect values embodied in their cultures (Damania, Polasky, Ruckelshaus, Russ, Amann, Chaplin-Kramer, Gerber, Hawthorne, Heger & Mamun, 2023: 27-31). Therefore, cultural values can be defined as the cultural benefits that people derive or gain from the natural resources, which are broadly described as the cultural services or benefits obtained from ecosystems. For this reason, cultural values play a critical role in understanding the importance and sentimental valves people have, regarding their natural environment. Thondhlana and Shackleton (2015: 20) identify three fundamental reasons for understanding the importance of the natural environment on the cultural values of indigenes, especially in Africans.

Firstly, people have a spiritually enriching values attached to land and wild natural resources. For example, traditional medicinal plants maintain health in the broadest sense of physical, spiritual, social, and psychological well-being, and protect people from witchcraft and harm. Secondly, indigenous knowledge of resource management (for instance taboos, myths, belief systems, normative ways of harvesting, and among others) accumulated over thousands of years, often become encoded in everyday cultural practices (Thondhlana & Shackleton, 2015: 22).

In addition, the importance of passing on used and unused values to future generations (bequest values), and the value from knowledge of continued existence or preservation of certain plant and animal species (existence values), are important elements of culture. They ensure natural resources are conserved for the future generation (Damania, *et al*., 2023: 27-31).

From the findings, as presented in Figures 6.14 and 6.15 above, it can be noted that the natural capital of the affected persons has been negatively impacted. Prior to the resettlement, they had access to fertile land, livestock, waterbodies, medicinal plants, and grazing lands. After the resettlement, they no longer have these. This has a great potential of impacting their quality of life. The information by Thondhlana and Shackleton (2015: 21-23) give a better appreciation as to why the affected persons are saddened by the loss of their natural capital land.

Furthermore, Brown, King, Ling, Bowles-Newark, Ingwall-King, Wilson and Vause (2016: 7) state that, economic growth in Africa is typically underpinned by dependencies on natural resource exploitation. To realise sustainable long-term growth, African economies, of which Ghana is included, will need to adapt, and shift towards adopting the green economy concept. This transition is vital for contributing to poverty eradication, sustained economic growth, enhanced social inclusion, improved human welfare, and increased employment opportunities, while maintaining and sustaining healthy ecosystem functioning. This can be achieved by considering what assets and services nature provides, and how they can be best used without damaging or depleting them.

Being a farming community, natural capital such as medicinal plants, fertile lands, livestock, grazing lands, and water bodies, are very essential for the people, with regards to medicinal plants. The works of Asase, Oteng-Yeboah, Odamtten and Simmonds (2005: 274), as well as Boadu and Asase (2017: 3043061), have documented the importance and utilisation of herbal medicines, and associated medicinal plants in Ghana. Studies by Soelberg, Asase, Akwetey and Jäger (2015: 110) and Soelberg, Davis and Jäger (2016: 74) reveal that, the use of herbal medicine in Ghana is widespread, and traditional medicine has huge impacts on the local economy and biodiversity conservation. Again, the rich history of the use of herbal medicines and innovative utilisation of plants as sources of medicines in Ghana, and

broadly within Africa, have been passed down through generations largely an as oral tradition.

Also, natural capital has a major role to play in achieving international development targets. For example, goals 14 and 15 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) focus directly on the sustainable use and preservation of natural resources. In addition, there are clear links between natural capital and many of the other SDGs; including, for example, reference to: improving resilience to extreme events and disasters; ending hunger and promoting sustainable agriculture; sustainable water management and sanitation; sustainable and clean energy; growing and diversifying the economy; developing resilient infrastructure; developing sustainable cities; ensuring sustainable consumption and production (particularly, with regards to the efficient use of natural resources); and tackling climate change (Brown, *et al*., 2016: 24).

An example is evident in Ghana, where rivers and other water bodies are perceived as sacred entities and therefore, strict religious taboos are put in place to regulate the use of the wetlands. It is a taboo to go fishing on Tuesdays, since this day is reserved as a sacred day for the sea. Although, these views maybe seen as old and outmoded. It is an African indigenous traditional knowledge on preserving the natural environment which has a direct bearing on the attainment of SDG 14 and 15. However, findings suggest, that the river within the community is considered part of mining concession. Hence, it can be inferred that, the river might be used for the mining activities, which are likely to be polluted with heavy chemicals such as cyanide, sulfuric acid, mercury, uranium, and lead. The use of these chemicals is unsafe both for humans and the aquatic life. Should this situation persist, it will defeat the objective of ensuring a sustainable protection of the natural environment.

Thus, from the points advanced in this section, it can be concluded that the community did not only lose their medicinal plants, but also lost some aspects of their culture, history, and identity. Ghana might also be denied the opportunity of attaining aspects of the SDGs by 2030, due to the adverse implication of the resettlement on the natural capital.

It is, therefore, recommended that, the Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology and Innovation, Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, and the Environmental Protection Agency, should explore the options of excluding water bodies as a part of

the mining concessions. Additionally, before the government gives out any land for mining activities, it would be important to first engage the inhabitants, to seek their consent, and further have an appreciation of their dependency on the land in question. This initial process will help the appropriate authorities to adopt initiatives and programmes, which will best serve the needs of the affected persons. Thus, Article 20(2) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana advocates that, lands can be compulsorily acquired if it is to promote the public interest. It is also important to seek the consent of the occupants and the appropriate surface owners of the land.

6.5.4.3 *Physical and infrastructure capital*

Access to better housing facilities, potable drinking water, and electricity, are considered a necessity of life. Prior to the resettlement, the affected persons had access to places of worship and access to electricity. However, they had limited access to good roads, potable drinking water, recreational facilities, and better housing facilities. Nonetheless, after the resettlement, apart from places of worship and recreational centres, the affected persons have had access to better housing facilities, good roads, access to electricity, and potable drinking water. This is a laudable initiative, which has the tendency of enhancing the quality of life of the affected persons. However, the people have had to leave behind a part of themselves - their culture, history, and means of economic wellbeing. They require more than just good roads and better housing facilities.

6.5.4.4 *Human capital*

The development of a community can be influenced by the ability to have access to good social network. This refers to a network of people, who have the potential of propelling others to succeed and to realise their full potential. This is not different from the people within the rural communities. They also need each other for survival.

Prior to the resettlement, the access to human capital had mixed findings. Even so, it is evident that the children within the host community had access to education, which is paramount in building good human capital. Access to education is a catalyst for national development. Although majority of the respondents indicated that they have not been trained on their current jobs, it was evident that quite a significant number of the people had access to employment opportunities.

However, after the resettlement, they no longer had access to good education, which was an issue of great concern. Education is one of the ways to guarantee that the younger generation will be equipped with the skills they need to contribute their quota towards national development. Another worrying impact is the lack of employment opportunities. It was stated earlier that, this was a farming community, hence, the skills of the people are related to farming practices and methods. The unavailability of suitable alternative lands could be the reason why the majority of the respondents indicated that, they were unable to utilise their previous skills.

6.5.4.5 *Social capital*

As opined by Scoones (1998), social capital refers to the social relationships, affiliations and associations upon which people draw, when pursuing different Livelihood Strategies requiring coordinated actions. In the view of Li and Hua (2023: 101922), social capital refers to the networks, norms, and trust that enable participants to act together more effectively, to pursue shared objectives. Social capital is distinct from human capital, in that it does not emphasise the necessity for formal education or skills. Rather, it is the shared feelings of social belongingness that enable groups to set up institutions and other networks those members can access (Erfani & Abedin, 2016: 116). Thus, social capital in this context can be referred to as the relationship, values, and attachment that the affected persons have with their environment. In the Ghanaian setting, there is communal living. The strength in the community lies in their ability to interact with their families and friends, as well as their access to their ancestral sites such as cemeteries, and if possible, shrines and lesser gods. Prior to the introduction of the foreign religion, the people in African and Ghana for that matter, had their way of worshipping the Supreme Being through their lesser gods. Furthermore, people have sentimental attachments towards things that give them a bit of closure with their departed relatives.

Prior to the resettlement, the affected persons had access to their cemeteries, shrines, friends, and relatives, whom they could contact for financial assistance. People have freedom of association and worship in Ghana, hence, people should not be denied of things that give them happiness and inner peace. Though there are mixed findings on the social capital, it can be observed in Figure 6.20 that all the respondents had access to their ancestral shrines and cemeteries. This proves the connection and sentimental attachment the people had towards these things.

After the resettlement, the affected persons no longer have access to their cemeteries and lesser gods. The unemployment situation has placed a strain on the ability of the people to access financial assistance from the community. The physical gap among families has been further widened. This is because the affected persons no longer live closely to their relatives. Within the context of social capital, ‘network’ is of paramount interest. Quetulio-Navarra, Niehof, Van Der Vaart, Van der Horst and Mm (2012: 308), emphasise the ‘networks view’, stressing the importance of the vertical and horizontal ties, associations, and relations between people, within and among other entities such as community groups, non-governmental organisations, government agencies and firms. To add to this, the informal network that people have within the community is life-sustaining, as they foster mutual and reciprocal assistance to each other. Therefore, as envisaged by Wang, *et al. (*2021: 369-370), displacement and resettlement disperse and brings about fragmented communities, dismantles patterns of social organisation, and scatters interpersonal ties and kinship groups.

Within the African society, emphasis is placed on the family system (both nuclear and the extended family system). Thus, social support becomes essential especially for the aged. In a study by Ekoh and Chukwuemeka (2023: 6), they emphasised the importance of social support, and its impact on the well-being of the aged, especially elderly women, because of its direct contribution in alleviating stress. Drawing from Kahn and Antonucci's convoy model, they indicate that social networks usually provide support to older adults, especially when are faced with health and other challenges. However, in the event of displacement or resettlement, the widened distance between and among families, does not afford family members, friends, and neighbours, the opportunity to readily provide the much-needed support for these people. This refers to support in terms of cooking, washing, providing emotional assistance, taking care sick relatives, etcetera. This situation puts the aged within the affected community into a state of vulnerability.

Another challenge of this widened gap on the social capital is the inability of the affected community to enforce certain community norms and standards. Social capital within the community and neighbourhood, help to ensure the strict adherence to taboos, belief systems, and for parents to control and discipline their children. Even so, it is successfully utilised only when close relations exist among members of the community. This closure helps to facilitate norms and creates trust, while allowing for

the proliferation of obligations and expectations. In an open community, groups are less likely to punish negative behaviour, because of the absence of mobilising forces, and reduced consensus regarding the set standards. Thus, parents can better define and successfully guide the behaviour of their children through social control. This is because the community provides support and direction for individuals, to conform to such expectations (Sujana, Semadi, Suarningsih, Retnaningrum, Widyatiningtyas & Santika, 2023: 3241-3244).

6.5.5 Research question 6: How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?

SDG 8 seeks to promote sustained economic growth, higher levels of productivity and technological innovation. As envisaged by the United Nations, this can be achieved by encouraging entrepreneurship and job creation with the hope of eradicating forced labour, slavery, and human trafficking. With these targets in mind, the goal is to achieve full and productive employment, and decent work, for all women and men by 2030 (UNDP, 2015).

It has been widely claimed that the mining industry has a role to play in creating employment opportunities within their host communities, and further contributing to the GDP of countries, including Ghana. Contrary to what has been advanced in literature Monteiro, *et al. (*2019: 512-514), the presence of the mining activity in this community has failed to generate employment opportunities. A study by Shubita, Ahmed and Essel-Paintsil, (2023: 199-200) confirmed that, mining activity generates a chain of jobs and income to the industries' surrounding residents. The authors further indicated that, office supplies, personal protection materials, fuel, and other logistics needed for the mining operation, are purchased from local markets within the host community. Various chains of businesses are created because of the presence of a mining industry in any region. They claim this increases the rate of employment to 'meet the new demand.' However, the findings of this study point to the massive unemployment created by the mining company. Evidence from the study indicates that, all forty-two farmers have been rendered jobless because of the non-availability of alternative lands after the resettlement. Five out of eight traders have lost their access to the local market. It has already been established throughout this study that the host community was rural, and the affected persons were predominately agrarians. Thus, their primary

source of livelihood was farming and the sale of their farm produce. The loss of their primary source of income without an alternative employment opportunity, contributed to the economic hardship of the people, and was the reason for litigations. The nature of the mining job is such that, specific skills and educational background are required, which most of the affected persons lack. For this reason, the company will not be in the position to offer them employment opportunities, even in the event of any impending vacancies. How then can Ghana attain SDG 8 by 2030, when a section of the population is rendered jobless by the government's decision to encourage mining sector activities, without strict policies on employment opportunities?

Pertaining to SDG 12 on responsible consumption and production, it has however been established that in communities where mining is undertaken, especially where rivers exist, the community members also engage in fishing as a source of livelihood. In most situations, the land as well as water bodies are given to the mining companies as concessions. These water bodies do not only serve as a source of drinking water, but as a natural habitat for aquatic life. The chemicals used in mining which are subsequently deposited in these water bodies, contribute to water pollution, which in turn, affects the quality of water. It has also been established that the community no longer has access to natural capital such as fertile lands, water bodies, and medicinal plants. This community however has access to potable drinking water, which was produced available after the resettlement. Considering the above discussions, it cannot be concluded that the mining company is making efforts to conduct its mining activities in a responsible manner, since their activities have negative implications on the natural capital.

6.6 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This section presents a discussion of the findings and analysis of section 6.5. The first section of the discussion centres on the findings and analysis, related to the second objective of the study. The section discusses the expectations of the affected persons, prior to and after the resettlement. The third part of this section focuses on the implication of the resettlement on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons. The last section focuses on the discussion on the contribution of the mining resettlement programmes on the attainment of SDG 8 and 12.

6.6.1 Extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana

Public Policies are implemented by the government to respond to public problems. These policies are there to ensure the well-being of citizens, and to protect them from arbitrary exploitation. The aim is to guarantee that citizens are treated with respect in all situations, and to also guide how businesses carry out their activities.

In Chapter 2 above, a working definition of public administration was given as the process in which state officials use their appropriate control of legitimate authority to formulate, execute and evaluate public programmes, policies, and actions in a professional manner, towards improving the welfare of the citizenry. Thus, it is the goal of a good public administration system to ensure that feasible and realistic policies are formulated and implemented in a practical manner, which encourages participation, political development, and good international relations. This is highlighted in the definition of a good public administration system by Goel (2003:16).

In this study, it has been established that the government of Ghana had enacted several legislations with the aim of protecting the affected persons against arbitrary losses and poverty. However, the findings suggest that people from the community under investigation, have been further impoverished by the resettlement processes, even though the mining company adhered to the laws.

As opined by Chakrabarty and Bhattacharya (2007), public administration has been expanded to include any administration that has considerable impact on the public. Public administration is not only concerned with the formulation and implementation of public policies. It also entails the structures, processes, and the interactions between government and private entities, towards enhancing the welfare of the public, through the provision of goods and services.

