UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMITMENT OF COCOA FARMERS IN THE OBUASI MUNICIPALITY TO THE COCOA INDUSTRY

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BY

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DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name: Alfred Boakye Acheampong		
Signature:	Date:	

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Name: Dr. Francis Eric Amuquandon				
Signature:	Date:			

ABSTRACT

The study examines the extent of commitment of cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality. The data for the study were obtained from cocoa farmers in the Obuasi municipality through a survey in the month of December, 2009.

The methodology covers the study area, study design, population, the sample and sampling procedures, sources of data collection, research instruments, pilot testing, field work, challenges to be encountered, and data analysis procedure.

The study revealed that cocoa farmers with the highest educational attainment were more committed to their work than their counterpart with low educational attainment. Similarly, cocoa farmers with more working experience as cocoa farmers tend to be more committed to their work. Financial constraints, pests and diseases, insufficient equipment, and bad weather were considered to be the most challenging problems facing farmers. Elements such as prompt payment, payment of bonuses, mass spraying, provision of jute sack, and fertilizers were considered as the major factors that motivate farmers to remain in the cocoa sector. The following recommendations were made by the researcher; COCOBOB should make it a point to ensure that there is a prompt payment of all the bonuses due the cocoa farmers. Also supply of fertilizers and jute sacks by COCOBOD to the farmers would go a long way to boost their morale and commitment level. The government should be proactive in ensuring that these basic needs (portable drinking water, good access roads, health facilities, schools and teachers posted to these communities.) of the cocoa farmers are timely met.

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DEDICATION

To my sons; Babinton Owoahene Acheampong and Clement Osei Tutu Acheampong.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

COCOBOD: Ghana Cocoa Board

CODAPEC: Cocoa Disease and Pest Control

LBC's: Licensed Buying Companies

PNDC: Provisional National Defense Council

PPRC: Producer Price Review Committee

PQCO: Principal Quality Control Officer

QCD: Quality Control Division

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Commitment of workers has been identified as one of the critical success factors of industries, organisations and businesses. It is considered as one of the antecedents causes of efficiency and effectiveness.

Gibson (1997) posits that commitment is a sense of identification, loyalty and involvement expressed by an employee towards the institution or unit of the institution. In this wise, commitment could be poor, good, remarkable or even just credible. Workers commitment, relates to how poorly, averagely, or excellently they express their identification, involvement or loyalty towards their organisations. Educational psychologists, for instance have argued that, for a teacher's commitment to be outstanding it should be exhibited in the students' academic performance. Performance in its context relates to action or achievement considered in relation to how successful it is.

Workers' commitment has been of the major concerns of successive governments in Ghana. Public sector workers have been over the years agitating for more salaries and incentives. According to Ayee (1996), most workers in Ghana are not satisfied with their conditions of service.

One of the major of areas of concern to successive governments in Ghana when it comes to workers' commitment and satisfaction is the cocoa industry.

Cocoa originated from around the headwaters of the Amazon in South America. Its cultivation and value spread in ancient times throughout central and Eastern Amazonian and northwards to Central America

Cocoa beans were used by the Native Americans to prepare a chocolate drink or chocolate and also as a form of currency for trading purposes and payment of tribute to the king. After the conquest of Central America in 1521, Hernan Cortez and his Conquistadores took a small cargo of cocoa beans to Spain in 1528, together with utensils for making the chocolate drink (Ghana Cocoa Board, 2007).

By 1580 the drink had been popularised in the country and consignments of cocoa were regularly shipped to Spain. The popularity of chocolate as a drink spread quickly throughout Europe, reaching Italy in 1606, France in 1615, Germany in 1641 and Great Britain in 1657.

Large-scale cultivation of cocoa was started by the Spanish in the 16th century in Central America. It spread to the British, French and Dutch West Indies (Jamaica, Martinique and Surinarn) in the 17th century and to Brazil in the 18th century. From Brazil it was taken to SÃO Tome and Fernando Po (now part of Equatorial Guinea) in 1840; and from there to other parts of West Africa, notably the Gold Coast (now Ghana), Nigeria and the Ivory Coast.

The available records indicate that Dutch missionaries planted cocoa in the coastal areas of the then Gold Coast as early as 1815, whilst in 1857 Basel missionaries also planted cocoa at Aburi. However, these did not result in the spread of cocoa cultivation until Tetteh Quarshie, a native of Osu, Accra, who had travelled to Fernando Po and worked there as a blacksmith, returned in 1879 with Amelonado cocoa pods and established a farm at Akwapim Mampong in the Eastern Region. Farmers bought pods from his farm to plant and cultivation spread from the Akwapim area to other parts of the Eastern Region (Ghana Cocoa Board, 2007).

In 1886, Sir William Bradford Griffith, the Governor, also arranged for cocoa pods to be brought in from Sao Tome, from which seedlings were raised at Aburi Botanical Garden and distributed to farmers.

In recognition of the contribution of cocoa to the development of Ghana, the government in 1947 established the Ghana Cocoa Board (COCOBOD) as the main government agency responsible for the development of the industry. Currently there are six cocoa growing areas namely Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Eastern, Volta, Central and Western regions.

The International Cocoa Standards require cocoa of merchantable quality to be fermented, thoroughly dried, free from smoky beans, free from abnormal or foreign odour and free from any evidence of adulteration. It must be reasonably free from living insects, broken beans, fragments and pieces must be seasonably uniform in size. Throughout the world the standard against which all cocoa is measured is that of Ghana's cocoa which has high content of theobromine, thus making it the best cocoa for high quality chocolates. Cocoa from Ghana continues to enjoy high premium on the world's commodities markets because of its unsurpassable high quality. The high quality cocoa beans, still continue as the preferred choice of all chocolate and beverage producers of high reputation and distinction. This status has been diligently maintained, over the years, through the effective quality control practices of the Quality Control Division (QCD) of COCOBOD (Ghana Cocoa Board, 2007).

COCOBOD has initiated a national exercise to control the spread of cocoa diseases and pests with the aim of raising yield. The exercise involves spraying of cocoa farms in all the cocoa growing areas against the black pod disease and cocoa pests with approved fungicides and insecticides. National Cocoa Disease and Pest Control (CODAPEC) Committee has been set up to manage the project. The Committee has decentralised the project such that the Local Government structures at the districts are used as conduit for implementation by supervisors at the various cocoa districts.

The determination of cocoa producer prices and other rates and fees by the Producer Price Review Committee (PPRC) continues to be transparent. Producer price policy aims at providing remunerative prices for cocoa farmers. It is the intention of the Government/COCOBOD to increase the farmer's share of the f.o.b. price to 70 percent. However, for the cocoa farmer to be satisfied and

motivated in his work there should be harmony between the price of this product (cocoa) and his labour.

In Ghana cocoa is not the only cash crop. Some of the export commodities (cash crops) apart from cocoa are coffee and sheanut. However, among these three export commodities, cocoa has emerged as the most successful crop that has gain much emphasis in the export arena. Ghana is not the only cocoa producing country in Africa. There are other cocoa producing countries like Cote D'voire, Nigeria, South Africa among a host of them. However, among these countries Ghana's cocoa has gained an international preference above cocoa from the other countries. Some of the factors which has accounted for the success of the cocoa industry in Ghana are; the quality of Ghana's Cocoa Beans; and Good producer prices for cocoa farmers.

Statement of the problem

The introduction of the Best Farmer Award including Best Cocoa Farmer by the government of the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) in 1984 was to revitalise and enrich premium quality cocoa production to meet international market standard, placing emphasis on the commitment of farmers in general and cocoa farmers in particular. The main essence behind this exercise is to motivate farmers toward excellence, professionalism, patriotism, and dedication to the farming profession among farmers in the cocoa sector.

In spite of government efforts to improve cocoa farmers' commitment, these efforts have not strengthened the commitments of cocoa farmers because cocoa production in the country has not reached the desired levels, of attaining and sustaining one million tonnes over the years. There is therefore, the need to assess the commitment of cocoa farmers.

Objectives of the study

The general objective was to assess the extent of commitment of farmers in the cocoa industry in the Obuasi Municipality. The specific objectives were to:

- 1. Examine the extent of commitments of farmers in Obuasi municipality;
- Examine the level of satisfaction among cocoa farmers in Obuasi Municipality;
- Ascertain the level of motivation among cocoa farmers in Obuasi Municipality;
- 4. Identify the challenges facing cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality; and
- 5. Make recommendations for improving the commitments of cocoa farmers.

Research questions

The following research questions assisted in the study:

- 1. To what extent are the cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality committed in the cocoa industry?
- 2. What is the level of satisfaction among cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality?

- 3. What is the level of motivation among cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality?
- 4. What are the challenges facing cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality?

Scope of the study

The study concentrated on the cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality. It examined the level of commitment among cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality. The study identified the various factors that motivate cocoa farmers and also the factors that militate against them. All references of the study were directed to the cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality.

Significance of the study

The study is significant for a number of reasons: The study would make cocoa farmers aware that through commitment and hard work, they could increase their output which would in turn improve their living standard.

The findings would also be relevant to licensed buying companies, COCOBOD, government and other concerned stakeholder on how to improve their dealings with cocoa farmers.