Furthermore, public administration is founded on the guiding principles of values. This is extensively discussed in Chapter 2. A society's "public values" are those providing normative consensus about (a) the rights, benefits, and prerogatives, to which citizens should (and should not) be entitled; (b) the obligations of citizens to society, the state, and one another; and (c) the principles on which governments and policies should be based (Voorn, 2023: 1501). As a result, public value depends on citizens' preference,

and it is created when public managers deliver actual service, achieve social outcomes, and maintain trust and legitimacy of the agency (Conteh, Greitens, Jesuit & Roberge, 2014: 79)

In contrast, public value is destroyed when the wrong decisions are made about the needs to be satisfied, the strategies to satisfy the selected needs, and the processes to produce and deliver services (Spano, 2009: 336). The understanding of how societal values influence public problems, and the resolving of conflicts, is a central feature and activity of the field of public administration. To address public problems of this nature, government needs a clear plan of action. This plan of action, which outlines what government will decide 'to do' or 'not to do', is termed as public policy. Public policy is therefore the process of determining the best means of linking public values, in specific action context to the public interest (Voorn, 2023: 1504).

Is there a weakness in the laws? Was there a lapse in the formulation and implementation stages of the various policies? Why is the law failing to protect these people? These are legitimate questions to seek answers to. From the findings above, it is very clear that the affected persons lack the capacity to make negotiations and set high standards for themselves. Issues of the affected persons are not even brought up for discussion. Why does the government relegate such critical decisions that border on the long-term survival to the people, who might not have the capacity to table such motions?

Thus, one can imply that problems associated with mining sector resettlement have been made possible by the same laws which purport to protect the citizens. Hence, highlighting a lapse in the public administration system in Ghana thereby, creating public problems such as landlessness, distortion in formal education, unemployment, and social disarticulation, as indicated in the works of scholars such as Adam, *et al. (*2015: 584); Abuya (2013:14-16), Terminski (2018: 44); Hilson, Yakovleva and Banchirigah (2007: 416). Thus, to a large extent, the government's laws, impact the mining sector resettlement programmes. Nonetheless, the law does not set high standards for the affected persons.

6.6.2 Expectations before and after the resettlement

Negotiations as defined by Fells (2010: 3), is a process where two or more parties with differences which need to be resolved, are trying to reach an agreement through exploring options and exchanging offers. In simple terms, negotiation is a process where individuals, usually acting in institutions on behalf of others, make and respond to claims, arguments, and proposals, with the aim of reaching mutually acceptable binding agreements (Sun & Theussen, 2023: 228).

The art of negotiation is a skill which requires specific skills. These are the distributive, integrative and adaptable skills. The distributive negotiation skillset has a win-lose focus. It emphasises negotiators' own benefits and utmost short-term negotiation outcomes, without much concern for other parties in the negotiations. The integrative negotiation skillset on one hand, aims to solve problems in the negotiations, so negotiators are more involved in information exchange, and interest discussions, and target mutual gains for both parties. The adaptable negotiation skillset on the other hand reflects the growth of negotiators, who learn over time, which negotiation skillset is effective in specific contexts, and adjust their negotiation skills to obtain optimal negotiation outcomes (Sun & Theussen, 2023: 232-234).

Juxtaposing the skillset required for effective negotiations vis-à-vis the educational background of the respondent, the affected persons lacked the capacity to undertake an effective negotiation with a multinational company. From the findings, these people expected money and housing facilities, without seeking for alternative lands, or even other employment opportunities. They were not strategic about their needs, neither did they anticipate the economic, social, and cultural implications of their choices on their livelihood resources. This finding supports the assertion regarding the importance of education, on effective negotiation.

Mining resettlement induced displacement and resettlement, have the potential of causing long-term losses. For this reason, there is a need for a strategic plan in mitigating these losses. From the findings, it is evident that the affected persons were unable to identify how the resettlement would change their lives, render them jobless, distort formation and education, contribute to the loss of their natural capital, and create social marginalisation. Should they have known, they would not have requested for only money and housing facilities. For these reasons, there is a need for a good

public administration structure, to help streamline their expectations for the greater benefit, as confirmed by Sun and Theussen (2023: 228).

For instance, before government decides to give out a mining concession, the Minerals Commission, Environmental Protection Agency, Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, and the Ministry of Science, Environment, Technology, and Innovation, must undertake a comprehensive needs assessment of the community. The Ministry of Chieftaincy and Local Government as well as the traditional and community leaders, must undertake an extensive consultancy, to have a better understanding regarding the values that the affected persons ascribed to the said land. Thirdly, the consent of the community should be sought even before the government decides to grant the right to resources underneath the land. Also, the National Commission for Civic Education needs to undertake a sensitisation programme to explain to the affected persons their rights and obligations, in implementing the various policies, which govern compensation and resettlement. This will help the affected persons to have a fair idea of what is expected of them before the negotiations. Finally, even before the negotiation process, the public policies should be amended to insist on the inclusion of an alternative livelihood opportunities, a well-planned community with amenities such as recreational centres, community markets, recreational centres, and schools. From the findings, the affected persons expected money and buildings without due consideration of other aspects of their livelihoods.

It has also been highlighted in the previous chapters that the laws made provision for the implementation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes. These programmes are to ensure that the people can cope with the economic shocks that the resettlement may impose on them. These people cannot be entirely blamed for their inability to set high standards for themselves. There is a possibility that they might be ignorant of the laws and their provisions. From Figure 6.3 above, 56% of the respondents have primary education, 26% have secondary education, 17% have no education, and only 1% of the respondents had tertiary education.

From the educational background of the respondents, it is evident that they lack the capacity for strategic negotiations with large multinational companies, pertaining to their livelihoods. Perhaps they were excited about the possibility of having modern housing facilities, and huge sums of money, without critically identifying the

sustainability of such initiatives. Though the mining company fulfilled their request by providing them with money and building, there are still litigation issues.

Terminski (2013: 7) indicated that European countries such as Germany, Serbia, and Poland, also face mining sector resettlement programmes. The high standards of rights-protection institutions and the responsiveness of businesses to public opinions, hold back such negative practices there. It is the duty of institutions such as Minerals Commission, Ministry of Environment, Science, and Technology, Local Government Administration, and other civil society groups, to ensure that the affected persons do not become worse.

The IRR model as discussed in section 3.6.2, emphasises the need for government to deconstruct the process of resettlement, and reconstruct into a set of definable risks-reversal activities, during the planning phase of resettlement activities as indicated by Cernea (1998: 1573). This will help prevent issues such as landlessness, joblessness, and other negative impacts of the MIDR. The affected persons will be provided with the needed information, to better manage their expectations and set higher standards for themselves. Instead of relying solely on housing and cash compensation, which more often than not, creates further long-term losses. These observations do not differ from the targets set out in the SDG 8 and 12. As presented in section 6.5.4 above, it is clear that, the respondent had lost their primary source of livelihood, which is farming.

Again, they have lost access to their fertile lands, medicinal plants, water bodies, and among other natural capital. These findings will obviously impact negatively on the quest to attain the goal on decent employment, as well as responsible consumption and production. It is in this regard that issues of education, strategic planning, policy alignment, and risk prevention, become necessary. To mitigate the risk of landlessness, unemployment, and loss of other natural capital, it will be necessary for a review of the legislative framework discussed in Chapter 4. The review should include the deliberate insistence on Alternative Livelihood Programmes, even before the concession is given out.

Also, to prevent the risk of further losses on the natural capital, the water bodies (rivers, lakes, lagoons) should not be included in the mining concessions. Water bodies serve as a habitant for aquatic life. Additionally, fishing is undertaken in these water bodies,

as an employment activity. The use of heavy chemicals for mining, makes these water bodies unsafe to support both human and aquatic animals. Thus, the loss of these natural resources, defeat the purpose of the goal on responsible consumption and production.

Furthermore, education is a catalyst for national development. Access to education empowers people and provides them with the opportunity of attaining their full potential. From the findings, the mining company is unable to provide the affected persons with employment opportunities within the community, even if there is a vacancy. This is because of the low levels of the educational background of these respondents. Sadly, the resettlement has also denied access to education to the children who have attained school-going age. This situation if not checked, will also deny these children, the prospect of acquiring the required skills and knowledge, for their future careers.

These challenges can be identified as emanating from the policies governing compensation and resettlement in Ghana. From the review of the above policies governing resettlement and compensation, the payment of compensation (land and cash compensation), resettlement provisions and the provision of ALPs are observed to be the focus. It is the expectation of the government that, the affected persons will be provided cash compensation, resettled in appropriate housing structures, and if possible, provided with Alternative Livelihood Programmes. It is observed that, whereas the 1992 Constitution advocates for both monetary compensation and resettlement packages, the Minerals and Mining Act (2006) Act 706 treats both as options. This option is a clear violation of the provision in section 20 (2) and (3) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, which is likely to further impoverish the affected persons. Thus, it is imperative to align these legislative frameworks with the needs of the people. Addressing the above-mentioned challenges, will have positive impacts on the attainment of the SDGs 8 and 12.

6.6.3 Implications of the Mine resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members

It has been established throughout the preceding chapters of this study that; people have resources they depend on for their survival. These are the livelihood resources.

These resources afford people access to opportunities and provide meanings to their lives, through their interaction and independence of people and things around them.

From the findings, this community under investigation has seen significant losses with regard to their economic or financial capital. The lack of employment opportunities coupled with the unavailability of suitable alternative lands, have further aggravated the plights of these people. Considering the age range of the respondents, majority of them fall between the ages of 26 to 45 years. It is within this age bracket that people usually take critical decisions concerning their career path, career growth, and family life (planning to marry, raising their own families, or other family commitments). Being unemployed with limited employment opportunities at this stage can pose severe stress on the affected persons, which may impact their mental and emotional well-being.

A few of the respondents who were between the ages of 46 years and above, are expected to have established themselves in their various career paths, planning towards their retirement, and taking care of their families. Losing one's source of economic livelihood at this stage, can place significant pressure and stress, not just on the affected person, but on their dependants.

Furthermore, the gender composition of the respondents, also suggests that 59% of the respondents are male with 41% being female. Though in the African setting, men are usually perceived as the head of the family and thus, the breadwinner. Both genders play a significant role in supporting their families. Thus, the negative implication of being unemployed and having limited access to employment opportunities, equally affects both genders.

Issues of unemployment pose challenges to any government, and it is expected that, government undertakes initiatives and enacts appropriate policies to create an enabling environment for citizens to find employment opportunities. It is however unfortunate that, in the quest of the government of Ghana`s aim to increase the country`s direct foreign investment and partnership through mining, a segment of the population who are mandated by a section of the constitution to part ways with their lands, are rendered unemployed. Being unemployed means these people have no means of income to support their daily activities. The effects will be their inability to

save and to honour their obligations and commitment to themselves, as well as their dependants. This is very typical in the Ghanaian family setting.

Another aspect of the livelihood assets of the affected persons that have been greatly impacted, is the natural capital. From the findings, the resettlement of this community has led to a negative implication on their access to fertile land, medicinal plants, grazing lands, and water bodies. Within the rural Ghanaian setting, the indigenous people rely on various herbs for the treatment of illness such as malaria, cold, cough, and other skin diseases. The knowledge about the use of these medicinal plants is usually passed down from the previous generation. Hence, it can be seen to have some cultural and ancestral significance to the people. More often than not, these herbs can be readily accessed from their backyards or farms. However, because of the resettlement, these people have been denied access. Thus, resulting in the disregard for some aspects of their cultural heritage.

Also, prior to the use of pipe water (tap), the people within rural Ghana depended on water bodies such as rivers and lakes, for their daily activities such as drinking, cooking, and washing. Aside these basic uses of water, there is a belief that such water bodies are a home to some spiritual beings, and hence, have some supernatural powers. Although, the presence of Western missionaries introduced other religions, the belief that others have in the African Traditional Religion, and their belief in lesser gods or other spiritual beings in water bodies, cannot be overlooked. The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana permits the freedom of association and worship. For this reason, government´s decision to stimulate development through mining should not be a reason for denying others of their right to basic things, such as water bodies and lands, which they depend on for comfort.

With regard to physical and infrastructural capital, the findings indicate that the affected persons (APs) have seen a significant improvement. For instance, because of the resettlement, the APs have access to better housing facilities, electricity, potable drinking water, and good roads. As mandated by the laws of Ghana, the mining company cannot replace thatch houses (which is the typical housing facility in rural communities in Ghana) with another thatch house. The law requires the company to construct modern housing facilities for the people. Thus, it is safe to infer that, it might be possible that a number of those affected may not be in the position to afford to

construct such housing facility for themselves. Again, it is said that water is life. Thus, drinking polluted water can expose people to water borne diseases such as cholera, diarrhoea, and dysentery. Other diseases caused by contaminated water according to the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention are campylobacteriosis, norovirus, leptospirosis, among others. All these diseases can be life threatening. The provision of potable drinking water by the mining company can be seen as a positive initiative.

Additionally, the people have benefited from good roads. It is however the responsibility of Government to ensure that its citizens have access to amenities such as good roads, water, recreational facilities, and among other facilities, needed to make the lives of the citizens comfortable. It is the responsibility of a good public administration system, to ensure that government provides facilities that are beneficial to the citizens, whose taxes are expected to be used for developmental projects.

It is also worthy to note that the people had no access to places of worship and recreational centres after the resettlement. Ghana is identified as a religious country. According to the 2021 government census, approximately 71% of the population are Christians, 20% are Muslims, 3% adhere to indigenous or animistic religious beliefs, with 6% belonging to other or having no religious belief (International Religious Freedom, 2022). This statistic proves how important places of worship are, to the people of Ghana, and to the affected persons for that matter.

The human capital of the people has also been significantly impacted by the resettlement activity. A worrying discovery was with respect to the access to education. Education is vital towards ensuring that the future of the country is secured. Access to education provides people with the necessary tools they need to contribute their quota towards the development of the country. Access to education is expected to expose people to better employment opportunities, secure a better future, reduce poverty, and serve as a form of protection against gender-based violence. It is however disturbing to note that, the children within this community were denied access to education after the resettlement. Communities where children have limited access to education are likely to record higher crime rates, teenage pregnancies, prostitution, drug, and substance abuse. This will deny the youth the opportunity of becoming responsible adults in future and contributing meaningfully towards the development of the community by way of pursuing decent employment opportunities. It is therefore

pertinent for the Ministry of Education to work with the mining company, in providing a school for the community. Nonetheless, these findings support the assertion that, MIDR creates a distortion in formal education.

The SDG 4 talks about quality education. The lack of access to education within the affected community, will negatively impact the efforts being initiated by the Ministry of Education, towards the attainment of this goal. The goal 4 seeks to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promotes lifelong learning opportunities for all. With the distortion in the access to formal education, the children within this community are deprived of the opportunity to gain the requisite knowledge, required for them to take control of their future. They are likely to have limited opportunities, regarding self-improvement and securing better-paid jobs. Finally, this situation will hinder Ghana's progress in ensuring access to education. Thereby, thwarting the efforts towards the attainment of this goal by 2030. It is therefore imperative for the government and other governmental organisations, to ensure that the future of the country is not compromised.

The social capital of the people has also been negatively impacted after the resettlement. The affected people have been denied access to their ancestral shrines, lesser gods, and cemeteries. These are things that people have sentimental attachments with. According to Miller (2024), burial grounds are inseparable from the human environment. This aspect of mortality has compelled human societies to learn to cope with the death of a loved one. From the African Traditional Religious viewpoint, cemeteries are not merely burial spaces, but they are highly revered spiritual sanctuaries, where the deceased experiences a transmutation into the domain of after-life, which are then referred to as ancestors (Mhlongo, 2017). From this perspective, conventional ways of burial are the only dignified send-offs of a loved one, as they have been traditionally practiced by their ancestors. For this reason, people have an emotional and personal attachment to where their loved ones are laid to rest. These sites serve as a reminder of the existence of past relatives, and other ancestors, who may have played significant roles in the community.

It is also important to note that in Gold Coast (now Ghana), death did not mean the termination of life. Depending on whether one had a "good death" (they died of a natural cause) or a 'bad death' (a supernatural cause), one was eligible to become an

ancestor. Ancestors were those who had lived a good life and who had died a good death; they therefore had the power to enter the spiritual world and protect their descendants from harm. For this reason, Gold Coast communities lived in active and dynamic relationships with their ancestors, which involved regular offerings, dialogues, and celebrations. This practice is still existent presently, and deeply rooted in the Ghanaian culture. It further explains the importance that the affected persons placed on the burial sites. Though, preserving these burial sites may serve as 'negative heritage', as it reminds the people of their pain and tragic loss of their loved ones. However, it is also a way of keeping them closer, and an opportunity to share their last moments with the present and future generation. Hence, it also serves as a 'positive heritage' (Balakrishnan, 2022: 90).

Also, the ancestral shrines provide a space for diverse spiritual activities, a repository of folk wisdom and a place of worship. It is also a place where people go to seek for spiritual guidance, support, and solutions to community problems from the gods. Another significant function of the ancestral shrine, is to serve as a place for rewarding, punishing, and educating the clansmen (Balakrishnan, 2022: 92).

The above-mentioned points, provide evidence as to why the lack of access to these sites has placed significant emotional stress on the people. They have been presented with "double losses". First, the pain of losing their relatives, and secondly, the pain of being unable to identify their place of burial or a space to communicate with these ancestors. It is these same sentiments that people attach to their ancestral shrines and lesser gods.

Family is one of the oldest and important social institutions in the world. Traditionally, Africans tend to revere and arrange their lives around the extended family line, whose membership include spouses and their children together, with other relations of common descent such as grandparents, uncles, aunties, nephews, nieces, and cousins. Social change in modern times, has however caused great transformation in every area of society, without sparing the family. The nurturing a family gives to a child, plays a significant role in the life of the child, and imparts to him or her, the first lesson in social responsibility and self-discipline. It is unarguably the backbone of social structure (Mondal, 2016). Therefore, it is safe to infer that, the resettlement has

created a distance within the family system, by resettling people further away from their relatives.

6.6.4 Contribution of mining resettlement and compensation programmes towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12

The mining industry is a significant contribution towards the development of any country. As indicated by Shubita, *et al. (*2023: 201) and Monteiro, *et al. (*2019: 514) mining activities create a chain of jobs and income for the industries' surrounding residents. The authors further indicated that office supplies, personal protection materials, fuel and any other logistics needed for the mining operation are purchased from local markets within the host community. Thereby increasing employment to meet the demand. Nonetheless, in the case of farming communities where the affected persons are required to part ways with their farmlands for mining activities, this assertion may not be entirely true. In resettling this community, no provision was made for employment opportunities. There was neither an alternative income generating activity, nor were the people employed directly by the mining company. Thus, during the resettlement the company could have identified the creation of a chain of job and income generating activities for the community members to have some source of income. This could have been done through artisan training to facilitate the acquisition of skills, such as bead and soap making, painting, technician, mechanic, et cetera. This will lead to the benefit of the affected community, and subsequently impact the attainment of SDG 8 on decent employment.

The findings in Chapter 6 support the argument advanced in Chapter 2 regarding the unemployment situation created because of MIDR in the host community. It is further worrying to note that, in this community, there were no alternative livelihoods programmes. Hence, it is unclear how the sector is expected to contribute to full employment by 2030. The mining activities might be creating employment for a section of the population, whereas immediate members of the community that made the mining activity possible are rendered unemployed. Thus, the findings of this study do not entirely support the contribution of the mining sector, towards the attainment of SDG 8 on decent work and economic growth.

With regards to SDG 12 on responsible consumption and production, it has been established in this study that in communities where mining is undertaken, especially where rivers exist, the community members also engage in fishing as a source of livelihood. In most situations, the land and water bodies, are given to the mining companies as concessions. These water bodies do not only serve as source of drinking water, but as a natural habitat for aquatic lives. The chemicals used in mining which are subsequently deposited in these water bodies contribute to water pollution, which in turn affects the quality of water. Aside the domestic use of water bodies (cooking, washing, irrigational purposes), they have spiritual importance especially to people within the rural areas of Ghana. A study by Sarfo-Mensah and Oduro (2007) indicates that, rivers are great gods, and of all the intermediary gods between man and the Sky God, river-gods are considered the most important. Hence, there are local rules and regulations enshrined in the cultural beliefs which are enforced through taboos. These taboos are the traditional ways of managing and preserving the waterbodies.

Therefore, the pollution and subsequent loss of access to these water bodies' impacts undesirably on the culture of the affected persons. With the issues of climate change and global warming, it is imperative for the mining sector to establish protocols, which will enable them to reduce their ecological footprint, and to protect the environment. The ecological footprint calculation according to Shut'ko, Samorodova and Ivanov (2020: 04058), allows for determining whether the economy of a region matches the capacity of its natural ecosystems - the "ecological capacity of a territory". In simple terms, ecological footprint measures the quantum of stress that is placed on the natural resources within the environment by humans. The resulting environmental impacts include, but are not limited to, climate change, land degradation, loss of biodiversity, and pollution (Rudolph & Figge, 2017: 349). In 2011, Finland developed a green mining concept which was based on five pillars. These are: the promotion of materials and energy efficiency, ensuring availability of mineral resources for future needs, mining adverse environmental and social impact, improving work and organisational practices, and ensuring sustainable land after the closure of mining operation.

The purpose of these new solutions is to allow the recovery of all useful minerals and by-products, and to minimise the amount of waste (Nurmi, 2017: 60). To reduce the

impact of mining on the environment towards the attainment of SDG 12, the following protocols can be observed. First, mining companies can explore the use of new low-impact mining techniques such as ‘in situ leaching’, which is also known as a solution mining. According to the World Nuclear Association (2020), this process involves leaving the ore where it is in the ground, and recovering the minerals from it by dissolving them and pumping the pregnant solution to the surface where the minerals can be recovered. This is done instead of the conventional mining process of removing mineralised rock (ore) from the ground, breaking it up and treating it to remove the minerals being sought.

Again, mining waste should be reused. Mining wastes are solid and liquid materials coming from mining and ore processing, which are undesired and do not represent current economic resources (Lottermoser & Lottermoser, 2010: 44). It is necessary to make a distinction between the two different types of mining wastes - tailings and mining rocks. Tailings are the crushed rocks deriving from the removal of the economic metals, minerals, mineral fuels, or coal from the mined resource, while waste rocks are the rocks that lie above and on the base of the ore body, which are displaced during mining without being processed (Capasso, Lirer, Flora, Ferone, Cioffi, Caputo & Liguori, 2019: 66-67). This waste can be use in backfilling voids and reconstructing mined terrains, in a way that prevents soil erosion.

Another protocol is the reclamation of land, after the closure of mining activities. Feng Wang, Bai and Reading (2019:18-19) indicate that, continuous mining processes destroy vegetation and soil systems, and reduces soil productivity and fertility. Therefore, the purpose of the reclamation process is to restore nutritional properties of soil, using different reclamation methods. The above-mentioned protocols will help reduce the ecological footprint of the mining company, and further help attain the targets of SDG 12.

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter analysed and discussed the findings of the study in relation to its research questions. The chapter began with an introduction that recapped the research questions to streamline the analysis and discussion.

The data collected was presented in two parts. The first part covered information obtained through survey questionnaires from individuals affected by the resettlement, including demographic details such as age, gender, educational background, and occupation before and after resettlement. It also included information about whether the affected persons were informed prior to the resettlement, how this information was conveyed, and whether they were compensated. Additionally, the study explored the expectations of the affected persons, what was offered to them, and issues related to alternative livelihood programmes (ALPs). Information about the livelihood assets of the affected persons before and after the resettlement was also presented.

The second part presented data collected through interviews with a mining company official. Key themes included adherence to legislation and policies on compensation and resettlement, challenges associated with the resettlement process, and the contribution of resettlement to achieving sustainable development goals (SDGs).

The findings were then analysed in alignment with the study's objectives. The analysis revealed that while the mining company adhered to existing legislation on compensation and resettlement, the regulations were vague on critical issues necessary for protecting affected persons. Additionally, while all affected persons were compensated and their expectations of housing and cash compensation were met, the resettlement had mixed implications for their livelihood dynamics. While there were benefits in terms of infrastructural capital, economic, social, natural, and human capital were negatively impacted.

The study also examined the contribution of mining resettlement programmes to the attainment of specific SDGs. It was found that the unemployment caused by the resettlement presented limited opportunities, hindering progress toward SDG 8. However, there was insufficient evidence to suggest irresponsible practices by the mining company in relation to SDG 12.

Finally, the chapter concluded by summarising the findings, analysis, and discussions. Based on these, the subsequent chapter proposes recommendations to mitigate the adverse effects of mining-induced resettlement and promote sustainable development.

CHAPTER 7:
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the research is organised into six sections. The first section gives a brief introduction to the chapter. Based on the findings and discussions advanced in Chapter 6, the summary of the major findings is presented in the second section. From the findings, analysis and discussions, section three presents the conclusion to the study. The recommendations are presented in section four. The implication of the research on policy and practice as well as gaps for the research, is presented in the fifth section of this chapter. The sixth section gives the summary and conclusion of the chapter. The seventh objective of the study as indicated in section 1.6.2, seeks to propose recommendations on how to mitigate the effect of MIDR on the affected persons.

The next section presents the summary of the key findings.

7.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

This section presents the summary of key findings based on the analysis and discussions presented in Chapter 6 above. The section commences by confirming that the hypotheses were accepted.

7.2.1 Acceptance of the hypothesis

The study had two hypotheses:

> **Hypothesis 0**: The resettlement of host communities by multinational mining companies does not have any effect on the livelihood resources of the affected persons.
>
> **Hypothesis 1**: The resettlement of host communities by multinational mining companies has an effect on the livelihood resources of the affected persons.

Based on the statistical analysis, the p-value was found to be less than 0.05, indicating a significant difference in livelihood resources before and after resettlement.

Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that resettlement has an effect on livelihood resources.

7.2.2 Adherence to the legislations and policies on compensation and resettlement

The findings indicate that the policies and legislation governing compensation and resettlement, such as the Minerals and Mining (Compensation and Resettlement) Regulation of 2012 (LI 2175), are adhered to by the mining company during resettlement processes. This legislation provides the necessary framework, outlining procedures to ensure that resettlement and compensation are conducted systematically and fairly. Furthermore, internal policy documents complement the legislative framework, ensuring additional guidelines are followed.

The resettlement process begins with a thorough survey of the affected land, during which properties such as houses, crops, and land size are documented. This survey serves as the basis for compensation negotiations, with notices provided to affected individuals through community leaders and public postings. The affected community is informed well in advance about the resettlement process, allowing them to prepare necessary documentation to prove land ownership. This is further reinforced by town hall meetings, or durbars, organised by traditional leaders, where the community is informed of the process and their opinions are sought regarding compensation requirements.

While the mining company makes efforts to include community voices in the negotiations, challenges remain. A significant issue lies in the complexity of land ownership in Ghana, where farmers often do not own the land they cultivate. In such cases, farmers are excluded from receiving land compensation and are instead compensated for their crops. This creates disparities in the compensation process and adds layers of complexity to resettlement decisions.

Negotiations are conducted not with individual landowners but with community-appointed representatives, as stipulated in the legislation. These representatives typically include traditional leaders, assembly members, youth leaders, and chief farmers from the community, alongside representatives from the District Assembly, Town and Country Planning, and occasionally legal representatives appointed by the

mining company. While these stakeholders aim to ensure a fair and inclusive process, the findings highlight underlying weaknesses in the legislation itself.

A major challenge identified is the lack of comprehensive provisions in the existing laws to address long-term livelihood sustainability for affected persons. Although community members participate in the process and have their voices heard, they are often not equipped to make informed decisions about their future livelihoods. This lack of capacity results in a tendency to settle for short-term solutions, such as cash payments and housing, which do not adequately address the socioeconomic impacts of resettlement.

The findings further reveal that the current system fails to safeguard the long-term welfare of the resettled communities, leading to critical issues such as unemployment and disruptions in formal education. The emphasis on immediate compensation rather than sustainable livelihood planning perpetuates vulnerabilities among the affected populations. This raises concerns about the effectiveness of the legislation in ensuring not only compliance with procedural requirements but also the equitable and sustainable development of displaced communities.

7.2.3 Challenges of resettlement

Resettlement is inherently a complex and multifaceted activity that involves balancing the needs and expectations of affected individuals and the operational priorities of the mining company. This complexity is compounded by several interrelated challenges, including the high cost of resettlement, time constraints, issues of misrepresentation, and the complexities of the land ownership system in Ghana. Each of these factors has significantly impacted the resettlement process for the community in question, highlighting the difficulties in ensuring an equitable and timely relocation.

7.2.3.1 *Cost of resettlement*

Resettlement is an expensive process that encompasses a variety of financial obligations. The mining company must identify suitable alternative lands and replace existing farmlands and housing structures. Regardless of the pre-existing condition of these structures, such as mud houses with thatched roofs, they must be replaced with modern cement block buildings that meet acceptable standards. This creates substantial financial strain on the company, as the construction costs of these

structures are high. Additionally, cash compensation is required for affected persons to cover the cost of transportation to their new location and to ease the transition. Furthermore, land and crop compensation, as mandated by LI 2175 and the 1992 Constitution, must also be provided. These financial demands are exacerbated by inflation and fluctuating economic conditions, which increase the cost of resettlement over time.

7.2.3.2 *Time constraints*

Time constraints are another critical challenge in the resettlement process. The mining company faces significant pressure to conclude negotiations and compensation arrangements within a specific timeframe to begin their core operations of mining. However, resettlement is inherently time-consuming, often taking several years to complete. Depending on the complexity of negotiations and the number of affected individuals, the process can last anywhere from less than three years to over five years. The prolonged duration not only delays the company's operations but also inflates the overall cost of resettlement due to rising economic conditions. Despite efforts to expedite the process, the intricate nature of negotiations—particularly when disagreements arise—often results in delays that further complicate the process.

7.2.3.3 *Misrepresentation by unaffected Individuals*

A significant issue encountered during the resettlement process is the misrepresentation by individuals who are not genuinely affected by the exercise. False claims are made by individuals who were not farmers or landowners at the time of the resettlement, complicating the process. These claims create disputes between the company and the claimants, leading to public criticism and allegations of the company cheating affected persons. Resolving these disputes requires additional time and resources, which prolongs negotiations and increases the overall cost of resettlement. Such cases highlight the need for more robust mechanisms to verify claims and ensure that only legitimate stakeholders are included in the process.

7.2.3.4 *Complexities of the land ownership system in Ghana*

The land ownership system in Ghana presents another significant challenge to resettlement. In many cases, the individuals who farm on the land are not the legal owners of the land itself. As a result, landowners are entitled to land compensation, while farmers only receive compensation for crops they have cultivated. This system

creates misunderstandings and tensions, particularly in situations where farmers have prepared the land but have yet to plant any crops. The inequity inherent in this system can leave farmers feeling marginalised and inadequately compensated, further straining relationships between the affected community and the mining company.