The study would also contribute to knowledge on the practice of cocoa farming. In addition, the study would create the awareness in policy makers to give equal or more attention to issues in the cocoa industry. This, to a large extent, would increase commitment.

Organisation of the study

The study is divided into five main chapters. Chapter One deals with the introduction and background to the study; statement of the problem; research objective; research questions, scope of the study; significance of the study; and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two also comprises a review of related literature on the commitment of employees, personnel job motivation and satisfaction. Chapter Three covered the methodology which comprised the research design; the study area; the research population; sampling procedures; sources of data; research instruments; pilot testing; field work; data analysis and interpretation. Chapter Four focused on the presentation and discussion of findings, whilst Chapter Five centered on summary, conclusions and recommendation.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on employee commitment; job motivation and satisfaction. This literature review focuses on theoretical concepts and empirical materials on employee commitment. It also examines the relationship or linkage between job motivation and satisfaction, their practices and dimensions on one hand and organisational performance on the other hand. Relevant international and local studies are cited as points of reference and support. It finally explores various mechanisms in the form of a framework for measuring or assessing commitment, job motivation and satisfaction.

Employees' commitment

Commitment is a sense of identification, loyalty and involvement expressed by an employee towards the institution or unit of the institution (Gibson, 1997). Mullins (1999) posits that, organisational commitment is an employee's level of identification and involvement in the organisation. Educational psychologists, for instance have argued that, for a teacher's

commitment to be outstanding it should be exhibited in the students' academic performance.

Adebayo (2006) explains that organisational commitment has emerged as a promising area of research within the study of industrial/organisational psychology in recent times. There is an increasing need for identifying factors that predict organisational commitment. One of the factors that has been noted to lead to healthy organisational climate, increased morale, motivation and productivity is organisational commitment.

Many organisations are facing major challenges resulting in restructuring, reengineering and downsizing. The need for factors that predict organisational commitment has become more critical. One of the factors that could lead to healthy organisational climate, increased morale, motivation and productivity is organisational commitment. Organisational commitment has emerged as a promising area of research within the study of industrial/organisational psychology in recent times (Adebayo, 2006).

Organisational commitment, on the part of Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), is a strong belief in an organisation's goal and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of an organisation and a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation. Mowday et al (1982) suggest that employees who exhibit high organisational commitment are happier at their

works, spend less time away from their jobs and are less likely to leave the organisation.

Organisational commitment is seen by Mayer and Allen (1997) as a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organisation with its implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation. Moreover, according to Mullins (1999), organisational commitment is an employee's level of identification and involvement in the organisation.

Mathiew and Zajac (1990) posit that organisational commitment is an outcome or work centrality. According to them, it is only after the individual has developed a strong concern for and centrality of his/her work role that he/she is likely to look beyond the immediate job environment to the organisation at large. They believe the people's involvement in their job is antecedent to organisational commitment. It is therefore expected that workers who have high career salience will be highly committed to their job.

Organisational commitment may be affected by emotional intelligence. According to Wiedmer (2006), emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organisational effectiveness. Alarape and Akinlabi (2000) have found that organisational commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision making, organisational support, financial reward, communication, promotion, and leadership style. Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital

status, education level and work experience have been found to be significantly related to organisational commitment (Wiedmer, 2006). Santos and Notland (2006) found that education level and age were not significantly predictors of job satisfaction and organisation involvement.

It is of importance to note that, organisational commitment may be affected by emotional intelligence. Chermiss (2001) reported that emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organisational effectiveness. There is an expectation that employees having high emotional intelligence will also be highly committed to their organisation. He indicated that the absence of workers commitment can negatively affect organisational effectiveness. Committed workers are less likely to quit and accept other appointments. This implied that when there is commitment, cost of high labour turn over is not incurred. In addition, committed workers required less supervision. Moreover, a committed worker perceives value and importance of combing institutional individual goals. A worker who is committed thinks of his goals and the institution's goals in personal terms.

Intrinsic rewards are necessary for developing organisational commitment. Organisations that are able to meet workers needs by providing achievement opportunity and by recorgnising achievement when it occurs have a significant impact. This goes to suggest that employers and managers need to develop intrinsic rewards systems that focus on personal importance or self esteem to combine individual and institutional goals and to design challenging duties.

Reward system is the traditional and the most basic management practice system that organisation and institutions use to entice workers to stay on and render their services (Rebore, 1998). Job satisfaction or rewards, as observed by psychologists, is the motivation factor behind all action including staff retention. This satisfaction or reward might be accommodation money, promotion, recognition, acceptance, self development, or the joy of feeling that results from doing a good job among others.

Satisfied workers have been found to be more committed to organisations, are more conscientious, more likely to help co-workers, have greater willingness to report unethical behaviours, and are less likely to leave their jobs than are dissatisfied workers. Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) further note that job satisfaction has been shown to influence attendance at work, pro-organisational behaviours, voting for or against union representation, decisions to leave the organisation or retire, and psychological withdrawal behaviours.

Rebore (1998) notes that since not all individual employees value the same type of rewards, a reward programme must be flexible enough to meet expectations of individual employees. Rebore thus notes that the main purpose for establishing a rewards policy is to attract and retain qualified employees who will provide the type of service expected by their clients. The policy thus becomes empty if it is not implemented with the objectivity it deserves to win the confidence of the employees.

The most obvious kind of rewards that employers offer to employees are wages and fringe benefits. For a reward system to be effective, it must incorporate both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects. Rewards that employee receive from doing the job itself are called intrinsic rewards. Examples of intrinsic rewards are employees' involvement in decision making, increased responsibility, opportunity for personnel development, interesting work, job and security. Extrinsic rewards on the other hand fall under direct compensation such as basic salary and wages, overtime and holiday pay, and responsibility allowance. Indirect compensation or fringes benefits may include insurance programmes, sick leave, vacation time, and housing, among others. According to Rebore (1998), human resources administrators regard indirect compensation as that which helps to retain employees in an organisation rather them motivate them to work hard.

Job Motivation and Satisfaction

According to Schuler (1998), motivation is the process that energizes and directs an individual's behaviour toward the fulfillment of the individual's needs and values. Individuals are motivated to behave in particular ways based on their perception of the situation – namely, the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards being offered.

Expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Vroom, 1964). In more practical terms, expectancy theory says that an employee

will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when he or she believes that effort will lead to a good performance appraisal; that a good appraisal will lead to organisational rewards like a bonus, a salary increase, or a promotion; and that the rewards will satisfy the employee's personal goals. The theory, therefore, focuses on relationships (Vroom, 1964).

Effort-Performance relationship principally means the probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance. Performance-Reward relationship is the degree to which the individual believes that performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome and Reward-Personal Goals relationships is the degree to which organisational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.

Mitchell (1982) defines motivation as "the degree to which an individual wants and choose to engage in certain specified behaviour". According to Berelson and Steiner (1964), A motivation is an inner state that energises, activates, or moves (hence "motivation"), and that directs or channels behaviour towards goals.

First, motivation deals with internal conditions that are not actually observed and cannot be isolated for physical analysis. Motives such as hunger, security, sex, and recognition cannot be seen. What we do observe is the behaviour that results from the internal motives. Eating, drinking, talking,

operating a machine, or making a sale can be observed; but the motives that lead to these behaviours can only be inferred (Todd & Costley, 1987). Secondly, many of the discussions of motivation involve the construction of models and terms describing processes that have not been observed. Most of the analysis of motivation depends on observing a set of conditions confronting an individual, observing the resulting behaviour, and hypothesising why the behaviour occurred.

Thirdly, the result of motivation is always activity. People respond to internal motives by activities directed toward goals that they believe will produce satisfaction. When the internal motivation is hunger, for example, a person responds by actively seeking food. Fourthly, motivation and behaviour are not the same. Motivation is an important factor in determining behaviour, but there are also other influences such as biological, social, cultural, and organisational factors, perception and so forth (Todd & Costley, 1987). Ivancevich et al. (1983) see motivation as the way drives or needs direct a person's behaviour toward a specific goal. It connects the level of effort one puts forth to pursue the goal.

Motivation is goal oriented, and it works this way firstly, there is tension in the person created by unfulfilled needs. A need indicates a deficiency for example, when one is hungry, one has a need for food. Second, the person starts a search to find a reasonable solution that will satisfy unfulfilled needs. Third, when some of the needs are fulfilled and some of the goals are accomplished, the process begins again.

According to Armstrong and Murlis (1997), motivation theory is concerned with what determines goal-directed behaviour. It is about how behaviour is initiated by needs and by expectations on the achievement of goals which will satisfy those needs. Also, how the achievement of goals and/or feedback on their achievement reinforces successful behaviour, and how belief in one's ability to carry out a specific task will activate behaviour which is expected to achieve the successful performance of that task.

The process of motivation can be initiated by someone recognising an unsatisfied need. A goal is then established which, it is thought, will satisfy the need, and a course of action is determined which is expected to lead towards the attainment of the goal (Michael, 2000).