7.2.3.5 *Cumulative impact of challenges*

The interplay of these challenges – financial strain, time constraints, false claims, and the complexities of land ownership – has compounded the difficulties of the resettlement process. Misrepresentation by unaffected individuals and the need to conclude arrangements within strict timelines not only delayed the process but also significantly inflated costs. The combined effect of these issues has made resettlement an arduous task for all parties involved, emphasising the need for improved frameworks and strategies to address these challenges comprehensively.

7.2.4 Expectations of the affected person before and after the resettlement

The resettlement of the affected community members appears to have fulfilled their basic expectations, with modern housing facilities and financial compensation provided as part of the settlement process. However, while these expectations were met, significant gaps in the negotiation process and the long-term implications of the resettlement have led to unforeseen consequences for the affected individuals. These include the loss of their primary livelihood—farming—without the provision of viable alternative livelihoods or employment opportunities.

7.2.4.1 *Fulfillment of basic expectations: Housing and financial compensation*

The community members' primary expectation during the resettlement negotiations was the provision of housing facilities and financial compensation. These were indeed met, as the respondents received modern housing, which was seen as a significant improvement from the thatched huts they previously occupied. The housing facilities were considered a "luxury" by the rural communities, as they replaced basic thatch-based homes, providing the affected individuals with modern and more durable housing. Additionally, the mining company provided financial compensation to assist the individuals in adjusting to their new circumstances. This compensation was paid

in installments and was intended to support them in finding new economic activities to sustain themselves and their families.

7.2.4.2 *Absence of alternative livelihoods in negotiations*

While the immediate needs of the community were addressed through housing and financial compensation, the absence of a focus on alternative livelihoods during the negotiations has had significant long-term implications. The affected individuals, most of whom were farmers, lost access to their farmlands but were not provided with suitable alternative farmland or employment opportunities. This lack of attention to alternative livelihoods has led to unemployment challenges, as the affected persons are now without their primary source of income. Given that farming was their main livelihood, they were not prepared for the economic hardship resulting from the loss of their land. Without proper guidance or planning for future income generation, many individuals now face a dire situation, having no viable means to support themselves and their families.

7.2.4.3 *Impact of educational background on negotiation effectiveness*

A key factor contributing to the absence of alternative livelihoods in the negotiations is the low educational background of the affected community members. With 56% of respondents having only primary education, 26% having secondary education, and 17% having no education, the community lacked the capacity to engage in strategic negotiations with the multinational mining company. Negotiation, as a complex process requiring the exploration of options and the formulation of proposals, requires certain skills that the community members did not possess. The lack of education limited their ability to foresee the broader implications of their resettlement, including the long-term loss of natural capital (such as fertile land, water bodies, and medicinal plants), the potential joblessness, and the social marginalisation they would face as a result. Had they been more educated or better informed about their rights and the potential outcomes of the resettlement, they might have made different demands, such as ensuring access to alternative livelihoods and land resources.

7.2.4.4 *A need for strategic planning and policy alignment*

The findings emphasise the necessity of a comprehensive, strategic approach to resettlement that includes not only compensation and housing but also alternative livelihood programmes (ALPs) and community development plans. This strategic

planning should involve all relevant stakeholders, including government agencies (e.g., the Minerals Commission, Environmental Protection Agency, Ministry of Lands, and Ministry of Science and Technology), local government authorities, and traditional leaders. Before any mining concession is granted, a detailed needs assessment should be conducted to understand the community's values, priorities, and needs. Additionally, the affected persons should be sensitised about their rights and obligations, with clear expectations set in advance. Incorporating ALPs into the resettlement process is vital, as these programs would provide the community with opportunities to rebuild their economic stability, whether through new employment options, access to vocational training, or the provision of alternative farming land.

7.2.4.5 *Legal and policy gaps in resettlement and compensation*

The review of existing policies indicates that there are significant gaps in the legislative frameworks governing resettlement and compensation. The 1992 Constitution of Ghana mandates both land and cash compensation, while the Minerals and Mining Act of 2006 treats these as optional, which could further impoverish the affected individuals. It is crucial to align these legal provisions with the community's needs, ensuring that both compensation and resettlement packages are comprehensive and incorporate measures for long-term economic sustainability. Furthermore, the absence of legal insistence on ALPs and community development plans leads to an incomplete approach to resettlement, one that overlooks the broader socio-economic consequences of mining-induced displacement. A review of the legislative framework to insist on ALPs and more robust community development initiatives would greatly improve the long-term outcomes for affected individuals and communities.

7.2.4.6 *Negative impacts on natural capital and long-term livelihoods*

In addition to the loss of their farmlands, the affected individuals have also lost access to other vital resources, such as water bodies, medicinal plants, and fertile land, which are crucial for their livelihood. The mining operations often render these resources unsafe, especially water bodies that are contaminated by chemicals used in mining. This loss of natural capital further exacerbates the economic challenges faced by the resettled community. This situation, combined with the lack of alternative livelihood opportunities, negatively impacts the community's ability to maintain sustainable livelihoods and contributes to social marginalisation. These challenges directly conflict

with global goals such as SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) and SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production), which call for economic opportunities that promote responsible and sustainable resource use.

7.2.4.7 *The role of education in mitigating resettlement challenges*

Education plays a critical role in enabling individuals to negotiate effectively and make informed decisions. Unfortunately, the community members' low levels of education have significantly hindered their ability to set high standards for themselves and advocate for more comprehensive resettlement packages. Additionally, the lack of educational opportunities for their children, due to resettlement, risks perpetuating a cycle of poverty and limited career prospects. It is essential to address this gap in education through policies that not only provide housing and compensation but also ensure access to quality education and skills development for both the affected individuals and their children.

7.2.5 Implication of the resettlement on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons

The statistical analysis of the before and after mean scores regarding the livelihood resources indicates that the resettlement has had a profound and multifaceted impact on the lives of the affected individuals. In particular, the loss of economic opportunities due to massive unemployment has significantly diminished their financial capital. Prior to the resettlement, the community had access to various livelihood resources that allowed for economic independence, including employment, the ability to generate income, and savings for emergencies like hospital bills, school fees, and funerals. However, following the resettlement, the lack of alternative employment opportunities has rendered these individuals unemployed, creating severe financial instability. This not only impacts their ability to save money but also hampers their capacity to manage unexpected expenses, deepening their economic vulnerability.

The loss of access to natural capital has further compounded the hardships faced by the community. Prior to the resettlement, people relied heavily on natural resources such as medicinal plants, grazing lands, and water bodies for their daily needs. These resources, deeply embedded in their cultural practices and traditions, provided not only sustenance but also cultural and spiritual connections. The resettlement has

deprived them of these crucial resources, severing their connection to traditional healing practices, food sources, and spiritual sites. The destruction of these environmental assets has far-reaching implications on the community's health, well-being, and cultural identity.

Moreover, the resettlement has taken a toll on the human and social capital of the affected individuals. One of the most disturbing findings is the lack of access to education following the resettlement. Education is a critical tool for ensuring long-term economic stability, reducing poverty, and providing young people with opportunities for a better future. The absence of educational facilities means that children in the community are being deprived of the necessary skills to improve their lives and contribute to society. This situation is detrimental to their future prospects and undermines Ghana's efforts towards the achievement of SDG 4, which aims to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education.

The resettlement has also disrupted the community's social fabric. The loss of access to cemeteries and ancestral shrines, which hold deep cultural and spiritual significance, has caused immense emotional distress. These sites are integral to the community's understanding of mortality, spirituality, and their connection to ancestors. The inability to honor their deceased loved ones and engage in spiritual practices has created a sense of loss and emotional disconnection. Additionally, the resettlement has resulted in the physical displacement of families, making it harder for individuals to maintain close relationships with extended family members, further straining the social cohesion within the community.

However, there are positive outcomes related to the resettlement that have had a direct impact on the infrastructure and quality of life of the affected persons. Access to improved housing facilities, electricity, potable water, and good roads represents a significant improvement in their living conditions. These infrastructural developments have the potential to positively impact health outcomes and the overall quality of life. For example, the provision of better housing can reduce the risks associated with poor living conditions, such as respiratory illnesses, injuries, and mental health issues linked to inadequate shelter. Improved road networks not only enhance mobility but also facilitate access to essential services, including markets, hospitals, and other public facilities, which were previously difficult to reach.

While the resettlement has undeniably improved certain aspects of infrastructure, the negative impact on livelihood resources, particularly economic, natural, human, and social capital, remains substantial. These findings highlight the importance of a more comprehensive approach to resettlement, one that includes not only infrastructural improvements but also targeted interventions to restore and enhance the livelihoods of those affected, ensuring that their cultural, social, and economic needs are met. Public administration efforts must be strengthened to address the long-term consequences of resettlement, particularly in the areas of employment, education, and access to cultural and natural resources. The provision of essential services like education, healthcare, and religious/spiritual spaces should be prioritised to ensure the well-being and sustainable development of affected communities.

7.2.6 Mining resettlement programmes and SDG 8 and 12

Although the mining company undertake some initiatives such as supporting local employment and procurement initiative, findings suggest that this community is yet to benefit from any employment opportunities after the resettlement. From the findings in Chapter 6 above, all forty-two (42) farmers are unemployed due to the unavailability of alternative farmlands. Again, one (1) respondent still operates a drinking spot, the other is a technical operator and three (3) out of the eight (8) traders still have access to their trading activities. None of the respondents indicated their involvement in any employment initiatives by the mining company. The unemployment created by the resettlement activities defeat the purpose of SDG 8. This goal seeks to address unemployment challenges by 2030. Thus, for the mining sector to contribute effectively towards this goal, its resettlement programmes must incorporate a skill acquisition programme for the affected persons. In this case, the need for Alternative Livelihood Programmes become paramount. Should these issues remain unsolved, then the contribution of the mining resettlement of the attainment of SDG 8 will be hindered. Furthermore, mining activities have diverse consequences on the natural environment. These activities contribute to environmental issues such as land degradation, water pollution, depletion of forest reserves, among other environmental issues. These in turn increase the ecological footprints of the company. This is because, mining activities require rural lands and forests for their construction. This leads to deforestation, which affects wildlife and humans. The mining activities

generate a lot of waste, as well as the use of hazardous chemical, which are disposed into water bodies. This makes these water sources unsafe for human consumption and aquatic life. Aside the environmental challenges, these activities also impact on certain aspects of the culture of the affected persons. Thus, to ensure that the SDG 12 is attained, the company must take steps to adopt effective environmental policies such as reuse of mining waste, land reclamation and other modern mining techniques. It is also imperative to note that the development goals are unique, and they call for action by all countries; poor, rich, and middle-income, to promote prosperity while protecting the planet. They recognise that ending poverty must go together with strategies that build economic growth and address a range of social needs including education, health, social protection, and job opportunities, while tackling climate change and environmental protection. The Government of Ghana needs to reconsider the laws governing mining resettlement programmes. The laws must insist on the introduction of Alternative Livelihood Programmes. The institutions with oversight responsibility within the mining industry, the mining company, and the community leaders, should agree on these programmes before the government gives the land as concession to the mining company. Aside the adoption of these programmes, there should be a plan on how these programmes will be implemented, the trainers or facilitators who will train the participants, and how these programmes will be monitored. Furthermore, the laws should emphasise a sustainable compensation package, that is, the company should not pay a one-time lump sum to the affected persons. However, these monies should be placed in an investment and managed by a private investment fund like the second and third tier arrangement of the National Pension Scheme. Thus, the affected persons will be paid smaller portions of their monies on monthly basis. This is to ensure that the affected people have an employment opportunity, and a means of economic support after the resettlement. Consequently, it will ensure that the sector is contributing its quota towards reducing unemployment to guarantee the attainment of SDG 8 by 2030.

7.3 FRAMEWORK FOR ADDRESSING MINING-INDUCED DISPLACEMENT AND RESETTLEMENT IN GHANA

The framework depicted in Figure 7.1 delineates a conceptual approach to addressing impoverishment resulting from Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement (MIDR) initiatives in Ghana. It serves as a basis for formulating recommendations

aimed at mitigating the negative impacts of mining-induced resettlement and fostering sustainable livelihoods. Key research inquiries guiding this framework include an exploration of the implications of mining resettlement programs on community members' livelihood dynamics (Research Question 5), an assessment of how these resettlement and compensation efforts can contribute to achieving Sustainable Development Goals 8 and 12 (Research Question 6), and the formulation of specific recommendations to alleviate adverse effects of mining-induced resettlement in support of Sustainable Development (Research Question 7).

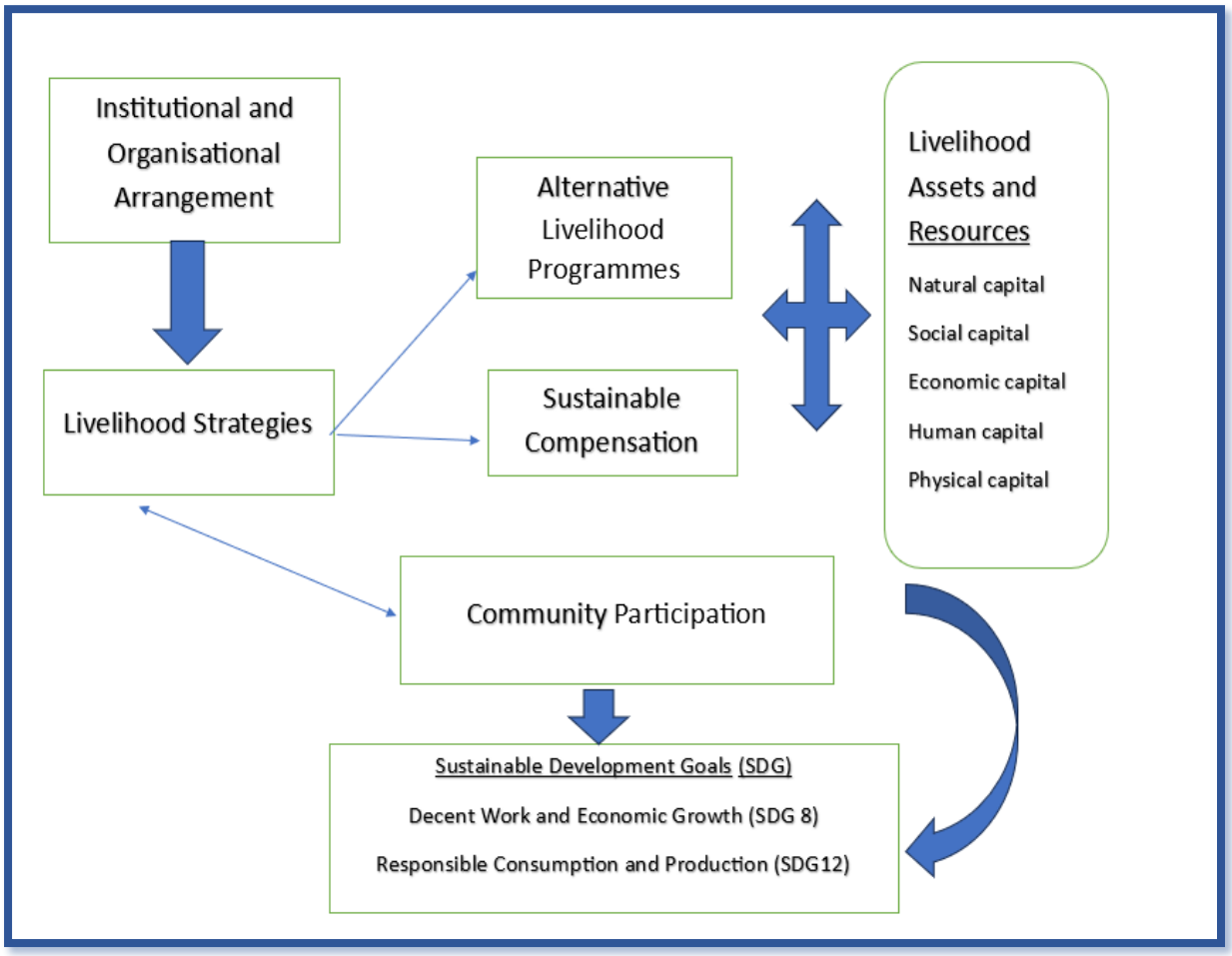


Figure 7.1: Framework for addressing MIDR in Ghana

Source: Author's own construct

This study's conceptual framework is underpinned by the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (Scoones, 1998) and the Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction model

(Cernea, 1998), complemented by the Public Choice Theory. These frameworks have been extensively used in Development-Induced Displacement and Resettlement (DIDR) literature. However, MIDR presents unique challenges, particularly in rural communities in Ghana where affected persons are predominantly agrarians. The loss of land to mining activities limits livelihood strategies, rendering agricultural intensification or extensification unfeasible. The theoretical framework emphasizes the need for community participation in Alternative Livelihood Programmes (ALPs). Although the study's findings do not provide direct evidence to support this assertion due to the lack of ALPs, the rationale remains that community participation is crucial for the success of such initiatives. The absence of ALPs in the community's negotiations, led by community leaders, suggests that community member participation might have led to advocating for livelihood programs.

The study's findings also highlight the dramatic shift in livelihoods post-resettlement, with 94% of respondents becoming unemployed. This suggests that the resettlement process failed to address livelihood restoration, leading to financial instability, food insecurity, and potential social disintegration. The lack of alternative economic opportunities contributed to deepening poverty. The proposed framework, informed by the Sustainable Livelihood Framework, Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction model and the Public Choice Theory, could help address the impoverishment faced by host communities affected by mining-induced activities. By integrating these theoretical perspectives, the framework provides a comprehensive approach to understanding the complex relationships between mining-induced resettlement, livelihood dynamics, and sustainable development.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS

The research draws several conclusions from its findings:

Firstly, mining is one of the sectors that provide the Ghanaian economy with foreign direct investment. This sector places a significant role in supporting government budget and further creating employment. Mining and farming requires the same resource which is land. Hence, to promote mining activities, lands will be needed. Furthermore, the mining activities are undertaken in rural areas where the people are mostly agrarian, hence, their farmlands are needed to enable the mining activities to take place. To protect the said community and the people whose lands may be

affected, the government has enacted several legislations. However, based on the findings and discussions, this study concludes that the legislations do not provide enough support for the affected persons. Although the mining company adhered to the policies, it appeared the people did not have the capacity to negotiate with a multinational mining company on such matters. It is therefore the responsibility of the government, to set high standards in its laws for the citizens.

Secondly, the mining company exists to undertake its core mandate of mining for which the land is required. To enable them to undertake their core mandate, it is imperative for them to conclude all resettlement and compensation arrangements in due time. However, the misrepresentation by the people sometimes prolongs negotiations and further increases the cost of resettlement.

In addition, resettlement has enormous implications on the livelihood dynamics of the affected persons. There is therefore the need for government institutions responsible for mining, to insist on the inculcation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes during the initial stages. This will provide the people with some employment opportunities and guaranteed income. The theoretical framework suggested the need for community participation, as a way of encouraging the affected persons to fully support the nature of ALPs, which will be initiated. However, the findings do not provide evidence to support this assertion as issues of ALPs have not been mentioned in the discussion. The rationale behind the initial assertion was based on the premise that, for any alternative livelihood initiative to succeed, the people for whom these programmes are created for, should demonstrate their commitment and willingness to support these initiatives. With the support of the people, the programme has a greater chance of succeeding. However, since this community under investigation failed to request for an Alternative Livelihood Programme, this study does not have enough evidence to determine whether these programmes would have succeeded or failed should they have been implemented.

From the findings in Chapter 6, in became clear that the affected persons indicated that they expected houses and money, which the mining company provided. Therefore, to determine the implications of community participation on implementation of Alternative Livelihood Programmes, it is imperative for further education and sensitisation programmes for communities affected by mining, to explain to these rural

folks, the importance of acquiring skills for other employment opportunities. This new knowledge might provide the affected persons with enough information during negotiations. However, this information presents a gap for further research. Future research can focus on mining communities where Alternative Livelihood Programmes have been initiated, and access how such community participation and engagement, have contributed to its success or failure. Nonetheless, the findings provide enough evidence to suggest that, should the assumption in Figure 4.6 above be adhered to, the affected persons will benefit from the resettlement programme.

Finally, mining resettlement activities create public problem such as distortion in formal education, unemployment, landlessness, and social disarticulation. From the statistically analysis, it is evident that the changes in the livelihood resources of the affected persons were not due to chance but because of the mining resettlement activities. Thus, confirming the alternative hypothesis that states that the mining resettlement programmes have implications on the livelihood resources of the affected persons. For this reason, government cannot overlook the challenges that affected persons may have to suffer due to its decision to encourage mining. The legislative framework in Ghana needs to be amended to ensure that the livelihood of these citizens is improved. The mining resettlement policies should place greater emphasis on the provision of better livelihood restoration programmes. These issues are of great concern within the public administration discipline. It is, therefore, the responsibility of a good public administration system, to ensure that citizens do not become worse, as a result of government's decision to encourage investment through mining.

These conclusions are elaborated on in more detail.

7.4.1 Extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana

Public administration plays a crucial role in addressing societal challenges, yet in Ghana's mining resettlement cases, it has failed to protect affected communities. Government policies inadequately address vulnerabilities such as landlessness, unemployment, and economic dislocation, reflecting weaknesses in policy formulation and implementation. Existing legislation focuses narrowly on monetary and housing compensation, neglecting critical aspects like education, natural resources, and alternative livelihoods, leading to long-term socioeconomic losses.

Affected communities often lack the education and awareness needed to negotiate effectively with multinational mining companies. Public administration has failed to bridge this gap, leaving communities unable to advocate for their needs. Resettlement processes have resulted in landlessness, disrupted education, loss of natural capital, and social marginalisation, consistent with global findings on mining-induced displacement. To address these shortcomings, resettlement plans must incorporate sustainable livelihood strategies, ensuring long-term socioeconomic stability and fulfilling public administration's goal of creating public value.

7.4.2 Expectations before and after the resettlement

The analysis highlights key challenges in MIDR, emphasising the need for improved negotiation processes, policy reforms, and coordinated interventions to ensure equitable and sustainable outcomes. Affected communities often lack strategic negotiation skills, limiting their ability to advocate for long-term benefits. With insufficient knowledge of their rights and the implications of resettlement, communities focus primarily on immediate needs like housing and cash, overlooking broader economic, social, and environmental impacts.

Resettlement has resulted in significant losses, including fertile land, water resources, and access to education, disrupting livelihoods and creating long-term disadvantages. Inconsistent legislative frameworks, particularly between Ghana's 1992 Constitution and the Minerals and Mining Act of 2006, exacerbate the problem, as the option between cash and resettlement often leaves communities worse off.

Key recommendations include revising the Minerals and Mining Act to mandate both monetary and resettlement packages with sustainable outcomes, conducting comprehensive needs assessments, and ensuring resettled communities are equipped with adequate infrastructure. Low educational attainment among affected persons underscores the need for improved access to education to enable strategic engagement in negotiations and rebuilding efforts. Challenges like landlessness, unemployment, and environmental degradation hinder progress toward SDG 8 and SDG 12. Effective collaboration between government, mining companies, and civil society is essential for equitable resettlement outcomes.

7.4.3 Implications of the mine resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members

Resettlement initiatives have improved infrastructure by providing modern housing, potable water, electricity, and roads, enhancing living standards and reducing waterborne diseases like cholera. However, these gains are insufficient to offset broader socioeconomic disruptions. The loss of livelihoods, cultural identity, and access to education are significant challenges. The disruption of education, vital for breaking poverty cycles and achieving SDG 4, has led to increased risks of teenage pregnancy, crime, and substance abuse, with long-term implications for community development.

Cultural losses, including ancestral shrines and burial grounds, have caused emotional distress and disrupted spiritual and family traditions, straining social cohesion. These ‘double losses’ highlight the failure to address cultural preservation in resettlement planning.

Policy gaps in managing mining-induced displacement and resettlement (MIDR) are evident. While infrastructural improvements are notable, the neglect of employment opportunities, education, and cultural preservation underscores the failure of government institutions and public administration to support sustainable resettlement.

7.4.4 Impact of mining resettlement and compensation programmes on communities and the attainment of SDGS 8 and 12

The study highlights unemployment as a major issue stemming from MIDR, with displaced communities left vulnerable due to a lack of alternative livelihood programmes. While mining contributes to employment in certain sectors, resettled populations often lack opportunities for income generation, hindering progress toward SDG 8. Comprehensive resettlement programmes, including skills training and trade development, are essential to fostering economic sustainability for affected communities.

Mining also impacts SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production), with significant environmental repercussions. Contamination of water bodies from mining activities disrupts domestic, agricultural, and cultural uses, especially in rural areas

where clean water is critical. The loss of sacred water sources undermines traditional cultural practices, intensifying the social impact of mining operations.

To address these challenges, the mining sector must adopt sustainable practices, such as low-impact techniques like in situ leaching, recycling mining waste, and post-mining land reclamation. These measures can mitigate environmental damage, restore soil productivity, and support future land use for agriculture or community initiatives. Integrating responsible practices into mining operations not only reduces environmental harm but also supports affected communities, aligning with the goals of SDG 12 and fostering a more equitable and sustainable future.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made to government institutions. These are the National Commission for Civic Education, Ministry of Gender and Social Protection, Minerals Commission, Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology and Innovation, as well as the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources. Also, some recommendations are made to the mining company, Non-Governmental Organisations, community leaders, and the affected persons.

7.5.1 Government institutions and agencies

The government bears a fundamental obligation to protect its citizens against arbitrary land dispossession and uphold their economic well-being. In situations where communities face the loss of their livelihoods due to governmental decisions, it is crucial for the appropriate state institution to undertake a series of strategic actions. These strategic actions will commence first with the review of the policies that govern compensation and resettlement in Ghana. This review needs to be done by the Legislature, in consultation with state institutions, with oversight responsibility in mining, Non-Governmental Organisations within the mining industry, the community leaders, the mining company, and the community members. Though this might be time consuming, it will present the government with a rich and diverse source of information, necessary for the policy review process.

Secondly, thorough land valuations should be conducted by competent officials from the Land Valuation Division of Lands Commission as required by section 22 of the Lands Commission Act 2008 (Act 767). A second opinion should be sought from a

private property surveyor for, and on behalf of the people. The cost of the services of this private surveyor should be catered for by the mining company. This will help to accurately determine the land compensation, which is due to each affected individual.

There is the need for the Minerals Commission, Environmental Protection Agency, Ghana Chamber of Mines, the mining company, and the community leaders, to ensure the implementation of alternative livelihood programmes to mitigate the impact, transcending negotiations beyond the directly affected parties, and instituting comprehensive standards to initiate alternative livelihood programmes, with the consent of impacted individuals even before concessions are granted. Collaborating with the National Commission for Civic Education becomes essential, enabling the provision of literacy programs, which enlighten people about their rights, as well as the legal frameworks governing compensation and resettlement. Thus, they are equipped with vital knowledge for negotiation.

Similarly, there is also the need for inter-ministerial coordination to ensure a holistic approach to resettlement issues. This will ensure that efforts of the various Ministries, Department, and Agencies with oversight responsibilities within the mining sector, are well coordinated to prevent duplication of roles which may create unnecessary delay and conflicts among these ministries.

Furthermore, recognising the distinct ramifications of resettlement on women and children, necessitates the creation of targeted initiatives to support these specific segments. Land is an important resource for women within the rural communities. This is because these women depend on their land for crop cultivation, for domestic, and commercial use, which is very critical for maintaining their families. The loss of access to their farmland leads to a decline in their economic status, as they are deprived of the ability to support the needs of their families through the provision of basic needs such as food.

Also, children are the future of any country and access to education is key. The resettlement creates distortion in the access to formal education, leading to school dropouts. Therefore, the women within the affected community should be empowered through the provision of opportunities, in order for them to acquire alternative skills needed for other economic income generating activities. This will lessen the economic

burden resulting from the resettlement and afford them the opportunity to provide continuous support for their families.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education should collaborate with the mining company and community leaders, to provide educational facilities for the children within the community. By forging partnerships with the Ministry of Gender and Social Protection, the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, as well as the other government institutions with oversight responsibility, the mining sector can facilitate financial aid for affected individuals to engage in business ventures, or secure land for ongoing agricultural pursuits. Ultimately, meticulous pre-resettlement planning is imperative. This entails the establishment of well-structured communities, equipped with essential infrastructure, encompassing educational institutions, places of worship, markets, and recreational facilities.

Laws governing mining resettlement and compensation should be revised to align with the principles of Public Administration and sustainable development. This includes mandatory provisions for alternative livelihood programmes, access to education, and restoration of natural capital. Also, policies must prioritise community engagement, ensuring that affected persons are well-informed and actively involved in negotiations. Government agencies, civil society organisations, and traditional leaders must collaborate to educate and empower communities to advocate for their rights effectively. Public policies should be designed and implemented with a focus on creating public value. This includes addressing long-term socioeconomic needs, maintaining trust and legitimacy, and fostering resilience in affected communities.

There must be stronger oversight and accountability mechanisms to ensure that policies are implemented in a manner that genuinely benefits affected communities. Public administration must take a proactive role in monitoring and evaluating resettlement processes. Resettlement programmes should contribute to achieving SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) and SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production) by promoting sustainable livelihood strategies and protecting natural resources.

Communities should be provided with the necessary training and support to engage in strategic negotiations and make informed decisions about their futures. This will

require collaboration with government agencies, NGOs, and other stakeholders to ensure equitable outcomes.

Finally, given the significant impact of the resettlement of the livelihood resources of the affected persons, the section 73(4) of Act 703 needs to be amended. Resettlement and compensation should not be treated as options. Affected persons should be resettled on suitable lands and be paid cash compensations. Aside that, the provision of ALPs should be a pre-requisite for the issuance of a mining concession.

The extent to which government policies impact mining resettlement in Ghana reveals significant deficiencies in public administration and policy implementation. By addressing these challenges through legislative reforms, community empowerment, and sustainable development practices, it is possible to transform mining-induced displacement into an opportunity for socioeconomic growth and resilience for both the mine and the affected communities.

7.5.2 NGOs and Civil society organisations

While the resettlement programme has delivered some infrastructure improvements, it has failed to address the critical social, cultural, and economic challenges faced by the affected community. Sustainable and inclusive resettlement practices must prioritise the holistic well-being of the community, balancing development goals with the preservation of livelihoods, cultural heritage, and social structures. NGOs and civil society organisations play a crucial role in helping the affected communities. They can extend their support through various means. Firstly, they can facilitate training sessions and workshops aimed at enhancing entrepreneurial abilities among affected individuals, particularly women and the youth. This empowerment will equip them to exert greater influence over their forthcoming prospects. Secondly, these groups can establish scholarship initiatives catering to children from the affected region, who have encountered obstacles in accessing education. These endeavours collectively contribute to the comprehensive efforts undertaken by NGOs and civil society organisations, in aiding communities in need. To assess the effectiveness of these initiatives, NGOs and civil society organisations should establish monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, to track the progress and impact their programs, and make necessary adjustments.