People can be motivated by rewards and incentives which will enable them to satisfy their needs or will provide them with goals to attain, as long as those goals are worthwhile and attainable. But the needs of individuals and the goals associated with them vary so widely that it is difficult if not impossible to predict precisely how a particular reward or incentive will affect individual behaviour. The social context will also affect the level of motivation. This context will consist of the organisation culture generally, but it also includes management style and the influence of the group or team in which the individual works (Armstrong & Murlis, 1997).

Armstrong and Murlis (1997) have also identified two types of motivation. Motivation at work can take place in two forms. The first one is intrinsic motivation which is derived from the content of the job. It can be described as the process of motivation by the work itself in so far as it satisfies people's needs or at least leads them to expect that their goal will be achieved. Intrinsic motivation is self-generated in that people seek the type of work that satisfies them, but management can enhance this process through its employment, development and job design policies and practices. The factors affecting intrinsic motivation include responsibility (feeling the work is important and having control over one's own resources), freedom to act, scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement.

The second form is extrinsic motivation which is what is done to and for people to motivate them. It arises when management provides such rewards as increased pay, praise, or promotion. When the motivating impact of pay-for-performance schemes is discussed, this is the type of motivation to which people are referring (Armstrong & Murlis, 1997; Michael, 2000).

There are many competing theories which attempt to explain the nature of motivation. These theories help to explain the behaviour of certain people at certain times. Motivation varies over time and according to circumstances. There is no single, generally accepted theory of what motivates people in the work place. However, reviewing several contemporary theories is helpful in understanding the concept. These theories also have important implications for human resource specialists and managers for a significant reason. These theories include, hierarchy of needs, achievement motivation theory, ERG theory of

motivation, motivation – hygiene theory, theory X and theory Y, expectancy theory, reinforcement theory, equity theory, and goal setting theory.

Maslow (1954) has developed a concept of a hierarchy of needs. It has been extensively applied to managerial situations. Needs may be classified into five major groups, namely; physical or physiological needs, safety or security needs, social or belonging needs, esteem or ego needs and self-actualisation or self-realisation needs.

The lowest and most basic level on the needs hierarchy is composed of universal physiological needs. People generally concentrate on meeting physiological needs before concerning themselves with higher-level needs. Physiological needs include the need for food, water, oxygen, temperature control, reproduction and shelter. The second level consists of needs for safety and security. Safety needs relate to protection from physical harm. Individual motivation involves developing protection from a wide variety of threatening events including accidents, injuries, sickness, and a multitude of unknowns. Safety and security needs in the work place involve worker safety and job security factors.

Social needs can be satisfied only by contacts between individuals or individuals and groups. Such needs include affection, affiliation, companionship and belonging. Relationships, both on and off the job, satisfy social needs. If the satisfaction of social needs is hindered, individuals may

become antagonistic, uncooperative, and even aggressive toward the organisation (Todd & Costley, 1987).

Esteem needs relate to individuals achieving the confidence and respect they desire in themselves and want to be accorded by others. An important part of this need set is that an employee's work effort and output must be recognised and appreciated by others. When the need for esteem is strong, the individual will often set difficult goals, work hard to achieve the goals, and receive recognition for these efforts. Accomplishing goals and the recognition that results lead to feeling of self-esteem and confidence (Ivancevich et al, 1983). On-the-job esteem needs are expressed in the desire for promotion, achievement, accomplishment, prestige, and status.

The highest level of needs in Maslow's hierarchy involves the development of full potential. People satisfy needs at this level in many different ways. In addition, self-actualisation is often difficult to identify and analyse.

The work of McClelland (1961) focuses on the need for achievement, affiliation and power. The need for achievement is the need to excel and to strive for accomplishment and success whilst the need for affiliation is the need for social contact, for approval, for mutual support; and the need for power is the need to influence others and situations (to be dominant, to control).

McClelland (1961) concludes that while the need for achievement is the main motivator for those who wish to start and develop their own small business, the need for power is the crucial motivator of top executives in larger, more complex organisations.

Alderfer (1972) presents a modified need hierarchy. This model condenses Maslow's five levels of need into only three levels based on the core needs of existence, relatedness and growth. Existence Needs are concerned with sustaining human existence and survival and cover physiological and safety needs of a material nature. Relatedness Needs are concerned with relationships to the social environment, and cover love or belonging, affiliation, and meaningful interpersonal relationships of a safety or esteem nature. Growth Needs are concerned with the development of potential, and cover self-esteem and self—actualisation.

Like Maslow, Alderfer (1972) suggests that individual's progress through the hierarchy from existence needs, to relatedness, to growth needs, as the lower level needs become satisfied. However, Alderfer (1972) suggests that more than one need may be activated at the same time. Unlike Maslow's theory, the result of Alderfer's work suggests that lower level needs do not have to be satisfied before a higher level need emerges as a motivating influence. The results, however, do not support the idea that lower level needs decrease in strength as they become satisfied.

Herzberg et al. (1959) also developed a theory of motivation based on factors that produce job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Although, controversial,

the motivation-hygiene theory has stimulated a great deal of research focusing on ways of improving performance through a clearer understanding of motivation and satisfaction.

Herzberg (1966) tested this theory in a study of engineers and accountants in several forms. He found out that the key factors in motivation and satisfaction are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. These factors are called motivators. A second group of factors, called hygiene factors, includes: company policies, status, technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with peers and supervisors and working conditions. Herzberg (1966) claims that if these factors are absent, dissatisfaction results. In addition, the research indicates that some factors, such as salary, appear to be associated with both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

McGregor (1960) proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labeled Theory X, and the other basically positive, labeled Theory Y. After viewing the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor (1960) concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on certain assumptions and that he or she tends to mould his or her behaviour towards subordinates according to these assumptions. Under the Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers are firstly, employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it. Secondly, since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals. Thirdly, employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal

direction whether possible; and lastly, most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

In contrast to these negative views about the nature of human beings, McGregor (1960) listed the four positive assumptions that he called Theory Y. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play. Also, people will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objective. Moreover, the average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility; and the ability to work innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

According to McGregor (1960), Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participative decision-making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximize an employee's job motivation.

According to Vroom (1964), Expectancy Theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. In more practical terms, expectancy theory says that an employee will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when he or she believes that effort will lead to a good performance appraisal, that a good appraisal will lead to organisational rewards like a bonus, a salary increase, or a promotion; and

that the rewards will satisfy the employee's personal goals. According to Robbins (1998), expectancy theory helps to explain why a lot of workers are not motivated on their jobs and merely do the minimum necessary to get by.

Reinforcement theorists see behaviour as being environmentally caused. Reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens to a person when he or she takes some action. Because it does not concern itself with what initiates behaviour, it is not, strictly speaking, a theory of motivation. But it does provide a powerful means of analysis of what controls behaviour, and it is for this reason that it is typically considered in discussions of motivation (Steers & Porter, 1979).

Equity theory recognises that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards that they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive. They make judgments as to the relationship between their inputs and outcomes and the inputs and outcomes of others. Based on one's inputs, such as effort, experience, education and competence, one compares outcomes such as salary levels, raises, recognition, and other factors. This tension provides the basis for motivation, as people strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness (Robbins, 1998).

Goal setting is one of the most effective and widely practised theories of motivation in organisations. Goals are the immediate or ultimate objectives that employees are trying to accomplish from their work effort. Goals clarify their role perceptions by establishing performance objectives. Goal setting potentially improves employee performance in two ways: (i) by stretching the intensity and persistence of effort and (ii) by giving employees clearer role perceptions so that their effort is channeled toward behaviours that will improve work performance (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000; Shikdar & Das, 1995; and Wilk & Redmon, 1998).

According to Todd and Costley (1987), the process of motivation begins with internal need creating a state of tension, which results in an individual selecting a goal and striving to achieve it. If the actions are successful and the goal is achieved, the need has been satisfied (or partially satisfied) and the tension is reduced.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

There are numerous theories attempting to explain job satisfaction, but three conceptual frameworks seem to be more prominent in the literature. The first is content theory, which suggests that job satisfaction occurs when one's need for growth and self-actualisation are met by the individual's job (Todd & Costley, 1987). The second conceptual framework is often referred to as process theory, which attempts to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectations and values (Ivancevich, Lyon, & Adams, 1983). The third conceptual group includes situational theories, which proposes that job

satisfaction is a product of how well an individual's personal characteristics interact or mesh with the organisational characteristics.

Each of the three theoretical frameworks has been explored and reviewed by countless scholars and researchers, and the purpose of this chapter is not to provide an exhaustive review of job satisfaction theories. Instead, a highlight of the main theories and theorists from each framework will be offered, to provide clarity, relevance and direction to this study of job satisfaction.

Content Theories

Maslow's (1954) traditionalist views of job satisfaction were based on his five-tier model of human needs. At the lowest tier, basic life sustaining needs such as water, food, and shelter were identified. The next level consisted of physical and financial security, while the third tier included needs of social acceptance, belonging, and love. The fourth tier incorporated self-esteem needs and recognition by one's peers, and at the top of the pyramid was reserved for self-actualization needs such as personal autonomy and self-direction.

According to Maslow, the needs of an individual exist in a logical order and that the basic lower level needs must be satisfied before those at higher levels. Then, once the basic needs are fulfilled, they no longer serve as motivators for the individual. The more a job allows for growth and acquisition of higher level needs, the more likely the individual is to report satisfaction with his or her job. Furthermore, the success of motivating people depends on recognising the needs that are unsatisfied and helping the individual to meet those needs.