7.5.3 Mining company

Mining companies must recognise their ethical and social responsibilities by going beyond compliance with existing laws to prioritise the long-term well-being of affected communities. This includes developing comprehensive resettlement plans that address education, employment, and access to natural resources. In pursuit of comprehensive assistance and revitalisation within the impacted community, the mining company undertakes a series of collaborative initiatives. These collective endeavours encompass various aspects of support and rehabilitation, aiming to address multifaceted challenges.

First, the company should offer skills training to individuals affected by the resettlement, both prior to and throughout the relocation process, thereby enabling them to recover financially from potential economic setbacks, stemming from the transition. A close partnership with government entities is established, facilitating the identification and acquisition of suitable alternative agricultural lands to ensure the continuity of livelihoods. Furthermore, the company must take active steps to enhance educational accessibility for children in neighbouring communities by providing transportation services, and concurrently working towards the establishment of a local school, reflecting its commitment to educational development. Moreover, the creation of employment opportunities for skilled youth within the vicinity of the mining company, contributes to local economic empowerment.

To address the lack of strategic negotiation skills among affected communities, mining companies, in collaboration with government institutions, should ensure that affected communities are equipped with negotiation training and legal representation. Awareness campaigns led by the National Commission for Civic Education should inform communities of their rights and the broader implications of resettlement. Moreover, the views and opinions of the affected persons should be heard and incorporated into the decision-making process. To nurture a sense of community and spiritual cohesion, the establishment of places of worship within the community is prioritised. These initiatives must respect the diverse religious and cultural backgrounds of the members of the community.

Key actions to support SDG attainment include: (1) Introduce risk-reversal strategies, as outlined in the Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction (IRR) model, to prevent long-term losses during resettlement; and (2) Ensure sustainable use of natural resources by excluding water bodies and other critical ecosystems from mining concessions.

Lastly, as a practical alleviation measure, the company should subsidise the associated costs of electricity expenses for those impacted, easing financial burdens, and striving for the overall welfare and progress of the affected community.

7.5.4 Community leaders

In the realm of community leadership, a need exists to exert pressure on the mining company, urging them to institute alternative livelihood initiatives, and furnish essential social facilities like places of worship, community hubs, and recreational spaces for the community members. Collaboration with the mining company is paramount, both to expedite the compensation for individuals who are still awaiting their cash compensation, and to ensure the allocation of substitute farming lands to those who have been impacted. Though, there might be a potential challenge of conflict of interest, whereby the community leaders might prioritise their needs over those of the community members. It is important for community leaders to note that they are the representatives of the people, hence, they are responsible for their well-being. Therefore, community leaders must be transparent and truthful with both the company and the affected persons. By actively engaging with the mining company, community leaders play a pivotal role in advocating for the welfare and comprehensive development of their constituents.

Comprehensive development refers to the economic, social, and cultural wellbeing, as well as the preservation of the natural environment, which reflects the shared values of the people. The strategy to deploy here, is through an effective ‘bottom-up’ and ‘top-down’ communication. Effective communication is the best strategy to ensure that both the company and the affected persons reach an agreement. This communication will be facilitated by the community leaders because, the company cannot deal individually with all those concerned. Thus, the community leader must ensure that they are

transparent and truthful with regards to all engagements and agreements they engage with the company, on behalf of those affected.

Community leaders should also be aware of and advocate for adherence to local laws and regulations, which govern mining activities. This can provide a legal framework for negotiations and agreements. Furthermore, the affected persons should be encouraged to voice out their opinions and concerns, regarding decisions that have direct bearing on their future.

7.5.5 Community members

The members of the community can rally behind their leaders, as they strive to engage the mining company, in advocating for improved conditions on behalf of those impacted. Community members should be encouraged to share any ideas and suggestions they have on their developmental needs with their leaders. Efforts should be made by community members to relocate or preserve ancestral shrines, cemeteries, and other culturally significant sites to maintain the community's cultural identity and spiritual practices. Also, they can organise a peaceful protest by coordinating with their leaders to pressurise the mining company to honour its commitments. Additionally, they can foster an atmosphere of mutual support, by arranging workshops and training sessions to empower one another with valuable skills such as dress making, bead making, painting, mechanic, soap making, and among others. This has the potential of enhancing economic empowerment. In these collaborative endeavours, community members play an active role in upholding their collective interests such as insisting on the preservation of certain sites (cemeteries, places of worship, water bodies), that have cultural importance to them, creation of employment opportunities and educational facilities, and working towards a sustainable future. The effectiveness of these actions may vary depending on the specific circumstances of the community, the mining company, and the regulatory environment. This, therefore, emphasises the importance of community engagement and participation, a review of government policy compensation and resettlement in Ghana, the commitment of the institutions, and the organisations, with direct oversight responsibility in mining and the mining company. Mining should not be only seen as a revenue mobilisation for the government, its agencies, and the mining company. The well-being of the citizens who part ways with their resources to enable the mining

activities take place, should also be provided with the opportunity of reaping the benefits, that come with the operations of the mining activities.

7.6 PROPOSALS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study presents useful information on the implementation of mining resettlement policies in Ghana using a single community. Even though the data was collected from individuals from all the seventy households that were resettled, suggesting that the research was detailed enough, the findings do not provide enough justification for the generalisation of the findings, as a true reflection of all mining resettlement programmes in Ghana. A few recommendations are therefore suggested as gaps for future research.

To begin with, future research should be conducted using other resettled communities in Ghana, by other multinational mining companies. This will provide a clearer picture of how the legislation on resettlement and compensation are adhered to by different companies, as well as its implication on the affected persons from other communities.

Moreover, there is a need for further interviews with key institutions in the mining industry, civil society groups, and community leaders, on their role during the negotiation process. This is to give a better understanding about their involvement with regards to the adherence of the resettlement policies.

Since mining companies have their parent companies in other international companies, future studies can conduct an international comparative study, to ascertain how various national and international policies, impact how resettlement programmes are undertaken in various geographical jurisdiction and assess the implication of the resettlement on the livelihood of the people.

Furthermore, in this study, no robust statistical test such as a regression models, were used to test the effects of the various variables on the livelihood dynamics of the affected people.

Finally, future studies should concentrate on longitudinal and panel data, for a better understanding of how mining resettlement affects the livelihoods of the communities affected by mining, towards the attainment of the SDGs.

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ANNEXURES

APPENDIX A: UNISA ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE – PHASE 1

UNISA college of economic and management sciences

COLLEGE OF ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCE RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

06 May 2022

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2022_CRERC_013 (FA)
Name #: Miss Portia Oware Twerefoo
Student No#: 67126669

Dear Miss Portia Oware Twerefoo

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2022 to 2024

Researcher(s): Miss Portia Oware Twerefoo; 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za ; +233 (556866371)
College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Public Administration and Management
University of South Africa

"Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: Cases in Ghana"

Qualification: PhD

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa College of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for two(2) years (**06 May 2022 until 05 May 2024**).

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the College of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee on **08 March 2022** in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the College of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee.

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in the future on the condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No fieldwork activities may continue after the expiry date **(05 May 2024)** Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.
8. Permission is to be obtained from the university from which the participants are to be drawn (the Unisa Senate Research, Innovation and Higher Degrees Committee) to ensure that the relevant authorities are aware of the scope of the research, and all conditions and procedures regarding access to staff/students for research purposes that may be required by the institution must be met.
9. If further counselling is required in some cases, the participants will be referred to appropriate support services.

Note:
*The reference number **2022_CRERC_013 (FA)** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Dr Vaola Sambo
Chairperson, CRERC
E-mail: Esambovt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 4355

Prof MC Mulaudzi
Acting, Deputy Executive Dean: CEMS
E-mail: Tshilmc@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 3724

APPENDIX B: UNISA ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE – PHASE 2

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA COLLEGE OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

06 May 2022 **(Date of issue)**
17 November 2022 **(Date of amendment)**

Ref #: 2022_CRERC_013 (FA)
Name: Miss Portia Oware Twerefoo
Student No #: 67126669

Dear Miss Portia Oware Twerefoo

Decision: Ethics Approval Extended to 31 December 2024

Working title of research:

"Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: Cases in Ghana"

Researcher(s): Miss PO Twerefoo, 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za ; +233 556866371
College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Operations Management
University of South Africa

Qualification: PhD

Thank you for the application requesting **amendments** to the original research ethics certificate issued by the College Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research on 08 March 2022. The approval of the requested amendment is granted.

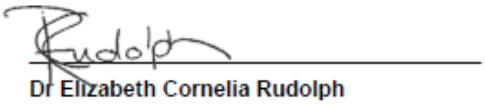
*The **low risk application** was reviewed by the College Research Ethics Review Committee (CRERC) in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment, using the expedited method.*
The proposed research may now continue with the proviso that:

Open Rubric

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1. *The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
2. *Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the UNISA Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
3. *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

Kind regards,



Dr Elizabeth Cornelia Rudolph
Acting Chairperson, CRERC
E-mail: rudolec@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 2586

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APPENDIX C: GATEKEEPER PERMISSION LETTER

1 December 2021

Dr. Alers Corlia,
Senior Lecturer,
University of South Africa (UNISA),
South Africa.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: DATA COLLECTION – PORTIA O. TWEREFOO

The letter dated 26th August 2021 on the above subject refers.

Approval has been granted to Ms. Portia Oware Twerefoo to collect the relevant information/data available with Iduapriem Mine for her thesis.

Portia is however to note that:

1. She will not be paid any allowance during the data collection period.
2. No electronic data should be taken away without permission from the Senior Manager – Human Resource.
3. She is to submit a copy of the final report to the undersigned.
4. You would also be required to sign a Confidentiality Agreement with the Company (copy attached).

If the above conditions are acceptable to her, she should kindly sign below and return same to the Senior Manager - Human Resources. She is to contact the Senior Manager – Sustainability at the Sustainability Department who will be the supervisor for her research work.

Yours faithfully,

Dominic Derzu
For: Senior Manager - Human Resources

I PORTIA OWARE TWEREFOO have read and understood the terms & conditions contained in this letter and accept the terms & conditions as written.

Signature

3/02/2022
Date

Cc: Senior Manager – Sustainability

AngloGold Ashanti (Iduapriem) Limited

Directors: MT Roux (Chairman) | SB Pitsie (Managing Director) | J Musadaidzwa NO Sinboe II | E Asuboriteng | V Govind
Ultimate Holding Company is AngloGold Ashanti Limited, incorporated in the Republic of South Africa, Registration No. 1944/017354/06

UNDERTAKING AND DECLARATION OF CONFIDENTIALITY

I do hereby solemnly make the following declaration in respect of my Research conducted at/with/on AngloGold Ashanti (Iduapriem) Limited, Tarkwa.

i. That I will observe strict confidentiality in all matters relating to the research

"IMPLEMENTATION OF MINING RESETTLEMENT POLICIES : CASES IN GHANA"

ii. That any information made available to me and /or any discovery made by me shall be used solely for research, educational and academic purposes, and, in doing so, shall not divulge the name of the source of the information, except on the express written consent of the company.

iii. That I shall not divulge any information/discovery to a third party, except with the written consent of the Company or a duly authorized officer, or when required to do so by any court of competent jurisdiction or Commission duly constituted by law.

iv. That I shall make available to the company copies of any finding that I shall make in respect of the project or research work.

v. That I shall submit a copy of any report based on any findings that I shall make in respect of the project or research work done.

Sign. & Name: PORTIA EWARE INGREDO 31/08/2022
(Researcher)

Sign. & Name: DAVID W. OKANKOR (MERCHANT NAVY OFFICER 3RD IN COMMAND)
(Guarantor)

Pacific Phoenix Shipping Official No 394507 GRT 1329 NRT 484

Sign & Name: AMESIMEKU S. STANLEY
(Witness)

Sign: .....
(Senior Manager - Human Resources)

N.B

A Guarantor of a researcher must be a Senior Public Officer of a rank not below Deputy Director, or an ordained Priest of a recognized Religious Denomination, or a Medical Officer or Legal Practitioner in good standing, or a parent or Head of a recognized educational/academic/research institution.

APPENDIX D: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

9th October, 2022

Title: Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: Cases in Ghana

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is Portia Oware Twerefoo and I am doing a PhD research with Dr. Corlia Alers, a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration and Management at the University of South Africa. We have funding from the UNISA Division of Student Funding in support of Masters and doctoral studies. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled ***'Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: Cases in Ghana'***

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

I am conducting this research to find out how public resettlement programmes and policies that affect multinational mining companies can be implemented in a manner that will aid in the achievement of the SDGs. More specifically, to examine the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of affected communities.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

The focus of the study is on the implementation of mining resettlement programmes of which AngloGold Ashanti Iduaprim Mines in Tarkwa and the Mankessim community is the focus. You have been selected for this study because you have been identified as one of the affected persons of the Makessim resettlement project by the AngloGold Ashanti which was completed in 2015. In total, the study seeks to speak with seventy-three participants. These comprise respondents from the seventy (70) affected households and three (3) community leaders. Your contact was sought from the mining company. However, given the growing population of the Mankessim community, there is the likelihood that new residents may have moved in to settle within the community. Hence, I asked the respondents to help in identifying other affected persons.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

As a participant in this study, you are to fill out a semi-structured questionnaire. It will take about twenty (20) to thirty (30) minutes to answer the questions. There are a total of forty (40) questions. These are divided into four (4) sections.

The first section will seek information pertaining to the demography of the respondents. Question on their gender, age range, educational background and occupation before and after the resettlement.

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The second section will seek to find out from you how you were informed about the resettlement activity. Whether or not you were compensated and the expectations you had before and after the resettlement.

The third section will solicit for information on the implications of the resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of project affected persons. Here, you will be asked twenty-eight (28) closed-ended questions which centres on the five (5) livelihood assets. You are expected to tick which of the assets you had access to and still have access to after the resettlement.

In the final section of the questionnaire, you are required to provide solutions that will help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development.

The study will also require company officials directly involved in the mining resettlement and compensation process to participate in an interview of roughly 40 to 50 minutes.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participation in this study is voluntary. Should you at any point in filling the questionnaire feel uncomfortable in answering any question or wish to withdraw your participation, you can do so. Your identity and personal details will not be revealed to any third party nor will they be disclosed in the final write-up. Nonetheless, after filling out and submitting the questionnaire you cannot withdraw your participation.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

Your participation in this study is purely voluntary. You will not be compensated. You will not have any direct benefit from this study. However, your participation may help in influencing the subsequent resettlement programmes.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There are no anticipated negative consequences in participating in this study. Should, you fill uncomfortable with any of the questions, you may choose not to answer. You can also withdraw your participation if you feel uncomfortable with any of the questions.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

The information you provide will be strictly for academic purposes. Your names will not be recorded on the questionnaires. Hence your details and names will not be disclosed to any third party. In the final write-up and in the event of publishing the findings of this study in any journal, your name will not be mentioned nor will the responses be traced to you. Thus, your identity is strictly confidential and your anonymity is assured.

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HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER(S) PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard at the office of the research supervisor in Unisa (South Africa) after which it will be shredded. For future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password-protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. The stored data on my computer and hard drive will be deleted permanently.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

You will not receive any financial rewards or any other incentives for participating in this study.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Economics and Management Science, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Portia Oware Twerefoo (researcher) via email at 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za. The findings are accessible for 5 years.

Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Portia Oware Twerefoo via email 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Prof Corlia Alers (research supervisor) via email at alersc@unisa.ac.za. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson of Dr Vaola Sambo on 012 429-4355 or via email esambovt@unisa.ac.za

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.



Portia Oware Twerefoo

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APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM – TEMPLATE

UNISA university of south africa

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

Title: Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: Cases in Ghana

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunities to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to complete the questionnaire.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname…… (please print)

Participant Signature……Date……

Researcher's Name & Surname: Portia Oware Twerefoo …(please print)

Researcher's signature: _____……Date: 9 October 2022

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APPENDIX F: QUESTIONNAIRE

To be distributed to those living in Mankesim

Yɛbɛkyekyɛ ama nnipa a wɔte Mankesim

Dear participant,

Anoyifoɔ pa,

My Name is Portia Oware Twerefoo. I am a doctoral student at the University of South Africa, Department of Public Administration and Management. To culminate in the award of the degree in question, I am required to undertake scientific research. This questionnaire is based on research about **'The implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies'.** You have been invited to participate in this study because of your extensive experience with the resettlement activities of AngloGold Ashanti. You are kindly requested to answer the questions as honestly and completely as possible. It will take a maximum of 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Participation is anonymous: You are not requested to disclose your identity. Your privacy will be respected. No one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. The information collected from you will be treated with strict confidentiality and used for research purposes only. In the meanwhile, you have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Hence, your participation is regarded as voluntary. You will not receive any payment or reward, financial or otherwise, and the study will not incur undue costs to you. The survey data will be stored in a locked cupboard and the data stored in a computer will be protected using a password until it is destroyed after five years.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

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Me din de Portia Oware Twerefoo. Meeyɛ me Ph.D. wɔ University of South Africa, Dipatimɛnt of Pablik Adiministrahyen ne Managyemɛnte. Ansana mɛtumi awie m'adesua no, ɛwɔsɛ metumi yɛ project/research bi. Saa nsɛmmisa yi fa nhyehyɛdeɛ a ɛfa nnipa a yɛtu wɔn fi baabi a wɔte kɔtena baabi foforɔ ɛnam agudie tu nti ho. Yɛɛto nsa afrɛ wo ama w'aboa yɛn wɔ saa nhwehwɛmu yi mu esiane wo nimdeɛ a wowɔ wɔ …….. tu a wɔtu afoforɔ fi wɔn fie a wɔte mu kɔtena baabi foforɔ ɛnam agudie tu dwumadie a wɔdi no nti. Yɛɛserɛ wo sɛ wobɛyi nsɛmmisa a edidi so yi ano yiye wɔ nokorɛ mu. Wo de sima bɛyɛ aduonu na ebedi saa dwuma yi. W'anoyie no nna nnipa a woyɛ adi: obiaa nhyɛ wo sɛ da obi a woyɛ adi nso. Yɛbɛhwɛ sɛ yɛnna nnipa a woyɛ adi nkyerɛ obiaa. Obiaa nso ntumi nhu wo nipa ban wɔ w'ano yi a wobɛma wɔ nsemmisa no ho. W'ani yi a wobɛma no, yɛde bɛyɛ research no nkoaa na yɛde asie yiye nso. Ne saa nti, yɛɛfa no sɛ woogye atum sɛ wobɛboa research yi wɔ atuhoakyɛ kwan so. Yenntua wo ka anaa yemma wo akyɛdeɛ biaa wɔ wo dwumadie a wobɛdi ama yɛn no/yi mu, ɛna dwuma a wobɛdi ama yɛn no nso mfa ɛka biaa mmrɛ wo. Nyiano a yɛbɛnya afi nhwehwɛ mu yi mu no, yɛdebɛsie fee wɔ adaka a y'atu mu mu ɛne abɛɛfo kɔmpuuta a password da so kɔsi sɛ yɛbɛsɛe no mfie num akyi.

Yɛdaase pii ɛne wo mmrɛ ɛne wo mmoa.

My contact details,

67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za

0556866371

Wobɛnya me wɔ nɔma wei so, ana aderɛse a edi so no so: 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za

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SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES / NSƐMMISA

COMMUNITY MEMBERS / MPƆTAMUFOƆ

Section A: Background of respondent / Ɔfa a edi kan: Anoyifoɔ ho nsɛm

A.1. **Gender**: i) Male { } ii) Female { }

A.2. **Age range**: i) 15-25 years { } ii) 26-35 years { } iii) 36-45 { } iv) 46-55 { } v) 56+ { }

A.3. **Educational Background**: i) Primary { } ii) secondary { } iii) tertiary { } iv) non- formal { } v) other (specify) ……

A.4. **Occupation prior to resettlement**: i) Farmer { } ii) Small scale miner { } iii) Trader { } iv) Student { } v) other (specify) ……

A.5. **Occupation after resettlement**: ……

A.1 Wobɔbea: i) Ɔbarima { } ii) Ɔbaa { }

A.2 Womfeɛ: i) 15-25 { } ii) 26-35 { } iii) 36-45 { } iv) 46-55 { } v) 56 ɛɛkɔ { }

A.3 Wo sukuusɛm: i) Pramary { } ii) sekɛndary { } iii) tɛhyiary{ } iv) me nkɔɔ sukuu da{ } v) Nea ɛka ho/Foforɔ (kyerɛ mu/ bɔ din)

……

A.4 adwuma a wɔyɛ ansa na wɔn tu wo: i) Okuafoɔ { } ii) Ɔtufoɔ nketewa { } .
iii) Oguadifoɔ { } iv) Osuani { } v) foforɔ (kyerɛ) ……

A.5 Wo tu baa baabi a wote yi adwuma a woyɛ ……

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Section B: Expectations of the inhabitants before and after the resettlement process

Ɔfa a ɛtɔ so mienu: Dwumadie a atukotenafo ɛɛhwɛ anim sɛ wobedie wɔ baabi a wɔakɔtena foforɔ yi

B.1. At what did the company inform you of the resettlement plans?

B.2. How were you informed of the plans?

i. through durbar ( ) ii. House to house ( ) iii. Beating of gong gong ( )
iv. other (specify) ……

B.3. What were you expecting from the mining firm before the resettlement?

B.3a) Were the affected individuals compensated? i) yes { } ii) No { }

B.3b) How was the compensation done?

B.1 mmrɛ bɛn na ……..foɔ ka kyerɛ wo sɛ wɔbɛtu wo/mo afi baabi a wote/mote akɔtena baabi foforɔ?

B.2 kwan bɛn na wɔfa so bɔɔ wo/mo amaneɛ?

i) adwabɔ ase ( ) ii) wɔ wo/mo afie-afie mu ( ) iii) dawurobɔ so ( )
iv) ɛkwan foforɔ so (kyerɛ mu)
……

B.3Ɛdeɛn na na woohwehwɛ sɛ agudeɛtufoɔ no bɛyɛ ama wo/mo ansa na wɔɔbɛtu wo/mo afi baabi a na wote/mote akɔtena baabi foforɔ no?

B.3a) Nnipa a wɔtuu wɔn no, wɔmaa wɔn biibi anaa? i. aane { } daabi { }

B.3b) Ɛdeɛn na wɔde maa wɔn/mo?

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Section C: Implications of the resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of project affected persons. / Ɔfa a ɛtɔ so miɛnsa: Nsunsuanso a nnipatuo (asetenamu nsakrayɛ) dwumadie no de baa nnipa a wɔtuu wɔn no so.

C1. What Alternative Livelihood Programme has the company put in place, especially for women and children? / Asetenamu dwumadie nhyehyɛyɛ bɛn na ……. de atoto akwan mu

C2. Who was involved in the planning of these Alternative Livelihood Programmes? /Hena na na ɔka ntotoyɛ a ɛfa dwumadie a wɔde gugu akwan mu ama asetena pa mu ho?

Please tick (×) where appropriate / Kyerɛ deɛ wogyedi sɛ ɛyɛ ma wo

	The implication of the resettlement on livelihood dynamics	**Before Resettlement**	**After Resettlement**
	Asetenamu nsunsuanso aa nnipatuo no de baa amanfoɔ a wɔtuu wɔn no abrabɔ mu	**Ansana yɛɛtu wɔn afi baabi a wɔte akɔtena baabi foforɔ**	**Wɔkɔtenaa baabi foforɔ a yɛde wɔn kɔtenaa no akyi**
Economic /Financial Capital / Sikasɛm/Ahonya			
C.3	I was gainfully employed / Na meyɛ m'adwuma gye m'akatua		
C.4	I am gainfully employed / Me yɛ m'adwuma gye m'akatua		
C.5	My income level has significantly improved after the resettlement / Efi mmrɛ a yetuu yɛn fi baabi a yɛte kɔɔ baabi foforɔ no, me sikasɛm kɔ anim paa		
C.6	I have access to other employment opportunities / Me wɔ akwanya sɛ mɛnya adwuma papa ayɛ		

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	The implication of the resettlement on livelihood dynamics	Before Resettlement	After Resettlement
	Asetenamu nsunsuanso aa nnipatuo no de baa amanfoɔ a wɔtuu wɔn no abrabɔ mu	**Ansana yɛɛtu wɔn afi baabi a wɔte akɔtena baabi foforɔ**	**Wɔkɔtenaa baabi foforɔ a yɛde wɔn kɔtenaa no akyi**
C.7	There has been an improvement in my ability to save money /Me tumi sie sika seesei/ Me sikasiesɛm kɔ anim sika		
Natural Capital / Abɔdeɛ mu ahonya			
C.8	I had a fertile land / Na me wɔ asaase papa		
C.9	I have access to suitable alternative land / Menya asaase papa a yɛde yɛ mfuo anaa yɛde yɛn mmoa		
C.10	I have access to fertilizer, seeds and pesticides from my farm / Me nya fatiliza, nnuaba ɛne nnuro a mede gugu me nnɔbae so		
C.11	I have access to livestock / Metumi nya ayɛnmmoa		
C.12	I have access to medicinal plants / Me nya nnua a yɛde sa yareɛ		
C.13	I have access to grazing lands / Yɛn nyɛmmoa wɔ baabi a wɔbɛdidi		
C.14	I have access to water bodies / Me nya nsuo		
Physical/infrastructural capital / Nneɛma a y'asisi wɔ me mantam			
C.15	I have access to better housing facility / Mɛnya efie papa mu atena mu/ Me wɔ akwanya wɔ fie papa mɛtena mu		
C.16	I have access to recreational centres / Me wɔ baabi a mɛkɔ akɔdi agorɔ wɔ ha		

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	The implication of the resettlement on livelihood dynamics	Before Resettlement	After Resettlement
	Asetenamu nsunsuanso aa nnipatuo no de baa amanfoɔ a wɔtuu wɔn no abrabɔ mu	**Ansana yɛɛtu wɔn afi baabi a wɔte akɔtena baabi foforɔ**	**Wɔkɔtenaa baabi foforɔ a yɛde wɔn kɔtenaa no akyi**
C.17	I have access to electricity / Me wɔ anyinam nkanea/laite		
C.18	I have access to potable drinking water / Me nya nsupa nom		
C.19	I have access to good roads / Me nya akwanpa fa so		
C.20	I have access to a place of worship (i.e church, mosque, shrine etc) / Me nya asɔre kɔ (kritofo asɔre, nkramofo asɔre, akɔmfo/abosom asɔneyɛso)		
Human Capital / Nimdeɛ ne suahu ma nnipa			
C.21	I have the required skills for my current job / Me wɔ m'adwuma a meeyɛ no mu nteteyɛ		
C.22	I have people to train me on my current job / Me wɔ nnipa a wɔma me nteteyɛ wɔ m'adwuma a meeyɛ no mu		
C.23	People in my household have access to employment / Nnipa a wɔwɔ me fie yɛ adwuma		
C.24	I can utilise my previous skills / metumi de me suahu yɛ adwuma		
C.25	The children within the community have access to education / nmmofra a wɔwɔ mantam ha no nya kwan kɔ sukuu		
C.26	The resettlement did not adversely affect my health (psychological trauma, vector borne, water borne diseases etc / Yɛn tuo no anka me papa wɔ m'apɔmuden mu (nompe mu nyarewa, nsuo mu nyarewa mu, ɛne nea ɛkeka ho).		

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	The implication of the resettlement on livelihood dynamics	Before Resettlement	After Resettlement
	Asetenamu nsunsuanso aa nnipatuo no de baa amanfoɔ a wɔtuu wɔn no abrabɔ mu	**Ansana yɛɛtu wɔn afi baabi a wɔte akɔtena baabi foforɔ**	**Wɔkɔtenaa baabi foforɔ a yɛde wɔn kɔtenaa no akyi**
Social Capital / Asetenamu sikasɛm mu			
C.27	I have friends and relatives who help me financially /Me wɔ nnamfonom ne abusuafoɔ a wɔboa me wɔ sikasɛm mu		
C.28	I still leave closer to my relatives / Me guso te bɛn m'abusuafoɔ		
C.29	I have access to my ancestral shrines and lesser gods / Me ne m'abosom ne m'asomfo fie wɔ nkotahodie na metumi kɔ asɔnuyɛso		
C.30	I get financial assistance from the local community / Me mpotamufoɔ boa me wɔ sikasɛm mu		
C.31	I have access to our cemeteries / Me nsa tumi kɔ yɛamusieɛ		

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Section D1: Recommendation / Ɔfa a ɛtɔso nan: Adwenkyerɛ

In your opinion what should be done by the following to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development?

Wo hwɛ a edeɛn na nkurɔfokuo a wɔdidi so yi nyɛ mfa mmoa mafa nte nsunsuansoɔ bɔne a MIDR de tia mpuntuo a ɛkɔso wɔ afoforɔ asetena mu.

i) Government/ Policy maker – Aban /Mmra hyehyɛfoɔ

ii) NGOs and civil society organisations / Nnwuma a aban nsa nni mu, ɛne ankorɛkorɛ nnwumadie

iii) Mining company/

iv) Community leaders / Kuro mu mpanimfoɔ

v) Community members / Kuro mma

Thank you. / Medaase

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APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Dear Participant,

My name is Ms Portia Oware Twerefoo. I am a doctoral student at the University of South Africa (UNISA), Department of Public Administration and Management. To culminate in the award of a PhD degree in Public Administration, I am required to undertake a scientific research. This questionnaire is based on research about the implications of the mining sector resettlement programmes of the Anglogold Ashanti Iduapriem Mine in Ghana on the livelihood dynamics of the Mankessim community.

1. You have been invited to participate in this study because of you were affected by the resettlement programmes of the Anglogold Ashanti Iduapriem Mine.
2. You are kindly requested to answer the interview questions as honestly and completely as possible.
3. The interview will last approximately 40 to 50 minutes.
4. Participation is anonymous: You are not requested to disclose your identity. Your privacy will be respected.
5. No one will be able to connect you to the answers you give.
6. The information collected from you will be treated with strict confidentiality and used for research purposes only.
7. You have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Hence, your participation is regarded as voluntarily.
8. You will not receive any payment or reward, financial or otherwise, and the study will not incur undue costs to you.
9. The survey data will be stored in a locked cupboard and the data stored in a computer will be protected by the use of a password.
10. The survey data will be destroyed when it is no longer of functional value (after five years).
11. An electronic copy of the dissertation will be available in the library of the University of South Africa (Unisa).

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

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Company management and company officials

Section A: Background of Respondent

A.1. Position of respondent: ……

A.2. How long in the position: …….....