Building on the theories of Maslow, Herzberg (1966) suggested that the work itself could serve as a principal source of job satisfaction. His approach led to the aforementioned two-continuum model of job satisfaction where job satisfaction was placed on one continuum and job dissatisfaction was placed on a second. Hertzberg's theory recognized that work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction. He identified the factors that contribute to each dimension as "motivators" and "hygienes". The motivators are intrinsic factors that influence satisfaction based on fulfillment of higher level needs such as achievement, recognition, and opportunity for growth.

The hygiene factors are extrinsic variables that such as work conditions, pay, and interpersonal relationships that must be met to prevent dissatisfaction. When hygiene factors are poor, work will be dissatisfying. However, simply removing the poor hygienes does not equate to satisfaction. Similarly, when people are satisfied with their job, motivators are present, but removing the motivators does not automatically lead to dissatisfaction.

Process Theories

Process theories attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at expectancies and values (Gruneberg, 1979). This theory of job satisfaction suggests that workers' select their behaviors in order to meet their needs. Within this framework, Adams' (1965) and Vroom (1964) have become the most prominent theorists. Adams' suggested that people perceive their job as a series of

inputs and outcomes. Inputs are factors such as experience, ability, and effort, while outcomes include things like salary, recognition, and opportunity.

The theory is based on the premise that job satisfaction is a direct result of individuals' perceptions of how fairly they are treated in comparison to others. This "equity theory" proposes that people seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance. In other words, people feel satisfied at work when the input or contribution to a job and the resulting outcome are commensurate to that of their coworkers.

According to Milkovich and Newman (1990), this social equity is not limited to others within the same workplace, and the equity comparisons often reach into other organisations that are viewed as similar places of employment. Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction was similar in that it looked at the interaction between personal and workplace variables; however, he also incorporated the element of workers' expectations into his theory.

The essence of this theory is that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly. Discrepancies that occur between expected compensation and actual outcome lead to dissatisfaction. If employees receive less than they expect or otherwise feel as if they have been treated unfairly, then dissatisfaction may occur. Conversely, overcompensation may also lead to dissatisfaction and the employee may experience feelings of guilt. The compensation does not have to be monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome. Salary also has significance beyond monetary value and the potential to acquire

material items, and Gruneberg (1979) notes that it is also an indication of personal achievement, organisational status, and recognition.

Situational Theories

The situational theory emerged in 1992, when Quarstein, McAfee and Glassman stated that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Situational characteristics are things such as pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job. The situational occurrences are things that occur after taking a job that may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative.

Positive occurrences might include extra vacation time, while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment or strained co-worker relationships. Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrences.

A review of the literature shows that numerous variables have been investigated in their relationship to job satisfaction. These variables include demographic data for example, age, gender, and race, intrinsic features of the job for example, recognition, advancement, and responsibility, and extrinsic variables for example, salary, supervision, and working conditions.

Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

Research has often focused on age as a factor influencing job satisfaction.

Available literature is somewhat inconclusive with some studies showing no

significant impact (Miller, 1985: Brown, 1998), some showing a gradual linear increase of satisfaction as age increases (Hulin, 1963; Weaver, 1980; Anderson, Hohenshil & Brown, 1984; Sutter, 1994), and some suggesting that satisfaction is curvilinear and changes throughout the lifespan of the employee (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Generally speaking, job satisfaction tends to increase gradually with age (Spector, 1997). Herzberg et al. 1959 attribute this trend to the fact that job expectations tend to become more realistic as employees age and mature. This pattern may change to show a relative decline in satisfaction after age 55 (Jewel, 1990), but this may be linked to the decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that may accompany the aging process.

Still, many studies fail to show this late-career job satisfaction drop-off, and Quinn, Staines, and McCullough (1974) reported that older workers remain satisfied because of promotions and acquiring more desirable positions within organisations. Others justify the findings by noting that people change jobs 6-7 times in a lifetime, and as people get older, they become more aware of their needs and make better choices. This incongruence of literature is likely due to situational job variances, and Zeitz (1990) supported this logic by demonstrating significant differences between satisfaction levels of federal employees based on their positions as elite professionals, non-elite professionals, and non-professionals.

Gender has also received a great deal of attention in job satisfaction studies, but again the research is inconclusive. In 1997, Thompson and

McNamara reviewed all job satisfaction studies published in the Educational Administration Quarterly over the past six years and showed no significant difference between male and female satisfaction levels.

Other studies that have shown no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction levels include Barbash (1976), D'Arcy, Syrotuik, and Siddique (1984). Smith, Smitz, and Hoy, (1998) arrived at similar insignificant findings until they compared the gender of the employee to the gender of the employer. They found that women were significantly more satisfied than men in small companies with female supervision, while males were significantly more satisfied in larger companies with male supervisors. Studies suggesting that gender does affect job satisfaction are available, and data can be found to suggest that either men are more satisfied (Weaver, 1977; Black & Holden, 1998.) or that women are generally more satisfied (Chapman & Lower, 1982, Kramen-Kahn & Hansen, 1998).

The inconsistencies, according to Gruneberg (1979), are closely linked to differences among expectations, respect, promotional prospects, salary, social interactions, and coping strategies of males and females and the jobs they often hold. Others suggest that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women because of unequal treatments in the workplace, and that under equal work conditions, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men.

Race has also been investigated in job satisfaction studies, and once again, data is inconclusive. Brush, Moch, and Pooyan (1987) found no significant racial differences when comparing fifteen job satisfaction studies; however, Weaver

(1980) reports that non-whites are consistently less satisfied than Caucasian employees. Some researchers agree that a racial difference does exist, but that whites are more satisfied with their jobs primarily because of unequal treatment in the workplace. Regardless of the specific demographic variable, be it age, gender, or race, Landy and Trumbo (1980) suggest that job satisfaction variances may exist, but they are very small (2-5 percent). Weaver (1977) agrees, and goes on to say that any differences that do exist, seem to disappear when factors such as education, salary, and status are controlled.

Many researchers have identified salary as a fundamental variable in the study of job satisfaction (Derlin & Schnieder, 1994; Solly & Hohenshil, 1986). Furthermore, the relationship between salary and job satisfaction has been addressed by virtually all job satisfaction studies in the last 80 years. Although the earliest research suggested that salary was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935; Herzberg et al 1959), later studies began to suggest that salary was a factor up to a certain point in an employee's career (Herzberg, 1966). By the 1970's, salary was being viewed as a more significant factor in job satisfaction, and in studies such as the one conducted by Dyer and Theriault (1976) salary was found to be the most significant factor in determining job satisfaction. Other researchers of the 1970's also spoke to the significant relationship between salary and satisfaction, but they argued that although low salary was a cause of dissatisfaction, high salary was not necessarily related to satisfaction (Lawler, 1971).

More recent studies have generally shown a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985), but the relationship seems to be linked more to perceptions of equity and fairness than actual dollar amount. Social comparison appears to be a key factor when looking at the relationship between satisfaction and salary, but employee expectations are also fundamental. According to Adams (1965), employees must feel that there is an equitable balance between the amount of work performed and the compensation received. In other words, if a worker feels that the compensation is either too large or too small for the amount of work performed, dissatisfaction may occur.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methodology covers the study area, study design, population, the sample and sampling procedures it also deals with sources of data collection, research instruments, pilot testing, field work, challenges to be encountered, and data analysis procedure.

The study area

Obuasi Municipal Assembly is in the Ashanti region of Ghana, about 80km south of Kumasi. It is one of the administrative municipalities in the country. The capital of the municipality is Obuasi. The area is made up of both urban and rural dwellers.

The people are involved in so many economic activities but the main economic activity is farming, petty trading. The major crops grown in the District are cocoa, maize, plantain, cocoa, citrus and vegetables (garden eggs and pepper). Non-traditional crop such as cashew and pineapple are also grown. The cultivable land area has been estimated to be 94,400 hectares out of which land area under actual cultivation was about 50,200 hectares. The vegetation is semi deciduous.

The abound in timber such as wawa (Triiplochitron scieroxylon), Ofram (Reminalia suprbal), Emire (Terminolic ivorensis) and Mahogany (Khaya sp) etc. Onyina (Ceiba pentandra) is ubiquitious, whilst groves of bamboo are usually found in valley bottoms where moisture stress is minimal. There is a gradual loss of fertility as a result of changes in vegetation.

The soil texture varies from zone to zone within the Assembly. However, characteristically, it is mostly clayey in some parts; sandy in others and loamy in the rest. This has significant implications for the major farming patterns of the District. The main source of fuel wood for household energy is the forest. Under arable cultivation shifting cultivation is widely practiced although the growing population pressures and different land use pattern serve as checks on the sustainability of this form of land rotation. There are about six different land rotations. There are about six different land use patterns in the municipality comprising land under temporary crops, land temporary fallowed land under permanent crop, all other are able land woodland and unused potentially productive land. These land use are continually putting checks on the fallow period inherent in the practice of shifting cultivation (Data from the Municipal Assembly).