Section B: adherence to the legislations and policies on compensation and resettlement.

B1. What policies or legislations guide the formulation of your resettlement planning framework?

B2. To what extent do you think your process comply with or deviate from the existing policy framework?

B3. How is the compensation process undertaken for the affected communities? Which stakeholders are involved and how is the amount determined?

B4. How long does it take to resettle a community? How is it done and which stakeholders are involved?

B5. Are there alternative livelihoods programmes in place? Who determines the type and nature of such Alternative Livelihood Programmes?

Section C: the challenges by AngloGold Ashanti in its Resettlement process.

C1. What were some of key challenges faced in resettling the people?

C2. Briefly explain how the challenges are/were addressed / mitigated by the company?

C3. Mention ways by which the community was informed/ involved in the resettlement process?

C4. What measures were put in place before the resettlement? What provisions were made in terms of infrastructure?

C5. Were the affected individuals compensated? How was the compensation done?

Section D Mining resettlement programmes and the Sustainable Development

D1. How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?

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Section E: Recommendations

E1. In your opinion what should be done by

a. Government/ Policy makers

b. NGOs and Civil Society organisations

c. Mining firms

d. Community members to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development.

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APPENDIX H: COVID-19 PROTOCOL DOCUMENT

Research title:
Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies: A case in Ghana

All Unisa COVID-19 prevention and control guidelines and relevant legislation in Ghana will be adhered to, to ensure the researcher remains safe during data collection.

The researcher will follow the *Unisa guidelines to planning, preparing for, and conducting interviews* at the AngloGold Ashanti (Iduapriem) mine.

The study will require company officials who are directly involved in the mining resettlement and compensation processes to participate in individual interviews of roughly 40 to 50 minutes.

The following measures will be taken to minimise potential risks:

- The researcher will maintain physical distancing greater than 1.5m.
- The respondents will be screened by doing temperature checks.
- The researcher will wear personal protective equipment, like masks, shields and use disposable gloves to mitigate transmission risks.
- The researcher will wash and disinfect her hands as often as needed.
- Any unhealthy situations will immediately be reported to the supervisor and the faculty Research Ethics Review Committee

Researcher: Ms Portia Oware Twerefoo

Email address: 67126669@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Date: 21 February 2022

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APPENDIX I: CONFIRMATION OF TRANSLATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

11-22-2021

Dear Sir/Madam,

To Whom It May Concern: Confirmation of Translation

This is to certify that the translation of the questionnaire for the research '**The Implementation of Mining Resettlement Policies**' from English to Akan was done by Dr. Michael Obiri-Yeboah, an Assistant Teaching Professor at Georgetown University. Dr. Obiri-Yeboah is a native speaker linguist who is communicatively competent in the speaking, reading and writing of Akan and Gua, two Ghanaian languages. For further information or clarifications on this translation, you can contact me on the following email address: michael.obiriyeboah@georgetown.edu

Sincerely,

Michael Obiri-Yeboah, PhD
Assistant Teaching Professor
Department of Linguistics
Georgetown University
United States.

APPENDIX J: THIRD PARTY AGREEMENT WITH TRANSCRIBER

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA RESEARCH ETHICS 3rd Party Confidentiality Agreement

(Transcriber, Co-coder, Statistician and/or Fieldworkers)

A. INSTRUCTIONS

Please read through the entirety of this form carefully before signing.

After completing the required fields, please sign the form. After this form has been signed by the transcriber, co-coder, statistician or fieldworker, it should be given to the principal researcher for submission to the relevant UNISA Research Ethics Committee.

The transcriber, co-coder, statistician and/or fieldworker should keep a copy of the *Confidentiality Agreement* for their records.

B. CONFIDENTIALITY OF A RESEARCH STUDY

Confidentiality is the treatment and maintenance of information that an individual has disclosed in a relationship of trust and with the expectation that it will not be divulged to others in ways that are inconsistent with the understanding of the original disclosure (the informed consent documentation) without permission. Confidential information relating to human participants in a research study may include, but is not limited to the personal information listed below:

a) information relating to the race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, national, ethnic or social origin, color, sexual orientation, age, physical or mental health, well-being, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth of the person;
b) information relating to the education or the medical, financial, criminal or employment history of the person;
c) any identifying number, symbol, e-mail address, physical address, telephone number, location information, online identifier or other assignment to the person;
d) the biometric information of the person;
e) the personal opinions, views or preferences of the person;
f) correspondence sent by the person that is implicitly or explicitly of a private or confidential nature or further correspondence that would reveal the contents of the original correspondence;
g) the views or opinions of another individual about the person; and
h) the name of the person if it appears with other personal information relating to the person or if the disclosure of the name itself would reveal information about the person.

Form adapted from the confidentiality agreement developed by the University of St Thomas IRB, retrieved from https://www.stthomas.edu

As a third party you will have access to research information (e.g. audio or video recordings, DVDs/CDs, transcripts, data, etc.) that include confidential information. Participants have revealed information to the researcher(s) since they have been assured by the researcher(s) that every effort will be made to maintain their privacy throughout the study. That is why it is of the upmost importance to maintain confidentiality when conducting your duties as a transcriber, statistician, co-coder and/or fieldworker during the research study. *Below is a list of expectations you will be required to adhere to in your role as a third party in this study. Review these expectations carefully before signing this form.*

C. THIRD PARTY EXPECTATIONS

To maintain confidentiality, I agree to:

1. Keep all research information that I collect or that is shared with me confidential by not discussing or sharing this information verbally or in any format with anyone other than the principal researcher of this study;

2. Ensure the security of research information (e.g. audio or video recordings, DVDs/CDs, transcripts, data, etc.) while it is in my possession. This includes:
   - Keeping all data and/or transcript documents and digitized interviews on a password protected computer with password-protected files;
   - Closing any programs and documents when temporarily away from the computer;
   - Keeping any printed transcripts or data in a secure location such as a locked file cabinet;
   - Permanently deleting any digital communication containing the data.

3. Not make copies of research information (e.g. audio or video recordings, DVDs/CDs, transcripts, data, etc.) unless specifically instructed to do so by the principal researcher;

4. Give all research information (e.g. audio or video recordings, DVDs/CDs, transcripts, data, etc.) and research participant information, back to the principal researcher upon completion of my duties as a transcriber;

5. After discussing it with the principal researcher, erase or destroy all research information (e.g. audio or video recordings, DVDs/CDs, transcripts, data, etc.) that cannot be returned to the principal researcher upon completion of my duties in this study.

Name of 3rd party involved in research activities: Mr. Alexander Amoateng

Research activity responsible for (transcribing interviews, co-coding of data, statistical analysis, collecting data, etc.): Data Collecting and transcribing

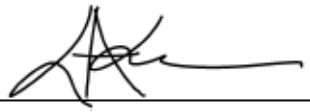
Title of Research Study: Implementation of Mining Resettlement Programmes: Cases in Ghana

Name of Principal Researcher: Portia Oware Twerefoo

By signing this form, I acknowledge that I have reviewed, understand, and agree to adhere to the expectations described above. I agree to maintain confidentiality while performing my duties as acquired

Form adapted from the confidentiality agreement developed by the University of St Thomas IRB, retrieved from https://www.stthomas.edu

by the principal researcher. I recognise that failure to comply with these expectations may result in legal action.



Signature of 3rd party

Date 09/02/2022

Alexander Amoateng

Print Name

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APPENDIX K: FRAMEWORK FOR DATA GATHERING.

Sections in Questionnaire	Survey questionnaires Affected persons	Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
B: Expectations of the inhabitants before and after the resettlement process	B1. At what point did the company inform you about the resettlement plans? B2. How were you informed of the plans? B2a.What were you expecting from the mining firm before the resettlement? B2b. What were you offered by the mining company? Please indicate. B3a.Were the affected individuals compensated? B3b.If your answer is yes, how was the compensation done? B4a. Did the company provide you with any Alternative Livelihood Programme? B4b. If your answer is yes, what are these ALPs? Please list. B5. Who was involved in the planning of these Alternative Livelihood Programmes?	**Objective 2**: To examine the extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana. **Objective 4**: To analyse the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme.	To what extent do government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana? What were the expectations of the community before and after the resettlement programme?	Section 1.2 (background and rationale for conducting the study) Section 1.6 (preliminary Literature Review) Section 1.7 (legislated framework) Section 2.2.2 (Policy Implementation) Section 2.5 (institutional and organisational arrangement in Policy Implementation) Section 4.2.1 The 1992 constitutional of Ghana Section 4.2.2 minerals and mining policy of Ghana 2014 Section 4.2.3 The minerals and mining (compensation

Sections in Questionnaire	Survey questionnaires Affected persons	Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
				and resettlement) regulation 2012 (LI 2175)
C: Implications of the resettlement programmes on the livelihood dynamics of project affected persons:	**Please tick (x) where appropriate** **Livelihood resources** / **Before Resettle-ment** / **After resettle-ment** Economic/ financial capital Natural Capital Physical/ Infrastructural capital Human Capital Social Capital	**Objective 5**: To establish the implications of the resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members. **Objective 6**: To assess the implications of mining resettlement and compensation policies on the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12.	What are the implications of the resettlement programme on the livelihood dynamics of the community members? How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?	Section 1.2 (Background and rational for conducting the study) Section 1.6 (Preliminary Literature Review) Section 1.6.1.4 (livelihood and sustainable livelihood) Section 1.6.1.5 (Livelihood resources) Section 3.3.1 (Concept of sustainable livelihood) Section 3.3.2. (Livelihood assets and resources) Section 3.5 (Sustainable Development goals) Section 3.5.1 (SDG 8 – Decent work and economic growth)

Sections in Questionnaire	Survey questionnaires Affected persons	Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
				Section 3.5.2 (SDG 12 – Responsible consumption and production) Section 3.6.1 (Sustainable Livelihood Framework) Section 3.6.2 (Impoverishment risk and reconstruction model) Section 4.5 (Conceptual framework)
D: Recommendation	D1. In your opinion what should be done by the following to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development. Government/ Policy maker NGOs and civil society organisations Mining company Community leaders Community members	**Objective 7**: To make recommendations to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development.	Which recommendations can be made to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development?	Section 1.2 (Background and rational for conducting study) Section 2.2.1 (Theoretical premises of Public Administration) Section 2.3 (Public Policy) Section 2.4.4. (Policy Implementation) Section 2.5 (Institutional and organisational

Sections in Questionnaire	Survey questionnaires Affected persons	Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
				arrangement in Policy Implementation) Section 3.5 (Sustainable Development goals) Section 3.5.1 (SDG 8 – Decent work and economic growth) Section 3.5.2 (SDG 12 – Responsible consumption and production)

Sections in interview schedule	Interview questions		Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
	Mining officials	Community leaders			
B: Adherence to the legislations and policies on compensation and resettlement by AngloGold Ashanti	B1. What policies or legislations guide the formulation of your resettlement planning framework? B2. To what extent do you think your process comply with or deviate from the	B1. Please are you aware of the legislations that govern compensation and resettlement in Ghana? B2. At what did the company inform you	**Objective 2**: To examine the extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana. **Objective 6**: To assess the implications of mining	To what extent do government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana? How can mining resettlement and	Section 1.2 (Background and rationale for conducting the study) Section 1.6 (Preliminary Literature Review) Section 1.7 (Legislated framework)

Sections in interview schedule	Interview questions		Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
	Mining officials	Community leaders			
	existing policy framework? B3. How long does it take to resettle a community? How is it done and which stakeholders are involved? B4. Are there alternative livelihoods programmes in place? Who determines the type and nature of such Alternative Livelihood Programmes?	about the resettlement plans? B3. How were you informed of the plans? B4. What were you expecting from the mining firm before the resettlement? B5. What were you offered by the mining company? Please indicate. B6. Were the affected individuals compensated? How was the compensation done? B7. Did the company provide you with any Alternative Livelihood Programme? What	resettlement and compensation policies on the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12.	compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?	Section 2.2.2 (Policy Implementation) Section 2.5 (Institutional and organisational arrangement in Policy Implementation) Section 4.2.1 (The 1992 constitutional of Ghana) Section 4.2.2 (Minerals and mining policy of Ghana 2014) Section 4.2.3 (The minerals and mining (compensation and resettlement) regulation 2012 (LI 2175)) Section 3.5 (Sustainable Development goals) Section 3.5.1 (SDG 8 – Decent work and economic growth)

Sections in interview schedule	Interview questions		Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
	Mining officials	Community leaders			
		are these ALPs? Please list. B8. Who was involved in the planning of these Alternative Livelihood Programmes?			Section 3.5.2 (SDG 12 – Responsible consumption and production)
C: The challenges by the company in its Resettlement process	C1. What were some of key challenges faced in resettling the people? C2. Briefly explain how the challenges are/were addressed / mitigated by the company? C3. Mention ways by which the community was informed/ involved in the resettlement process? C4. What measures were put in place	C1. What were some of the concerns you had about the resettlement? C2. How were your concerns addressed? C3. Which role did you play in the negation process? C4. Were the affected persons compensated?	**Objective 2**: To examine the extent to which government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana.	To what extent do government policies impact on the mining resettlement and compensation policies in Ghana?	Section 1.2 (Background and rationale for conducting the study) Section 1.6 (Preliminary Literature Review) Section 1.7 (Legislated framework) Section 2.2.2 (Policy Implementation) Section 2.5 (Institutional and organisational arrangement in Policy Implementation)

Sections in interview schedule	Interview questions		Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
	Mining officials	**Community leaders**			
	before the resettlement? C5. What provisions were made in terms of infrastructure? C6. Were the affected individuals compensated? How was the compensation done?	C5. Did the company make any provision for infrastructure prior to the resettlement?			Section 4.2.1 (The 1992 constitutional of Ghana) Section 4.2.2 (Minerals and mining policy of Ghana 2014) Section 4.2.3 (The minerals and mining (compensation and resettlement) regulation 2012 (LI 2175)) Section 4.5 (Conceptual framework)
Section D: Mining resettlement programmes and the Sustainable Development	How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?		**Objective 6:** To assess the implications of mining resettlement and compensation policies on the achievement of SDGs 8 and 12.	How can mining resettlement and compensation programmes contribute towards the attainment of SDGs 8 and 12?	Section 3.5 (Sustainable Development goals) Section 3.5.1 (SDG 8 – Decent work and economic growth) Section 3.5.2 (SDG 12 – Responsible consumption and production)

Sections in interview schedule	Interview questions		Research aim/objectives	Research question	Section in Literature Review
	Mining officials	**Community leaders**			
Section E: Recommendation	11. In your opinion what should be done by the following to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development. • Government/ Policy maker • NGOs and civil society organisations • Mining company • Community leaders • Community members	D1. In your opinion what should be done by the following to help mitigate the adverse effect of MIDR towards Sustainable Development? • Government/ Policy maker • NGOs and civil society organisations • Mining company • Community leaders • Community members	**Objective 7**: To make recommendations to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development.	Which recommendations can be made to mitigate the adverse effect of mining induced resettlement towards Sustainable Development?	Section 1.2 (Background and rational for conducting study) Section 2.2.1 (Theoretical premises of Public Administration) Section 2.3 (Public Policy) Section 2.4.4. (Policy Implementation) Section 2.5 (Institutional and organisational arrangement in Policy Implementation) Section 3.5 (Sustainable Development goals) Section 3.5.1 (SDG 8 – Decent work and economic growth) Section 3.5.2 (SDG 12 – Responsible consumption and production)