Obuasi municipality has a gold mine which is wholly owned by AngloGold Ashanti. AngloGold Ashanti has two mines in Ghana: Obuasi (which comprises both surface and underground operations) and Iduapriem (open-pit). In 2007, Obuasi and Iduapriem had a total attributable production of 527,000oz,

equivalent to approximately 10% of group production. Obuasi gold mine was established in 1897 and has produced more than 30Moz of gold to date.

Study design

The research design employed is the descriptive survey design. Descriptive design determines and reports the way things are. Sarantakos (1993) notes that, the descriptive design involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. Sarantakos (1993) has it that, the descriptive research is concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist, such as determining the nature of prevailing conditions, practices and attitude, opinions that are held, processes that are going on or trends that are developed. This design is suitable for the study because the study only described the situation on the grounds without introducing any mechanism to influence or manipulate the situation.

Study population

The target population for the study were the cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality. It is out of this population that the sample was drawn. These farmers were drawn from all the ten farming communities in the Obuasi municipality. These ten communities included, Yaadome, Betenase, Akoakoo, Adwafo, Mensonso, Agyeikrom, Amoakokrom, Sikaman, Abusa, and Ayeasi.

Sampling procedure and Sample size

The study made use of stratified sampling, and the lottery method of the simple random sample.

Table 1
Sample size by communities

Community/societies	Population of cocoa	Sample size
	farmers	
Yaadome	60	23
Betenase	65	28
Akoakoo	40	18
Adwafo	55	20
Mensonso	43	16
Agyeikrom	46	19
Amoakokrom	52	16
Sikaman	55	20
Abusa	57	22
Ayeasi	37	15
Total	510	197

Source: Akuafo Adamfo Marketing Company, 2009

First, the sampling frame was obtained containing a list of all cocoa farmers in Obuasi municipality who have been in the cocoa industry for over five (5) years.

The sample frame was broken down into ten (10) farming communities because there are ten farming communities in the Obuasi municipality. Then simple random sampling was then used to select or draw sample from each community (stratum) until the desirable size was achieved using a sampling method provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). This was meant to give equal chance to members in the target population. The sample size for the study was 197 drawn from the various communities in the Obuasi Municipality as shown in Table 1.

Sources of data

The study made used of both primary data and secondary data. The primary data were obtained from the respondents through the use of questionnaires. The secondary data were obtained from data compiled on cocoa farmers by Licensed Buying Companies (LBC's), Cocoa Farmers Association, Quality Control Division (QCD), and the internet.

Research instrument

The study was undertaken using questionnaires. It included closed and open-ended items. The schedule was made up of four sections; section A comprised the background of respondents such as age, sex, marital status,

educational qualification, etc. Sections B dealt with cocoa farming issues (commitment of cocoa farmers). Section C also comprised the challenges to the commitment of cocoa farmers and motivational factors whilst section D dealt with issues relating to satisfaction of cocoa farmers, such as assessing farmers' emotional attachment to cocoa farming and the individual desire to remain as cocoa farmer.

Pre - testing

A pilot testing of the instrument was undertaken in New Edubiase in the Ashanti Region. This enabled the researcher to test validity of his research instruments for correction if necessary. The choice of New Edubiase is deemed appropriate as it has so many characteristics in common with Obuasi in the Ashanti Region.

To ensure consistency or reliability in data collection, three research assistants were trained. The research team together, interviewed the chief farmer and administered the interview schedule to some prominent cocoa farmers. After this, the team had a meeting to evaluate the research instruments. The pre-test drew attention to the length of the items, the clarity of language or expression, the sequence of sections and items, and the strategy for ensuring high response rate.

Ambiguous items were corrected. The experience gained from the pre-test helped to overcome the challenges in the field.

Actual field work

The commencement of the fieldwork took place within the second week of December, 2009 after the research assistants had been trained. The research assistants assisted in the collection of the raw data from the field. It lasted for a period of five weeks. During this period, the main researcher and three assistants went to the research areas within Obuasi municipality to administer the questionnaires.

Challenges encountered

It was difficult getting some cocoa farmers to respond to the questionnaires owing to the busy nature of their work. More so some of the questionnaires were lost by the farmers and had to be administered again. Also the rate of collection was slow since some of the farmers delayed the process. Again some farmers demanded money from the researcher before responding to the schedule.

As a way of addressing these challenges, the researcher and his assistants had to follow some of the cocoa farmers to their farms. Finally, it had to be explained to the farmers that, the exercise was solely for academic purpose and that no monetary gains was to be made by the researcher. However, some farmers were given some amount of Ghana cedis after responding to the schedule.

Data processing and analysis

The information gathered in this study was analysed statistically using descriptive statistics. Being a descriptive study, the researcher first of all gave serial and code numbers to each item on the questionnaire for easy identification before scoring them. The responses to the various items were then coded and tabulated, taking cognisance of their serial numbers.

Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze all the research questions. According to Sarantakos (1993) the frequency and percentages tables enable a researcher to gain an overall view of the findings, to identify the trends and to display relationship between parts of the findings. These points were the motivation and the consideration of this researcher in arriving at deciding on the frequency and percentages for this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The chapter dealt with the presentation, analysis and discussion of data. It describes the characteristics of respondents used in the study with particular reference to sex, community, age, educational attainment, and marital status. The chapter further assessed the commitment of cocoa farmers, commitment of farmers across the social groupings with respect to average number of bags of cocoa produced per annum. Others include challenges faced by cocoa farmers, motivational factors, and job satisfaction.

Respondents' characteristics

The characteristics of respondents that were covered in the study were sex, community of respondents, age, educational qualification, marital status, household income per annum, and household size of respondents.

Table 2 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of farmers. The study revealed that only seven (3.6%) of the respondents were either 30 years old or below 30 years of age whilst 97 (49.7%) were between the ages of 31 and 49.

Moreover, 91 (46.7%) were 50 years and above. Most of the farmers fell within the ages of 31

and 49. What this means is that the majority of the respondents are at their prime age which is a strength that can be harness for an effective and efficient farming as far as cocoa farming at the municipality is concerned.

Table 2
Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age		
≤30	7	3.6
31-49	97	49.7
≥50	91	46.7
Sex		
Male	143	72.6
Female	54	27.4
Marital status		
Married	141	71.6
Not married	56	28.4
Educational level		
No education	31	15.7
Basic education	133	67.5
Tertiary education	33	16.8
Income		
<gh 500<="" td="" ¢=""><td>19</td><td>9.6</td></gh>	19	9.6
GH ¢ 500 – 999	61	30.5
GH ¢ 1000 – 1499	54	26.9
GH ¢ 1500 – 1999	35	17.8
≥GH ¢ 2000	28	15.2

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Out of a total of the 197 respondents, 143 (72.6%) were males whiles 54 (27.4%) were females. This is an indication that the cocoa industry at the Obuasi

Municipality is male dominated. The majority (71.6%) of the farmers were married while 56 (28.4%) were single. The distribution of the educational attainment of the respondents were, no formal education (15.7%), basic education (67.5%), and tertiary education (16.8%).

On the issue of household income per annum, the study revealed that, about 9.6 percent of the respondents had an annum income of less than GH¢ 500. Whilst 30.5 percent fell within GH¢ 500 and GH¢ 999. Also 26.9 percent had income per annum between GH¢ 1000 and GH¢ 1499. Also, 17.8 percent fell within the range of GH¢ 1500 and GH¢ 1999, while 15.2 percent were within GH¢ 2000 and above.

Table 3 presents the sex distribution of the respondents by community. It was revealed that only Adwafo had the highest number of female cocoa farmers (12) with Yaadome, Abusa and Sikaman (2 farmers each) being the communities with the least number of female cocoa farmers. This confirms the GSS 2000, that women are underrepresented in many occupations in Ghana.

Table 3
Sex of respondents by community

Sex					
Communities	Male	Female	Total		
Agyeikrom	14	5	19		
Ayeasi	10	5	15		
Yaadome	21	2	23		
Akoako	13	5	18		
Bentenase	19	9	28		
Adwafo	8	12	20		
Sikaman	18	2	20		
Abusa	20	2	22		
Mensoso	10	6	16		
Amoakokrom	10	6	16		
Total	143	54	197		

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

The respondents were asked to indicate their household size and detailed responses are shown in Table 4. The majority (118) of the respondents had a household size of 4 to 6 and only 4 had a household size above 10. It is common fact of nature that when a household size is big, it requires a high income to run it. On the basis of this, the study sought out to find out the house hols sizes of the cocoa farmers and the corresponding income per annum.

Table 4
Household size of respondents

Household size	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 3	22	11.2
4 – 6	118	60.1
7 – 9	53	26.7
10 – 12	2	1.0
13 – 15	1	0.5
16 – 18	1	0.5
Total	197	100

Source: field work, 2009

Those with a household size of one to three, only 4 had income less than GH¢ 500,10 had income between GH¢ 500 and GH¢ 999, 3 had income between GH¢ 1000 and GH¢ 1499; only 3 had income between GH¢ 1500 and GH¢ 1999 and 2 had income between GH¢ 2000 and above. For those who had a household size of four to six, only 11 had income less than GH¢ 500 per annum, 43 had income between GH¢ 500 and GH¢ 999, 32 had income between GH¢ 1000 and GH¢ 1499, 18 had income between GH¢ 1500 and GH¢ 1999. Only 15 had income between GH¢ 2000 and above. Those with household of seven to nine, only 29 had income below GH¢ 1500 and only 25 had income between GH¢ 1500 and above. Those with household size of ten to twelve, only2 had income between GH¢ 1000 and GH¢ 1999. The study also revealed that those with a house size of thirteen to fifteen, only 1 had income per annum between GH¢1500 and GH¢

1999. Finally, those with a household size of sixteen and eighteen only 1 had income less than GH¢ 500. This represents a very bazaar situation. Instead of the income of the household with the highest size to be high it was rather the lowest on the income ladder.

Commitment of Cocoa Farmers

In order to assess the commitment level of cocoa farmers in the study area, farming practices of the cocoa farmers were examined. The issues covered were average output and farm size of cocoa farmers.

The study sought out to find out the number of years they have been working as cocoa farmers. It was revealed that 43 (21.7%) had been working as cocoa farmers between 11 and 15 years. Moreover, out of the total 198 respondent chosen for the study, 146 (74.2%) indicated that they had one cocoa farm. 45 (22.7%) of them had two cocoa farms, whilst four (2.0%) had three cocoa farms. Only two (1.0%) had four cocoa farms. What this means is that majority (74.2%) of the respondents had only one cocoa farm.

The respondents were ask to indicate the size of their cocoa farms and it was revealed that 104 (52.5%) had one to five acres of cocoa farmland as shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Size of cocoa farm

Size (Acre)	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 5	104	52.5%
6 – 10	71	36.0
11 – 15	14	10.5
16 – 20	6	3.0
21 and Above	2	1.0
Total	197	100

Source: Field work, 2009

However, the study further sought to find out the size of cocoa farm and the corresponding household size of the respondents. Detailed information is presented in Table 6.

Moreover, the study revealed that 33 (16.7%) of the respondents had no farm assistants, while 115 (58.1%) had only one farm assistant. About 43 (21.7%) had two farm assistants and only one (0.5%) had four and five farm assistants respectively. Again, 63 (31.8%) had produced an average of one to ten bags of cocoa annually, whilst 86 (43.7%) produced eleven to twenty bags of cocoa per annum. Moreover, 28 (14.0%) produced twenty one to thirty bags of cocoa annually whilst 10 (5.0%) produced thirty one to forty bags of cocoa annually. Only eleven produced above forty bags of cocoa in a year.

Table 6
Size of cocoa farm – size of household distribution

		Size of farm (Acre)					
Size of household	1 – 5	6 – 10	11 – 15	16 – 20	21+	Total	
1 – 3	17	4	1	0	0	22	
4 – 6	72	37	9	1	0	119	
7 – 9	15	26	6	4	2	53	
10 – 12	0	2	0	0	0	2	
13 – 15	0	1	0	0	0	1	
16 – 18	0	1	0	0	0	1	
Total	104	71	16	5	2	198	

Source: Field work, 2009

The study also sought out to find out the number of times their cocoa farms are weeded in a year and it was revealed that out of the 197 respondents 26 (13.6%) weed their farms once a year whilst 118 (59.6%) weed theirs twice a year. 53 (26.8%) weed their trice a year. Furthermore, 44 (22.2%) of the respondents sprayed their farms once a year. Also, 105 (53.0%) sprayed their farm twice a year while 45 (22.8%) sprayed their farms trice a year. Only 4 of the respondents sprayed their farms four times in a year. The study also revealed that

a majority of 124 (62.6%) indicated that they would not increase their farm if they had land while 74 (37.4%) indicated that they would increase their farm if they had land. Also, majority (89.9%) of the respondents indicated that they had other farms apart from the cocoa farm.

The study revealed that the community with the highest output in terms of the number of cocoa bags produced per annum was Bentenase (41). The second most committed community was Yaadome (35). The study revealed that the communities with the lowest commitment were Amoakokrom (16), Ayeasi (15) and Mensoso (16).

On the issue of commitment of cocoa farmers in terms of their sex, the study brought to light that males produced 16.9 bags of cocoa per acre whilst females produced 15.52 bags per acre. T - test results showed no significant difference in the production of cocoa bags across sex as shown in Table 7.

Results show that those aged between 30 and below produced an average of 6.43 bags per acre. Those aged between 39 and 49 produced 13.43 bags per acre whilst those who are 50 years and above produced 21 bags per acre. The ANOVA test showed a significant level of 0.000 which suggest that differences existed in the number of bags produced per acre among the different age groups. The study showed that those between the ages 50 and above were more committed to their cocoa farms than those below 50. Some of the reasons assigned to this development indicate that those who have had longer working experience tended to be more committed to their farms. Also it was indicated that

most of the aged (50 and above) concentrated solely on their cocoa farms as against those in their prime age (below 40) who drifted to towns and cities for greener pastures.

With respect to educational attainment, those with no formal education produced an average of 20.03 bags per acre, those with basic education produced 14.92 bags per acre and those with tertiary education produced 19.94 bags per acre. Again the p- value of 0.021 suggests that differences exist in the number of bags produced by the different levels of educational attainment. The result of the study indicates that those with no formal education together with those with tertiary education tended to be more committed to their cocoa farms as against their counterpart with basic education. Some of the reasons for this as sought by the study show that those with no formal education tended to concentrate on their farms as the main source of income whilst those with tertiary education have had a broader farm management skills and training. Those with basic education rather drift to towns and cities for other sources of income considering farming as a stepping stone to a 'better' source of income.

These educated farmers who are mostly civil and public servants are able to raise funds to maintain and expand the cocoa farms, hence their ability to produce more than their other counterparts with low or no formal education. One interesting revelation was that when the indigenous farmers sell their cocoa farms to the educated ones who are urban dwellers, they are engaged as farm labourers on the very same farm they cultivated themselves.

 $\label{thm:condition} \textbf{Table 7}$ Socio-demographic characteristics by average number of bags produced per acre

Background characteristics	N	Average number of bags produced per acre
Sex		
Male	143	16.958
Female	54	15.518
		P=0.867
Age		
≤30	7	6.429*
31-49	97	13.433*
≥50	91	21.000*
		P=0.000
Educational attainment		
No formal education	31	20.032*
Basic education	133	14.917*
Tertiary education	33	19.939*
		P=0.021

^{*}significance level = ≤ 0.05

Fieldwork, 2009

Challenges facing cocoa farmers in Obuasi Municipality

The study sought out to find out some of the challenges facing cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality. Nine main challenges identified by farmers are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Challenges of cocoa farmers by sex

Challenges	Male		Fer	Female		otal
	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank
Financial constraints	17.74	1	17.40	1	35.14	1
Pests and diseases	17.20	2	17.40	1	34.60	2
Insufficient equipments	15.46	3	15.70	3	31.00	3
Bad weather	13.58	4	14.68	4	28.26	4
Others	9.54	5	13.65	5	23.19	5
Access roads	9.14	6	6.83	6	15.97	6
Inadequate farm Asst.	6.58	7	6.83	6	13.41	7
Illegal mining	5.65	8	2.05	9	7.70	8
Chain saw activities	3.36	9	3.75	8	7.11	9
Bush fire	1.75	10	1.71	10	3.46	10
Total	100		100			

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

The nine (9) challenges mentioned were; financial constraint, pests and diseases, insufficient equipments, bad weather, access road, inadequate farm assistants, illegal mining ('Galamsy'), activities of chain saw operators, and bush

fires. Financial constraint emerged as the leading challenge for both the males and the females cocoa farmers.

According to the farmers accessing credit facilities is very difficult and cumbersome in the Municipality. This confirms what Aryeetey et al (1994) said, that, cocoa farmers in Ghana constitute a greater percentage of the economy of Ghana. There are, however, several constraints to the development of cocoa farms in Ghana, especially, lack of access to resources and financial markets. According to the farmers, the criteria for accessing credit used by most of the credit institutions were not favourable.

Some of the criteria according to the farmers included, specification of the amount required, the period for which the credit facility is needed, explanation of sources from where repayments could be expected. Apart from meeting the above the eligible applicant must fulfill the following conditions; The applicant must have been a customer of the bank for least six months and must obtain either savings or current account. One's honesty, integrity and reputation must be good in the district. Professional competency must be demonstrated through a good record about previous or actual successful management of a farm, a small industry or trading. The applicant's history of debt repayments must be without blame and he must not have any actual overdue on his accounts. He must be of good mental and physical health.

Pests and diseases were ranked second by the males and first by the females as shown in Table 8. Pests and diseases also pose a lot of challenges to

cocoa farmers. According to the farmers pests and diseases destroy their farms. This situation adversely affects the number of bags of cocoa the farmers produce in the Municipality. It was as a result of the menace of pests and diseases that COCOBOD has initiated a national exercise to control the spread of cocoa diseases and pests with the aim of raising yield. The exercise involves spraying of cocoa farms in all the cocoa growing areas against the black pod disease and cocoa pests with approved fungicides and insecticides. The Cocoa Disease and Pest Control (CODAPEC) has been set up to manage the project. The Committee has decentralised the project such that the Local Government structures at the districts are used as conduit for implementation by supervisors at the various cocoa districts (COCOBOD, 2007).

Closely linked to the pests and diseases is the issue of insufficient equipment. Most of the farmers expressed dissatisfaction with the nature of equipments they use on their farms. The equipment, according to the farmers, were not sufficient and where there were, they were not state of the art. Insufficient equipments were ranked third by the male cocoa farmers but second by the female cocoa farmers. The cocoa farmers at the Municipality indicated that the problem of insufficient equipment actually makes it difficult to expand their farms and also combat the menace of pests and diseases.

Moreover, most of the cocoa farmers were dissatisfied with the facilities available for their work whilst others indicated that they do not get adequate advise from extension officers. According to them most of them have little

education on cocoa farming and needed a lot of training from the extension officers. However, this has not been achieved according to the farmers. This according to them affects productivity.

Another challenging factor to the commitment of the cocoa farmers was that most of the farms were owned by city dwellers. Most of the farmers were just mere caretakers. According to the farmers, initially most of the farms belonged to the farmers, especially the women but lack of financial resources compelled most of them to sell to the city dwellers (the rich few). This situation disturbs the farmers immensely.

Motivational factors

The study identified nine (9) factors that motivate cocoa farmers at the Obuasi Municipality. These were, prompt payment, payment of bonuses, mass spraying, provision of jute sacks, fertilizers, scholarships for wards, extension services, credit facilities, and farm implements/equipment.

The respondents were asked to indicate the factors that motivate them as cocoa farmers. Detailed reponses are shown in Table 9. Prompt payment was ranked the highest of the factors that motivate the cocoa farmers by both male and female farmers. Farm implements/equipment were ranked the lowest or least of the factors that motivate cocoa farmers by both male and female farmers.

According to the farmers, there has not been conscious effort by the cocoa buying companies to pay the farmers promptly for their cocoa. According to the farmers, this affects their effort to pay back most of the loans they take. So, they saw prompt payment by the cocoa buying companies as the ultimate factor that would motivate them to work and even improve upon their productivity.

Table 9
Sources of motivation for cocoa farmers

Factors	Frequency	Percentage (%)		
Fertilizers	129	14.4		
Mass spraying	156	17.4		
Credit facilities (loan)	6	0.7		
Farm implement/equipment	6	0.7		
Extension services	26	2.9		
Provision of jute sacks	147	16.4		
Payments of bonuses	157	17.6		
Prompt payment	178	19.9		
Scholarships for wards	74	8.3		
Others	15	1.7		
Total	894	100.0		

^{*}Multiple responses

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Closely linked to the prompt payment is another important motivating factor of payment of bonuses. According to the farmers, most of the bonuses due them do not come on time and this affect their work immensely. These two major factors identified by the farmers as the ultimate factors that would motivate them to work have to do with finance. What this means is that money plays an important role in the motivation of the cocoa farmers.

The third highly ranked factor that would motivate the farmers to work was mass spraying. In the earlier discussion on the commitment of cocoa farmers it was revealed that most of the cocoa farmers do not spray their farms regularly. The reason assigned to this was that most of the cocoa farmers either do not have the technical expertise or lack the equipment for spraying their cocoa farms. Thus mass spraying of cocoa farms was seen by most of the farmers as an important factor that would motivate them to work.

Provision of jute sacks and fertilizers were also seen as an important motivating factor. However, factors which received low patronage as motivating factors were scholarships for wards, extension services and credit facilities. The major reason assigned for these factor was that if the first five factors are achieved the last three factors would be solved.

Satisfaction among cocoa farmer

On a 5-point scale (strongly agreed; agreed; neutral; disagree; and strongly disagree), respondents were requested to rate their satisfaction level on some

given factors. Detailed responses are presented in Table 10.The study revealed that most cocoa farmers (99%) were of the opinion that cocoa farming helps to generate income for the nation building.

However, most of the cocoa farmers perceived their work as not being prestigious. They explained that most people quickly jump into conclusion that cocoa farmers are illiterate and that there is no prestige in the cocoa business. On the issue of income, the most of the cocoa farmers said that they do not generate enough income from their cocoa farms. According to them, this situation seriously affects their commitment to their work.

Moreover, most (92.9%) of the cocoa farmers indicated that there were no fringe benefits and incentives for cocoa farmers. According to the farmers there is no comprehensive insurance for their future.

The study also revealed that the majority (81.8%) of the cocoa farmers wanted to decrease the size of their cocoa farms. The implication here is that if these cocoa farmers are not well motivated most of them would reduce the size of their farms and this would serve as a serious disadvantange to the cocoa industry considering the fact that cocoa is one of the major foreign exchange earning commodities for the country. Most (89.9%) indicated that they would not want their children to work as cocoa farmers. The reason given was that most of the cocoa industry has no future.

Table 10 Factors influencing motivation as perceived by cocoa farmers

	SA	A	N	D	SD
Statements	1	2	3	4	5
I am well respected as a cocoa farmer	25	35	15	80	42
Cocoa farming helps to generate income	162	31	2	2	0
for the nation building					
I obtain enough income from	10	32	5	45	121
my cocoa farming					
There are facilities available for my work	3	5	15	128	46
There is job security for cocoa farming	25	82	48	28	14
There is good working conditions	6	15	91	85	0
for cocoa farming					
I receive adequate advise from	1	22	5	81	88
extension officers					
There are fringe benefits and incentives	1	10	3	65	118
for cocoa farmers					
The government has good policies for cocoa farming	10	43	57	70	16

KEY: 1 = Strongly Agree (SA), 2 = Agree (A), 3 = Neutral (N), 4 = Disagree (D), and 5 = Strongly Disagree (SD)

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

A number of farmers also proposed that the price of cocoa should be increased annually to enable farmers look after their household. It was also revealed that most of the farmers were clamoring for subsidy on farm implements and equipment to enable them to purchase them for effective and efficient farming. Some of the farmers indicated that teachers should be posted to their communities to enhance the education of their children. Again, there should be provision of health facilities at their communities to cater for their health needs.

One major issue which received much response from the farmers was the issue of credit facilities. The challenges of accessing formal credit cannot be overlooked. The hours for formal banking in Ghana are not favourable for them as that is when they are also attending to their businesses.

Farmers also appear to prefer to save or pay their loans in daily or weekly amounts as they earn the money rather than in months as the formal banks require. This confirms views of Aryeetey et al (1994), that there are, however, several constraints to the development of cocoa farms in Ghana, especially, lack of access to resources and financial markets.

Others indicated the need for skilled labour (farm assistants). Some of the farmers saw access to modern technology as also very important thing that would

enhance their work. Moreover, most of the cocoa farmers were of the view that the COCOBOD scholarships should solely go to the children of these cocoa farmers and not the children of non cocoa farmers.

Again on a 5-point scale (strongly agree; agree; neutral; disagree; and strongly disagree), respondents were requested to rate their satisfaction level on some given factors. Detailed responses are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Factors influencing job satisfaction as perceived by cocoa farmers

	SA	A	N	D	SD
Statements	1	2	3	4	5
I want to quit cocoa farming	53	38	26	43	37
I want to decrease the size of my cocoa farm	1	4	30	85	77
I do want my children to work as cocoa farmers	3	10	6	26	152
The cocoa industry has no future	7	16	53	89	32
There is no fulfilment in cocoa farming	64	80	25	23	5

N = 197

KEY: 1 = Strongly Agree (SA), 2 = Agree (A), 3 = Neutral (N), 4 = Disagree (D), and 5 = Strongly Disagree (SD)

Source: Field work, 2009

Favourable responses were accorded to fulfilment in cocoa farming (73.1%). However, unfavourable responses were averred to the desire to quit cocoa farming (40.6%), the desire to decrease the size of cocoa farm (82.2%), the desire to allow their children to work as cocoa farmers (90.7%), and lastly, the cocoa industry has no future.

The respondents were asked to indicate some of the things they think will enhance their work as cocoa farmers and the responses were that; there should be a provision of spraying machines available and assessable for them to be able to combat against pests and diseases. More so, most of the farmers indicated that there should be a comprehensive social security for them to enable them enjoy their old age. Yet, others indicated their need for portable drinking water for their farming communities. Access roads to convey the cocoa from the farms to the buying companies was on the top list of these cocoa farmers. According to them most of the roads to their farms were not assessable.

A number of farmers also proposed that the price of cocoa should be increased annually to enable farmers look after their household. It was also revealed that most of the farmers were clamouring for subsidy on farm implements and equipments to enable them purchase them for effective and efficient farming. Some of the farmers indicated that teachers should be posted to their communities to enhance the education of their children. Again there should provision of health facilities at their communities to cater for their health needs.

One major issue which received much response from the farmers was the issue of credit facilities. The challenges of accessing formal credit cannot be overlooked the hours for formal banking in Ghana are not favourable for them as that is when they are also attending to their businesses. Farmers also appear to prefer to save or pay their loans in daily or weekly amounts as they earn the money rather than in months as the formal banks require. The increase in interest rates as part of the financial sector reform programme does not make bank credit attractive considering the time that the approval and processing of loan applications take. Current interest rates in excess of 30% often approximate or are near to those found in other sources of credit with quicker processing such as moneylenders (Owusu, 1986).

Most studies consider the access problem as a creation of the financial institutions through their lending policies. For instance, Owusu (1986) has indicated that the type of financial institution and its credit policy will determine the access problem. Where credit duration, terms of payment required security and the provision of supplementary services do not fit the needs of target group, potential group, potential borrowers will not apply for credit even where it exists and when they do, they will be denied access.

Accessing credit facilities was seen by the farmers a major problem and this confirms views of Aryeetey et al (1994), that there are, however, several constraints to the development cocoa farms in Ghana, especially, lack of access to resources and financial markets. Others indicated the need for skilled labour (farm

assistants). Whiles others saw access to modern technology as also very important thing that would enhance their work. Moreover, most of the cocoa farmers were of the view that the COCOBOD scholarships should solely go to the children of these cocoa farmers and not the children of non cocoa farmers.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a synopsis of the study comprising the objectives, collection and analysis of data from the field. It also presents the main findings of the study, conclusions derived from the findings and recommendations (suggestions) on how to deal with some of the challenges to the commitment of cocoa farmers.

Summary

The study, which was descriptive and non-interventional, was to find out the extent of commitment of cocoa farmers in the cocoa industry. The study focused on the cocoa farmers in the Obuasi municipality. The population for the study comprised the cocoa farmers in ten communities of the Obuasi Municipality. It was from this population that the sample size of 197 was drawn. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling were the two main sampling techniques employed in drawing the sample from the population. Questionnaire was the main instrument for the data collection.

Data was collected from the field for a period of five weeks. For the analysis, descriptive and analytical methods were used with the aid of the statistical package for service solution.

Main findings

The main findings of this study were:

- The study indicated that Bentenase and Yaadome were the communities
 with the highest level of commitment with regards to the average number
 of bags produced in a year whilst Amoakokrom, Ayeasi, and Mensoso
 were the least committed with respect to the number of bags of cocoa
 produced per acre.
- 2. Farmers aged 31 and above with more working experience as cocoa farmers tend to be more committed to their work with regard to the number of bags of cocoa produced and how they manage their farms (weeding and spraying).
- 3. Farmers with basic education were the least committed to their cocoa farms with regard to the average number of bags of cocoa they produced per acre and the average number of times they weed and spray their farms.
- 4. The four topmost challenges that confront the farmers at the Obuasi Municipality were financial constraints, pests and diseases, insufficient equipments, and bad weather.

5. Prompt payment, payment of bonuses, mass spraying, provision of jute sack, and fertilizers, were the five topmost factors that the cocoa farmers perceived to motivate them to work.

Conclusions

Based on the findings the following conclusions were drawn. That farmers aged 31 and above with more working experience as cocoa farmers were more committed to their work than those farmers who are below 30 years of age with less experience. That there is a difference in the commitment in which communities in the Obuasi Municipality attached to cocoa farming. This is supported by the fact that Bentenase and Yaadome communities produced on the average 38 bags of cocoa per annun per farmer whilst communities such as Amoakokrom, Ayeasi and Mensoso produced an average of 16 bags of cocoa per annun per farmer.

Commitment to cocoa farming increases with education. The study showed that farmers with high educational attainment are more committed to their cocoa farms with regard to the average number of bags of cocoa produced per acre and the average number of times they weed and spray their farms as compare to their counterparts with basic education. Those with tertiary education produced 19.94 bags of cocoa per acre whilst their counterpart with basic education produced 14.92 bags of cocoa per acre.

Cocoa farmers in the Obuasi Municipality were dissatisfied with their status in the society. Farmers perceived that there was no respect in cocoa

farming, and that, there was not enough income in cocoa farming; and the fringe benefits in the cocoa industry were inadequate.

More so, Prompt payment, payment of bonuses, mass spraying, provision of jute sack, and fertilizers were the five major factors that the cocoa farmers perceived to motivate them to work.

That farmers in the Obuasi Municipality are saddled with a number of problems. Evidence from the study shows that challenges such as lack of credit, pests and diseases, insufficient equipment, bad weather, illegal mining (galamsey), bush fires, etc devalue the efforts of cocoa farmers to increase their output.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, it is recommended that:

- 1. Cocoa farmers within communities like Amoakokrom, Ayeasi, and Mensoso should be encouraged to take cocoa farming as a full scale job so as to ensure their uttermost commitment to their farms. Moreover, young cocoa farmers cocoa farmers should be encouraged to take cocoa farming as a profession. Cocoa farmers with less education should be encouraged to upgrade their level of education.
- 2. There should be a general education on the prospects of cocoa farming and all the prestige associated with the profession. This will go a long way to boost the image and respect for cocoa farming as a reputable profession.

- 3. Payment of all the bonuses due the cocoa farmers should be prompt. Also supply of fertilizers and jute sacks to the farmers would go a long way to boost their morale and commitment level.
- 4. Farmers should be assisted to combat with the menace of pests and diseases through the distribution of insecticides and also education on how to control these pests and diseases. Also, farmers should be assisted to purchase some of the state of the arts farming equipments to enhance effective and efficient farming.

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APPENDIX

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COCOA FARMERS

TOPIC: ASSESSING THE EXTENT OF COMMITMENT OF FARMERS IN THE COCOA INDUSTRY IN THE OBUASI MUNICIPALITY

INTRODUCTION

This Interview is part of a study on the "extent of commitment of farmers in the cocoa industry. I will therefore be most grateful if you would take part in the study by responding to the under listed questions. It is purely for academic purposes. Respondents are assured of respect and confidentiality. You are free and entitled to your own opinion.

SECTION A

BIO – DATA

Name of communi	ty
House number	

1.	Sex: (1) male []	(2)	female	[]
2.	Educational qualification			
	(1) No formal Education []		
	(2) Primary []			
	(3) JSS []			
	(4) SSS []			
	(5) Tertiary []			
	(6) Post Graduate []			
3.	Age			
4.	Marital status:			
	(1) Married []			
	(2) (2) Single []			
	(3) (3) Divorced []			
	(4) Widowed []			
5.	Household income per annu	m		
	(1) Less than GH¢ 500	[]	
	(2) GH¢ 500 - GH¢ 999	[]	
	(3) GH¢ 1000 - GH¢ 1499	[]	
	(4) GH¢1500 -GH¢ 1999	[]	
	(5) GH¢ 2000 – Above	Г	1	

6.	Household size	
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SECTION B

COCOA FARMING ISSUES (COMMITMENT OF FARMERS)

7.	How long have you been working as a cocoa farmer?
8.	How many cocoa farms do you have?
9.	What is the size of your cocoa farm? Acres
10.	How many farm assistants do you have?
11.	On the average how many bags of cocoa do you produce in a year?
12.	How many times do you weed your cocoa farm in a year?
13.	How many times do you spray your cocoa farm in a year?
14.	Will you increase your cocoa farm if you had land?
	(1) Yes [] (2) No []
15.	Do you have any other farm apart from cocoa farm?
	(1) Yes [] (2) No []

SECTION C

CHALLENGES TO THE COMMITMENT OF FARMERS

16. What are the factors that affect you	r work? (please tick all that apply)
(1) Financial constraints	[]
(2) Insufficient equipments	[]
(3) Inadequate farm assistants	[]
(4) Pests and diseases	[]
(5) Illegal mining ('Galamsey')	[]
(6) Bush fires	[]
(7) Bad whether (Dry/Excessive rain)	[]
(8) Chain saw activities	[]
(9) Access roads	[]
(10) Others, please specify	

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

17.	What are some of the factors	tha	at motivate ye	ou as far	as cocoa f	armin	g is
(concerned (please tick all that	ap	ply).				
(1)]	Fertilizers	[]				
(2)]	Mass spraying	[]				
(3)	Credit facilities (loan)	[]				
(4)]	Farm implements/equipments	[]				
(5)]	Extension services	[]				
(6)]	Provision of jute sacks	[1				
(7)	Payment of bonuses	[]				
(8)	Prompt payment	[]				
(9)	Scholarships for wards	[]				
(10)	Others, please specify						
	What is your view on the					l by	the
	σ overnment?						

Please indicate the extent of your agreement on a scale 1-5, where

1 = strongly agreed, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree

		VA	A	N	D	VD
	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
19	I am well respected as a cocoa farmer					
20	Cocoa farming helps to generate income for					
	the nation building					

21	I obtain enough income from my cocoa			
	farming			
22	There are facilities available for my work			
23	There is job security for cocoa farming			
24	There is good working conditions for cocoa			
	farming			
25	I receive adequate advise from extension			
	officers			
26	There are fringe benefits and incentives for			
	cocoa farmers			
27	The government has good policies for cocoa			
	farming			

SECTION D

SATISFACTION OF COCOA FARMERS

Please indicate the extent of your agreement on a scale 1-5, where

1 = strongly agreed, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree

		VA	A	N	D	VD
	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
28	I want to quit cocoa farming					
29	I want to decrease the size of my cocoa farm					
30	I do want my children to work as cocoa farmers					
31	The cocoa industry has no future					
32	There is no fulfillment in cocoa farming					

Please indicate 4 things that you think will enhance your work as a cocoa
(1)

(3)
(4)

Please is there anything else you would want to say or share as far as the cocoa
business is concerned?